

삼광의료재단 서울특별시 서초구 바우뫼로41길 ⁵⁸ (양재동, 선화빌딩) 검사기관 11365200

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

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Patient Name: 정희선 Primary Tumor Site: unknown Gender: F Collection Date: 2025.09.25 Sample ID: N25-289

Sample Cancer Type: Unknown Primary Origin

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Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	ARID1A deletion AT-rich interaction domain 1A Locus: chr1:27022875	None*	None*	4
IIC	FANCF deletion Fanconi anemia complementation group F Locus: chr11:22646196	None*	None*	1
IIC	ARID1B deletion AT-rich interaction domain 1B Locus: chr6:157099057	None*	None*	1
IIC	ARID2 deletion AT-rich interaction domain 2 Locus: chr12:46123536	None*	None*	1
IIC	SDHB deletion succinate dehydrogenase complex iron sulfur subunit B Locus: chr1:17345303	None*	None*	1

^{*} Public data sources included in relevant therapies: FDA1, NCCN, EMA2, ESMO

Line of therapy: I: First-line therapy, II+: Other line of therapy

Tier Reference: Li et al. Standards and Guidelines for the Interpretation and Reporting of Sequence Variants in Cancer: A Joint Consensus Recommendation of the Association for Molecular Pathology, American Society of Clinical Oncology, and College of American Pathologists. J Mol Diagn. 2017 Jan;19(1):4-23.

Prevalent cancer biomarkers without relevant evidence based on included data sources

LATS1 deletion, MAP2K7 deletion, Microsatellite stable, TNFRSF14 deletion, PGD deletion, EPHA2 deletion, TPMT p.(Y240C) c.719A>G, HLA-B deletion, PSMB8 p.(E134Nfs*25) c.400delG, MAP3K4 deletion, JAK2 deletion, WT1 deletion, KMT2D deletion, NQO1 p.(P187S) c.559C>T, Tumor Mutational Burden

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

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
TPMT	p.(Y240C)	c.719A>G	COSM4986703	chr6:18130918	49.09%	NM_000367.5	missense
PSMB8	p.(E134Nfs*25)	c.400delG		chr6:32810455	49.94%	NM_148919.4	frameshift Deletion
NQ01	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T		chr16:69745145	50.55%	NM_000903.3	missense
PMS2	p.(P509S)	c.1525C>T		chr7:6026871	51.80%	NM_000535.7	missense

Copy Number	er Variations			
Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio	
ARID1A	chr1:27022875	1.22	0.69	
FANCF	chr11:22646196	1.17	0.68	
ARID1B	chr6:157099057	1.19	0.69	
ARID2	chr12:46123536	1	0.61	
SDHB	chr1:17345303	1.23	0.7	
LATS1	chr6:149982844	1.06	0.64	
MAP2K7	chr19:7968792	1.19	0.68	
TNFRSF14	chr1:2488070	0.95	0.59	
PGD	chr1:10459132	1.05	0.63	
EPHA2	chr1:16451707	1.19	0.68	
HLA-B	chr6:31322252	1.18	0.68	
МАРЗК4	chr6:161412931	1.09	0.64	
JAK2	chr9:5021954	1.05	0.63	
WT1	chr11:32410528	0.96	0.59	
KMT2D	chr12:49415529	1.04	0.63	
ESR1	chr6:152163831	1.03	0.62	
CD274	chr9:5456050	0.94	0.58	
HRAS	chr11:532637	0.65	0.47	

Biomarker Descriptions

ARID1A deletion

AT-rich interaction domain 1A

Background: The ARID1A gene encodes the AT-rich interaction domain 1A tumor suppressor protein¹. ARID1A, also known as BAF250A, belongs to the ARID1 subfamily that also includes AR1D1B^{1,55}. ARID1A and ARID1B are mutually exclusive subunits of the BAF variant of the SWI/SNF chromatin-remodeling complex^{55,56}. The BAF complex is a multisubunit protein that consists of SMARCB1/IN1, SMARCC1/BAF155, SMARCC2/BAF170, SMARCA4/BRG1 or SMARCA2/BRM, and ARID1A or ARID1B⁵⁶. The BAF complex remodels chromatin at promoter and enhancer elements to alter and regulate gene expression^{56,57}. ARID1A binds to transcription

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

factors and coactivator/corepressor complexes to alter transcription⁵⁵. Recurrent inactivating mutations in BAF complex subunits, including ARID1A, lead to transcriptional dysfunction thereby, altering its tumor suppressor function⁵⁵.

