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Patient Name: 김열예
Gender: F
Sample ID: N25-243

Primary Tumor Site: Lung
Collection Date: 2025.09.23.

Sample Cancer Type: Lung Cancer

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Report Highlights
6 Relevant Biomarkers
17 Therapies Available
200 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	***6.71 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: 29.42% Locus: chr7:55242464 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*	194

*** 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	*CDKN2A deletion* cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A Locus: chr9:21968178	None*	None*	3
IIC	*AXL amplification* AXL receptor tyrosine kinase Locus: chr19:41725295	None*	None*	2
IIC	*PTEN deletion* phosphatase and tensin homolog Locus: chr10:89623659	None*	None*	2
IIC	*STK11 deletion* serine/threonine kinase 11 Locus: chr19:1206847	None*	None*	1
IIC	*TSC2 deletion* tuberous sclerosis 2 Locus: chr16:2098579	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

DPYD p.(M166V) c.496A>G, MAP2K7 deletion, MLH1 c.791-1G>C, Microsatellite stable, PARP3 deletion, POLD1 deletion, POLE deletion, SETD2 p.(Q2332) c.6994C>T, TNFRSF14 deletion, EPHA2 deletion, MPL amplification, RASA2 deletion, RECQL4 deletion, NOTCH1 deletion, STAT6 amplification, Tumor Mutational Burden*

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
EGFR	p.(E746_A750del)	c.2235_2249delGGAATTAAGAGAAGC	COSM6223	chr7:55242464	29.42%	NM_005228.5	nonframeshift Deletion
DPYD	p.(M166V)	c.496A>G	.	chr1:98165091	74.60%	NM_000110.4	missense
MLH1	p.(?)	c.791-1G>C	COSM6966564	chr3:37058996	9.74%	NM_000249.4	unknown
SETD2	p.(Q2332*)	c.6994C>T	.	chr3:47088081	40.32%	NM_014159.7	nonsense
OR2T3	p.(Q9E)	c.25C>G	.	chr1:248636676	12.11%	NM_001005495.1	missense
CNTNAP5	p.(N1081K)	c.3243C>A	.	chr2:125622911	5.23%	NM_130773.4	missense
FAT1	p.(S2639C)	c.7916C>G	.	chr4:187539824	2.85%	NM_005245.4	missense
KMT2C	p.(L4412F)	c.13236G>C	.	chr7:151845776	11.22%	NM_170606.3	missense

Variant Details (continued)

DNA Sequence Variants (continued)

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
FGFR1	p.(Q711H)	c.2133G>C	.	chr8:38272085	4.30%	NM_001174067.1	missense
CUL4A	p.(?)	c.1333+3G>A	.	chr13:113898831	3.02%	NM_001008895.4	unknown
COG1	p.(N392G)	c.1174_1175delAAinsGG	.	chr17:71196808	5.88%	NM_018714.3	missense
AMER1	p.(S47F)	c.140C>T	.	chrX:63413027	15.35%	NM_152424.4	missense
ATRX	p.(G2458V)	c.7373G>T	.	chrX:76763935	40.60%	NM_000489.6	missense

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
CDKN2A	chr9:21968178	0	0.41
AXL	chr19:41725295	6.42	2.1
PTEN	chr10:89623659	0.16	0.54
STK11	chr19:1206847	0	0.39
TSC2	chr16:2098579	0	0.47
MAP2K7	chr19:7968792	0	0.36
PARP3	chr3:51976651	0.22	0.56
POLD1	chr19:50902079	0.2	0.55
POLE	chr12:133201214	0.74	0.69
TNFRSF14	chr1:2488070	0	0.42
EPHA2	chr1:16451707	0.48	0.62
MPL	chr1:43803495	6.52	2.13
RASA2	chr3:141205964	0.72	0.68
RECQL4	chr8:145736758	0	0.45
NOTCH1	chr9:139390441	0	0.45
STAT6	chr12:57490294	5.84	1.96
JAK1	chr1:65300225	5.4	1.85
FGFR3	chr4:1801456	0	0.44
HRAS	chr11:532637	0	0.37
CD276	chr15:73991923	0.1	0.52

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[1]. In addition to EGFR/ERBB1/HER1, other members of the ERBB/HER family include ERBB2/HER2, ERBB3/HER3, and ERBB4/HER4[168]. 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[169]. Activation of these pathways promotes cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival[170,171].

