

삼광의료재단 서울특별시 서초구 바우뫼로41길 <sup>58</sup> (양재동, 선화빌딩) 검사기관 11365200

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

**Report Date**: 14 Nov 2025 1 of 9

Patient Name: 윤명희 Primary Tumor Site: Gender: F Collection Date: N25-291

# Sample Cancer Type: Colon Cancer

Table of Contents	Page
Variant Details	1
Biomarker Descriptions	2

# Report Highlights

colon

2025.10.30

0 Relevant Biomarkers0 Therapies Available

0 Clinical Trials

# **Relevant Colon Cancer Findings**

Gene	Finding		Gene	Finding	
BRAF	None detected		NTRK3	None detected	
ERBB2	None detected		PIK3CA	None detected	
KRAS	None detected		POLD1	None detected	
NRAS	None detected		POLE	None detected	
NTRK1	None detected		RET	None detected	
NTRK2	None detected				
Genomic Alte	eration	Finding			
Microsate	llite Status	Microsatellite stable			
Tumor Mu	tational Burden	4.73 Mut/Mb measured			

HRD Status: HR Proficient (HRD-)

### **Relevant Biomarkers**

No biomarkers associated with relevant evidence found in this sample

#### Prevalent cancer biomarkers without relevant evidence based on included data sources

APC p.(R1450\*) c.4348C>T, APC p.(R876\*) c.2626C>T, Microsatellite stable, TP53 p.(S183\*) c.548C>G, HLA-B deletion, IKBKB amplification, NQ01 p.(P187S) c.559C>T, SOX9 p.(W115\*) c.345G>A, AMER1 p.(R358\*) c.1072C>T, Tumor Mutational Burden

### **Variant Details**

DNA	Sequence Variar	nts					
Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
APC	p.(R1450*)	c.4348C>T	COSM13127	chr5:112175639	28.09%	NM_000038.6	nonsense
APC	p.(R876*)	c.2626C>T	COSM18852	chr5:112173917	23.34%	NM_000038.6	nonsense

### **Variant Details (continued)**

### **DNA Sequence Variants (continued)**

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
TP53	p.(S183*)	c.548C>G		chr17:7578382	30.87%	NM_000546.6	nonsense
NQ01	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T		chr16:69745145	57.46%	NM_000903.3	missense
SOX9	p.(W115*)	c.345G>A		chr17:70117877	42.66%	NM_000346.4	nonsense
AMER1	p.(R358*)	c.1072C>T	COSM22960	chrX:63412095	19.69%	NM_152424.4	nonsense
STAT1	p.(?)	c.1728-1G>A		chr2:191843728	28.40%	NM_007315.4	unknown
HLA-B	p.([T118I;L119I])	c.353_355delCCCinsT CA		chr6:31324208	100.00%	NM_005514.8	missense, missense
ZFHX3	p.(N599I)	c.1796A>T		chr16:72992249	18.30%	NM_006885.4	missense
KASH5	p.(K182E)	c.544A>G		chr19:49901315	5.33%	NM_144688.5	missense

_				
Conv	/ Num	hor V	aria	TIONO
	/ 1911111	Del V	alla	10115

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
HLA-B	chr6:31322252	0.08	0.54
IKBKB	chr8:42129602	6.31	2.04
SETBP1	chr18:42281265	0.5	0.64