Alterations and prevalence: Mutations in SWI/SNF complex subunits are the most commonly mutated chromatin modulators in cancer and have been observed in 20% of all tumors⁵⁷. The majority of ARID1A inactivating mutations are nonsense or frameshift mutations⁵⁵. Somatic mutations in ARID1A have been identified in 50% of ovarian clear cell carcinoma, 30% of endometrioid carcinoma, and 24-43% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, and stomach adenocarcinoma^{18,19,56}. In microsatellite stable (MSS) colorectal cancer, mutations in ARID1A have been observed to correlate with increased tumor mutational burden (TMB) and expression of genes involved in the immune response⁵⁸.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for ARID1A aberrations. However, the FDA has granted fast track designation (2022) to HSF1 pathway inhibitor, NXP-800⁵⁹, for the treatment of platinum resistant ARID1A-mutated ovarian carcinoma. Tulmimetostat⁶⁰, dual inhibitor of EZH2 and EZH1, was also granted a fast track designation (2023) for the treatment of patients with advanced, recurrent or metastatic endometrial cancer harboring ARID1A mutations and who have progressed on at least one prior line of treatment.

FANCF deletion

Fanconi anemia complementation group F

Background: The FANCF gene encodes the FA complementation group F protein, a member of the Fanconi Anemia (FA) family, which also includes FANCA, FANCB, FANCC, FANCD1 (BRCA2), FANCD2, FANCE, FANCG, FANCI, FANCJ (BRIP1), FANCL, FANCM and FANCN (PALB2)¹. FA genes are tumor suppressors that are responsible for the maintenance of replication fork stability, DNA damage repair through the removal of interstrand cross-links (ICL), and subsequent initiation of the homologous recombination repair (HRR) pathway^{45,46}. In response to DNA damage, FANCA, FANCB, FANCC, FANCE, FANCF, FANCG, FANCL, and FANCM assemble to form the FA core complex which is responsible for the monoubiquitination of the FANCI-FANCD2 (ID2) complex⁴⁵. Monoubiquitination of the ID2 complex promotes co-localization with BRCA1/2, which is critical in BRCA mediated DNA repair^{47,48}. Loss of function mutations in the FA family and HRR pathway, including FANCF, can result in the BRCAness phenotype, characterized by a defect in the HRR pathway, mimicking BRCA1 or BRCA2 loss^{49,50}. Germline mutations in FA genes lead to Fanconi Anemia, a condition characterized by chromosomal instability and congenital abnormalities, including bone marrow failure and cancer predisposition^{51,52}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in FANCF are observed in 2% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and 1% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, adrenocortical carcinoma, and bladder urothelial carcinoma^{18,19}.

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

ARID1B deletion

AT-rich interaction domain 1B

Background: The ARID1B gene encodes the AT-rich interaction domain 1B tumor suppressor protein¹. ARID1B, also known as BAF250B, belongs to the ARID1 subfamily that also includes ARID1A^{1,55}. ARID1A and ARID1B are mutually exclusive subunits of the BAF variant of the SWI/SNF chromatin remodeling complex^{55,56}. The BAF complex is a multisubunit protein that consists of SMARCB1/IN1, SMARCC1/BAF155, SMARCC2/BAF170, SMARCA4/BRG1 or SMARCA2/BRM, and ARID1A or ARID1B⁵⁶. The BAF complex remodels chromatin at promoter and enhancer elements to alter and regulate gene expression^{56,57}. Recurrent inactivating mutations in BAF complex subunits, including ARID1B, lead to transcriptional dysfunction, suggesting ARID2B functions as a tumor suppressor⁵⁵.

