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Patient Name: 김금환
Gender: M
Sample ID: N25-268

Primary Tumor Site: lung
Collection Date: 2025.09.25

Sample Cancer Type: Lung Cancer

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Relevant Lung Cancer Findings

Gene	Finding	Gene	Finding
ALK	None detected	NTRK1	None detected
BRAF	None detected	NTRK2	None detected
EGFR	None detected	NTRK3	None detected
ERBB2	None detected	RET	None detected
KRAS	None detected	ROS1	None detected
MET	None detected		

Genomic Alteration	Finding
Tumor Mutational Burden	***5.7 Mut/Mb measured***

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	*FGFR1 amplification* fibroblast growth factor receptor 1 Locus: chr8:38271452	None*	None*	8

*** 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

*Microsatellite stable, NF1 p.(A683Pfs*5) c.2046delA, NFE2L2 p.(R34G) c.100C>G, TP53 p.(N239D) c.715A>G, UGT1A1 p.(G71R) c.211G>A, PRDM9 p.(V581Gfs*10) c.1741_1742insG, IKBKB amplification, B2M p.(M1?) c.1A>T, 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
NF1	p.(A683Pfs*5)	c.2046delA	.	chr17:29553495	44.90%	NM_001042492.3	frameshift Deletion
NFE2L2	p.(R34G)	c.100C>G	COSM132847	chr2:178098945	10.56%	NM_006164.5	missense
TP53	p.(N239D)	c.715A>G	COSM10777	chr17:7577566	54.33%	NM_000546.6	missense
UGT1A1	p.(G71R)	c.211G>A	COSM4415616	chr2:234669144	52.55%	NM_000463.3	missense
PRDM9	p.(V581Gfs*10)	c.1741_1742insG	.	chr5:23526937	16.18%	NM_020227.4	frameshift Insertion
B2M	p.(M1?)	c.1A>T	COSM220667	chr15:45003745	3.10%	NM_004048.4	missense
NQO1	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T	.	chr16:69745145	55.48%	NM_000903.3	missense
OR13D1	p.(C185*)	c.555T>A	.	chr9:107457257	14.13%	NM_001004484.1	nonsense
NTRK3	p.(Y710*)	c.2130C>A	.	chr15:88472425	28.45%	NM_001012338.2	nonsense
FANCA	p.(L617V)	c.1849C>G	.	chr16:89842201	57.15%	NM_000135.4	missense
SMAD4	p.(P278T)	c.832C>A	.	chr18:48584754	42.23%	NM_005359.6	missense

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
FGFR1	chr8:38271452	4.92	1.92
IKBKB	chr8:42129602	5.1	1.97
TP63	chr3:189456442	9.86	3.47

Biomarker Descriptions

FGFR1 amplification

fibroblast growth factor receptor 1

Background: The FGFR1 gene encodes fibroblast growth receptor 1, a member of the fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR) family that also includes FGFR2, 3, and 4[7]. These proteins are single transmembrane receptors composed of three extracellular immunoglobulin (Ig)-type domains and an intracellular kinase domain[7]. Upon FGF-mediated stimulation, FGFRs activate several oncogenic signaling pathways, including the RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK, PI3K/AKT/MTOR, PLCγ/PKC, and JAK/STAT pathways influencing cell proliferation, migration, and survival[13,14,15].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic alterations common to the FGFR family include gene amplification, mutation, and chromosomal translocations leading to FGFR fusions[16]. Amplification of FGFR1 is observed in 17% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 11% of breast invasive carcinoma, 8% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 7% of uterine carcinosarcoma and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 6% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 5% of sarcoma, 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma and pancreatic adenocarcinoma, 3% of prostate adenocarcinoma, ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, and lung adenocarcinoma, and 2% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma[5,6,17,18,19]. The most common recurrent mutations, N546K and K656E, are relatively infrequent (<1%); they activate mutations in the kinase domain and are distributed in diverse cancer types[20]. Somatic mutations in FGFR1 are observed in 7% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 6% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and 3% of stomach adenocarcinoma and colorectal adenocarcinoma[5,6]. FGFR1 translocations giving rise to expressed fusions are common in certain hematological cancers, but are less common in solid tumors[21,22,23]. Alterations in FGFR1 are rare in pediatric cancers[5,6]. Amplification of FGFR1 is observed in less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases). Somatic mutations in FGFR1 are observed in 6% of non-Hodgkin Lymphoma, 3%