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[4,5,10,172]. 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[173]. These mutations constitutively activate EGFR resulting in downstream signaling, and represent 80% of the EGFR mutations observed in lung cancer[173]. A second group of less prevalent activating mutations includes E709K, G719X, S768I, L861Q, and short in-frame insertion mutations in exon 20[174,175,176,177]. EGFR activating mutations in lung cancer tend to be mutually exclusive to KRAS activating mutations[178]. 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[173,179]. 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[4,5,10,179,180]. 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 glioblastoma[181,182,183]. 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[184] (2004) and gefitinib[185] (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[186]. Second-generation TKIs afatinib[187] (2013) and dacomitinib[188] (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[189,190,191,192]. However, BDTX-189[193] 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)[194] and sunvozertinib[195], 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[196]. The primary resistance mutation that emerges following treatment with first-generation TKI is T790M, accounting for 50-60% of resistant cases[173]. Third generation TKIs were developed to maintain sensitivity in the presence of T790M[196]. Osimertinib[197] (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[196]. 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[198]. T790M and C797S can occur in either cis or trans allelic orientation[198]. 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[198]. 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[198,199]. However, C797S occurring in cis conformation with T790M, confers resistance to first- and third-generation TKIs[198]. Fourth-generation TKIs are in development to overcome acquired resistance mutations after osimertinib treatment, including BDTX-1535[200] (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[201]. The bispecific antibody, amivantamab[202] (2021), targeting EGFR and MET was approved for NSCLC tumors harboring EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations. A small molecule kinase inhibitor, lazertinib[203] (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[204] received fast track designation for the treatment of adult patients with EGFR altered glioblastoma. HLX-42[205], 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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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[206] (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[207] (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[89,131,208].

CDKN2A deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A

Background: CDKN2A encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression[1]. 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)[76]. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb[77,78,79]. CDKN2A encodes two alternative transcript variants, namely p16 and p14ARF, both of which exhibit differential tumor suppressor functions[80]. 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[1,80,81]. CDKN2A aberrations commonly co-occur with CDKN2B[76]. Loss of CDKN2A/p16 results in downstream inactivation of the Rb and p53 pathways, leading to uncontrolled cell proliferation[82]. Germline mutations of CDKN2A are known to confer a predisposition to melanoma and pancreatic cancer[83,84].

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[85]. 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 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[86,87,88]. Additionally, deletion of CDKN2B is a molecular marker used in staging Grade 4 pediatric IDH-mutant astrocytoma[89]. 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[90,91,92]. Alternatively, CDKN2A expression and Rb inactivation demonstrate resistance to palbociclib in cases of glioblastoma multiforme[93]. 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[94,95,96,97].

AXL amplification

AXL receptor tyrosine kinase

Background: The AXL gene encodes the AXL receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK), a member of the TYRO3/AXL/MERTK (TAM) RTK subfamily. AXL is activated by binding to the growth arrest specific protein 6 (GAS6) ligand as part of the AXL/Gas6 pathway which regulates endothelial cell survival and angiogenesis[15,16]. AXL activates downstream signaling of the RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK, PI3K/AKT/mTOR, NF-kB, and JAK/STAT pathways thereby promoting tumor cell proliferation, migration, and invasion[15,17,18,19].