## **Biomarker Descriptions**

APC p.(R1450\*) c.4348C>T, APC p.(R876\*) c.2626C>T

APC, WNT signaling pathway regulator

Background: The APC gene encodes the adenomatous polyposis coli tumor suppressor protein that plays a crucial role in regulating the  $\beta$ -catenin/WNT signaling pathway which is involved in cell migration, adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation<sup>61</sup>. APC is an antagonist of WNT signaling as it targets  $\beta$ -catenin for proteasomal degradation<sup>62,63</sup>. Germline mutations in APC are predominantly inactivating and result in an autosomal dominant predisposition for familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) which is characterized by numerous polyps in the intestine<sup>61,64</sup>. Acquiring a somatic mutation in APC is considered to be an early and possibly initiating event in colorectal cancer<sup>65</sup>.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in APC are observed in up to 65% of colorectal cancer, and in up to 15% of stomach adenocarcinoma and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma<sup>8,9,66</sup>. In colorectal cancer, ~60% of somatic APC mutations have been reported to occur in a mutation cluster region (MCR) resulting in C-terminal protein truncation and APC inactivation<sup>67,68</sup>.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for APC 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 genome<sup>39</sup>. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue<sup>40,41</sup>. 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<sup>42</sup>. 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<sup>43</sup>. 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)<sup>43</sup>. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS<sup>44,45,46,47,48</sup>. 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<sup>41</sup>.

# **Biomarker Descriptions (continued)**

LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer 40,41,45,49.

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<sup>40,41,50,51</sup>. 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<sup>50,51</sup>.

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab<sup>52</sup> (2014) and nivolumab<sup>53</sup> (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab<sup>52</sup> 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<sup>52</sup>. Dostarlimab<sup>54</sup> (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<sup>46,55</sup>. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab<sup>56</sup> (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<sup>46,57,58</sup>. 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<sup>58</sup>. 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<sup>59,60</sup>. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers<sup>59,60</sup>.

#### TP53 p.(S183\*) c.548C>G

tumor protein p53

<u>Background</u>: 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<sup>1</sup>. In unstressed cells, TP53 is kept inactive by targeted degradation via MDM2, a substrate recognition factor for ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis<sup>14</sup>. Alterations in TP53 are required for oncogenesis as they result in loss of protein function and gain of transforming potential<sup>15</sup>. Germline mutations in TP53 are the underlying cause of Li-Fraumeni syndrome, a complex hereditary cancer predisposition disorder associated with early-onset cancers<sup>16,17</sup>.

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%)8.9.18.19.20.21. 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 R2828.9. Invariably, recurrent missense mutations in TP53 inactivate its ability to bind DNA and activate transcription of target genes<sup>22,23,24,25</sup>. Alterations in TP53 are also observed in pediatric cancers<sup>8,9</sup>. 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) <sup>8,9</sup>. 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)<sup>8,9</sup>.

Potential relevance: The small molecule p53 reactivator, PC14586<sup>26</sup> (2020), received a fast track designation by the FDA for advanced tumors harboring a TP53 Y220C mutation. In addition to investigational therapies aimed at restoring wild-type TP53 activity, compounds that induce synthetic lethality are also under clinical evaluation<sup>27,28</sup>. TP53 mutation are a diagnostic marker of SHH-activated, TP53-mutant medulloblastoma<sup>29</sup>. 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)<sup>30,31,32,33,34</sup>. In mantle cell lymphoma, TP53 mutations are associated with poor prognosis when treated with conventional therapy including hematopoietic cell transplant<sup>35</sup>. 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<sup>36</sup>.

#### **HLA-B** deletion

major histocompatibility complex, class I, B

Background: The HLA-B gene encodes the major histocompatibility complex, class I, B¹. 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 cells². MHC class I molecules are heterodimers composed of two polypeptide chains, α and B2M³. The classical MHC class I genes

# **Biomarker Descriptions (continued)**

include HLA-A, HLA-B, and HLA-C and encode the  $\alpha$  polypeptide chains, which present short polypeptide chains, of 7 to 11 amino acids, to the immune system to distinguish self from non-self<sup>4,5,6</sup>. Downregulation of MHC class I promotes tumor evasion of the immune system, suggesting a tumor suppressor role for HLA-B<sup>7</sup>.

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<sup>8,9</sup>. Biallelic loss of HLA-B is observed in 5% of DLBCL<sup>8,9</sup>.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for HLA-B 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 complex¹0. 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.¹0. NF-κB signaling is critical in the inflammatory response and is also known to be implicated in other important physiological processes including cell proliferation¹¹. In resting cells, NF-κB dimers are sequestered in the cytoplasm by IκB proteins¹¹. Upon signal initiation, IκB proteins are phosphorylated by the IKK complex, leading to IκB protein degradation and liberation of NF-κB dimers¹¹. Subsequently, released NF-κB dimers undergo nuclear translocation which leads to the expression of various proinflammatory and cell survival genes¹².³

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in IKBKB are observed in 6% of uterine carcinoma, 5% of melanoma and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL)<sup>8,9</sup>. Amplifications are observed in 14% of uterine carcinosarcoma, 7% of breast invasive carcinoma and esophageal cancer<sup>8,9</sup>. IKBKB activating mutations are most commonly found at lysine 175 and are observed in 8% of splenic marginal B-cell lymphomas<sup>10</sup>.

