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

Patient Name: 조명숙
Gender: F
Sample ID: N25-254

Primary Tumor Site: liver
Collection Date: 2025.09.30

Sample Cancer Type: Intrahepatic Cholangiocarcinoma

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Relevant Intrahepatic Cholangiocarcinoma Findings

Gene	Finding	Gene	Finding
BRAF	None detected	NTRK1	None detected
ERBB2	None detected	NTRK2	None detected
FGFR2	None detected	NTRK3	None detected
IDH1	None detected	RET	None detected
KRAS	None detected		

Genomic Alteration	Finding
Tumor Mutational Burden	***5.69 Mut/Mb measured***

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	*MTAP deletion* methylthioadenosine phosphorylase Locus: chr9:21802646	None*	None*	9
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
Line of therapy: I: First-line therapy, II+: Other line of therapy
Tier Reference: Li et al. *Standards and Guidelines for the Interpretation and Reporting of Sequence Variants in Cancer: A Joint Consensus Recommendation of the Association for Molecular Pathology, American Society of Clinical Oncology, and College of American Pathologists.* J Mol Diagn. 2017 Jan;19(1):4-23.

Prevalent cancer biomarkers without relevant evidence based on included data sources

*ERBB3 p.(E928A) c.2783A>C, MSH6 p.(K1358Dfs*2) c.4068_4071dup, Microsatellite stable, SMAD4 p.(D537Y) c.1609G>T, ERAP2 deletion, NQO1 p.(P187S) c.559C>T, Tumor Mutational Burden*

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
ERBB3	p.(E928A)	c.2783A>C	COSM7344009	chr12:56492633	17.91%	NM_001982.4	missense
MSH6	p.(K1358Dfs*2)	c.4068_4071dup	.	chr2:48033981	48.96%	NM_000179.3	frameshift Insertion
SMAD4	p.(D537Y)	c.1609G>T	COSM14164	chr18:48604787	31.47%	NM_005359.6	missense
NQO1	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T	.	chr16:69745145	48.17%	NM_000903.3	missense
RASA2	p.(S597A)	c.1789T>G	.	chr3:141304903	55.29%	NM_006506.5	missense
SLX4	p.(I1423V)	c.4267A>G	.	chr16:3639372	34.69%	NM_032444.4	missense
FANCA	p.(M1266T)	c.3797T>C	.	chr16:89807243	52.03%	NM_000135.4	missense
SMARCA4	p.(R741T)	c.2222G>C	.	chr19:11121155	9.83%	NM_001128849.3	missense

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
MTAP	chr9:21802646	1.09	0.68
CDKN2A	chr9:21968178	0.9	0.61
CDKN2B	chr9:22005728	0.9	0.61
ERAP2	chr5:96219500	0.5	0.47
PRDM9	chr5:23509577	1.1	0.68
ERCC4	chr16:14013959	4.41	1.84

Biomarker Descriptions

MTAP deletion

methylthioadenosine phosphorylase

Background: The MTAP gene encodes methylthioadenosine phosphorylase[18]. Methylthioadenosine phosphorylase, a key enzyme in polyamine biosynthesis and methionine salvage pathways, catalyzes the reversible phosphorylation of S-methyl-5'-thioadenosine (MTA) to adenine and 5-methylthioribose-1-phosphate[62,63]. Loss of MTAP function is commonly observed in cancer due to deletion or promotor methylation which results in the loss of MTA phosphorylation and sensitivity of MTAP-deficient cells to purine synthesis inhibitors and to methionine deprivation[63].

Alterations and prevalence: MTAP is flanked by CDKN2A tumor suppressor on chromosome 9p21 and is frequently found to be co-deleted with CDKN2A in numerous solid and hematological cancers[63,64]. Consequently, biallelic loss of MTAP has been observed in 42% of glioblastoma multiforme, 32% of mesothelioma, 26% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 22% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma, 21% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 20% of lung squamous cell carcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, 15% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 12% of lung adenocarcinoma, 11% of cholangiocarcinoma, 9% of sarcoma, stomach adenocarcinoma and brain lower grade glioma, and 3% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, breast invasive carcinoma, adrenocortical carcinoma, thymoma and liver hepatocellular carcinoma[8,9]. Somatic mutations in MTAP have been found in 3% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma[8,9].

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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

CDKN2A deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A

Background: CDKN2A encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression[18]. 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)[68]. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb[69,70,71]. CDKN2A encodes two alternative transcript variants, namely p16 and p14ARF, both of which exhibit differential tumor suppressor functions[72]. 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[18,72,73]. CDKN2A aberrations commonly co-occur with CDKN2B[68]. Loss of CDKN2A/p16 results in downstream inactivation of the Rb and p53 pathways, leading to uncontrolled cell proliferation[74]. Germline mutations of CDKN2A are known to confer a predisposition to melanoma and pancreatic cancer[75,76].

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[77]. 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[8,9]. 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[8,9]. Alterations in CDKN2A are also observed in pediatric cancers[9]. 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[9]. 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)[9].