Alterations and prevalence: Mutations in AXL are found in 8% of uterine cancer and melanoma, and 4-6% of stomach cancer[4,5,20,21]. Amplification of AXL is found to occur in up to 9% of uterine cancer, 4% of bladder cancer, and 3% of ovarian cancer[4,22]. Upregulation due to overexpression is observed in a variety of tumor types, although overexpression is not correlated with genomic alterations such as amplifications or mutations[15].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for AXL aberrations, although cabozantinib (2012), an FDA approved multi-targeted tyrosine kinase inhibitor, includes AXL as a target. AXL overexpression confers poor prognosis and poor survival in

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

various cancers including glioblastoma multiforme, mesothelioma, breast, pancreatic, renal cell, and esophageal cancers[23,24,25,26,27,28]. Importantly, upregulation of AXL is an alternative acquired resistance mechanism that confers resistance to EGFR targeted therapies including erlotinib and cetuximab in non-small cell lung cancer[29,30]. In a phase I clinical trial, a single patient with AXL amplification demonstrated partial response when treated with the investigational MET/AXL inhibitor glesatinib[31].

PTEN deletion

phosphatase and tensin homolog

Background: The PTEN gene encodes the phosphatase and tensin homolog, a tumor suppressor protein with lipid and protein phosphatase activities[32]. PTEN antagonizes PI3K/AKT signaling by catalyzing the dephosphorylation of phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-trisphosphate (PIP3) to PIP2 at the cell membrane, which inhibits the activation of AKT[33,34]. In addition, PTEN has been proposed to influence RAD51 loading at double strand breaks during homologous recombination repair (HRR) and regulate the G2/M checkpoint by influencing CHEK1 localization through AKT inhibition, thereby regulating HRR efficiency[35]. Germline mutations in PTEN are linked to hamartoma tumor syndromes, including Cowden disease, which are defined by uncontrolled cell growth and benign or malignant tumor formation[36]. PTEN germline mutations are also associated with inherited cancer risk in several cancer types[37].

Alterations and prevalence: PTEN is frequently altered in cancer by inactivating loss-of-function mutations and by gene deletion. PTEN mutations are frequently observed in 50%-60% of uterine cancer[4,5]. Nearly half of somatic mutations in PTEN are stop-gain or frame-shift mutations that result in truncation of the protein reading frame. Recurrent missense or stop-gain mutations at codons R130, R173, and R233 result in loss of phosphatase activity and inhibition of wild-type PTEN[34,38,39,40,41]. PTEN gene deletion is observed in 15% of prostate cancer, 9% of squamous lung cancer, 9% of glioblastoma, and 1-5% of melanoma, sarcoma, and ovarian cancer[4,5].

Potential relevance: Due to the role of PTEN in HRR, poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibitors (PARPi) are being explored as a potential therapeutic strategy in PTEN deficient tumors[42,43]. In 2022, the FDA granted fast track designation to the small molecule inhibitor, pidnarulex[44], for BRCA1/2, PALB2, or other homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) mutations in breast and ovarian cancers. In 2023, the FDA approved the kinase inhibitor, capivasertib[45] in combination with fulvestrant for locally advanced or metastatic hormone receptor (HR)-positive, human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)-negative breast cancer with one or more PIK3CA/AKT1/PTEN-alterations following progression after endocrine treatment.

STK11 deletion

serine/threonine kinase 11

Background: The STK11 gene, also known as liver kinase B1 (LKB1), encodes the serine/threonine kinase 11 protein. STK11 is a tumor suppressor with multiple substrates including AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) that regulates cell metabolism, growth, and tumor suppression[6]. Germline mutations in STK11 are associated with Peutz-Jeghers syndrome, an autosomal dominant disorder, characterized by gastrointestinal polyp formation and elevated risk of neoplastic development[7,8].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in STK11 have been reported in 10% of lung cancer, 4% of cervical cancer, and up to 3% of cholangiocarcinoma and uterine cancer[4,5,9,10]. Mutations in STK11 are found to co-occur with KEAP1 and KRAS mutations in lung cancer[4,5]. Copy number deletion leads to inactivation of STK11 in cervical, ovarian, and lung cancers, among others[4,5,7,10,11].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for STK11 aberrations. However, in 2023, the FDA granted fast track designation to a first-in-class inhibitor of the CoREST complex (Co-repressor of Repressor Element-1 Silencing Transcription), TNG-260[12] in combination with an anti-PD-1 antibody, for advanced non-small cell lung cancer harboring STK11-mutations. The presence of STK11 mutations may be a mechanism of resistance to immunotherapies. Mutations in STK11 are associated with reduced expression of PD-L1, which may contribute to the ineffectiveness of anti-PD-1 immunotherapy in STK11 mutant tumors[13]. In a phase III clinical trial of nivolumab in lung adenocarcinoma, patients with KRAS and STK11 co-mutations demonstrated a worse (0/6) objective response rate (ORR) in comparison to patients with KRAS and TP53 co-mutations (4/7) or KRAS mutations only (2/11) (ORR= 0% vs 57.1% vs 18.25%, respectively)[14].