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

#### SOX9 p.(W115\*) c.345G>A

SRY-box 9

<u>Background</u>: The SOX9 gene encodes the SRY-box transcription factor 9 protein<sup>1</sup>. SOX9 regulates developmental pathways including stemness, differentiation, and progenitor development<sup>37</sup>. SOX9 has been shown to regulate cell cycle progression and cell proliferation<sup>37</sup>. In cancer, SOX9 aberrations have been observed to confer both gain or loss of function depending on the cancer type, supporting both tumor suppressor and oncogenic roles for SOX9<sup>38</sup>.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in SOX9 are predominantly missense or truncating and are observed in 12% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 4% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and 3% of stomach adenocarcinoma<sup>8,9</sup>. Amplification of SOX9 is observed in 3% of sarcoma, breast invasive carcinoma, mesothelioma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, and liver hepatocellular carcinoma, 2% of stomach adenocarcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, lung adenocarcinoma, skin cutaneous melanoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, brain lower grade glioma, pancreatic adenocarcinoma, thymoma, and ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, and 1% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma and prostate adenocarcinoma<sup>8,9</sup>. Biallelic deletion is also observed in 1% of uveal melanoma, sarcoma, and stomach adenocarcinoma<sup>8,9</sup>.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for SOX9 aberrations.

#### AMER1 p.(R358\*) c.1072C>T

APC membrane recruitment protein 1

Background: The AMER1 gene encodes APC membrane recruitment protein 1¹. AMER1 works in complex with CTNNB1, APC, AXIN1, and AXIN2 to regulate the WNT pathway¹,69. The WNT signaling pathway is responsible for regulating several key components during embryogenesis and has been observed to be involved in tumorigenesis⁻¹0,7¹. Consequently, the WNT signaling pathway is a target for therapeutic response in various cancer types⁻¹¹. The AMER1 gene is located on the X chromosome and is commonly inactivated in Wilms tumor, a pediatric kidney cancer⁻²². AMER1 has also been observed to influence cell proliferation, tumorigenesis, migration, invasion, and cell cycle arrest⁶٩.

# **Biomarker Descriptions (continued)**

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations of AMER1 are observed in 13% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 10% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 8% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 7% of lung adenocarcinoma, 4% of stomach adenocarcinoma, and uterine carcinosarcoma, 3% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, and 2% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, liver hepatocellular carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and breast invasive carcinoma<sup>8,9</sup>. Biallelic deletion of AMER1 is observed in 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, diffuse large b-cell lymphoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, and pancreatic adenocarcinoma, and 1% of stomach adenocarcinoma, sarcoma, liver hepatocellular carcinoma, colorectal adenocarcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma<sup>8,9</sup>.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for AMER1 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, FANCI, 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, RPT0R, RUNX1, SDHA, SDHB, SDHD, SETBP1, SETD2, SF3B1, SLC01B3, 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 (continued)**

### 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, FANCF, FANCG, FANCI, FANCI, 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

### **HRR Details**

Gene/Genomic Alteration	Finding
LOH percentage	5.03%
Not Detected	Not Applicable

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

Thermo Fisher Scientific's Ion Torrent Oncomine Reporter software was used in generation of this report. Software was developed and designed internally by Thermo Fisher Scientific. The analysis was based on Oncomine Reporter (6.1.1 data version 2025.10(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.