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[78,79,80]. Additionally, deletion of CDKN2B is a molecular marker used in staging Grade 4 pediatric IDH-mutant astrocytoma[81]. 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[82,83,84]. Alternatively, CDKN2A expression and Rb inactivation demonstrate resistance to palbociclib in cases of glioblastoma multiforme[85]. 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[86,87,88,89].

CDKN2B deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2B

Background: CDKN2B encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2B, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression[18,68]. 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)[68]. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb[69,70,71]. CDKN2B is a tumor suppressor and aberrations in this gene commonly co-occur with CDKN2A[68]. Germline mutations in CDKN2B are linked to pancreatic cancer predisposition and familial renal cell carcinoma[18,90,91].

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[8,9]. Somatic mutations in CDKN2B are observed in 2% of uterine carcinosarcoma[8,9]. 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[8,9]. Somatic mutations in CDKN2B are observed in less than 1% of bone cancer (1 in 327 cases)[8,9].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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[81].

ERBB3 p.(E928A) c.2783A>C

erb-b2 receptor tyrosine kinase 3

Background: The ERBB3 gene encodes the erb-b2 receptor tyrosine kinase 3, a member of the human epidermal growth factor receptor (HER) family. Along with ERBB3/HER3, EGFR/ERBB1/HER1, ERBB2/HER2, and ERBB4/HER4 make up the HER protein family[1]. ERBB3/HER3 binds to extracellular factors, such as neuregulins, but has an impaired kinase domain[2]. Upon ligand binding, ERBB3 forms hetero-dimers with other ERBB/HER family members, including ERBB2/HER2 resulting in activation of tyrosine kinase activity primarily through its dimerization partner.

Alterations and prevalence: ERBB3 gene amplification leading to an increase in expression occurs at low frequency (1-5%) in several cancer types including bladder, esophagus, lung adenocarcinoma, ovarian, pancreas, sarcoma, stomach, and uterine cancers[3,4,5,6,7,8,9]. ERBB3 is also the target of relatively frequent (5-10%) and recurrent somatic mutations in diverse cancer types including bladder, cervical, colorectal, and stomach cancers[3,6,8,9,10]. Recurrent ERBB3 mutations such as V104L/M, occur primarily in the extracellular domain.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for ERBB3 aberrations. Overexpression and activation of ERBB3/HER3 is one mechanism of acquired resistance to therapies targeting EGFR and ERBB2/HER2[11,12]. Preclinical and translational research studies have characterized the oncogenic potential of recurrent ERBB3 mutations and their sensitivity to anti-ERBB antibodies and small molecule inhibitors[13,14,15,16]. A phase I study exhibited progression-free survival (PFS) of 2.5 months and overall survival (OS) of 9 months in 25 patients with ERBB3 mutations treated by anti-ERBB antibodies or molecular-targeted agents[17].

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

mutS homolog 6

Background: The MSH6 gene encodes the mutS homolog 6 protein[18]. MSH6 is a tumor suppressor gene that heterodimerizes with MSH2 to form the MutSα complex[19]. The MutSα complex functions in the DNA damage recognition of base-base mismatches or insertion/deletion (indels) of 1-2 nucleotides[19]. DNA damage recognition initiates the mismatch repair (MMR) process that repairs mismatch errors which typically occur during DNA replication[19]. Mutations in MSH2 result in the degradation of MSH6[20]. MSH6, along with MLH1, MSH2, and PMS2, form the core components of the MMR pathway[19]. The MMR pathway is critical to the repair of mismatch errors which typically occur during DNA replication[19]. Deficiency in MMR (dMMR) is characterized by mutations and loss of expression in these genes[21]. 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[22,23,24]. 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[22,25]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[23,25,26,27]. Specifically, MSH6 mutations are associated with an increased risk of ovarian and pancreatic cancer[28,29,30,31].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MSH6 are observed in 11% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 3% skin cutaneous melanoma[8,9]. Alterations in MSH6 are observed in pediatric cancers[8,9]. Somatic mutations are observed in 9% of hepatobiliary cancer, 2% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, and less than 1% of glioma (2 in 297 cases) and bone cancer (2 in 327 cases)[8,9].

Potential relevance: Pembrolizumab (2014) is an anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitor that is approved for patients with dMMR solid tumors that have progressed on prior therapies[32]. 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[33,34]. MSH6 mutations are consistent with high grade in pediatric diffuse gliomas[35,36].

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[48]. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[23,25]. 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[24]. 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[49]. 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)[49]. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS[26,50,51,52,53]. MSI-H is a hallmark of Lynch

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

syndrome (LS), also known as hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer, which is caused by germline mutations in the MMR genes[25]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[23,25,26,27].

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[23,25,54,55]. 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[54,55].

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab[32] (2014) and nivolumab[33] (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab[32] 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[32]. 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[51,57]. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab[34] (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[51,58,59]. 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[59]. 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[60,61]. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers[60,61].