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

of soft tissue sarcoma, 2% of glioma, and less than 1% of embryonal tumors (2 in 332 cases), B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (1 in 252 cases), Wilms tumor (2 in 710 cases), and peripheral nervous system cancers (1 in 1158 cases)[5,6].

Potential relevance: The FGFR kinase inhibitor, pemigatinib[24] (2022) is approved for the treatment of adults with relapsed/refractory myeloid/lymphoid neoplasms (MLNs) with FGFR1 rearrangement. Additionally, the FDA granted fast-track designation to Debio 1347[25] (2018) for solid tumors harboring aberrations in FGFR1, FGFR2, or FGFR3. FDA has approved multi-kinase inhibitors, including regorafenib, ponatinib, lenvatinib, nintedanib, and pazopanib, that are known to inhibit FGFR family members[26]. These inhibitors have demonstrated anti-tumor activity in select cancer types with FGFR alterations[27,28,29,30,31,32,33]. In a phase II clinical trial, dovitinib, a multi-tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI), exhibited an overall response rate (ORR) of 11.5% and a disease control rate (DCR) of 50% in patients with advanced squamous cell lung cancer possessing FGFR1 amplification[34]. The patients had a median overall survival (OS) of 5 months and progression-free survival (PFS) of 2.9 months[34]. Likewise, in a phase Ib study testing the FGFR inhibitor AZD4547, the median OS was 4.9 months in patients with FGFR1-amplified advanced squamous cell lung cancer. One of 13 (8%) patients achieved a partial response, 4 (31%) exhibited stable disease, and 2 (13.3%) demonstrated PFS at 12 weeks[35]. Rearrangements in FGFR1 are associated with poor risk pediatric and adult acute lymphoblastic leukemia[36,37,38].

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[72]. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[73,74]. 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[75]. 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[76]. 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)[76]. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS[77,78,79,80,81]. 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[74]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[73,74,78,82].

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[73,74,83,84]. 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[83,84].

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab[85] (2014) and nivolumab[86] (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab[85] 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[85]. Dostarlimab[87] (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[79,88]. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab[89] (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[79,90,91]. 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[91]. 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[92,93]. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers[92,93].

NF1 p.(A683Pfs*5) c.2046delA

neurofibromin 1

Background: The NF1 gene encodes the neurofibromin protein, a tumor suppressor within the Ras-GTPase-activating protein (GAP) family[39]. NF1 regulates cellular levels of activated RAS proteins including KRAS, NRAS, and HRAS, by down regulating the active GTP-bound state to an inactive GDP-bound state[39,40]. Inactivation of NF1 due to missense mutations results in sustained intracellular levels of RAS-GTP and prolonged activation of the RAS/RAF/MAPK and PI3K/AKT/mTOR signaling pathways leading to increased proliferation and survival[39]. Constitutional mutations in NF1 are associated with neurofibromatosis type 1, a RASopathy autosomal dominant tumor syndrome with predisposition to myeloid malignancies such as juvenile myelomonocytic leukemia (JMML) and myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN)[39,41,42].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Alterations and prevalence: NF1 aberrations include missense mutations, insertions, indels, aberrant splicing, microdeletions, and rearrangements[39]. The majority of NF1 mutated tumors exhibit biallelic inactivation of NF1, supporting the 'two-hit' hypothesis of carcinogenesis[39,43]. Somatic mutations in NF1 have been identified in over 30% of ovarian serous carcinoma, 12-30% of melanoma, 10-20% of chronic myelomonocytic leukemia (CMML), and 7% of acute myeloid leukemia (AML)[39,42].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for NF1 aberrations. Somatic mutation of NF1 is useful as an ancillary diagnostic marker for malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumor (MPNST)[44].