#### References

- 1. O'Leary et al. Reference sequence (RefSeq) database at NCBI: current status, taxonomic expansion, and functional annotation. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016 Jan 4;44(D1):D733-45. PMID: 26553804
- 2. Hulpke et al. The MHC I loading complex: a multitasking machinery in adaptive immunity. Trends Biochem Sci. PMID: 23849087
- 3. Adams et al. The adaptable major histocompatibility complex (MHC) fold: structure and function of nonclassical and MHC class l-like molecules. Annu Rev Immunol. 2013;31:529-61. PMID: 23298204
- 4. Rossjohn et al. T cell antigen receptor recognition of antigen-presenting molecules. Annu Rev Immunol. 2015;33:169-200. PMID: 25493333
- 5. Parham. MHC class I molecules and KIRs in human history, health and survival. Nat Rev Immunol. 2005 Mar;5(3):201-14. PMID: 15719024
- Sidney et al. HLA class I supertypes: a revised and updated classification. BMC Immunol. 2008 Jan 22;9:1. PMID: 18211710
- 7. Cornel et al. MHC Class I Downregulation in Cancer: Underlying Mechanisms and Potential Targets for Cancer Immunotherapy. Cancers (Basel). 2020 Jul 2;12(7). PMID: 32630675
- 8. Weinstein et al. The Cancer Genome Atlas Pan-Cancer analysis project. Nat. Genet. 2013 Oct;45(10):1113-20. PMID: 24071849
- Cerami et al. The cBio cancer genomics portal: an open platform for exploring multidimensional cancer genomics data. Cancer Discov. 2012 May;2(5):401-4. PMID: 22588877
- 10. Page et al. Context-Dependent Role of IKKβ in Cancer. Genes (Basel). 2017 Dec 8;8(12). PMID: 29292732
- 11. Christian et al. The Regulation of NF-κB Subunits by Phosphorylation. Cells. 2016 Mar 18;5(1). PMID: 26999213
- 12. Kabacaoglu et al. NF-κB/Rel Transcription Factors in Pancreatic Cancer: Focusing on RelA, c-Rel, and RelB. PMID: 31277415
- 13. Lawrence. The nuclear factor NF-kappaB pathway in inflammation. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol. 2009 Dec;1(6):a001651. PMID: 20457564
- 14. Nag et al. The MDM2-p53 pathway revisited. J Biomed Res. 2013 Jul;27(4):254-71. PMID: 23885265
- 15. Muller et al. Mutant p53 in cancer: new functions and therapeutic opportunities. Cancer Cell. 2014 Mar 17;25(3):304-17. PMID: 24651012
- 16. Olivier et al. TP53 mutations in human cancers: origins, consequences, and clinical use. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol. 2010 Jan;2(1):a001008. PMID: 20182602
- 17. Guha et al. Inherited TP53 Mutations and the Li-Fraumeni Syndrome. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med. 2017 Apr 3;7(4). PMID: 28270529
- 18. Peter et al. Comprehensive genomic characterization of squamous cell lung cancers. Nature. 2012 Sep 27;489(7417):519-25. PMID: 22960745
- 19. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. Nature. 2015 Jan 29;517(7536):576-82. PMID: 25631445
- 20. Campbell et al. Distinct patterns of somatic genome alterations in lung adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas. Nat. Genet. 2016 Jun;48(6):607-16. PMID: 27158780
- 21. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Integrated genomic characterization of oesophageal carcinoma. Nature. 2017 Jan 12;541(7636):169-175. doi: 10.1038/nature20805. Epub 2017 Jan 4. PMID: 28052061
- 22. Olivier et al. The IARC TP53 database: new online mutation analysis and recommendations to users. Hum. Mutat. 2002 Jun;19(6):607-14. PMID: 12007217
- 23. Rivlin et al. Mutations in the p53 Tumor Suppressor Gene: Important Milestones at the Various Steps of Tumorigenesis. Genes Cancer. 2011 Apr;2(4):466-74. PMID: 21779514
- 24. Petitjean et al. TP53 mutations in human cancers: functional selection and impact on cancer prognosis and outcomes. Oncogene. 2007 Apr 2;26(15):2157-65. PMID: 17401424
- 25. Soussi et al. Recommendations for analyzing and reporting TP53 gene variants in the high-throughput sequencing era. Hum. Mutat. 2014 Jun;35(6):766-78. PMID: 24729566
- https://www.globenewswire.com/news-release/2020/10/13/2107498/0/en/PMV-Pharma-Granted-FDA-Fast-Track-Designationof-PC14586-for-the-Treatment-of-Advanced-Cancer-Patients-that-have-Tumors-with-a-p53-Y220C-Mutation.html
- 27. Parrales et al. Targeting Oncogenic Mutant p53 for Cancer Therapy. Front Oncol. 2015 Dec 21;5:288. doi: 10.3389/fonc.2015.00288. eCollection 2015. PMID: 26732534
- 28. Zhao et al. Molecularly targeted therapies for p53-mutant cancers. Cell. Mol. Life Sci. 2017 Nov;74(22):4171-4187. PMID: 28643165
- 29. Louis et al. The 2021 WHO Classification of Tumors of the Central Nervous System: a summary. Neuro Oncol. 2021 Aug 2;23(8):1231-1251. PMID: 34185076

