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Patient Name: 장태선
Gender: M
Sample ID: N25-297

Primary Tumor Site: lung
Collection Date: 2025.10.24

Sample Cancer Type: Lung Cancer

Table of Contents	Page

Report Highlights
3 Relevant Biomarkers
18 Therapies Available
201 Clinical Trials

Relevant Lung Cancer Findings

Gene	Finding	Gene	Finding
ALK	None detected	NTRK1	None detected
BRAF	None detected	NTRK2	None detected
EGFR	***EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G***	NTRK3	None detected
ERBB2	None detected	RET	None detected
KRAS	None detected	ROS1	None detected
MET	None detected		

Genomic Alteration	Finding
Tumor Mutational Burden	***3.8 Mut/Mb measured***

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IA	*EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G* epidermal growth factor receptor Allele Frequency: 14.06% Locus: chr7:55259515 Transcript: NM_005228.5	**afatinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **amivantamab + lazertinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **bevacizumab† + erlotinib** [2 / I, II+] **dacomitinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **erlotinib** [2 / I, II+] **erlotinib + ramucirumab** [1, 2 / I, II+] **gefitinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **osimertinib** [1, 2 / I, II+] **osimertinib + chemotherapy** [1, 2 / I] **amivantamab + chemotherapy** [1, 2 / II+] **datopotamab deruxtecan-dlnk** [1 / II+] **BAT1706 + erlotinib** [2] gefitinib + chemotherapy [I] atezolizumab + bevacizumab + chemotherapy [II+]	None*	196

*** Public data sources included in relevant therapies: FDA**[1], NCCN, **EMA**[2], ESMO
*** Public data sources included in prognostic and diagnostic significance:** NCCN, ESMO
† Includes biosimilars/generics
Line of therapy: I: First-line therapy, II+: Other line of therapy
Tier Reference: Li et al. *Standards and Guidelines for the Interpretation and Reporting of Sequence Variants in Cancer: A Joint Consensus Recommendation of the Association for Molecular Pathology, American Society of Clinical Oncology, and College of American Pathologists.* J Mol Diagn. 2017 Jan;19(1):4-23.

Relevant Biomarkers (continued)

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	*CDKN2A deletion* cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A Locus: chr9:21968178	None*	None*	4
IIC	*ATRX deletion* ATRX, chromatin remodeler Locus: chrX:76763769	None*	None*	1

*** Public data sources included in relevant therapies: FDA**[1], NCCN, **EMA**[2], ESMO
*** Public data sources included in prognostic and diagnostic significance:** NCCN, ESMO
† Includes biosimilars/generics
Line of therapy: I: First-line therapy, II+: Other line of therapy
Tier Reference: Li et al. *Standards and Guidelines for the Interpretation and Reporting of Sequence Variants in Cancer: A Joint Consensus Recommendation of the Association for Molecular Pathology, American Society of Clinical Oncology, and College of American Pathologists.* J Mol Diagn. 2017 Jan;19(1):4-23.

Alerts informed by public data sources: ⊘ Contraindicated, Resistance, Breakthrough, Fast Track

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G	**izalontamab brengitecan** [1], **patritumab deruxtecan** [1] **DB-1310** [1]

Public data sources included in alerts: FDA[1], NCCN, **EMA**[2], ESMO

Prevalent cancer biomarkers without relevant evidence based on included data sources

Microsatellite stable, HLA-A deletion, HLA-B deletion, NQO1 p.(P187S) c.559C>T, ZRSR2 deletion, BCOR deletion, USP9X deletion, DDX3X deletion, KDM6A deletion, RBM10 deletion, KDM5C deletion, SMC1A deletion, AMER1 deletion, ZMYM3 deletion, PHF6 deletion, Tumor Mutational Burden

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
EGFR	p.(L858R)	c.2573T>G	COSM6224	chr7:55259515	14.06%	NM_005228.5	missense
NQO1	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T	.	chr16:69745145	43.34%	NM_000903.3	missense
PBRM1	p.(G1116C)	c.3346G>T	.	chr3:52613182	12.85%	NM_018313.5	missense
HLA-B	p.([T118I;L119I])	c.353_355delCCCinsTCA	.	chr6:31324208	99.57%	NM_005514.8	missense, missense
KMT2C	p.(S1310C)	c.3929C>G	.	chr7:151902223	13.27%	NM_170606.3	missense
TMEM132C	p.(N441Y)	c.1321A>T	.	chr12:129153977	14.56%	NM_001136103.2	missense
MGA	p.(N962S)	c.2885A>G	.	chr15:42003348	4.10%	NM_001164273.1	missense
RBM10	p.(?)	c.1092_1096+1delTGACAG	.	chrX:47038889	25.34%	NM_001204468.1	unknown

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
CDKN2A	chr9:21968178	0.33	0.67
ATRX	chrX:76763769	0	0.54
HLA-A	chr6:29910229	0.38	0.68

Variant Details (continued)

Copy Number Variations (continued)

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
HLA-B	chr6:31322252	0	0.59
ZRSR2	chrX:15808582	0	0.54
BCOR	chrX:39911340	0	0.56
USP9X	chrX:40982869	0	0.55
DDX3X	chrX:41193501	0	0.49
KDM6A	chrX:44732715	0	0.54
RBM10	chrX:47006798	0	0.57
KDM5C	chrX:53221892	0	0.55
SMC1A	chrX:53406966	0	0.53
AMER1	chrX:63409727	0	0.57
ZMYM3	chrX:70460753	0	0.55
PHF6	chrX:133511628	0.28	0.66
EIF1AX	chrX:20148599	0.05	0.61
ARAF	chrX:47422311	0	0.55
AR	chrX:66766015	0	0.51

