삼광의료재단
서울특별시 서초구 바우뫼로41길 58 (양재동, 선화빌딩)
검사기관 11365200
Tel. 1661-5117
www.smlab.co.kr

Patient Name: 송호진
Gender: M
Sample ID: N25-183

Primary Tumor Site: lung
Collection Date: 2025.08.19

Sample Cancer Type: Lung Cancer

Table of Contents

Report Highlights

5 Relevant Biomarkers
17 Therapies Available
208 Clinical Trials

Relevant Lung Cancer Findings

Gene	Finding	Gene	Finding
ALK	None detected	NTRK1	None detected
BRAF	None detected	NTRK2	None detected
EGFR	***EGFR exon 19 deletion***	NTRK3	None detected
ERBB2	None detected	RET	None detected
KRAS	None detected	ROS1	None detected
MET	None detected		

Genomic Alteration	Finding
Tumor Mutational Burden	***3.79 Mut/Mb measured***

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IA	*EGFR exon 19 deletion* epidermal growth factor receptor Allele Frequency: 63.66% Locus: chr7:55242469 Transcript: NM_005228.5	**afatinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **amivantamab + lazertinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **bevacizumab† + erlotinib** [2 / I, II+] **dacomitinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **erlotinib** [2 / I, II+] **erlotinib + ramucirumab** [1, 2 / I, II+] **gefitinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **osimertinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **osimertinib + chemotherapy** [1, 2 / I] **amivantamab + chemotherapy** [1, 2 / II+] **BAT1706 + erlotinib** [2] gefitinib + chemotherapy [I] atezolizumab + bevacizumab + chemotherapy [II+]	None*	202

*** Public data sources included in relevant therapies: FDA**[1], NCCN, **EMA**[2], ESMO
*** Public data sources included in prognostic and diagnostic significance:** NCCN, ESMO
† Includes biosimilars/generics
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.

Relevant Biomarkers (continued)

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	*CDK4 amplification* cyclin dependent kinase 4 Locus: chr12:58142242	None*	None*	6
IIC	*TP53 p.(C124Wfs*25) c.371_372insG* tumor protein p53 Allele Frequency: 35.99% Locus: chr17:7579315 Transcript: NM_000546.6	None*	None*	6
IIC	*CDKN2A deletion* cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A Locus: chr9:21968178	None*	None*	3
IIC	*CDKN2B deletion* cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2B Locus: chr9:22005728	None*	None*	1

*** Public data sources included in relevant therapies: FDA**[1], NCCN, **EMA**[2], ESMO
*** Public data sources included in prognostic and diagnostic significance:** NCCN, ESMO
† Includes biosimilars/generics
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.

Alerts informed by public data sources: ⊘ Contraindicated, Resistance, Breakthrough, Fast Track

EGFR exon 19 deletion	**patritumab deruxtecan** [1]

Public data sources included in alerts: FDA[1], NCCN, **EMA**[2], ESMO

Prevalent cancer biomarkers without relevant evidence based on included data sources

*Microsatellite stable, NOTCH4 p.(L13Afs*47) c.36_38delGCTinsC, STAT6 amplification, MAX amplification, Tumor Mutational Burden*

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
EGFR	p.(L747_S752delinsQ)	c.2239_2256delTTAAGAGAAGCAACATCTinsCAA	COSM12403	chr7:55242469	63.66%	NM_005228.5	nonframeshift Block Substitution
TP53	p.(C124Wfs*25)	c.371_372insG	.	chr17:7579315	35.99%	NM_000546.6	frameshift Insertion
NOTCH4	p.(L13Afs*47)	c.36_38delGCTinsC	.	chr6:32191668	99.61%	NM_004557.4	frameshift Block Substitution
ERRFI1	p.(E160Q)	c.478G>C	.	chr1:8074181	14.11%	NM_018948.4	missense
MAP2K4	p.(E273K)	c.817G>A	.	chr17:12028614	34.16%	NM_003010.4	missense
KMT2B	p.(R1846W)	c.5536C>T	.	chr19:36222907	48.85%	NM_014727.3	missense

Variant Details (continued)

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
CDK4	chr12:58142242	5.15	1.63
CDKN2A	chr9:21968178	0	0.55
CDKN2B	chr9:22005728	0	0.56
STAT6	chr12:57490294	4.78	1.55
MAX	chr14:65472833	5	1.6
ARID2	chr12:46123536	4.68	1.54
KMT2D	chr12:49415529	4.45	1.49
ACVR1B	chr12:52345528	4.78	1.55
FANCM	chr14:45605157	5.28	1.65
MLH3	chr14:75483761	5.23	1.64
RAD51	chr15:40990871	4.8	1.56
MGA	chr15:41961065	4.35	1.47
KDM5C	chrX:53221892	3.45	1.98
AMER1	chrX:63409727	3.43	1.97
ZMYM3	chrX:70460753	3.28	1.91
ATRX	chrX:76763769	3.4	1.96
CUL4B	chrX:119660593	3.68	2.07
STAG2	chrX:123156472	3.6	2.04