TSC2 deletion

tuberous sclerosis 2

Background: The TSC2 gene encodes the tuberin protein. TSC2 and TSC1 (also known as hamartin) form a complex through their respective coiled-coil domains[69]. The TSC1-TSC2 complex is a negative regulator of the mTOR signaling pathway that regulates cell growth, cell proliferation, and protein and lipid synthesis[70]. Specifically, the TSC1-TSC2 complex acts as a GTPase activating (GAP) protein that inhibits the G-protein RHEB and keeps it in an inactivated state (RHEB-GDP). GTP bound RHEB (RHEB-GTP) is required to activate the mTOR complex 1 (mTORC1). TSC1 and TSC2 are tumor suppressor genes. Loss of function mutations in TSC1 and TSC2 lead to dysregulation of the mTOR pathway[69,71]. Inactivating germline mutations in TSC1 and TSC2 are associated with tuberous

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

sclerosis complex (TSC), an autosomal dominant neurocutaneous and progressive disorder that presents with multiple benign tumors in different organs[69].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations are observed in up to 8% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 7% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and 4% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for TSC2 aberrations.

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 cancers[3]. 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 exposure[3].

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.

MAP2K7 deletion

mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 7

Background: The MAP2K7 gene encodes the mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 7, also known as MEK7[1]. MAP2K7 is involved in the JNK signaling pathway along with MAP3K4, MAP3K12, MAP2K4, MAPK8, MAPK9, and MAPK10[55,56,57]. Activation of MAPK proteins occurs through a kinase signaling cascade[55,56,58]. Specifically, MAP3Ks are responsible for phosphorylation of MAP2K family members[55,56,58]. Once activated, MAP2Ks are responsible for the phosphorylation of various MAPK proteins whose signaling is involved in several cellular processes including cell proliferation, differentiation, and inflammation[55,56,58].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MAP2K7 are observed in 7% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 2% of skin cutaneous melanoma and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma[4,5]. Biallelic deletions are observed in 4% of uterine carcinosarcoma, 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, and 1% of uveal melanoma[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for MAP2K7 aberrations.

MLH1 c.791-1G>C

mutL homolog 1

Background: The MLH1 gene encodes the mutL homolog 1 protein[1]. MLH1 is a tumor suppressor gene that heterodimerizes with PMS2 to form the MutLα complex, PMS1 to form the MutLβ complex, and MLH3 to form the MutLγ complex[48]. The MutLα complex functions as an endonuclease that is specifically involved in the mismatch repair (MMR) process and mutations in MLH1 result in the inactivation of MutLα and degradation of PMS2[48,114]. Loss of MLH1 protein expression and MLH1 promoter hypermethylation correlates with mutations in these genes and are used to pre-screen colorectal cancer or endometrial hyperplasia[115,116]. MLH1, along with MSH6, MSH2, and PMS2 form the core components of the MMR pathway[48]. The MMR pathway is critical to the repair of mismatch errors which typically occur during DNA replication[48]. Deficiency in MMR (dMMR) is characterized by mutations and loss of expression in these genes[117]. dMMR is associated with microsatellite instability (MSI), which is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[118,119,120]. 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[118,121]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[119,121,122,123]. Specifically, MLH1 mutations are associated with an increased risk of ovarian and pancreatic cancer[124,125,126,127].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MLH1 are observed in 6% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 2-3% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and melanoma[4,5]. Alterations in MLH1 are observed in pediatric cancers[4,5]. Somatic mutations are observed in 1% of bone cancer and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 252 cases), embryonal tumor (2 in 332 cases), and leukemia (2 in 311 cases)[4,5].