Biomarker Descriptions

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G

epidermal growth factor receptor

Background: The EGFR gene encodes the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), a member of the ERBB/human epidermal growth factor receptor (HER) tyrosine kinase family[23]. In addition to EGFR/ERBB1/HER1, other members of the ERBB/HER family include ERBB2/HER2, ERBB3/HER3, and ERBB4/HER4[126]. EGFR ligand-induced dimerization results in kinase activation and leads to stimulation of oncogenic signaling pathways, including the PI3K/AKT/MTOR and RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK pathways[127]. Activation of these pathways promotes cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival[128,129].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations in the tyrosine kinase domain (TKD) of EGFR are observed in approximately 10-20% of lung adenocarcinoma, and at higher frequencies in never-smoker, female, and Asian populations[8,10,130,131]. The most common mutations occur near the ATP-binding pocket of the TKD and include short in-frame deletions in exon 19 (EGFR exon 19 deletion) and the L858R amino acid substitution in exon 21[132]. These mutations constitutively activate EGFR resulting in downstream signaling, and represent 80% of the EGFR mutations observed in lung cancer[132]. A second group of less prevalent activating mutations includes E709K, G719X, S768I, L861Q, and short in-frame insertion mutations in exon 20[133,134,135,136]. EGFR activating mutations in lung cancer tend to be mutually exclusive to KRAS activating mutations[137]. In contrast, a different set of recurrent activating EGFR mutations in the extracellular domain includes R108K, A289V and G598V and are primarily observed in glioblastoma[132,138]. Amplification of EGFR is observed in several cancer types including 44% of glioblastoma multiforme, 12% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 10% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 8% of brain lower grade glioma, 6% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 5% of bladder urothelial carcinoma cancer, lung adenocarcinoma, and stomach adenocarcinoma, 3% of cholangiocarcinoma, and 2% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, sarcoma, and breast invasive carcinoma[8,10,131,138,139]. Deletion of exons 2-7, encoding the extracellular domain of EGFR (EGFRvIII), results in overexpression of a ligand-independent constitutively active protein and is observed in approximately 30% of glioblastoma[140,141,142]. Alterations in EGFR are rare in pediatric cancers[8,10]. Somatic mutations are observed in 2% of bone cancer and glioma, 1% of leukemia (4 in 354 cases), and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 252 cases), peripheral nervous system cancers (1 in 1158 cases), and embryonal tumors (3 in 332 cases)[8,10]. Amplification of EGFR is observed in 2% of bone cancer and less than 1% of Wilms tumor (1 in 136 cases), B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases), and leukemia (1 in 250 cases)[8,10].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Potential relevance: Approved first-generation EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) include erlotinib[143] (2004) and gefitinib[144] (2015), which block the activation of downstream signaling by reversible interaction with the ATP-binding site. Although initially approved for advanced lung cancer, the discovery that drug sensitivity was associated with exon 19 and exon 21 activating mutations allowed first-generation TKIs to become subsequently approved for front-line therapy in lung cancer tumors containing exon 19 or exon 21 activating mutations[145]. Second-generation TKIs afatinib[146] (2013) and dacomitinib[147] (2018) bind EGFR and other ERBB/HER gene family members irreversibly and were subsequently approved. First- and second-generation TKIs afatinib, dacomitinib, erlotinib, and gefitinib are recommended for the treatment NSCLC harboring EGFR exon 19 insertions, exon 19 deletions, point mutations L861Q, L858R, S768I, and codon 719 mutations, whereas most EGFR exon 20 insertions, except p.A763_Y764insFQEA, confer resistance to the same therapies[148,149,150,151]. In 2025, the FDA approved the irreversible EGFR inhibitor, sunvozertinib[152], for the treatment of locally advanced or metastatic non-small cell lung cancer in adult patients with EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations whose disease has progressed on or after platinum-based chemotherapy. In 2022, the FDA granted breakthrough therapy designation to the irreversible EGFR inhibitor, CLN-081 (TPC-064)[153] for locally advanced or metastatic non-small cell lung cancer harboring EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations. In lung cancer containing EGFR exon 19 or 21 activating mutations, treatment with TKIs is eventually associated with the emergence of drug resistance[154]. The primary resistance mutation that emerges following treatment with first-generation TKI is T790M, accounting for 50-60% of resistant cases[132]. Third generation TKIs were developed to maintain sensitivity in the presence of T790M[154]. Osimertinib[155] (2015) is an irreversible inhibitor indicated for metastatic EGFR T790M positive lung cancer and for the first-line treatment of metastatic NSCLC containing EGFR exon 19 deletions or exon 21 L858R mutations. Like first-generation TKIs, treatment with osimertinib is associated with acquired resistance, specifically the C797S mutation, which occurs in 22-44% of cases[154]. The T790M and C797S mutations may be each selected following sequential treatment with a first-generation TKI followed by a third-generation TKI or vice versa[156]. T790M and C797S can occur in either cis or trans allelic orientation[156]. If C797S is observed following progression after treatment with a third-generation TKI in the first-line setting, sensitivity may be retained to first-generation TKIs[156]. If C797S co-occurs in trans with T790M following sequential treatment with first- and third-generation TKIs, patients may exhibit sensitivity to combination first- and third-generation TKIs, but resistance to third-generation TKIs alone[156,157]. However, C797S occurring in cis conformation with T790M, confers resistance to first- and third-generation TKIs[156]. Fourth-generation TKIs are in development to overcome acquired resistance mutations after osimertinib treatment, including BDTX-1535[158] (2024), a CNS-penetrating small molecule inhibitor, that received fast track designation from the FDA for the treatment of patients with EGFR C797S-positive NSCLC who have disease progression on or after a third-generation EGFR TKI. EGFR-targeting antibodies including cetuximab (2004), panitumumab (2006), and necitumumab (2016) are under investigation in combination with EGFR-targeting TKIs for efficacy against EGFR mutations[159]. The bispecific antibody, amivantamab[160] (2021), targeting EGFR and MET was approved for NSCLC tumors harboring EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations. A small molecule kinase inhibitor, lazertinib[161] (2024), was approved in combination with amivantamab as a first-line treatment for adult patients with locally advanced or metastatic NSCLC with EGFR exon 19 deletions or exon 21 L858R mutations. HLX-42[162], an anti-EFGR-antibody-drug conjugate (ADC) consisting of an anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody conjugated with a novel high potency DNA topoisomerase I (topo I) inhibitor, also received fast track designation (2024) for the treatment of patients with advanced or metastatic EGFR-mutated non-small cell lung cancer whose disease has progressed on a third-generation EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor. CPO301[163] (2023) received a fast track designation from the FDA for the treatment of EGFR mutations in patients with metastatic NSCLC who are relapsed/refractory or ineligible for EGFR targeting therapy such as 3rd-generation EGFR inhibitors, including osimertinib. The Oncoprex immunogene therapy quaratusugene ozeplasmid[164] (2020), in combination with osimertinib, received fast track designation from the FDA for NSCLC tumors harboring EGFR mutations that progressed on osimertinib alone. Amplification and mutations of EGFR commonly occur in H3-wild type IDH-wild type diffuse pediatric high-grade glioma[71,165,166].