Biomarker Descriptions

EGFR exon 19 deletion

epidermal growth factor receptor

Background: The EGFR gene encodes the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), a member of the ERBB/human epidermal growth factor receptor (HER) tyrosine kinase family[7]. In addition to EGFR/ERBB1/HER1, other members of the ERBB/HER family include ERBB2/HER2, ERBB3/HER3, and ERBB4/HER4[63]. EGFR ligand-induced dimerization results in kinase activation and leads to stimulation of oncogenic signaling pathways, including the PI3K/AKT/MTOR and RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK pathways[64]. Activation of these pathways promotes cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival[65,66].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations in the tyrosine kinase domain (TKD) of EGFR are observed in approximately 10-20% of lung adenocarcinoma, and at higher frequencies in never-smoker, female, and Asian populations[4,5,67,68]. The most common mutations occur near the ATP-binding pocket of the TKD and include short in-frame deletions in exon 19 (EGFR exon 19 deletion) and the L858R amino acid substitution in exon 21[69]. These mutations constitutively activate EGFR resulting in downstream signaling, and represent 80% of the EGFR mutations observed in lung cancer[69]. A second group of less prevalent activating mutations includes E709K, G719X, S768I, L861Q, and short in-frame insertion mutations in exon 20[70,71,72,73]. EGFR activating mutations in lung cancer tend to be mutually exclusive to KRAS activating mutations[74]. In contrast, a different set of recurrent activating EGFR mutations in the extracellular domain includes R108K, A289V and G598V and are primarily observed in glioblastoma[69,75]. Amplification of EGFR is observed in several cancer types including 44% of glioblastoma multiforme, 12% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 10% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 8% of brain lower grade glioma, 6% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 5% of bladder urothelial carcinoma cancer, lung adenocarcinoma, and stomach adenocarcinoma, 3% of cholangiocarcinoma, and 2% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, sarcoma, and breast invasive carcinoma[4,5,13,68,75]. Deletion of exons 2-7, encoding the extracellular domain of EGFR (EGFRvIII), results in overexpression of a ligand-independent constitutively active protein and is observed in approximately 30% of

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

glioblastoma[76,77,78]. Alterations in EGFR are rare in pediatric cancers[4,5]. Somatic mutations are observed in 2% of bone cancer and glioma, 1% of leukemia (4 in 354 cases), and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 252 cases), peripheral nervous system cancers (1 in 1158 cases), and embryonal tumors (3 in 332 cases)[4,5]. Amplification of EGFR is observed in 2% of bone cancer and less than 1% of Wilms tumor (1 in 136 cases), B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases), and leukemia (1 in 250 cases)[4,5].

Potential relevance: Approved first-generation EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) include erlotinib[79] (2004) and gefitinib[80] (2015), which block the activation of downstream signaling by reversible interaction with the ATP-binding site. Although initially approved for advanced lung cancer, the discovery that drug sensitivity was associated with exon 19 and exon 21 activating mutations allowed first-generation TKIs to become subsequently approved for front-line therapy in lung cancer tumors containing exon 19 or exon 21 activating mutations[81]. Second-generation TKIs afatinib[82] (2013) and dacomitinib[83] (2018) bind EGFR and other ERBB/HER gene family members irreversibly and were subsequently approved. First- and second-generation TKIs afatinib, dacomitinib, erlotinib, and gefitinib are recommended for the treatment NSCLC harboring EGFR exon 19 insertions, exon 19 deletions, point mutations L861Q, L858R, S768I, and codon 719 mutations, whereas most EGFR exon 20 insertions, except p.A763_Y764insFQEA, confer resistance to the same therapies[84,85,86,87]. However, BDTX-189[88] was granted a fast track designation (2020) for the treatment of solid tumors harboring an EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations. In 2022, the FDA granted breakthrough therapy designation to the irreversible EGFR inhibitors, CLN-081 (TPC-064)[89] and sunvozertinib[90], for locally advanced or metastatic non-small cell lung cancer harboring EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations. In lung cancer containing EGFR exon 19 or 21 activating mutations, treatment with TKIs is eventually associated with the emergence of drug resistance[91]. The primary resistance mutation that emerges following treatment with first-generation TKI is T790M, accounting for 50-60% of resistant cases[69]. Third generation TKIs were developed to maintain sensitivity in the presence of T790M[91]. Osimertinib[92] (2015) is an irreversible inhibitor indicated for metastatic EGFR T790M positive lung cancer and for the first-line treatment of metastatic NSCLC containing EGFR exon 19 deletions or exon 21 L858R mutations. Like first-generation TKIs, treatment with osimertinib is associated with acquired resistance, specifically the C797S mutation, which occurs in 22-44% of cases[91]. The T790M and C797S mutations may be each selected following sequential treatment with a first-generation TKI followed by a third-generation TKI or vice versa[93]. T790M and C797S can occur in either cis or trans allelic orientation[93]. If C797S is observed following progression after treatment with a third-generation TKI in the first-line setting, sensitivity may be retained to first-generation TKIs[93]. If C797S co-occurs in trans with T790M following sequential treatment with first- and third-generation TKIs, patients may exhibit sensitivity to combination first- and third-generation TKIs, but resistance to third-generation TKIs alone[93,94]. However, C797S occurring in cis conformation with T790M, confers resistance to first- and third-generation TKIs[93]. Fourth-generation TKIs are in development to overcome acquired resistance mutations after osimertinib treatment, including BDTX-1535[95] (2024), a CNS-penetrating small molecule inhibitor, that received fast track designation from the FDA for the treatment of patients with EGFR C797S-positive NSCLC who have disease progression on or after a third-generation EGFR TKI. EGFR-targeting antibodies including cetuximab (2004), panitumumab (2006), and necitumumab (2016) are under investigation in combination with EGFR-targeting TKIs for efficacy against EGFR mutations[96]. The bispecific antibody, amivantamab[97] (2021), targeting EGFR and MET was approved for NSCLC tumors harboring EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations. A small molecule kinase inhibitor, lazertinib[98] (2024), was approved in combination with amivantamab as a first-line treatment for adult patients with locally advanced or metastatic NSCLC with EGFR exon 19 deletions or exon 21 L858R mutations. In 2024, a CNS penetrating small molecule, ERAS-801[99] received fast track designation for the treatment of adult patients with EGFR altered glioblastoma. HLX-42[100], an anti-EFGR-antibody-drug conjugate (ADC) consisting of an anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody conjugated with a novel high potency DNA topoisomerase I (topo I) inhibitor, also received fast track designation (2024) for the treatment of patients with advanced or metastatic EGFR-mutated non-small cell lung cancer whose disease has progressed on a third-generation EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor. CPO301[101] (2023) received a fast track designation from the FDA for the treatment of EGFR mutations in patients with metastatic NSCLC who are relapsed/refractory or ineligible for EGFR targeting therapy such as 3rd-generation EGFR inhibitors, including osimertinib. The Oncoprex immunogene therapy quaratusugene ozeplasmid[102] (2020), in combination with osimertinib, received fast track designation from the FDA for NSCLC tumors harboring EGFR mutations that progressed on osimertinib alone. Amplification and mutations of EGFR commonly occur in H3-wild type IDH-wild type diffuse pediatric high-grade glioma[103,104,105].