NFE2L2 p.(R34G) c.100C>G

nuclear factor, erythroid 2 like 2

Background: The NFE2L2 gene encodes the nuclear factor, erythroid 2 like 2 transcription factor, a member of the basic leucine zipper protein family[7]. NFE2L2, also known as NRF2, is a proto-oncogene that activates transcription of genes with antioxidant response elements (ARE)[68]. NFE2L2 targets include genes involved in antioxidant response, drug metabolism, DNA repair, autophagy, cell survival, and proliferation[68,69]. NFE2L2 is negatively regulated by KEAP1, a Cul3 adaptor protein, that ubiquitinates NFE2L2[69].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations in NFE2L2 are observed in 14% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 9% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, and 5% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[5,6]. Deletion of NFE2L2 exon 2 or exon 2 and 3 result in an isoform leading to the lack of the KEAP1 interacting domain, NFE2L2 stabilization, and expression of NFE2L2 targets such as HMOX1, G6PD, PDGFC, FGF2, and NQO1[68,70].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for NFE2L2 aberrations. The FDA has granted fast track designation (2022) to the mTORC 1/2 inhibitor, sapanisertib (CB-228)[71], for patients with NFE2L2 mutated, unresectable or metastatic squamous non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) who have received prior platinum-based chemotherapy and immune checkpoint inhibitor therapy.

TP53 p.(N239D) c.715A>G

tumor protein p53

Background: The TP53 gene encodes the tumor suppressor protein p53, which binds to DNA and activates transcription in response to diverse cellular stresses to induce cell cycle arrest, apoptosis, or DNA repair[7]. In unstressed cells, TP53 is kept inactive by targeted degradation via MDM2, a substrate recognition factor for ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis[45]. Alterations in TP53 are required for oncogenesis as they result in loss of protein function and gain of transforming potential[46]. Germline mutations in TP53 are the underlying cause of Li-Fraumeni syndrome, a complex hereditary cancer predisposition disorder associated with early-onset cancers[47,48].

Alterations and prevalence: TP53 is the most frequently mutated gene in the cancer genome with approximately half of all cancers experiencing TP53 mutations. Ovarian, head and neck, esophageal, and lung squamous cancers have particularly high TP53 mutation rates (60-90%)[5,6,17,49,50,51]. Approximately two-thirds of TP53 mutations are missense mutations and several recurrent missense mutations are common, including substitutions at codons R158, R175, Y220, R248, R273, and R282[5,6]. Invariably, recurrent missense mutations in TP53 inactivate its ability to bind DNA and activate transcription of target genes[52,53,54,55]. Alterations in TP53 are also observed in pediatric cancers[5,6]. Somatic mutations are observed in 53% of non-Hodgkin lymphoma, 24% of soft tissue sarcoma, 19% of glioma, 13% of bone cancer, 9% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 4% of embryonal tumors, 3% of Wilms tumor and leukemia, 2% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, and less than 1% of peripheral nervous system cancers (5 in 1158 cases)[5,6]. Biallelic loss of TP53 is observed in 10% of bone cancer, 2% of Wilms tumor, and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases) and leukemia (1 in 250 cases)[5,6].