Potential relevance: The PARP inhibitor, talazoparib[67] in combination with enzalutamide is approved (2023) for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with mutations in HRR genes that includes MLH1. Additionally, pembrolizumab (2014) is an anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitor that is approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR solid tumors that have progressed on prior therapies[128]. 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[129,130]. MLH1 mutations are consistent with high grade in pediatric diffuse gliomas[131,132].

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[154]. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[119,121]. 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[120]. 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[155]. 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)[155]. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS[122,156,157,158,159]. 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[121]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[119,121,122,123].

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[119,121,160,161]. 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[160,161].

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab[128] (2014) and nivolumab[129] (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab[128] is also approved as a single agent, for the treatment of patients with advanced endometrial carcinoma that is MSI-H or dMMR with disease progression on prior therapy who are not candidates for surgery or radiation. Importantly, pembrolizumab is approved for the treatment of MSI-H or dMMR solid tumors that have progressed following treatment, with no alternative option and is the first anti-PD-1 inhibitor to be approved with a tumor agnostic indication[128]. Dostarlimab[162] (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[157,163]. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab[130] (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[157,164,165]. 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[165]. 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[166,167]. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers[166,167].

PARP3 deletion

poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase family member 3

Background: The PARP3 gene encodes the poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase 3 protein[1]. PARP3 belongs to the large PARP protein family that also includes PARP1, PARP2, and PARP4[59]. PARP enzymes are responsible for the transfer of ADP-ribose, known as poly(ADP-ribosyl)ation or PARylation, to a variety of protein targets resulting in the recruitment of proteins involved in DNA repair, DNA synthesis, nucleic acid metabolism, and regulation of chromatin structure[59,60]. PARP enzymes are involved in several DNA repair pathways[59,60]. Although the functional role of PARP3 is not well understood, PARP3 may serve a role in double-strand break (DSB) repair by facilitating selection for either non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) or homologous recombination repair (HRR)[61,62]. Specifically, PARP3 is proposed to accelerate DSB repair by NHEJ by targeting APLF to chromosomal DSBs[61].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in PARP3 are observed in 4% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and 2% of skin cutaneous melanoma, lung adenocarcinoma, and stomach adenocarcinoma[4,5]. Biallelic deletions in PARP3 are observed in 4% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 3% of kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and sarcoma[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for PARP3 aberrations. However, PARP inhibition is known to induce synthetic lethality in certain cancer types that are HRR deficient (HRD) due to mutations in the HRR pathway. This is achieved from PARP inhibitors (PARPi) by promoting the accumulation of DNA damage in cells with HRD, consequently resulting in cell death[63,64]. Although not indicated for specific alterations in PARP3, several PARPis including olaparib, rucaparib, talazoparib, and niraparib have been approved in various cancer types with HRD. Olaparib[65] (2014) was the first PARPi to be approved by the FDA for BRCA1/2 aberrations. Originally approved for the treatment of germline variants, olaparib is now indicated (2018) for the maintenance treatment of both germline BRCA1/2-mutated (gBRCAm) and somatic BRCA1/2-mutated (sBRCAm) epithelial ovarian, fallopian tube, or primary peritoneal cancers that are responsive to platinum-based chemotherapy. Olaparib is also indicated for the treatment of patients with gBRCAm HER2-negative metastatic breast cancer and metastatic pancreatic adenocarcinoma. Additionally, olaparib[65] is approved (2020) for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with deleterious or suspected deleterious germline or somatic mutations in HRR genes that includes BRCA1. Rucaparib[66] (2016) was the first PARPi approved for the treatment of patients with either gBRCAm or sBRCAm epithelial ovarian, fallopian tube, or primary peritoneal cancers and is also approved (2020) for deleterious gBRCAm or sBRCAm mCRPC. Talazoparib[67] (2018) is indicated for the treatment of gBRCAm HER2-negative locally advanced or metastatic breast cancer. Niraparib[68] (2017) is another PARPi approved for the treatment of epithelial ovarian, fallopian tube, or primary peritoneal cancers with a deleterious or suspected deleterious BRCA mutation.