CDK4 amplification

cyclin dependent kinase 4

Background: The CDK4 gene encodes the cyclin-dependent kinase 4 protein, a homologue of CDK6. Both proteins are serine/threonine protein kinases that are involved in the regulation of the G1/S phase transition of the mitotic cell cycle[129,130]. CDK4 kinase is activated by complex formation with D-type cyclins (e.g., CCND1, CCND2, or CCND3), which leads to the phosphorylation of retinoblastoma protein (RB), followed by E2F activation, DNA replication, and cell-cycle progression[131]. Germline mutations in CDK4 are associated with familial melanoma[132,133,134].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations of CDK4 codon K22 and R24 are observed in melanoma (1-2%) and lung cancer (approximately 0.1%). Codons K22 and R24 are necessary for binding and inhibition by p16/CDKN2A[135,136,137]. CDK4 is recurrently amplified in several cancer types, most notably in sarcomas (15-20%), glioma (10-15%), adrenocortical carcinoma (5%), lung adenocarcinoma (5%), and melanoma (3%)[4,5,68,75].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for CDK4 aberrations. Amplification of region 12q14-15, which includes CDK4, is useful as an ancillary diagnostic marker of atypical lipomatous tumor/welldifferentiated liposarcoma (ALT/WDLS)[120]. Small molecule inhibitors targeting CDK4/6 including palbociclib (2015), abemaciclib (2017), and ribociclib (2017), are FDA approved in combination with an aromatase inhibitor or fulvestrant for the treatment of hormone receptor-positive, HER2-negative advanced or metastatic breast cancer.

TP53 p.(C124Wfs*25) c.371_372insG

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 repair[7]. In unstressed cells, TP53 is kept inactive by targeted degradation via MDM2, a substrate recognition factor for ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis[8]. Alterations in TP53 are required for oncogenesis as they result in loss of protein function and gain of transforming potential[9]. 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%)[4,5,12,13,14,15]. 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[4,5]. Invariably, recurrent missense mutations in TP53 inactivate its ability to bind DNA and activate transcription of target genes[16,17,18,19]. Alterations in TP53 are also observed in pediatric cancers[4,5]. 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, 2% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, and less than 1% of peripheral nervous system cancers (5 in 1158 cases)[4,5]. 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)[4,5].

Potential relevance: The small molecule p53 reactivator, PC14586[20] (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, eprenetapopt[21], (2019) and breakthrough designation[22] (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[23,24]. TP53 mutation are a diagnostic marker of SHH-activated, TP53-mutant medulloblastoma[25]. TP53 mutations confer poor prognosis and poor risk in multiple blood cancers including AML, MDS, myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN), and chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), and acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL)[26,27,28,29,30,31]. In mantle cell lymphoma, TP53 mutations are associated with poor prognosis when treated with conventional therapy including hematopoietic cell transplant[32]. 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 system[33].

CDKN2A deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A

Background: CDKN2A encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression[7]. 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)[108]. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb[109,110,111]. CDKN2A encodes two alternative transcript variants, namely p16 and p14ARF, both of which exhibit differential tumor suppressor functions[112]. 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 degradation[7,112,113]. CDKN2A aberrations commonly co-occur with CDKN2B[108]. Loss of CDKN2A/p16 results in downstream inactivation of the Rb and p53 pathways, leading to uncontrolled cell proliferation[114]. Germline mutations of CDKN2A are known to confer a predisposition to melanoma and pancreatic cancer[115,116].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic alterations in CDKN2A often result in loss of function (LOF) which is attributed to copy number loss, truncating, or missense mutations[117]. 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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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 cancers[5]. 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 tumors[5]. 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].

Potential relevance: 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[118,119,120]. Additionally, deletion of CDKN2B is a molecular marker used in staging Grade 4 pediatric IDH-mutant astrocytoma[105]. 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[121,122,123]. Alternatively, CDKN2A expression and Rb inactivation demonstrate resistance to palbociclib in cases of glioblastoma multiforme[124]. 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[125,126,127,128].