Alterations and prevalence: Mutations in SWI/SNF complex subunits are the most commonly mutated chromatin modulators in cancer and have been observed in 20% of all tumors⁵⁷. Somatic mutations in ARID1B are observed in 9% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 8% of cholangiocarcinoma, 7% of skin cutaneous melanoma, and 6% of stomach adenocarcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, and colorectal adenocarcinoma^{18,19}. Biallelic loss of ARID1B is observed in 6% of uveal melanoma, 1% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, skin cutaneous melanoma, and colorectal adenocarcinoma^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for ARID1B aberrations. Mutations in chromatin modifying genes, including ARID1B, are considered to be characteristic genetic features of hepatosplenic T-cell lymphoma (HSTL), as they have been observed in up to 62% of cases^{74,75}.

ARID2 deletion

AT-rich interaction domain 2

<u>Background:</u> The ARID2 gene encodes the AT-rich interaction domain 2 protein¹. ARID2, also known as BAF200, belongs to the ARID superfamily that also includes ARID1A, ARID1B, and ARID5B⁷². ARID2 is an essential member of the PBAF complex, a SWI/SNF

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

chromatin-remodeling complex^{72,73}. The PBAF complex is a multisubunit protein complex that consists of ARID2, SMARCA4A/BRG1, BRD7, ACTL6A/BAF53A, PHF10/BAF45A, PBRM1/BAF180, SMARCC2/BAF170, SMARCC1/BAF155, SMARCB1/BAF47, SMARCD1/BAF60A, and SMARCE1/BAF57^{56,73}. ARID2 may alter the expression of IFN responsive genes, which suppress cell proliferation⁷². Loss of function mutations in ARID2 may promote cell proliferation, suggesting a tumor suppressor role of ARID2⁷².

Alterations and prevalence: Mutations in SWI/SNF complex subunits are the most commonly mutated chromatin modulators in cancer and have been observed in 20% of all tumors⁵⁷. Somatic mutations in ARID2 are observed in 17% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 11% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 8% of bladder urothelial carcinoma and stomach adenocarcinoma, 7% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 5% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, lung adenocarcinoma, and lung squamous cell carcinoma^{18,19}. ARID2 biallelic deletions are observed in 2% of mesothelioma^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for ARID2 aberrations.

SDHB deletion

succinate dehydrogenase complex iron sulfur subunit B

Background: The SDHB gene encodes succinate dehydrogenase complex iron sulfur subunit B, a subunit of the succinate dehydrogenase (SDH) enzyme complex¹. The SDH enzyme complex, also known as complex II of the mitochondrial respiratory chain, is composed of four subunits encoded by SDHA, SDHB, SDHC, and SDHD^{40,41}. SDH is a key mitochondrial enzyme complex that catalyzes the oxidation of succinate to fumarate in the tricarboxylic acid cycle and transfers the electrons to ubiquinone in the electron transport chain^{40,41}. SDHB iron clusters facilitate the transfer of electrons from FADH2 to ubiquinone⁴². Mutations in SDH genes lead to abnormal stabilization of hypoxia-inducible factors and pseudo-hypoxia, thereby promoting cell proliferation, angiogenesis, and tumorigenesis^{40,41}. Sporadic and inherited pathogenic mutations in SDHB are known to confer an increased risk for paragangliomas, pheochromocytomas, and gastrointestinal stromal tumors^{1,43}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in SDHB are observed in 1% cervical squamous cell carcinoma, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, skin cutaneous melanoma, colorectal adenocarcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, thymoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, and kidney renal clear cell carcinoma^{18,19}. Biallelic loss of SDHB is observed in 6% of cholangiocarcinoma and 2% of pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma^{18,19}.