SMAD4 p.(D537Y) c.1609G>T

SMAD family member 4

Background: The SMAD4 gene encodes the SMAD family member 4, a transcription factor that belongs to a family of 8 SMAD genes that can be divided into three main classes. SMAD4 (also known as DPC4) belongs to the common mediator SMAD (co-SMAD) class while SMAD1, SMAD2, SMAD3, SMAD5, and SMAD8 are part of the regulator SMAD (R-SMAD) class. The inhibitory SMAD (I-SMAD) class includes both SMAD6 and SMAD7[37,38]. SMAD4 is a tumor suppressor gene and functions as a mediator of the TGF-β and BMP signaling pathways that are implicated in cancer initiation and progression[38,39,40]. Loss of SMAD4 does not drive oncogenesis, but is associated with progression of cancers initiated by driver genes such as KRAS and APC[37,38]

Alterations and prevalence: Inactivation of SMAD4 can occur due to mutations, allelic loss, homozygous deletions, and 18q loss of heterozygosity (LOH)[37]. Somatic mutations in SMAD4 occur in up to 20% of pancreatic, 12% of colorectal, and 8% of stomach cancers. Recurrent hotspot mutations including R361 and P356 occur in the mad homology 2 (MH2) domain leading to the disruption of the TGF-β signaling[9,40,41]. Copy number deletions occur in up to 12% of pancreatic, 10% of esophageal, and 13% of stomach cancers[6,8,9].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for SMAD4 aberrations. Clinical studies and meta-analyses have demonstrated that loss of SMAD4 expression confers poor prognosis and poor overall survival (OS) in colorectal and pancreatic cancers[38,40,42,43,44]. Importantly, SMAD4 is a predictive biomarker to fluorouracil based chemotherapy[45,46]. In a retrospective analysis of 241 colorectal cancer patients treated with fluorouracil, 21 patients with SMAD4 loss demonstrated significantly poor median OS when compared to SMAD4 positive patients (31 months vs 89 months)[46]. In another clinical study of 173 newly diagnosed and recurrent head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) patients, SMAD4 loss is correlated with cetuximab resistance in HPV-negative HNSCC tumors[47].

ERAP2 deletion

endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidase 2

Background: The ERAP2 gene encodes the endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidase 2 protein. ERAP2, and structurally related ERAP1, are zinc metallopeptidases which play a role in antigen processing within the immune response pathway[65,66]. Upon uptake by an immune cell, antigens are first processed by the proteasome and then transported into the endoplasmic reticulum where ERAP1 and ERAP2 excise peptide N-terminal extensions to generate mature antigen peptides for presentation on MHC class I molecules[65,67]. The polymorphic variability in ERAP2 is hypothesized to affect the severity of cytotoxic responses to transformed cells and potentially influence their chances to gain mutations that evade the immune system and become tumorigenic[65].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in ERAP2 are observed in 7% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, and 2% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

stomach adenocarcinoma[8,9]. Deletions are observed in 2% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, prostate adenocarcinoma, and 1% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, mesothelioma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, and lung squamous cell carcinoma[8,9].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for ERAP2 aberrations.

Genes Assayed

Genes Assayed for the Detection of DNA Sequence Variants

ABL1, ABL2, ACVR1, AKT1, AKT2, AKT3, ALK, AR, ARAF, ATP1A1, AURKA, AURKB, AURKC, AXL, BCL2, BCL2L12, BCL6, BCR, BMP5, BRAF, BTK, CACNA1D, CARD11, CBL, CCND1, CCND2, CCND3, CCNE1, CD79B, CDK4, CDK6, CHD4, CSF1R, CTNNB1, CUL1, CYSLTR2, DDR2, DGCR8, DROSHA, E2F1, EGFR, EIF1AX, EPAS1, ERBB2, ERBB3, ERBB4, ESR1, EZH2, FAM135B, FGF7, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3, FGFR4, FLT3, FLT4, FOXA1, FOXL2, FOXO1, GATA2, GLI1, GNA11, GNAQ, GNAS, HIF1A, HRAS, IDH1, IDH2, IKBKB, IL6ST, IL7R, IRF4, IRS4, KCNJ5, KDR, KIT, KLF4, KLF5, KNSTRN, KRAS, MAGOH, MAP2K1, MAP2K2, MAPK1, MAX, MDM4, MECOM, MED12, MEF2B, MET, MITF, MPL, MTOR, MYC, MYCN, MYD88, MYOD1, NFE2L2, NRAS, NSD2, NT5C2, NTRK1, NTRK2, NTRK3, NUP93, PAX5, PCBP1, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, PIK3C2B, PIK3CA, PIK3CB, 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, 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,

Genes Assayed (continued)

Genes Assayed with Full Exon Coverage (continued)

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

MTAP deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
AMG 193	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
TNG-456, abemaciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
TNG-462	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
GTA-182	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
ISM-3412	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
MRTX-1719	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
PH020-803	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
S-095035	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
SYH-2039	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

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	***16.1%***
ATM	***LOH, 11q22.3(108098341-108236285)x2***
CHEK1	***LOH, 11q24.2(125496639-125525271)x2***

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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