CDKN2A deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A

Background: CDKN2A encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression[23]. CDKN2A, also known as p16/INK4A, belongs to a family of INK4 cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors, which also includes CDKN2B (p15/INK4B), CDKN2C (p18/INK4C), and CDKN2D (p19/INK4D)[59]. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb[60,61,62]. CDKN2A encodes two alternative transcript variants, namely p16 and p14ARF, both of which exhibit differential tumor suppressor functions[63]. Specifically, the CDKN2A/p16 transcript inhibits cell cycle kinases CDK4 and CDK6, whereas the CDKN2A/p14ARF transcript stabilizes the tumor suppressor protein p53 to prevent its degradation[23,63,64]. CDKN2A aberrations commonly co-occur with CDKN2B[59]. Loss of CDKN2A/p16 results in downstream inactivation of the Rb and p53 pathways, leading to uncontrolled cell proliferation[65]. Germline mutations of CDKN2A are known to confer a predisposition to melanoma and pancreatic cancer[66,67].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic alterations in CDKN2A often result in loss of function (LOF) which is attributed to copy number loss, truncating, or missense mutations[68]. Somatic mutations in CDKN2A are observed in 20% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and pancreatic adenocarcinoma, 15% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 13% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 8% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 7% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 6% of cholangiocarcinoma, 4% of lung adenocarcinoma and stomach adenocarcinoma, and 2% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, and cervical squamous cell carcinoma[8,10]. Biallelic deletion of CDKN2A is observed in 56% of glioblastoma multiforme, 45% of mesothelioma, 39% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 32% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 31% of skin cutaneous melanoma and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 28% of pancreatic

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

adenocarcinoma, 27% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, 26% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 17% of lung adenocarcinoma and cholangiocarcinoma, 15% of sarcoma, 11% of stomach adenocarcinoma and of brain lower grade glioma, 7% of adrenocortical carcinoma, 6% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, 4% of breast invasive carcinoma, kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma and thymoma, 3% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma and kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, and 2% of uterine carcinosarcoma and kidney chromophobe[8,10]. Alterations in CDKN2A are also observed in pediatric cancers[10]. Biallelic deletion of CDKN2A is observed in 68% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 40% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 25% of glioma, 19% of bone cancer, and 6% of embryonal tumors[10]. Somatic mutations in CDKN2A are observed in less that 1.5% of bone cancer (5 in 327 cases), B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (3 in 252 cases), and leukemia (1 in 354 cases)[10].

Potential relevance: Loss of CDKN2A can be useful in the diagnosis of mesothelioma, and mutations in CDKN2A are ancillary diagnostic markers of malignant peripheral nerve sheath tumors[16,69,70]. Additionally, deletion of CDKN2B is a molecular marker used in staging Grade 4 pediatric IDH-mutant astrocytoma[71]. Currently, no therapies are approved for CDKN2A aberrations. However, CDKN2A LOF leading to CDK4/6 activation may confer sensitivity to CDK inhibitors such as palbociclib and abemaciclib[72,73,74]. Alternatively, CDKN2A expression and Rb inactivation demonstrate resistance to palbociclib in cases of glioblastoma multiforme[75]. CDKN2A (p16) expression is associated with a favorable prognosis for progression-free survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS) in p16/HPV positive head and neck cancer[76,77,78,79].