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

LATS1 deletion

large tumor suppressor kinase 1

<u>Background:</u> The LATS1 gene encodes the large tumor suppressor kinase 1¹. LATS1 is a serine/threonine protein kinase and, along with LATS2, is a member of the AGC kinase family comprised of more than 60 members^{36,37}. LATS1 and LATS2 are downstream phosphorylation targets of the Hippo pathway, and when activated, mediate the phosphorylation of transcriptional co-activators YAP and TAZ³⁸. Phosphorylation of YAP and TAZ results in their cytoplasmic retention and inhibition of nuclear translocation, thereby inhibiting YAP and TAZ mediated transcription of target genes³⁸. Mutations in LATS1 and LATS2 are suggested to result in kinase inactivation and loss of function, supporting a tumor suppressor role for LATS1³⁹.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in LATS1 are observed in 9% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, colorectal adenocarcinoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, and skin cutaneous melanoma, and 3% of stomach adenocarcinoma and lung adenocarcinoma^{18,19}. Biallelic deletion of LATS1 is observed in 8% of uveal melanoma, 6% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, and 2% liver hepatocellular carcinoma, ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, and thymoma^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for LATS1 aberrations.

MAP2K7 deletion

mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 7

Background: The MAP2K7 gene encodes the mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 7, also known as MEK71. MAP2K7 is involved in the JNK signaling pathway along with MAP3K4, MAP3K12, MAP2K4, MAPK8, MAPK9, and MAPK10^{32,33,34}. Activation of MAPK proteins occurs through a kinase signaling cascade^{32,33,35}. Specifically, MAP3Ks are responsible for phosphorylation of MAP2K family members^{32,33,35}. 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^{32,33,35}.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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^{18,19}. Biallelic deletions are observed in 4% of uterine carcinosarcoma, 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, and 1% of uveal melanoma^{18,19}.

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

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 genome⁸¹. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue^{82,83}. MSI is closely tied to the status of the mismatch repair (MMR) genes. In humans, the core MMR genes include MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, and PMS2⁸⁴. 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 D17S250⁸⁵. 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)⁸⁵. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS^{86,87,88,89,90}. 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 genes⁸³. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer^{82,83,87,91}.

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^{82,83,92,93}. 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^{92,93}.

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab⁹⁴ (2014) and nivolumab⁹⁵ (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab⁹⁴ 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 indication⁹⁴. Dostarlimab⁹⁶ (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^{88,97}. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab⁹⁸ (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^{88,99,100}. 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 patients¹⁰⁰. 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^{101,102}. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers^{101,102}.

TNFRSF14 deletion

TNF receptor superfamily member 14

<u>Background:</u> The TNFRSF14 gene encodes TNF receptor superfamily member 14¹. 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 cytokines⁷⁶. TNFSF-TNFRSF interactions regulate several signaling pathways, including those involved in immune cell differentiation, survival, and death⁷⁶. TNFRSF14 can be stimulated by several ligands, including the TNFSF14 ligand (also known as LIGHT), BTLA, and CD160^{76,77}. 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 survival⁷⁶. In lymphoma, binding of TNFRSF14 by TNFSF14 has been observed to enhance Fas-induced apoptosis, suggesting a tumor suppressor role⁷⁷.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in TNFRSF14 are observed in 5% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), and 2% of skin cutaneous melanoma^{18,19}. Biallelic loss of TNFRSF14 occurs in 8% of DLBCL and uveal melanoma, 3% of cholangiocarcinoma, and 2% of adrenocortical carcinoma and liver hepatocellular carcinoma^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for TNFRSF14 aberrations. Somatic mutations in TNFRSF14 are diagnostic for follicular lymphoma⁷⁸. In addition, TNFRSF14 mutations are associated with poor prognosis in follicular lymphoma^{79,80}.

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Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

PGD deletion

phosphogluconate dehydrogenase

<u>Background:</u> The PGD gene encodes phosphogluconate dehydrogenase, an essential enzyme of the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) that catalyzes oxidative decarboxylation of 6-phosphogluconate to ribulose-5-phosphate and reduction of NADP+ to NADPH^{1,61}. PPP mediated generation of pentose phosphates and NADPH is essential for nucleic acid synthesis and fatty acid synthesis, respectively, making it a crucial metabolic pathway for cancer cell survival and proliferation^{62,63}. Although biallelic deletion appears to be more common than amplification across cancer types, post-translational modifications and overexpression of PGD in cancer have also been observed to result in elevated PPP activity, which is associated with cancer cell proliferation^{61,64}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in PGD have been observed in 4% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 3% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 2% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and bladder urothelial carcinoma^{18,19}. Biallelic loss of PGD has been observed in 4% of adrenocortical carcinoma, 3% of cholangiocarcinoma, and 2% of pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma^{18,19}. Amplification of PGD has been observed in 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and sarcoma^{18,19}.