Potential relevance: The small molecule p53 reactivator, PC14586[56] (2020), received a fast track designation by the FDA for advanced tumors harboring a TP53 Y220C mutation. The FDA has granted fast track designation to the p53 reactivator, eprenetapopt[57], (2019) and breakthrough designation[58] (2020) in combination with azacitidine or azacitidine and venetoclax for acute myeloid leukemia patients (AML) and myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS) harboring a TP53 mutation, respectively. In addition to investigational therapies aimed at restoring wild-type TP53 activity, compounds that induce synthetic lethality are also under clinical evaluation[59,60]. TP53 mutation are a diagnostic marker of SHH-activated, TP53-mutant medulloblastoma[61]. TP53 mutations confer poor prognosis and poor risk in multiple blood cancers including AML, MDS, myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN), and chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), and acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL)[36,42,62,63,64,65]. In mantle cell lymphoma, TP53 mutations are associated with poor prognosis when treated with conventional therapy including hematopoietic cell transplant[66]. Mono- and bi-allelic mutations in TP53 confer unique characteristics in MDS, with multi-hit patients also experiencing associations with complex karyotype, few co-occurring mutations, and high-risk disease presentation as well as predicted death and leukemic transformation independent of the IPSS-R staging system[67].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

UGT1A1 p.(G71R) c.211G>A

UDP glucuronosyltransferase family 1 member A1

Background: The UGT1A1 gene encodes UDP glucuronosyltransferase family 1 member A1, a member of the UDP-glucuronosyltransferase 1A (UGT1A) subfamily of the UGT protein superfamily[7,98]. UGTs are microsomal membrane-bound enzymes that catalyze the glucuronidation of endogenous and xenobiotic compounds and transform the lipophilic molecules into excretable, hydrophilic metabolites[98,99]. UGTs play an important role in drug metabolism, detoxification, and metabolite homeostasis. Differential expression of UGTs can promote cancer development, disease progression, as well as drug resistance[100]. Specifically, elevated expression of UGT1As are associated with resistance to many anti-cancer drugs due to drug inactivation and lower active drug concentrations. However, reduced expression and downregulation of UGT1As are implicated in bladder and hepatocellular tumorigenesis and progression due to toxin accumulation[100,101,102,103]. Furthermore, UGT1A1 polymorphisms, such as UGT1A1*28, UGT1A1*93, and UGT1A1*6, confer an increased risk of severe toxicity to irinotecan-based chemotherapy treatment of solid tumors, due to reduced glucuronidation of the irinotecan metabolite, SN-38[104].

Alterations and prevalence: Biallelic deletion of UGT1A1 has been observed in 6% of sarcoma, 3% of brain lower grade glioma and uveal melanoma, and 2% of thymoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and esophageal adenocarcinoma[5,6].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for UGT1A1 aberrations.

PRDM9 p.(V581Gfs*10) c.1741_1742insG

PR/SET domain 9

Background: The PRDM9 gene encodes PR/SET domain 9[7]. PRDM9 functions as a protein methyltransferase capable of trimethylating histone 3 lysine 4 (H3K4) and histone 3 lysine 26 (H3K36) via its PR/SET domains[94,95]. PRDM9 expression is normally restricted to germ cells entering meiosis[96]. During meiotic prophase, the methylation of histones by PRDM9 is thought to alter local chromatin structure and help determine recombination hotspots[95,96]. Following PRDM9 methylation, double-strand breaks (DSBs) can be catalyzed by SPO11 which leads to recombination between non-sister chromatids[97].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in PRDM9 are observed in 18% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 14% of lung squamous cell carcinoma and lung adenocarcinoma, 10% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 8% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 7% of diffuse large B-cell carcinoma (DLBCL) and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and 6% of stomach adenocarcinoma[5,6]. PRDM9 amplification is observed in 10% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 8% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 7% of lung adenocarcinoma, 6% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 5% of sarcoma and ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, 4% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma and 3% of stomach adenocarcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and skin cutaneous melanoma[5,6].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for PRDM9 aberrations.