ATRX deletion

ATRX, chromatin remodeler

Background: The ATRX gene encodes the ATRX chromatin remodeler and ATPase/helicase domain protein, which belongs to SWI/SNF family of chromatin remodeling proteins[23]. The SWI/SNF proteins are a group of DNA translocases that use ATP hydrolysis to remodel chromatin structure and maintain genomic integrity by controlling transcriptional regulation, DNA repair, and chromosome stability through the regulation of telomere length[31,32,33,34]. ATRX is a tumor suppressor that interacts with the MRE11-RAD50-NBN (MRN) complex, which is involved in double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) break repair[35,36,37].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations of ATRX are observed in 38% of brain lower grade glioma, 15% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 14% of sarcoma, 9% of glioblastoma multiforme and skin cutaneous melanoma, 7% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 6% of lung adenocarcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and cervical squamous cell carcinoma, 5% of bladder urothelial carcinoma and lung squamous cell carcinoma, 4% of adrenocortical carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and uterine carcinosarcoma, and 2% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, breast invasive carcinoma, pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma, kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, pancreatic adenocarcinoma, liver hepatocellular carcinoma and kidney chromophobe[8,10]. Biallelic deletion of ATRX is observed in 7% of sarcoma, 3% of kidney chromophobe, and 2% of brain lower grade glioma[8,10]. Although alterations of ATRX in pediatric populations are rare, somatic mutations are observed in 6% of gliomas, 4% of bone cancer, 3% of soft tissue sarcoma, and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 252 cases), embryonal tumor (3 in 332 cases), and leukemia (2 in 354 cases)[10]. Biallelic deletion of ATRX is observed in 1% of peripheral nervous system tumors (1 in 91 cases) in and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases)[10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for ATRX aberrations. Loss of ATRX protein expression correlates with the presence of ATRX mutations[38,39]. ATRX deficiency along with IDH mutation and TP53 mutation is diagnostic of astrocytoma IDH-mutant as defined by the World Health Organization (WHO)[40,41].

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[104]. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[105,106]. 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[107]. 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[108]. 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)[108]. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS[109,110,111,112,113]. 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[106]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[105,106,110,114].

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[105,106,115,116]. 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[115,116].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab[117] (2014) and nivolumab[118] (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab[117] 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[117]. Dostarlimab[119] (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[111,120]. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab[121] (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[111,122,123]. 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[123]. 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[124,125]. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers[124,125].

HLA-A deletion

major histocompatibility complex, class I, A

Background: The HLA-A gene encodes the major histocompatibility complex, class I, A[23]. 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 cells[86]. MHC class I molecules are heterodimers composed of two polypeptide chains, α and B2M[87]. The classical MHC class I genes 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[88,89,90]. Downregulation of MHC class I promotes tumor evasion of the immune system, suggesting a tumor suppressor role for HLA-A[91].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in HLA-A are observed in 7% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 4% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 3% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 2% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma and stomach adenocarcinoma[8,10]. Biallelic loss of HLA-A is observed in 4% of DLBCL[8,10].

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

HLA-B deletion

major histocompatibility complex, class I, B

Background: The HLA-B gene encodes the major histocompatibility complex, class I, B[23]. 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 cells[86]. MHC class I molecules are heterodimers composed of two polypeptide chains, α and B2M[87]. The classical MHC class I genes 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[88,89,90]. Downregulation of MHC class I promotes tumor evasion of the immune system, suggesting a tumor suppressor role for HLA-B[91].

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[8,10]. Biallelic loss of HLA-B is observed in 5% of DLBCL[8,10].

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

ZRSR2 deletion

zinc finger CCCH-type, RNA binding motif and serine/arginine rich 2

Background: The ZRSR2 gene encodes the zinc finger CCCH-type, RNA binding motif and serine/arginine-rich 2 protein, a component of the spliceosome. Specifically, ZRSR2 encodes a splicing factor that is involved in the recognition of the 3' intron splice site[44]. ZRSR2 interacts with components of the pre-spliceosome assembly including SRSF2 and U2AF2/U2AF1 heterodimer[44,45]. Mutations in ZRSR2 can lead to deregulated global and alternative mRNA splicing, nuclear-cytoplasm export, and unspliced mRNA degradation while concurrently altering the expression of multiple genes[44,46].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Alterations and prevalence: ZRSR2 alterations including nonsense and frameshift mutations are observed in 5-10% of myelodysplastic syndromes (MDS) and 4% of uterine cancer. ZRSR2 deletions are observed in 4% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 3% of head and neck and esophageal cancers[6,10].

Potential relevance: Mutation of ZRSR2 is associated with poor prognosis in myelodysplastic syndromes as well as poor/adverse risk in acute myeloid leukemia (AML)[6,18,19].

BCOR deletion

BCL6 corepressor

Background: The BCOR gene encodes the B-cell CLL/lymphoma 6 (BCL6) co-repressor protein, which potentiates transcriptional repression by BCL6[1,2]. BCOR also associates with class I and II histone deacetylases (HDACs), suggesting an alternate mechanism for BCOR-mediated transcriptional repression independent of BCL6[2]. Genetic alterations in BCOR result in protein dysfunction, which suggests BCOR functions as a tumor suppressor gene[3,4,5].

Alterations and prevalence: Genetic alterations in BCOR include missense, nonsense, and frameshift mutations that result in loss of function and have been observed in up to 5% of myelodysplastic syndromes (MDS), 5-10% of chronic myelomonocytic leukemia (CMML), and 1-5% of acute myeloid leukemia (AML)[6,7,8,9]. Higher mutational frequencies are reported in some solid tumors, including up to 15% of uterine cancer and 5-10% of colorectal cancer, stomach cancer, cholangiocarcinoma, and melanoma[8,10]. Although less common, BCOR fusions and internal tandem duplications (ITDs) have been reported in certain rare cancer types[11,12,13]. Specifically, BCOR::CCNB3 rearrangements define a particular subset of sarcomas with Ewing sarcoma-like morphology known as BCOR::CCNB3 sarcomas (BCS)[14,15]. Alterations in BCOR are also observed in pediatric cancers[8,10]. Somatic mutations are observed in 13% of soft tissue sarcoma, 4% of glioma, 3% of retinoblastoma, 2% of bone cancer, 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (3 in 252 cases), and less than 1% of embryonal tumors (3 in 332 cases), leukemia (2 in 311 cases), and Wilms tumor (2 in 710 cases)[8,10]. Other alterations have been reported in clear cell carcinoma of the kidney, a rare pediatric renal malignant tumor, with one study reporting the presence of BCOR ITDs in more than 90% of cases[11].