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

EPHA2 deletion

EPH receptor A2

Background: The EPHA2 gene encodes the EPH receptor A21. 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^{53,54}. 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 apoptosis⁵⁴. 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^{53,54}.

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^{18,19}.

 $\underline{\hbox{Potential relevance:}} \ \hbox{Currently, no the rapies are approved for EPHA2 aberrations.}$

TPMT p.(Y240C) c.719A>G

thiopurine S-methyltransferase

<u>Background:</u> The TPMT gene encodes thiopurine S-methyltransferase, a cytosolic enzyme that methylates aromatic and heterocyclic sulfhydryl compounds such as thiopurines^{1,103,104}. TPMT is the major enzyme responsible for the metabolic inactivation of thiopurine chemotherapeutic drugs used in the treatment of acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL), including, 6-mercaptopurine, 6-thioguanine, and azathioprine^{103,104,105}. Inherited TPMT polymorphisms, including TPMT*2, TPMT*3A, TPMT*3B, TPMT*3C, and TPMT*8, can result in TPMT deficiency, which is characterized by impaired enzymatic activity and confers an increased risk of severe toxicity to thiopurine drugs due to an increase in systemic drug exposure^{103,105}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in TPMT are observed in 2% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma and colorectal adenocarcinoma^{18,19}. Biallelic loss of TPMT is observed in 1% of stomach adenocarcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, and adrenocortical carcinoma^{18,19}. Amplification of TPMT is observed in 7% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, 6% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 4% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, uveal melanoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, and skin cutaneous melanoma, 3% of cholangiocarcinoma, and 2% of breast invasive carcinoma, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and liver hepatocellular carcinoma^{18,19}.

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

HLA-B deletion

major histocompatibility complex, class I, B

Background: The HLA-B gene encodes the major histocompatibility complex, class I, B^1 . MHC (major histocompatibility complex) class I molecules are located on the cell surface of nucleated cells and present antigens from within the cell for recognition by cytotoxic T cells⁶⁶. MHC class I molecules are heterodimers composed of two polypeptide chains, α and $B2M^{67}$. The classical MHC class I genes

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

include HLA-A, HLA-B, and HLA-C and encode the α polypeptide chains, which present short polypeptide chains, of 7 to 11 amino acids, to the immune system to distinguish self from non-self^{68,69,70}. Downregulation of MHC class I promotes tumor evasion of the immune system, suggesting a tumor suppressor role for HLA-B⁷¹.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in HLA-B are observed in 10% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 5% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma and stomach adenocarcinoma, 4% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and colorectal adenocarcinoma, 3% of uterine cancer, and 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma^{18,19}. Biallelic loss of HLA-B is observed in 5% of DLBCL^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for HLA-B aberrations.

PSMB8 p.(E134Nfs*25) c.400delG

proteasome subunit beta 8

Background: The PSMB8 gene encodes proteasome 20S subunit beta 8, a member of the proteasome B-type family, also known as the T1B family¹. PSMB8, along with PSMB9 and PSMB10, functions as a beta subunit in the immunoproteasome (IP) protein complex to generate peptides for binding onto human leukocyte antigen (HLA) I molecules, which facilitates antigen presentation¹06,¹07. IP gene expression is inducible by interferon-gamma, a pleiotropic cytokine that exhibits a complex role in tumor immunity¹06,¹08. Loss of function of the immunoproteasome due to lack of subunit expression or down-regulation has been associated with a mesenchymal phenotype and may lead to immune evasion through antigen loss¹07.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in PSMB8 are observed in 3% of skin cutaneous melanoma and 2% of colorectal adenocarcinoma^{18,19}. Biallelic loss of PSMB8 is observed in 6% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for PSMB8 aberrations.