POLD1 deletion

DNA polymerase delta 1, catalytic subunit

Background: The POLD1 gene encodes the DNA polymerase delta 1, catalytic subunit protein[1]. POLD1 is one of four subunits that make up the DNA polymerase delta (Polδ) enzyme along with POLD2, POLD3, and POLD4[46,47]. Specifically, POLD1 is responsible for the polymerase and 3'-5' exonuclease activity of Polδ in the synthesis of DNA during DNA replication and repair observed in homologous recombination repair (HRR), mismatch repair (MMR), and nucleotide excision repair (NER)[46,47,48,49]. Independent of Polδ, POLD1 associates with γ-tubulin ring complexes to control cytoplasmic microtubule growth[46]. Germline mutations in POLD1 are associated with polymerase proofreading-associated polyposis, which confers predisposition to colorectal adenomas and carcinomas[50,51,52,53,54].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in POLD1 are observed in 8% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 5% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 4% of skin cutaneous melanoma, and 3% of stomach adenocarcinoma[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for POLD1 aberrations.

POLE deletion

DNA polymerase epsilon, catalytic subunit

Background: The POLE gene encodes the DNA polymerase epsilon, catalytic subunit protein[1]. POLE is one of the four-subunits in the DNA polymerase epsilon complex that also includes POLE2, POLE3, and POLE4[133,134]. The DNA polymerase epsilon complex mediates DNA repair, chromosomal replication, and genomic stability[133,134]. Specifically, POLE is the largest subunit in the complex and contains the catalytic and proofreading exonuclease active sites proposed to function in leading strand synthesis during homologous recombination repair (HRR)[134,135]. Mutations in POLE lead to increased mutation rates and subsequent tumor formation thereby impacting genomic stability[134,135]. Somatic POLE mutations are characterized by a hypermutated phenotype due to the increase in single-nucleotide substitutions[136]. Monoallelic POLE variants have also been associated with adenomatous polyposis and may confer an increased risk in colorectal cancer (CRC)[51,52,53,54,137]. Germline mutations in POLE exonuclease domains are associated with a predisposition to polymerase proofreading-associated polyposis[136].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations occur in 15% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 9% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 6% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and bladder urothelial carcinoma, as well as 5% of lung squamous cell carcinoma and lung adenocarcinoma[4,5]. Specifically, mutations in the proofreading domain of POLE occur in 7-12% of endometrial cancer and 1-2% of colorectal cancer[134,136]. POLE mutations are associated with high tumor mutational burden (TMB)[134,136,138].

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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

SETD2 p.(Q2332*) c.6994C>T

SET domain containing 2

Background: The SETD2 gene encodes the SET domain containing 2 histone lysine methyltransferase, a protein responsible for the trimethylation of lysine-36 on histone H3 (H3K36)[105,106]. Methylation of H3K36 is a hallmark of active transcription and can be either mono-, di-, or tri-methylated where di- and tri-methylation are thought to be responsible for transcriptional regulation[107]. Trimethylation of H3K36 by SETD2 promotes post-transcriptional gene silencing and prevents aberrant transcriptional initiation[108,109]. SETD2 trimethylation activity is also observed to be involved in DNA repair through the recruitment of DNA repair machinery[106]. Specifically, H3K36 tri-methylation by SETD2 has been shown to regulate mismatch repair (MMR) in vivo, wherein the loss of SETD2 results in MMR deficiency (dMMR) and consequent microsatellite instability (MSI)[110]. Both copy number deletion and mutations resulting in SETD2 loss of function have been observed in a variety of cancers, suggesting a tumor suppressor role for SETD2[106,111].

Alterations and prevalence: Inactivating somatic mutations in SETD2 were first described in clear cell renal cell carcinoma (ccRCC) and are observed to be predominantly missense or truncating[4,111,112]. Mutations at codon R1625 are observed to be the most recurrent with R1625C having been identified to result in loss of SETD2 H3K36 trimethylase activity[4,105]. SETD2 mutation is observed in about 14% of uterine cancer, 12% of ccRCC, 9% of mesothelioma, and 6-7% of melanoma, lung adenocarcinoma, papillary renal cell carcinoma (pRCC), colorectal and bladder cancers[105]. Biallelic loss of SETD2 is observed in about 6% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, and about 3% of ccRCC and mesothelioma[105].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for SETD2 aberrations. Mutations in SETD2 can be used to support diagnosis of hepatosplenic T-cell lymphoma (HSTCL)[113].