Potential relevance: BCOR rearrangement, including inv(X)(p11.4p11.22) resulting in BCOR::CCNB3 fusion, is diagnostic of sarcoma with BCOR genetic alterations, a subset of undifferentiated round cell sarcomas[16,17]. Additionally, translocation t(x;22)(p11;q13) resulting in ZC3H7B::BCOR fusion is a useful ancillary diagnostic marker of high-grade endometrial stromal sarcoma[16]. Somatic mutation in BCOR is one of the possible molecular abnormality requirements for the diagnosis of myelodysplasia-related AML (AML-MR) and is associated with poor prognosis in AML and MDS[6,7,18,19,20]. In FLT3-ITD negative AML patients under 65 with intermediate cytogenetic prognosis, mutations in BCOR confer inferior overall survival (OS) as well as relapse-free survival (RFS) compared to those without BCOR abnormalities (OS = 13.6% vs. 55%; RFS = 14.3% vs. 44.5%)[9]. Additionally, BCOR ITDs and BCOR::EP300 fusion are molecular alterations of significance in pediatric gliomas[21,22].

USP9X deletion

ubiquitin specific peptidase 9 X-linked

Background: The USP9X gene encodes the ubiquitin specific peptidase 9 X-linked protein[23]. USP9X is a deubiquitinating enzyme (DUB) and a member of the ubiquitin-specific protease (USP) subclass of cysteine proteases[42]. DUBs catalyze the removal of ubiquitin from target proteins, thereby counter-regulating post-translational ubiquitin modifications within the cell[42,43]. USP9X has many substrates and is commonly upregulated in several solid tumor types, supporting an oncogenic role for USP9X[43]. Conversely, in some cancer types, USP9X has been observed to function as a tumor suppressor, suggesting its exact role in cancer may be dependent on its substrates[43]. In breast cancer, USP9X has been shown to stabilize BRCA1 by inhibiting its ubiquitination, thereby influencing the regulation of homologous recombination and repair[43].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations are observed in 16% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 11% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 7% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 6% of cholangiocarcinoma, and 5% of stomach adenocarcinoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[8,10]. Biallelic deletion in USP9X is observed in 4% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 3% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and 2% of mesothelioma, uterine carcinosarcoma, and lung squamous cell carcinoma[8,10]. Alterations in USP9X are also observed in the pediatric population[10]. Somatic mutations are observed in 2% of Hodgkin lymphoma (1 in 61 cases) and bone cancer (5 in 327 cases) and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 252 cases), glioma (2 in 297 cases), and leukemia (1 in 311 cases)[10]. Biallelic deletion in USP9X is observed in less than 1% of leukemia (2 in 250 cases) and B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases)[10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for USP9X aberrations.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

DDX3X deletion

DEAD-box helicase 3, X-linked

Background: The DDX3X gene encodes DEAD-box helicase 3 X-linked, a member of the DEAD-box protein family, which is part of the RNA helicase superfamily II[23,92]. DEAD-box helicases contain twelve conserved motifs including a "DEAD" domain which is characterized by a conserved amino acid sequence of Asp-Glu-Ala-Asp (DEAD)[92,93,94,95]. In DEAD-box proteins, the DEAD domain interacts with β- and γ-phosphates of ATP through Mg2+ and is required for ATP hydrolysis[92]. DDX3X is involved in several processes including the unwinding of double-stranded RNA, splicing of pre-mRNA, RNA export, transcription, and translation[96,97,98,99,100,101,102,103]. Deregulation of DDX3X has been shown to impact cancer progression by modulating proliferation, metastasis, and drug resistance[96].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in DDX3X are observed in 9% of skin cutaneous melanoma and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 7% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, 4% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, and stomach adenocarcinoma, and 2% of lung squamous cell carcinoma and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[8,10]. Biallelic loss of DDX3X is observed in 4% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 3% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and 2% of mesothelioma and lung squamous cell carcinoma[8,10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for DDX3X aberrations.

KDM6A deletion

lysine demethylase 6A

Background: The KDM6A gene encodes the lysine demethylase 6A protein[23]. KDM6A is a histone demethylase that belongs to the KDM6 family of histone H3 lysine demethylases that also includes KDM6B and KDM6C[47]. Methylation of histone lysine and arginine residues functions to regulate transcription and the DNA damage response, specifically in the recruitment of DNA repair proteins and transcriptional repression[29]. KDM6A removes methylation of di- and trimethylated histone 3 lysine 27 (H3K27)[28,47]. KDM6A also interacts with various transcription factors as well as KMT2C, KMT2D, and CBP/p300 chromatin-modifying enzymes, and the SWI/SNF chromatin-remodeling complex to facilitate transcriptional regulation[47]. Mutations in KDM6A lead to activation of the histone methyltransferase, EZH2, resulting in transcriptional repression[47]. KDM6A is believed to function as a tumor suppressor by antagonizing EZH2-mediated transcriptional repression and promoting transcriptional regulation[47,48].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in KDM6A are observed in 26% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 7% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 5% of skin cutaneous melanoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, and 4% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma, pancreatic adenocarcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[8,10]. Biallelic loss of KDM6A is observed in 8% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 4% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 3% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, and pancreatic adenocarcinoma[8,10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for KDM6A aberrations. Pre-clinical data suggest that KDM6A loss of function or inactivating mutations may respond to EZH2 inhibitors[48].