MAP3K4 deletion

mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase 4

Background: The MAP3K4 gene encodes the mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 4, also known as MEKK4¹. MAP3K4 is involved in the JNK signaling pathway along with MAP3K12, MAP2K4, MAP2K7, MAPK8, MAPK9, and MAPK10³². Activation of MAPK proteins occurs through a kinase signaling cascade³².3³,3⁵5. Specifically, MAP3Ks are responsible for phosphorylation of MAP2K family members³².3³,3⁵5. 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 inflammation³².3³,3⁵5. In intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma, mutations leading to lack of MAP3K4 activity result in vascular invasion and poor survival, supporting a tumor suppressor role for MAP3K4⁴⁴.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MAP3K4 are observed in 10% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 9% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 7% of uterine carcinosarcoma, and 6% of colorectal adenocarcinoma^{18,19}. Biallelic deletions are observed in 6% of uveal melanoma, 3% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, and 2% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL)^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for MAP3K4 aberrations.

JAK2 deletion

Janus kinase 2

Background: The JAK2 gene encodes Janus kinase 2, a non-receptor protein tyrosine kinase (PTK)^{1,2}. JAK2 is a member of the Janus kinase (JAK) family, which includes JAK1, JAK2, JAK3, and TYK2². Janus kinases are characterized by the presence of a second phosphotransferase-related or pseudokinase domain immediately N-terminal to the PTK domain³. JAK kinases function with signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) proteins to facilitate intracellular signal transduction required for cytokine receptor and interferon-alpha/beta/gamma signaling^{3,4,5}. Since JAK2 functions in interferon receptor signaling, inactivation of JAK2 is proposed to inhibit the presentation of tumor antigens and contribute to immune evasion^{6,7}.

Alterations and prevalence: Clonal expansion of hematopoietic cells in myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPNs) is associated with loss of heterozygosity on chromosome 9p and subsequently the acquisition of a dominant somatic gain-of-function V617F mutation in the pseudokinase domain of JAK2^{8,9}. The JAK2 V617F mutation is rarely observed in acute myeloid leukemia (AML)^{10,11}. Mutations in the pseudokinase domain of JAK2, including R683G, have been detected in 8% of ALL^{12,13}. JAK2 fusions are observed in myeloid and lymphoid leukemias with partner genes including TEL, PCM1, and BCR^{14,15,16,17}. JAK2 fusions are infrequently observed in solid tumors¹⁸. As with JAK1, truncating mutations in JAK2 are common in solid tumors and particularly enriched in uterine cancers¹⁸. JAK2 is amplified in 4% of sarcoma, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 3% of ovarian serous

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

cystadenocarcinoma, and 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, and uterine carcinosarcoma^{18,19}. Alterations in JAK2 are also observed in pediatric cancers^{18,19}. Somatic mutations are observed in 6% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 3% of soft tissue sarcoma, 2% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, and less than 1% of leukemia (3 in 354 cases), bone cancer (2 in 327 cases), glioma (1 in 297 cases), Wilms tumor (1 in 710 cases), and peripheral nervous system tumors (1 in 1158 cases)^{18,19}. JAK2 fusions are observed in 10% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma and 1% of leukemia (1 in 107 cases)^{18,19}. JAK2 is amplified in 1% of Wilms tumor (2 in 136 cases) and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (4 in 731 cases)^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for JAK2 aberrations. JAK2 V617F and JAK2 exon 12 mutations are considered major diagnostic criteria of polycythemia vera (PV)^{20,21}. Ruxolitinib²² (2011) is a JAK1/2 inhibitor FDA approved for PMF and PV, although specific JAK2 alterations are not indicated. Other JAK inhibitors including tofacitinib (2012) and baricitinib (2018) are approved for the treatment of rheumatoid arthritis. JAK2 mutations and fusions are associated with poor risk in acute lymphoblastic leukemia²³. Clinical cases associated with high tumor mutational burden (TMB) but failure to respond to anti-PD1 therapy were associated with loss of function mutations in JAK1/2²⁴. Some case studies report efficacy with ruxolitinib in myeloid and lymphoid leukemias, although duration of complete response was limited^{14,15,16,17}.