IKBKB amplification

inhibitor of nuclear factor kappa B kinase subunit beta

Background: The IKBKB gene encodes the nuclear factor kappa B kinase subunit beta, also known as IKK-B. IKBKB is a serine/threonine kinase, which acts as an enzyme protein subunit of the IKK complex[1]. IKBKB and IKBKA dimerize to form the regulatory subunit of the IKK complex. Along with modulator IKKγ/NEMO, the IKK complex acts as a master regulator of the family of NF-κB transcription factors.[1]. NF-κB signaling is critical in the inflammatory response and is also known to be implicated in other important physiological processes including cell proliferation[2]. In resting cells, NF-κB dimers are sequestered in the cytoplasm by IκB proteins[2]. Upon signal initiation, IκB proteins are phosphorylated by the IKK complex, leading to IκB protein degradation and liberation of NF-κB dimers[2]. Subsequently, released NF-κB dimers undergo nuclear translocation which leads to the expression of various proinflammatory and cell survival genes[3,4].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in IKBKB are observed in 6% of uterine carcinoma, 5% of melanoma and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL)[5,6]. Amplifications are observed in 14% of uterine carcinosarcoma, 7% of breast invasive carcinoma and esophageal cancer[5,6]. IKBKB activating mutations are most commonly found at lysine 175 and are observed in 8% of splenic marginal B-cell lymphomas[1].

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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

B2M p.(M1?) c.1A>T

beta-2-microglobulin

Background: The B2M gene encodes the beta-2-microglobulin protein[7]. B2M is an extracellular component of the major histocompatibility class (MHC) class I and is important for proper folding and transport of MHC class I to the cell surface of nucleated cells[8]. MHC class I molecules are located on the cell surface and present antigens from within the cell for recognition by cytotoxic T cells[9]. Peptide antigen presentation by MHC class I requires B2M, and mutation or loss of B2M prevents presentation and results in escape from immune recognition[10]. In cancer, mutations or loss of B2M allows for immune evasion by tumor cells, thereby preventing their destruction and supporting a tumor suppressor role for B2M[10].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in B2M are observed in 22% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 5% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 3% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma and cholangiocarcinoma, and 2% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma[5,6]. Biallelic loss of B2M is observed in 8% of DLBCL 5% of mesothelioma, and 2% of lung adenocarcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma[5,6].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for B2M aberrations. Loss of B2M has been implicated in resistance to immunotherapy in melanoma[10,11]. However, B2M mutations in microsatellite instability-high colorectal carcinomas show response to immune checkpoint inhibitors[12].

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 (continued)

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

FGFR1 amplification

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
pemigatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
regorafenib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sintilimab, pemigatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sunitinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
BBI-355, futibatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
ABSK-121	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

* 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	***34.03%***
RAD54L	***LOH, 1p34.1(46714017-46743978)x3***

Homologous recombination repair (HRR) genes were defined from published evidence in relevant therapies, clinical guidelines, as well as clinical trials, and include - BRCA1, BRCA2, ATM, BARD1, BRIP1, CDK12, CHEK1, CHEK2, FANCL, PALB2, RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D, and RAD54L.

Thermo Fisher Scientific's Ion Torrent Oncomine Reporter software was used in generation of this report. Software was developed and designed internally by Thermo Fisher Scientific. The analysis was based on Oncomine Reporter (6.1.1 data version 2025.06(006)). The data presented here are from a curated knowledge base of publicly available information, but may not be exhaustive. FDA information was sourced from www.fda.gov and is current as of 2025-05-14. NCCN information was sourced from www.nccn.org and is current as of 2025-05-01. EMA information was sourced from www.ema.europa.eu and is current as of 2025-05-14. ESMO information was sourced from www.esmo.org and is current as of 2025-05-01. Clinical Trials information is current as of 2025-05-01. For the most up-to-date information regarding a particular trial, search www.clinicaltrials.gov by NCT ID or search local clinical trials authority website by local identifier listed in 'Other identifiers.' Variants are reported according to HGVS nomenclature and classified following AMP/ASCO/CAP guidelines (Li et al. 2017). Based on the data sources selected, variants, therapies, and trials listed in this report are listed in order of potential clinical significance but not for predicted efficacy of the therapies.

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