RBM10 deletion

RNA binding motif protein 10

Background: RBM10 encodes RNA binding motif protein 10, a member of the RNA binding proteins (RBP) family[23,24]. RBM10 regulates RNA splicing and post-transcriptional modification of mRNA[24,25]. RBM10 is suggested to function as a tumor suppressor by promoting apoptosis and inhibiting cellular proliferation through regulation of the MDM2 and p53 feedback loops, as well as influencing BAX expression[24]. RBM10 has been observed to promote transformation and proliferation in lung cancer, supporting an oncogenic role for RBM10[26,27].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in RBM10 are observed in 7% of lung adenocarcinoma, 6% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 3% of colorectal adenocarcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, and 2% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, pancreatic adenocarcinoma, adrenocortical carcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and kidney chromophobe[8,10]. Biallelic loss of RBM10 is observed in 3% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and 2% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[8,10]. Amplification of RBM10 is observed in 5% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, 4% of uterine carcinosarcoma, and 2% of sarcoma, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, adrenocortical carcinoma, and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma[8,10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for RBM10 aberrations.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

KDM5C deletion

lysine demethylase 5C

Background: The KDM5C gene encodes the lysine demethylase 5C protein, a histone demethylase, also known as JARID1C[23,28]. Methylation of histone lysine and arginine residues functions to regulate transcription and DNA damage response[29]. KDM5C removes methylation of di- and trimethylated histone H3 lysine 4 (H3K4) and is involved in the repression of transcription in response to DNA damage[28,29]. KDM5C alterations result in aberrant H3K4 trimethylation at active replication origins which can lead to stalled DNA replication[30].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in KDM5C are observed in 9% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 5% of kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, skin cutaneous melanoma, 4% of lung adenocarcinoma and uterine carcinosarcoma[8,10]. Biallelic loss of KDM5C is observed in 3% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and 2% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[8,10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for KDM5C aberrations.

SMC1A deletion

structural maintenance of chromosomes 1A

Background: SMC1A encodes the structural maintenance of chromosomes 1A and belongs to structural maintenance of chromosomes (SMCs) family, which consists of SMC1A, SMC1B, SMC2, SMC3, SMC4, SMC5, and SMC6[23,55,56]. As a part of the cohesion-core complex, SMC1A plays a crucial role in chromosome segregation during mitosis and meiosis[55,57]. SMC1A also plays a role in cell cycle regulation, DNA damage repair, gene transcription regulation, and genomic organization[55]. SMC1A aberrations, including overexpression, have been observed in several cancer types and have been proposed to promote tumor formation and epithelial to mesenchymal transition[56,58].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in SMC1A are observed in 11% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 5% of skin cutaneous melanoma and acute myeloid leukemia, 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma and bladder urothelial carcinoma, 3% cervical squamous cell carcinoma and glioblastoma multiforme, 2% diffuse large B-Cell lymphoma, adrenocortical carcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma and lung adenocarcinoma[8,10]. Amplification of SMC1A is found in 4% of diffuse large B-Cell lymphoma, 3% of sarcoma, and 2% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, adrenocortical carcinoma, and uterine carcinosarcoma[8,10]. Biallelic loss of SMC1A is found in 3% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and 2% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[8,10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for SMC1A aberrations.

AMER1 deletion

APC membrane recruitment protein 1

Background: The AMER1 gene encodes APC membrane recruitment protein 1[23]. AMER1 works in complex with CTNNB1, APC, AXIN1, and AXIN2 to regulate the WNT pathway[23,80]. The WNT signaling pathway is responsible for regulating several key components during embryogenesis and has been observed to be involved in tumorigenesis[81,82]. Consequently, the WNT signaling pathway is a target for therapeutic response in various cancer types[82]. The AMER1 gene is located on the X chromosome and is commonly inactivated in Wilms tumor, a pediatric kidney cancer[83]. AMER1 has also been observed to influence cell proliferation, tumorigenesis, migration, invasion, and cell cycle arrest[80].

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[8,10]. 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[8,10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for AMER1 aberrations.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

ZMYM3 deletion

zinc finger MYM-type containing 3

Background: The ZMYM3 gene encodes the zinc finger MYM-type containing 3 protein[23]. While the function is not fully understood, ZMYM3 is capable of binding histones and DNA, and may facilitate the repair of double-strand breaks (DSBs)[84].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in ZMYM3 are observed in 12% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 5% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 3% of lung adenocarcinoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, and bladder urothelial carcinoma[8,10]. In prostate cancer, ZMYM3 mutations have been observed to be enriched in African American men compared to white men with one study demonstrating occurrence in 11.7% vs. 2.7% of patients, respectively[85]. Biallelic deletion of ZMYM3 is observed in 3% of cholangiocarcinoma and 2% of sarcoma and kidney chromophobe[8,10].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for ZMYM3 aberrations.

PHF6 deletion

PHD finger protein 6

Background: The PHF6 gene encodes the plant homeodomain (PHD) finger protein 6 which contains four nuclear localization signals and two imperfect PHD zinc finger domains. PHF6 is a tumor suppressor that interacts with the nucleosome remodeling deacetylase (NuRD) complex, which regulates nucleosome positioning and transcription of genes involved in development and cell-cycle progression[49,50].