# **References (continued)**

- 30. Döhner et al. Diagnosis and management of AML in adults: 2022 recommendations from an international expert panel on behalf of the ELN. Blood. 2022 Sep 22;140(12):1345-1377. PMID: 35797463
- 31. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Myelodysplastic Syndromes [Version 2.2025]
- 32. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Myeloproliferative Neoplasms [Version 2.2025]
- 33. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia/Small Lymphocytic Lymphoma [Version 3.2025]
- 34. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia [Version 2.2025]
- 35. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-B-Cell Lymphomas [Version 3.2025]
- 36. Bernard et al. Implications of TP53 allelic state for genome stability, clinical presentation and outcomes in myelodysplastic syndromes. Nat. Med. 2020 Aug 3. PMID: 32747829
- 37. Jana et al. SOX9: The master regulator of cell fate in breast cancer. Biochem Pharmacol. 2020 Apr;174:113789. PMID: 31911091
- 38. Aguilar-Medina et al. SOX9 Stem-Cell Factor: Clinical and Functional Relevance in Cancer. J Oncol. 2019;2019:6754040. PMID: 31057614
- 39. Lander et al. Initial sequencing and analysis of the human genome. Nature. 2001 Feb 15;409(6822):860-921. PMID: 11237011
- 40. Baudrin et al. Molecular and Computational Methods for the Detection of Microsatellite Instability in Cancer. Front Oncol. 2018 Dec 12;8:621. doi: 10.3389/fonc.2018.00621. eCollection 2018. PMID: 30631754
- 41. Nojadeh et al. Microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. EXCLI J. 2018;17:159-168. PMID: 29743854
- 42. Saeed et al. Microsatellites in Pursuit of Microbial Genome Evolution. Front Microbiol. 2016 Jan 5;6:1462. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2015.01462. eCollection 2015. PMID: 26779133
- 43. Boland et al. A National Cancer Institute Workshop on Microsatellite Instability for cancer detection and familial predisposition: development of international criteria for the determination of microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. Cancer Res. 1998 Nov 15;58(22):5248-57. PMID: 9823339
- 44. Halford et al. Low-level microsatellite instability occurs in most colorectal cancers and is a nonrandomly distributed quantitative trait. Cancer Res. 2002 Jan 1;62(1):53-7. PMID: 11782358
- 45. Imai et al. Carcinogenesis and microsatellite instability: the interrelationship between genetics and epigenetics. Carcinogenesis. 2008 Apr;29(4):673-80. PMID: 17942460
- 46. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Colon Cancer [Version 4.2025]
- 47. Pawlik et al. Colorectal carcinogenesis: MSI-H versus MSI-L. Dis. Markers. 2004;20(4-5):199-206. PMID: 15528785
- 48. Lee et al. Low-Level Microsatellite Instability as a Potential Prognostic Factor in Sporadic Colorectal Cancer. Medicine (Baltimore). 2015 Dec;94(50):e2260. PMID: 26683947
- 49. Latham et al. Microsatellite Instability Is Associated With the Presence of Lynch Syndrome Pan-Cancer. J. Clin. Oncol. 2019 Feb 1;37(4):286-295. PMID: 30376427
- 50. Cortes-Ciriano et al. A molecular portrait of microsatellite instability across multiple cancers. Nat Commun. 2017 Jun 6;8:15180. doi: 10.1038/ncomms15180. PMID: 28585546
- 51. Bonneville et al. Landscape of Microsatellite Instability Across 39 Cancer Types. JCO Precis Oncol. 2017;2017. PMID: 29850653
- 52. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda\_docs/label/2025/125514s178lbl.pdf
- 53. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda\_docs/label/2025/125554s131lbl.pdf
- 54. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda\_docs/label/2024/761174s009lbl.pdf
- 55. NCCN Guidelines® NCCN-Rectal Cancer [Version 3.2025]
- 56. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda\_docs/label/2025/125377s136lbl.pdf
- 57. Ribic et al. Tumor microsatellite-instability status as a predictor of benefit from fluorouracil-based adjuvant chemotherapy for colon cancer. N. Engl. J. Med. 2003 Jul 17;349(3):247-57. PMID: 12867608
- 58. Klingbiel et al. Prognosis of stage II and III colon cancer treated with adjuvant 5-fluorouracil or FOLFIRI in relation to microsatellite status: results of the PETACC-3 trial. Ann. Oncol. 2015 Jan;26(1):126-32. PMID: 25361982
- Hermel et al. The Emerging Role of Checkpoint Inhibition in Microsatellite Stable Colorectal Cancer. J Pers Med. 2019 Jan 16;9(1).
  PMID: 30654522
- 60. Ciardiello et al. Immunotherapy of colorectal cancer: Challenges for therapeutic efficacy. Cancer Treat. Rev. 2019 Jun;76:22-32. PMID: 31079031
- 61. Wang et al. Loss of Tumor Suppressor Gene Function in Human Cancer: An Overview. Cell. Physiol. Biochem. 2018;51(6):2647-2693. PMID: 30562755