CDKN2B deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2B

Background: CDKN2B encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2B, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression[7,108]. CDKN2B, also known as p15/INK4B, belongs to a family of INK4 cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors, which also includes CDKN2A (p16/INK4A), CDKN2C (p18/INK4C), and CDKN2D (p19/INK4D)[108]. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb[109,110,111]. CDKN2B is a tumor suppressor and aberrations in this gene commonly co-occur with CDKN2A[108]. Germline mutations in CDKN2B are linked to pancreatic cancer predisposition and familial renal cell carcinoma[7,138,139].

Alterations and prevalence: CDKN2B copy number loss is a frequently occurring somatic aberration that is observed in 55% of glioblastoma multiforme, 43% of mesothelioma, 35% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 31% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 29% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 28% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 27% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma, 26% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 25% of diffuse large B -cell lymphoma, 16% of lung adenocarcinoma, 15% of sarcoma, 14% of cholangiocarcinoma, 11% of stomach adenocarcinoma and brain lower grade glioma, 5% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, 4% of adrenocortical carcinoma, breast invasive carcinoma, thymoma, and kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma, 3% of kidney renal clear cell carcinoma and ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, and 2% of uterine carcinosarcoma and kidney chromophobe[4,5]. Somatic mutations in CDKN2B are observed in 2% of uterine carcinosarcoma[4,5]. CDKN2B copy number loss is also observed in pediatric cancers, including 64% of childhood T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 37% of pediatric B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 25% of pediatric gliomas, 14% of pediatric bone cancers, 6% of embryonal tumors, and 2% of peripheral nervous system cancers[4,5]. Somatic mutations in CDKN2B are observed in less than 1% of bone cancer (1 in 327 cases)[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for CDKN2B aberrations. Homozygous deletion of CDKN2B is a molecular marker used in staging grade 4 pediatric IDH-mutant astrocytoma[105].

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[41]. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[42,43]. 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[44]. 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[45]. 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)[45]. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS[46,47,48,49,50]. 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[43]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[42,43,47,51].

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[42,43,52,53]. 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[52,53].

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab[54] (2014) and nivolumab[55] (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab[54] is also approved

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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[54]. Dostarlimab[56] (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[48,57]. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab[58] (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[48,59,60]. 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[60]. 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[61,62]. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers[61,62].

NOTCH4 p.(L13Afs*47) c.36_38delGCTinsC

notch 4

Background: The NOTCH4 gene encodes the notch receptor 4 protein, a type 1 transmembrane protein and member of the NOTCH family of genes, which also includes NOTCH1, NOTCH2, and NOTCH3. NOTCH proteins contain multiple epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like repeats in their extracellular domain, which are responsible for ligand binding and homodimerization, thereby promoting NOTCH signaling[34]. Following ligand binding, the NOTCH intracellular domain is released, which activates the transcription of several genes involved in regulation of cell proliferation, differentiation, growth, and metabolism[35,36]. In cancer, depending on the tumor type, aberrations in the NOTCH family can be gain of function or loss of function suggesting both oncogenic and tumor suppressor roles for NOTCH family members[37,38,39,40].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations observed in NOTCH4 are primarily missense or truncating and are found in about 16% of melanoma, 9% of lung adenocarcinoma and uterine cancer, as well as 3-6% of bladder colorectal, squamous lung and stomach cancers[4].

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

STAT6 amplification

signal transducer and activator of transcription 6

Background: The STAT6 gene encodes the signal transducer and activator of transcription 6. STAT6, a transcription factor, is a member of a highly conserved signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) family which also includes STAT1-4, STAT5A, and STAT5B[106]. Inactive STAT transcription factors in the cytoplasm are activated by tyrosine phosphorylation, resulting in STAT dimerization and nuclear translocation[106]. Following translocation to the nucleus, STAT dimers interact with specific enhancers and promote transcriptional initiation of target genes[106]. Specifically, STAT6 activation is facilitated by IL-3 or IL-13 mediated cytokine receptor stimulation resulting in Th2 mediated immune responses, eosinophil recruitment during allergic inflammation, and immunoglobulin class switching to IgE[107]. Abnormal STAT6 activation contributes to oncogenesis by increasing the expression of proteins involved in proliferation, migration, and invasion, supporting an oncogenic role for STAT6[107].

Alterations and prevalence: Amplifications in STAT6 are observed in 3% of sarcoma and 2% of lung adenocarcinoma and cholangiocarcinoma[4,5]. Somatic mutations in STAT6 are observed in 9% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 5% of uterine cancer, and 4% of melanoma[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for STAT6 aberrations.

MAX amplification

MYC associated factor X

Background: The MAX gene encodes the MYC associated factor X protein, a member of the basic helix-loop-helix leucine zipper (bHLHZ) transcription factor family, which also includes MNT and MXD1-4[1]. MAX is ubiquitously expressed as two common isoforms, p21 and p22, each of which have unique DNA binding and biological activities[1]. MAX heterodimerizes with bHLHZ transcription factors including MYC, MAD, MNT, and MGA to form complexes that act on DNA sequences to regulate the transcription of target genes involved in cell growth and proliferation[1,2]. Homozygous alterations involving MAX lead to a protein incapable of dimerization and repressing transcription[3]. Germline mutations in MAX are observed in hereditary pheochromocytoma, a rare neural crest cell tumor[3].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MAX are observed in 4% of uterine cancer, and 1-1.5% of lung adenocarcinoma, colorectal cancer, and clear cell renal cell carcinoma[4,5]. The missense mutation R60Q has been observed to be recurrent in a variety of cancers[4,5,6]. This mutation falls within the bHLH domain and has been observed to alter the DNA binding properties of MAX[6]. Amplifications are observed 2% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma[4,5].