Alterations and prevalence: The majority of PHF6 aberrations are nonsense, frameshift (70%), or missense (30%) mutations, which result in complete loss of protein expression[49,51,52,53]. Truncating or missense mutations in PHF6 are observed in 38% of adult and 16% of pediatric T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia (T-ALL), 20-25% of mixed phenotype acute leukemias (MPAL), and 3% of AML, and 2.6% of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)[51,53]. Missense mutations recurrently involve codon C215 and the second zinc finger domain of PHF6[51]. PHF6 mutations are frequently observed in hematologic malignancies from male patients[49,51].

Potential relevance: Somatic mutations in PHF6 are associated with reduced overall survival in AML patients treated with high-dose induction chemotherapy[54].

Alerts Informed By Public Data Sources

Current FDA Information

Contraindicated Not recommended Resistance Breakthrough Fast Track

FDA information is current as of 2025-09-17. For the most up-to-date information, search www.fda.gov.

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G

izalontamab brengitecan

Cancer type: Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer

Variant class: EGFR L858R mutation

Supporting Statement:
The FDA has granted Breakthrough designation to EGFR/HER3 targeting bispecific antibody-drug conjugate (ADC), izalontamab brengitecan, for the treatment of patients with locally advanced or metastatic non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) harboring EGFR exon 19 deletions or exon 21 L858R substitution mutations who experienced disease progression on or after treatment with an EGFR TKI and platinum-based chemotherapy.

Reference:

https://www.onclive.com/view/fda-grants-breakthrough-therapy-designation-to-izalontamab-brengitecan-in-egfr-nsclc

patritumab deruxtecan

Cancer type: Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer

Variant class: EGFR L858R mutation or EGFRi sensitizing mutation

Supporting Statement:
The FDA has granted Breakthrough Therapy designation to a potential first-in-class HER3 directed antibody-drug conjugate, patritumab deruxtecan, for metastatic or locally advanced, EGFR-mutant non-small cell lung cancer.

Reference:

https://www.cancernetwork.com/view/fda-grants-breakthrough-therapy-status-to-patritumab-deruxtecan-for-egfr-metastatic-nsclc

DB-1310

Cancer type: Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer

Variant class: EGFR L858R mutation

Supporting Statement:
The FDA has granted Fast Track designation to the HER3-targeting antibody-drug conjugate, DB-1310, for the treatment of adult patients with advanced, unresectable or metastatic non-squamous non-small cell lung cancer with EGFR exon 19 deletion or L858R mutation and who have progressed after treatment with a third-generation EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor and platinum-based chemotherapy.

Reference:

https://www.targetedonc.com/view/novel-her3-adc-receives-fda-fast-track-for-refractory-nsclc

Genes Assayed

Genes Assayed for the Detection of DNA Sequence Variants

ABL1, ABL2, ACVR1, AKT1, AKT2, AKT3, ALK, AR, ARAF, ATP1A1, AURKA, AURKB, AURKC, AXL, BCL2, BCL2L12, BCL6, BCR, BMP5, BRAF, BTK, CACNA1D, CARD11, CBL, CCND1, CCND2, CCND3, CCNE1, CD79B, CDK4, CDK6, CHD4, CSF1R, CTNNB1, CUL1, CYSLTR2, DDR2, DGCR8, DROSHA, E2F1, EGFR, EIF1AX, EPAS1, ERBB2, ERBB3, ERBB4, ESR1, EZH2, FAM135B, FGF7, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3,

Genes Assayed (continued)

Genes Assayed for the Detection of DNA Sequence Variants (continued)

FGFR4, FLT3, FLT4, FOXA1, FOXL2, FOXO1, GATA2, GLI1, GNA11, GNAQ, GNAS, HIF1A, HRAS, IDH1, IDH2, IKBKB, IL6ST, IL7R, IRF4, IRS4, KCNJ5, KDR, KIT, KLF4, KLF5, KNSTRN, KRAS, MAGOH, MAP2K1, MAP2K2, MAPK1, MAX, MDM4, MECOM, MED12, MEF2B, MET, MITF, MPL, MTOR, MYC, MYCN, MYD88, MYOD1, NFE2L2, NRAS, NSD2, NT5C2, NTRK1, NTRK2, NTRK3, NUP93, PAX5, PCBP1, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, PIK3C2B, PIK3CA, PIK3CB, PIK3CD, PIK3CG, PIK3R2, PIM1, PLCG1, PPP2R1A, PPP6C, PRKACA, PTPN11, PTPRD, PXDNL, RAC1, RAF1, RARA, RET, RGS7, RHEB, RHOA, RICTOR, RIT1, ROS1, RPL10, SETBP1, SF3B1, SIX1, SIX2, SLCO1B3, SMC1A, SMO, SNCAIP, SOS1, SOX2, SPOP, SRC, SRSF2, STAT3, STAT5B, STAT6, TAF1, TERT, TGFBR1, TOP1, TOP2A, TPMT, TRRAP, TSHR, U2AF1, USP8, WAS, XPO1, ZNF217, ZNF429