**Report Date:** 14 Nov 2025 9 of 9

# **References (continued)**

- 62. Stamos et al. The β-catenin destruction complex. Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol. 2013 Jan 1;5(1):a007898. PMID: 23169527
- 63. Minde et al. Messing up disorder: how do missense mutations in the tumor suppressor protein APC lead to cancer? Mol Cancer. 2011 Aug 22;10:101. doi: 10.1186/1476-4598-10-101. PMID: 21859464
- 64. Aoki et al. Adenomatous polyposis coli (APC): a multi-functional tumor suppressor gene. J. Cell. Sci. 2007 Oct 1;120(Pt 19):3327-35. PMID: 17881494
- 65. Miyoshi et al. Somatic mutations of the APC gene in colorectal tumors: mutation cluster region in the APC gene. Hum. Mol. Genet. 1992 Jul;1(4):229-33. PMID: 1338904
- 66. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Comprehensive molecular characterization of gastric adenocarcinoma. Nature. 2014 Sep 11;513(7517):202-9. doi: 10.1038/nature13480. Epub 2014 Jul 23. PMID: 25079317
- 67. Rowan et al. APC mutations in sporadic colorectal tumors: A mutational "hotspot" and interdependence of the "two hits". Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 2000 Mar 28;97(7):3352-7. PMID: 10737795
- 68. Laurent-Puig et al. APC gene: database of germline and somatic mutations in human tumors and cell lines. Nucleic Acids Res. 1998 Jan 1;26(1):269-70. PMID: 9399850
- 69. Liu et al. Aging (Albany NY). 2020 May 4;12(9):8372-8396. PMID: 32365332
- 70. Komiya et al. Wnt signal transduction pathways. Organogenesis. 2008 Apr;4(2):68-75. PMID: 19279717
- 71. Zhang et al. J Hematol Oncol. 2020 Dec 4;13(1):165. PMID: 33276800
- 72. Rivera et al. An X chromosome gene, WTX, is commonly inactivated in Wilms tumor. Science. 2007 Feb 2;315(5812):642-5. PMID: 17204608