TNFRSF14 deletion

TNF receptor superfamily member 14

Background: The TNFRSF14 gene encodes TNF receptor superfamily member 14[1]. TNFRSF14, also known as HVEM, belongs to the tumor necrosis factor superfamily of cell surface receptors (TNFRSF), which interact with the tumor necrosis factor superfamily (TNFSF) of cytokines[149]. TNFSF-TNFRSF interactions regulate several signaling pathways, including those involved in immune cell differentiation, survival, and death[149]. TNFRSF14 can be stimulated by several ligands, including the TNFSF14 ligand (also known as LIGHT), BTLA, and CD160[149,150]. Following ligand binding to TNFRSF in T-cells, TNFRSF proteins aggregate at the cell membrane and initiate co-signaling cascades which promotes activation, differentiation, and survival[149]. In lymphoma, binding of TNFRSF14 by TNFSF14 has been observed to enhance Fas-induced apoptosis, suggesting a tumor suppressor role[150].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in TNFRSF14 are observed in 5% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), and 2% of skin cutaneous melanoma[4,5]. Biallelic loss of TNFRSF14 occurs in 8% of DLBCL and uveal melanoma, 3% of cholangiocarcinoma, and 2% of adrenocortical carcinoma and liver hepatocellular carcinoma[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for TNFRSF14 aberrations. Somatic mutations in TNFRSF14 are diagnostic for follicular lymphoma[151]. In addition, TNFRSF14 mutations are associated with poor prognosis in follicular lymphoma[152,153].

EPHA2 deletion

EPH receptor A2

Background: The EPHA2 gene encodes the EPH receptor A2[1]. EPHA2 is a member of the erythropoietin-producing hepatocellular carcinoma (Eph) receptors, a group of receptor tyrosine kinases divided into EPHA (EphA1-10) and EPHB (EphB1-6) classes of proteins[72,73]. Like classical tyrosine kinase receptors, Eph activation is initiated by ligand binding resulting downstream signaling involved in various cellular processes including cell growth, differentiation, and apoptosis[73]. Specifically, Eph-EphrinA ligand interaction regulates pathways critical for malignant transformation and key downstream target proteins including PI3K, SRC, Rho and Rac1 GTPases, MAPK, and integrins[72,73].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in EPHA2 are observed in 11% of cholangiocarcinoma, 7% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and skin cutaneous melanoma, 6% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, and 5% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL) and cervical squamous cell carcinoma[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for EPHA2 aberrations.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

MPL amplification

MPL proto-oncogene, thrombopoietin receptor

Background: The MPL gene encodes the MPL proto-oncogene, a transmembrane thrombopoietin receptor. Binding of the cytokine thrombopoietin to MPL leads to JAK2 activation and subsequent signaling that regulates stem cell homeostasis, cell survival, and proliferation[98]. Mutations in MPL typically disrupt normal auto-inhibitory functions and result in subsequent ligand-independent thrombopoietin receptor activation[98]. Gain-of-function mutations in MPL are associated with myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN) and hereditary thrombocytosis. Loss-of-function mutations are linked to bone marrow failure syndromes, due to the regulation of thrombopoiesis by thrombopoietin[99].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MPL are present in 3-5% of primary myelofibrosis (PMF)[98,100]. Specifically, MPL W515L/K mutations are reported in 5-8% of myelofibrosis (MF) and 1-4% of essential thrombocythemia (ET)[101]. Other observed MPL mutations include V501A, Y252H, and S204P[98].

Potential relevance: MPL W515K/L mutations confer intermediate prognosis in MPN[101].