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

Alerts Informed By Public Data Sources

Current FDA Information

Contraindicated Not recommended Resistance Breakthrough Fast Track

FDA information is current as of 2025-05-14. For the most up-to-date information, search www.fda.gov.

EGFR exon 19 deletion

patritumab deruxtecan

Cancer type: Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer

Variant class: EGFR exon 19 deletion or EGFRi sensitizing mutation

Supporting Statement:
The FDA has granted Breakthrough Therapy designation to a potential first-in-class HER3 directed antibody-drug conjugate, patritumab deruxtecan, for metastatic or locally advanced, EGFR-mutant non-small cell lung cancer.

Reference:

https://www.cancernetwork.com/view/fda-grants-breakthrough-therapy-status-to-patritumab-deruxtecan-for-egfr-metastatic-nsclc

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, 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,

Genes Assayed (continued)

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

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, 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 ○ In other cancer type ◑ In this cancer type and other cancer types ✖ No evidence

EGFR exon 19 deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
osimertinib	●	●	●	●	● (III)
afatinib	●	●	●	●	● (II)
dacomitinib	●	●	●	●	● (II)
gefitinib	●	●	●	●	● (II)
erlotinib + ramucirumab	●	●	●	●	✖
amivantamab + carboplatin + pemetrexed	●	●	●	✖	✖
amivantamab + lazertinib	●	●	●	✖	✖
osimertinib + chemotherapy + pemetrexed	●	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab + erlotinib	✖	●	●	●	✖
erlotinib	✖	●	●	●	✖

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

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

EGFR exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
osimertinib + carboplatin + pemetrexed	✖	●	✖	✖	✖
osimertinib + cisplatin + pemetrexed	✖	●	✖	✖	✖
BAT1706 + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Allergan) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Biocon) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Celltrion) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Mabxience) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Pfizer) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Samsung Bioepis) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Stada) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
atezolizumab + bevacizumab + carboplatin + paclitaxel	✖	✖	✖	●	✖
gefitinib + carboplatin + pemetrexed	✖	✖	✖	●	✖
adebrelimab, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
afatinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
befotertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
bevacizumab, almonertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
catequentinib, toripalimab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
gefitinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
gefitinib, endostatin	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
natural product, gefitinib, erlotinib, icotinib hydrochloride, osimertinib, almonertinib, furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
almonertinib, apatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
almonertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
almonertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
almonertinib, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
almonertinib, radiation therapy, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
befotertinib, icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
bevacizumab, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

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

EGFR exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
BL-B01D1	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
BL-B01D1, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
CK-101, gefitinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
datopotamab deruxtecan, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
FHND9041, afatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
furmonertinib, osimertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
gefitinib, afatinib, erlotinib, metformin hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
icotinib hydrochloride, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
icotinib hydrochloride, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
icotinib hydrochloride, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
JMT-101, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
osimertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
osimertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
osimertinib, datopotamab deruxtecan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
sacituzumab tirumotecan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
sacituzumab tirumotecan, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
savolitinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
SH-1028	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
targeted therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
TY-9591, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
SCTB-14, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II/III)
ABSK-043, furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib, adebrelimab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib, chemoradiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib, dacomitinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
amivantamab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

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

EGFR exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
amivantamab, lazertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
atezolizumab, bevacizumab, tiragolumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
befotertinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
bevacizumab, afatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
bevacizumab, furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
cadonilimab, chemotherapy, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
camrelizumab, apatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
capmatinib, osimertinib, ramucirumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
catequentinib, almonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
chemotherapy, atezolizumab, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
dacomitinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor, osimertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
erlotinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
erlotinib, OBI-833	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, chemotherapy, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
gefitinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
gefitinib, icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
gefitinib, thalidomide	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
icotinib hydrochloride, autologous RAK cell	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
icotinib hydrochloride, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
ivonescimab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
lazertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

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

EGFR exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
lazertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
lazertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
lenvatinib, pembrolizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
osimertinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
osimertinib, chemoradiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
osimertinib, dalpiciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
osimertinib, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
PLB-1004, bozitinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
ramucirumab, erlotinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sacituzumab govitecan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sacituzumab tirumotecan, chemotherapy, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sunvozertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sunvozertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sunvozertinib, golidocitinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
tislelizumab, chemotherapy, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
toripalimab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
toripalimab, bevacizumab, Clostridium butyricum, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
toripalimab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
TY-9591, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
zorifertinib, pirotinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
AFM-24_I, atezolizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
almonertinib, icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
benmelstobart, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
BH-30643	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
bozitinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
BPI-361175	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
cetrelimab, amivantamab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
dacomitinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
DAJH-1050766	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

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

EGFR exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
DB-1310, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
dositinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
FWD-1509	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
H-002	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
ifebemtinib, furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
MRTX0902	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
necitumumab, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
quaratusugene ozeplasmid, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
RC-108, furmonertinib, toripalimab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
sotiburafusp alfa, HB-0030	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
sunvozertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
TAS-3351	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
TQ-B3525, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
TRX-221	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
WSD-0922	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
afatinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
almonertinib, midazolam	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
ASKC-202	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
AZD-9592	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
BG-60366	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
BPI-1178, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
catequentinib, gefitinib, metformin hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
DZD-6008	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
genolimzumab, fruquintinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
IBI-318, lenvatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
KQB-198, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
LAVA-1223	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
MRX-2843, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