WT1 deletion

Wilms tumor 1

Background: The WT1 gene encodes the Wilms tumor 1 homolog, a zinc-finger transcriptional regulator that plays an important role in cellular growth and metabolism^{25,26}. WT1 is endogenously expressed in embryonic kidney cells as well as hematopoietic stem cells and regulates the process of filtration of blood through the kidneys²⁷. WT1 protein contains N-terminal proline-glutamine rich regions that are involved in RNA and protein interaction while the C-terminal domain contains Kruppel link cysteine histidine zinc fingers that are involved in DNA binding²⁵. WT1 interacts with various genes including TP53, STAT3, and epigenetic modifiers such as TET2 and TET3^{25,28}. WT1 is primarily characterized as a tumor suppressor gene involved in the development of renal Wilm's tumor (WT), a rare pediatric kidney cancer^{25,29}. Loss of function mutations observed in WT1, including large deletions and intragenic mutations, can impact the zinc finger domain, thereby decreasing the DNA binding activity²⁵. WT1 overexpression is observed in acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and lymphoid cancers^{25,30}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations of WT1 occur in 7% of AML, 5% of melanoma, and 1% of mesothelioma¹⁹. WT1 overexpression is observed in AML, acute lymphoblastic lymphoma (ALL), and myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS)²⁵

Potential relevance: Somatic mutations in WT1, including nonsense, frameshift, and splice-site mutations, are associated with poor prognosis in MDS³¹. Overexpression of WT1 in MDS is associated with a higher risk of progression to AML. WT1 overexpression is also associated with poor prognosis, resistance to chemotherapy, and poor overall survival in AML²⁸.

KMT2D deletion

lysine methyltransferase 2D

Background: The KMT2D gene encodes the lysine methyltransferase 2D protein, a transcriptional coactivator and histone H3 lysine 4 (H3K4) methyltransferase¹. KMT2D belongs to the SET domain protein methyltransferase superfamily⁶⁵. KMT2D is known to be involved in the regulation of cell differentiation, metabolism, and tumor suppression due to its methyltransferase activity⁶⁵. Mutations or deletions in the enzymatic SET domain of KMT2D are believed to result in loss of function and may contribute to defective enhancer regulation and altered gene expression⁶⁵.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in KMT2D are predominantly missense or truncating and are observed in 29% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 28% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 27% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 22% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 21% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 17% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 15% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and 14% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma^{18,19}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for KMT2D 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, PIK3CG, 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, FGR3, 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, ERRF11, ETV6, FANCA, FANCC, FANCD2, FANCE, FANCE, FANCG, FANCI, FANCI, FANCH, FA

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Relevant Therapy Summary

FANCE deletion

ARID2 deletion

■ In this cancer type
O In other cancer type
In this cancer type and other cancer types
X No evidence

ARID1A deletion					
Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
pamiparib, tislelizumab	×	×	×	×	(II)
tucidinostat, catequentinib, PD-1 Inhibitor, anti-PD-L1 antibody	×	×	×	×	(II)
olaparib, pembrolizumab	×	×	×	×	O (II)
belinostat, tremelimumab, durvalumab	×	×	×	×	O (I)

1 Artor deletion					
Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
pamiparib, tislelizumab	×	×	×	×	(II)

ARID1B deletion					
Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
olaparib, pembrolizumab	×	×	×	×	O (II)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
olaparib, pembrolizumab	×	×	×	×	O (II)

SDHB deletion					
Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
regorafenib	×	×	×	×	O (II)

 $[\]star$ 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	7.5%
Not Detected	Not Applicable

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

Thermo Fisher Scientific's lon Torrent Oncomine Reporter software was used in generation of this report. Software was developed and designed internally by Thermo Fisher Scientific. The analysis was based on Oncomine Reporter (6.1.1 data version 2025.10(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 2025-09-17. NCCN information was sourced from www.nccn.org and is current as of 2025-09-02. EMA information was sourced from www.ema.europa.eu and is current as of 2025-09-17. ESMO information was sourced from www.esmo.org and is current as of 2025-09-02. Clinical Trials information is current as of 2025-09-02. 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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