RASA2 deletion

RAS p21 protein activator 2

Background: The RASA2 gene encodes the RAS p21 protein activator 2[102]. RASA2 is a member of the RasGAP family, which includes RASA1[103,104]. RASA2 functions as a GTPase activating protein (GAP) by enhancing RAS GTPase activity and promoting the inactive GDP-bound form[102,103]. In melanoma, loss of RASA2 function was found to increase RAS activation, cell growth, and migration[102].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in RASA2 are observed in 7% of skin cutaneous melanoma and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and 3% of colorectal adenocarcinoma[4,5]. RASA2 and NF1 mutations strongly co-occur in melanoma[102].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for RASA2 aberrations.

RECQL4 deletion

RecQ like helicase 4

Background: RECQL4 encodes RecQ like helicase 4 and is member of the RecQ family of DNA helicases, which also includes RECQL1, WRN, BLM, and RECQL5[1,139,140]. RECQL4 plays an important role in DNA replication, telomere maintenance, homologous recombination, and genomic stability[140,141,142]. Mutations in RECQL4 can lead to several developmental syndromes including, Rothmund-Thomson syndrome (RTS), Baller-Gerold syndrome (BGS), and RAPADILINO syndrome, which confer predisposition to the development of several cancer types including skin cancer, osteosarcoma, lymphoma, and leukemia[143,144,145]. Although widely considered a tumor suppressor gene, amplification and overexpression of RECQL4 has been observed to promote tumor growth in some cancer types[146,147,148].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in RECQL4 are observed in 5% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% of stomach adenocarcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, and 2% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, colorectal adenocarcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, liver hepatocellular carcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[4,5]. Amplification of RECQL4 is observed in 27% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, 11% of breast invasive carcinoma, 10% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and liver hepatocellular carcinoma, 9% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma and uterine carcinosarcoma, 8% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 6% of prostate adenocarcinoma, 5% of lung adenocarcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and lung squamous cell carcinoma, 4% of skin cutaneous melanoma and brain lower grade glioma, 3% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, colorectal adenocarcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, and uveal melanoma, and 2% of sarcoma and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma[4,5]. Biallelic loss of RECQL4 is observed in 4% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma and 2% of brain lower grade glioma[4,5].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for RECQL4 aberrations.

NOTCH1 deletion

notch 1

Background: The NOTCH1 gene encodes the notch receptor 1 protein, a type 1 transmembrane protein and member of the NOTCH family of genes, which also includes NOTCH2, NOTCH3, and NOTCH4. 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[209]. 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[210,211]. In cancer, depending on the tumor type,

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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[212,213,214,215].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in NOTCH1 are observed in 15-20% of head and neck cancer, 5-10% of glioma, melanoma, gastric, esophageal, lung, and uterine cancers[4,5,180]. Activating mutations in either the heterodimerization or PEST domains of NOTCH1 have been reported in greater than 50% of T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia[216,217].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for NOTCH1 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[74]. Inactive STAT transcription factors in the cytoplasm are activated by tyrosine phosphorylation, resulting in STAT dimerization and nuclear translocation[74]. Following translocation to the nucleus, STAT dimers interact with specific enhancers and promote transcriptional initiation of target genes[74]. 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[75]. Abnormal STAT6 activation contributes to oncogenesis by increasing the expression of proteins involved in proliferation, migration, and invasion, supporting an oncogenic role for STAT6[75].

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.

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, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
almonertinib, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
almonertinib, radiation therapy, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
befotertinib, icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
bevacizumab, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
BL-B01D1	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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, 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)
amivantamab, lazertinib, 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*
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)
lazertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
lenvatinib, pembrolizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
osimertinib, chemoradiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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)
DB-1310, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
dositinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
FWD-1509	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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*
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)
alisertib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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)
osimertinib, carotuximab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
osimertinib, Minnelide	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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, 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)

CDKN2A deletion

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

AXL amplification

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
cabozantinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)

PTEN deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
TQ-B3525, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
palbociclib, gedatolisib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

STK11 deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
TQ-B3525, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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

TSC2 deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
TQ-B3525, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)

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

HRR Details

Gene/Genomic Alteration	Finding
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 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.

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