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

EGFR exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
osimertinib, carotuximab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
osimertinib, Minnelide	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
osimertinib, tegatrabetan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
patritumab deruxtecan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
PB-101 (Precision Biotech Taiwan Corp), EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
repotrectinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
VIC-1911, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
WJ13404	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
WTS-004	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
YH-013	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
YL-202	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

CDK4 amplification

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

TP53 p.(C124Wfs*25) c.371_372insG

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
almonertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
osimertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
osimertinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sunvozertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

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

CDKN2A deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
palbociclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
palbociclib, abemaciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
AMG 193	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)

CDKN2B deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
palbociclib, abemaciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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	***35.25%***
BRCA2	***LOH, 13q13.1(32890491-32972932)x2***
CHEK2	***LOH, 22q12.1(29083868-29130729)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 (6.1.1 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. Hurlin et al. The MAX-interacting transcription factor network. Semin. Cancer Biol. 2006 Aug;16(4):265-74. PMID: 16908182
2. Susan. An Overview of the Basic Helix-Loop-Helix Proteins. Genome Biol. 2004;5(6):226. PMID: 15186484
3. Cascón et al. MAX and MYC: a heritable breakup. Cancer Res. 2012 Jul 1;72(13):3119-24. PMID: 22706201
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. Wang et al. MAX is an epigenetic sensor of 5-carboxylcytosine and is altered in multiple myeloma. Nucleic Acids Res. 2017 Mar 17;45(5):2396-2407. PMID: 27903915
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. Peter et al. Comprehensive genomic characterization of squamous cell lung cancers. Nature. 2012 Sep 27;489(7417):519-25. PMID: 22960745
13. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. Nature. 2015 Jan 29;517(7536):576-82. PMID: 25631445
14. 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
15. 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
16. 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
17. 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
18. 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
19. 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
20. 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
21. https://ir.aprea.com//news-releases/news-release-details/aprea-therapeutics-receives-fda-fast-track-designation
22. http://vp280.alertir.com/en/pressreleases/karolinska-development%27s-portfolio-company-aprea-therapeutics-receives-fda-breakthrough-therapy-designation-1769167
23. 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
24. Zhao et al. Molecularly targeted therapies for p53-mutant cancers. Cell. Mol. Life Sci. 2017 Nov;74(22):4171-4187. PMID: 28643165
25. 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
26. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Acute Myeloid Leukemia [Version 2.2025]
27. Döhner et al. Diagnosis and management of AML in adults: 2022 recommendations from an international expert panel on behalf of the ELN. Blood. 2022 Sep 22;140(12):1345-1377. PMID: 35797463
28. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Myelodysplastic Syndromes [Version 2.2025]
29. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Myeloproliferative Neoplasms [Version 1.2025]
30. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia/Small Lymphocytic Lymphoma [Version 3.2025]

References (continued)

31. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia [Version 3.2024]
32. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-B-Cell Lymphomas [Version 2.2025]
33. Bernard et al. Implications of TP53 allelic state for genome stability, clinical presentation and outcomes in myelodysplastic syndromes. Nat. Med. 2020 Aug 3. PMID: 32747829
34. Sakamoto et al. Distinct roles of EGF repeats for the Notch signaling system. Exp. Cell Res. 2005 Jan 15;302(2):281-91. PMID: 15561108
35. Bray. Notch signalling in context. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. 2016 Nov;17(11):722-735. PMID: 27507209
36. Kopan et al. The canonical Notch signaling pathway: unfolding the activation mechanism. Cell. 2009 Apr 17;137(2):216-33. PMID: 19379690
37. Lobry et al. Oncogenic and tumor suppressor functions of Notch in cancer: it's NOTCH what you think. J. Exp. Med. 2011 Sep 26;208(10):1931-5. PMID: 21948802
38. Goriki et al. Unravelling disparate roles of NOTCH in bladder cancer. Nat Rev Urol. 2018 Jun;15(6):345-357. PMID: 29643502
39. Wang et al. Loss-of-function mutations in Notch receptors in cutaneous and lung squamous cell carcinoma. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 2011 Oct 25;108(43):17761-6. PMID: 22006338
40. Xiu et al. The role of oncogenic Notch2 signaling in cancer: a novel therapeutic target. Am J Cancer Res. 2019;9(5):837-854. PMID: 31218097
41. Lander et al. Initial sequencing and analysis of the human genome. Nature. 2001 Feb 15;409(6822):860-921. PMID: 11237011
42. 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
43. Nojadeh et al. Microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. EXCLI J. 2018;17:159-168. PMID: 29743854
44. 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
45. 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
46. 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
47. Imai et al. Carcinogenesis and microsatellite instability: the interrelationship between genetics and epigenetics. Carcinogenesis. 2008 Apr;29(4):673-80. PMID: 17942460
48. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Colon Cancer [Version 3.2025]
49. Pawlik et al. Colorectal carcinogenesis: MSI-H versus MSI-L. Dis. Markers. 2004;20(4-5):199-206. PMID: 15528785
50. 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
51. 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
52. 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
53. Bonneville et al. Landscape of Microsatellite Instability Across 39 Cancer Types. JCO Precis Oncol. 2017;2017. PMID: 29850653
54. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125514s174lbl.pdf
55. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125554s129lbl.pdf
56. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/761174s009lbl.pdf
57. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Rectal Cancer [Version 2.2025]
58. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125377s133lbl.pdf
59. 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
60. 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
61. Hermel et al. The Emerging Role of Checkpoint Inhibition in Microsatellite Stable Colorectal Cancer. J Pers Med. 2019 Jan 16;9(1). PMID: 30654522

References (continued)

62. Ciardiello et al. Immunotherapy of colorectal cancer: Challenges for therapeutic efficacy. Cancer Treat. Rev. 2019 Jun;76:22-32. PMID: 31079031
63. King et al. Amplification of a novel v-erbB-related gene in a human mammary carcinoma. Science. 1985 Sep 6;229(4717):974-6. PMID: 2992089
64. Liu et al. EGFR-TKIs resistance via EGFR-independent signaling pathways. Mol Cancer. 2018 Feb 19;17(1):53. PMID: 29455669
65. Zhixiang. ErbB Receptors and Cancer. Methods Mol. Biol. 2017;1652:3-35. PMID: 28791631
66. Gutierrez et al. HER2: biology, detection, and clinical implications. Arch. Pathol. Lab. Med. 2011 Jan;135(1):55-62. PMID: 21204711
67. Pines et al. Oncogenic mutant forms of EGFR: lessons in signal transduction and targets for cancer therapy. FEBS Lett. 2010 Jun 18;584(12):2699-706. PMID: 20388509
68. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Comprehensive molecular profiling of lung adenocarcinoma. Nature. 2014 Jul 31;511(7511):543-50. doi: 10.1038/nature13385. Epub 2014 Jul 9. PMID: 25079552
69. da et al. EGFR mutations and lung cancer. Annu Rev Pathol. 2011;6:49-69. doi: 10.1146/annurev-pathol-011110-130206. PMID: 20887192
70. Arcila et al. EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations in lung adenocarcinomas: prevalence, molecular heterogeneity, and clinicopathologic characteristics. Mol. Cancer Ther. 2013 Feb;12(2):220-9. PMID: 23371856
71. Kobayashi et al. EGFR Exon 18 Mutations in Lung Cancer: Molecular Predictors of Augmented Sensitivity to Afatinib or Neratinib as Compared with First- or Third-Generation TKIs. Clin Cancer Res. 2015 Dec 1;21(23):5305-13. doi: 10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-15-1046. Epub 2015 Jul 23. PMID: 26206867
72. Yasuda et al. Structural, biochemical, and clinical characterization of epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) exon 20 insertion mutations in lung cancer. Sci Transl Med. 2013 Dec 18;5(216):216ra177. PMID: 24353160
73. Chiu et al. Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor Tyrosine Kinase Inhibitor Treatment Response in Advanced Lung Adenocarcinomas with G719X/L861Q/S768I Mutations. J Thorac Oncol. 2015 May;10(5):793-9. PMID: 25668120
74. Karachaliou et al. KRAS mutations in lung cancer. Clin Lung Cancer. 2013 May;14(3):205-14. PMID: 23122493
75. Brennan et al. The somatic genomic landscape of glioblastoma. Cell. 2013 Oct 10;155(2):462-77. PMID: 24120142
76. Mitsudomi et al. Epidermal growth factor receptor in relation to tumor development: EGFR gene and cancer. FEBS J. 2010 Jan;277(2):301-8. PMID: 19922469
77. Gazdar. Activating and resistance mutations of EGFR in non-small-cell lung cancer: role in clinical response to EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors. Oncogene. 2009 Aug;28 Suppl 1:S24-31. PMID: 19680293
78. Gan et al. The EGFRvIII variant in glioblastoma multiforme. J Clin Neurosci. 2009 Jun;16(6):748-54. PMID: 19324552
79. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2016/021743s025lbl.pdf
80. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2021/206995s004lbl.pdf
81. Riely et al. Clinical course of patients with non-small cell lung cancer and epidermal growth factor receptor exon 19 and exon 21 mutations treated with gefitinib or erlotinib. Clin Cancer Res. 2006 Feb 1;12(3 Pt 1):839-44. PMID: 16467097
82. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2022/201292s017lbl.pdf
83. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2020/211288s003lbl.pdf
84. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer [Version 3.2025]
85. Naidoo et al. Epidermal growth factor receptor exon 20 insertions in advanced lung adenocarcinomas: Clinical outcomes and response to erlotinib. Cancer. 2015 Sep 15;121(18):3212-3220. PMID: 26096453
86. Vyse et al. Targeting EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations in non-small cell lung cancer. Signal Transduct Target Ther. 2019;4:5. PMID: 30854234
87. Yi et al. A comparison of epidermal growth factor receptor mutation testing methods in different tissue types in non-small cell lung cancer. Int J Mol Med. 2014 Aug;34(2):464-74. PMID: 24891042
88. https://investors.blackdiamondtherapeutics.com/news-releases/news-release-details/black-diamond-therapeutics-granted-fast-track-designation-fda
89. https://investors.cullinanoncology.com/news-releases/news-release-details/fda-grants-breakthrough-therapy-designation-cullinan-oncologys
90. https://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/fda-grants-breakthrough-therapy-designation-for-dizal-pharmaceuticals-dzd9008-in-patients-with-locally-advanced-or-metastatic-non-small-cell-lung-cancer-harboring-egfr-exon20-insertion-301469692.html
91. Madic et al. EGFR C797S, EGFR T790M and EGFR sensitizing mutations in non-small cell lung cancer revealed by six-color crystal digital PCR. Oncotarget. 2018 Dec 21;9(100):37393-37406. PMID: 30647840

References (continued)

92. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/208065s033lbl.pdf
93. Niederst et al. The Allelic Context of the C797S Mutation Acquired upon Treatment with Third-Generation EGFR Inhibitors Impacts Sensitivity to Subsequent Treatment Strategies. Clin. Cancer Res. 2015 Sep 1;21(17):3924-33. PMID: 25964297
94. Wang et al. Lung Adenocarcinoma Harboring EGFR T790M and In Trans C797S Responds to Combination Therapy of First- and Third-Generation EGFR TKIs and Shifts Allelic Configuration at Resistance. J Thorac Oncol. 2017 Nov;12(11):1723-1727. PMID: 28662863
95. https://investors.blackdiamondtherapeutics.com//news-releases/news-release-details/black-diamond-therapeutics-announces-corporate-update-and
96. Ciardiello et al. The role of anti-EGFR therapies in EGFR-TKI-resistant advanced non-small cell lung cancer. Cancer Treat Rev. 2024 Jan;122:102664. PMID: 38064878
97. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/761210s007lbl.pdf
98. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/219008s000lbledt.pdf
99. https://investors.erasca.com//news-releases/news-release-details/erasca-granted-fda-fast-track-designation-cns-penetrant-egfr
100. https://iis.aastocks.com/20231227/11015917-0.PDF
101. http://iis.aastocks.com/20230612/10770455-0.PDF
102. https://www.genprex.com/news/genprex-receives-u-s-fda-fast-track-designation-for-gene-therapy-that-targets-lung-cancer/
103. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Pediatric Central Nervous System Cancers [Version 2.2025]
104. 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
105. 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
106. Kamran et al. Role of STAT3 in cancer metastasis and translational advances. Biomed Res Int. 2013;2013:421821. PMID: 24199193
107. Delgado-Ramirez et al. Signal transducer and activator of transcription 6 as a target in colon cancer therapy. Oncol Lett. 2020 Jul;20(1):455-464. PMID: 32565970
108. 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
109. 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
110. Roussel. The INK4 family of cell cycle inhibitors in cancer. Oncogene. 1999 Sep 20;18(38):5311-7. PMID: 10498883
111. 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
112. Hill et al. The genetics of melanoma: recent advances. Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet. 2013;14:257-79. PMID: 23875803
113. Kim et al. The regulation of INK4/ARF in cancer and aging. Cell. 2006 Oct 20;127(2):265-75. PMID: 17055429
114. Sekulic et al. Malignant melanoma in the 21st century: the emerging molecular landscape. Mayo Clin. Proc. 2008 Jul;83(7):825-46. PMID: 18613999
115. Orlow et al. CDKN2A germline mutations in individuals with cutaneous malignant melanoma. J. Invest. Dermatol. 2007 May;127(5):1234-43. PMID: 17218939
116. Bartsch et al. CDKN2A germline mutations in familial pancreatic cancer. Ann. Surg. 2002 Dec;236(6):730-7. PMID: 12454511
117. Adib et al. CDKN2A Alterations and Response to Immunotherapy in Solid Tumors. Clin Cancer Res. 2021 Jul 15;27(14):4025-4035. PMID: 34074656
118. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Mesothelioma: Peritoneal [Version 2.2025]
119. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Mesothelioma: Pleural [Version 2.2025]
120. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Soft Tissue Sarcoma [Version 5.2024]
121. 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
122. 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

References (continued)

123. 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
124. 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
125. 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
126. 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
127. 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
128. 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
129. Malumbres et al. Cell cycle, CDKs and cancer: a changing paradigm. Nat. Rev. Cancer. 2009 Mar;9(3):153-66. PMID: 19238148
130. Sherr et al. Targeting CDK4 and CDK6: From Discovery to Therapy. Cancer Discov. 2016 Apr;6(4):353-67. PMID: 26658964
131. Weinberg. The retinoblastoma protein and cell cycle control. Cell. 1995 May 5;81(3):323-30. PMID: 7736585
132. Rane et al. Germ line transmission of the Cdk4(R24C) mutation facilitates tumorigenesis and escape from cellular senescence. Mol. Cell. Biol. 2002 Jan;22(2):644-56. PMID: 11756559
133. Zuo et al. Germline mutations in the p16INK4a binding domain of CDK4 in familial melanoma. Nat. Genet. 1996 Jan;12(1):97-9. PMID: 8528263
134. Molven et al. A large Norwegian family with inherited malignant melanoma, multiple atypical nevi, and CDK4 mutation. Genes Chromosomes Cancer. 2005 Sep;44(1):10-8. PMID: 15880589
135. Ceha et al. Several noncontiguous domains of CDK4 are involved in binding to the P16 tumor suppressor protein. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 1998 Aug 19;249(2):550-5. PMID: 9712735
136. Tsao et al. Novel mutations in the p16/CDKN2A binding region of the cyclin-dependent kinase-4 gene. Cancer Res. 1998 Jan 1;58(1):109-13. PMID: 9426066
137. Sotillo et al. Invasive melanoma in Cdk4-targeted mice. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 2001 Nov 6;98(23):13312-7. PMID: 11606789
138. Jafri et al. Germline Mutations in the CDKN2B Tumor Suppressor Gene Predispose to Renal Cell Carcinoma. . Cancer Discov.2015 Jul;5(7):723-9. PMID: 25873077
139. Tu et al. CDKN2B deletion is essential for pancreatic cancer development instead of unmeaningful co-deletion due to juxtaposition to CDKN2A. Oncogene. 2018 Jan 4;37(1):128-138. PMID: 28892048