Genes Assayed for the Detection of Copy Number Variations

ABCB1, ABL1, ABL2, ABRAXAS1, ACVR1B, ACVR2A, ADAMTS12, ADAMTS2, AKT1, AKT2, AKT3, ALK, AMER1, APC, AR, ARAF, ARHGAP35, ARID1A, ARID1B, ARID2, ARID5B, ASXL1, ASXL2, ATM, ATR, ATRX, AURKA, AURKC, AXIN1, AXIN2, AXL, B2M, BAP1, BARD1, BCL2, BCL2L12, BCL6, BCOR, BLM, BMPR2, BRAF, BRCA1, BRCA2, BRIP1, CARD11, CASP8, CBFB, CBL, CCND1, CCND2, CCND3, CCNE1, CD274, CD276, CDC73, CDH1, CDH10, CDK12, CDK4, CDK6, CDKN1A, CDKN1B, CDKN2A, CDKN2B, CDKN2C, CHD4, CHEK1, CHEK2, CIC, CREBBP, CSMD3, CTCF, CTLA4, CTNND2, CUL3, CUL4A, CUL4B, CYLD, CYP2C9, DAXX, DDR1, DDR2, DDX3X, DICER1, DNMT3A, DOCK3, DPYD, DSC1, DSC3, EGFR, EIF1AX, ELF3, EMSY, ENO1, EP300, EPCAM, EPHA2, ERAP1, ERAP2, ERBB2, ERBB3, ERBB4, ERCC2, ERCC4, ERRFI1, ESR1, ETV6, EZH2, FAM135B, FANCA, FANCC, FANCD2, FANCE, FANCF, FANCG, FANCI, FANCL, FANCM, FAT1, FBXW7, FGF19, FGF23, FGF3, FGF4, FGF9, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3, FGFR4, FLT3, FLT4, FOXA1, FUBP1, FYN, GATA2, GATA3, GLI3, GNA13, GNAS, GPS2, HDAC2, HDAC9, HLA-A, HLA-B, HNF1A, IDH2, IGF1R, IKBKB, IL7R, INPP4B, JAK1, JAK2, JAK3, KDM5C, KDM6A, KDR, KEAP1, KIT, KLF5, KMT2A, KMT2B, KMT2C, KMT2D, KRAS, LARP4B, LATS1, LATS2, MAGOH, MAP2K1, MAP2K4, MAP2K7, MAP3K1, MAP3K4, MAPK1, MAPK8, MAX, MCL1, MDM2, MDM4, MECOM, MEF2B, MEN1, MET, MGA, MITF, MLH1, MLH3, MPL, MRE11, MSH2, MSH3, MSH6, MTAP, MTOR, MUTYH, MYC, MYCL, MYCN, MYD88, NBN, NCOR1, NF1, NF2, NFE2L2, NOTCH1, NOTCH2, NOTCH3, NOTCH4, NRAS, NTRK1, NTRK3, PALB2, PARP1, PARP2, PARP3, PARP4, PBRM1, PCBP1, PDCD1, PDCD1LG2, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, PDIA3, PGD, PHF6, PIK3C2B, PIK3CA, PIK3CB, PIK3R1, PIK3R2, PIM1, PLCG1, PMS1, PMS2, POLD1, POLE, POT1, PPM1D, PPP2R1A, PPP2R2A, PPP6C, PRDM1, PRDM9, PRKACA, PRKAR1A, PTCH1, PTEN, PTPN11, PTPRT, PXDNL, RAC1, RAD50, RAD51, RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D, RAD52, RAD54L, RAF1, RARA, RASA1, RASA2, RB1, RBM10, RECQL4, RET, RHEB, RICTOR, RIT1, RNASEH2A, RNASEH2B, RNF43, ROS1, RPA1, RPS6KB1, RPTOR, RUNX1, SDHA, SDHB, SDHD, SETBP1, SETD2, SF3B1, SLCO1B3, SLX4, SMAD2, SMAD4, SMARCA4, SMARCB1, SMC1A, SMO, SOX9, SPEN, SPOP, SRC, STAG2, STAT3, STAT6, STK11, SUFU, TAP1, TAP2, TBX3, TCF7L2, TERT, TET2, TGFBR2, TNFAIP3, TNFRSF14, TOP1, TP53, TP63, TPMT, TPP2, TSC1, TSC2, U2AF1, USP8, USP9X, VHL, WT1, XPO1, XRCC2, XRCC3, YAP1, YES1, ZFHX3, ZMYM3, ZNF217, ZNF429, ZRSR2

Genes Assayed for the Detection of Fusions

AKT2, ALK, AR, AXL, BRAF, BRCA1, BRCA2, CDKN2A, EGFR, ERBB2, ERBB4, ERG, ESR1, ETV1, ETV4, ETV5, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3, FGR, FLT3, JAK2, KRAS, MDM4, MET, MYB, MYBL1, NF1, NOTCH1, NOTCH4, NRG1, NTRK1, NTRK2, NTRK3, NUTM1, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, PIK3CA, PPARG, PRKACA, PRKACB, PTEN, RAD51B, RAF1, RB1, RELA, RET, ROS1, RSPO2, RSPO3, TERT

Genes Assayed with Full Exon Coverage

ABRAXAS1, ACVR1B, ACVR2A, ADAMTS12, ADAMTS2, AMER1, APC, ARHGAP35, ARID1A, ARID1B, ARID2, ARID5B, ASXL1, ASXL2, ATM, ATR, ATRX, AXIN1, AXIN2, B2M, BAP1, BARD1, BCOR, BLM, BMPR2, BRCA1, BRCA2, BRIP1, CALR, CASP8, CBFB, CD274, CD276, CDC73, CDH1, CDH10, CDK12, CDKN1A, CDKN1B, CDKN2A, CDKN2B, CDKN2C, CHEK1, CHEK2, CIC, CIITA, CREBBP, CSMD3, CTCF, CTLA4, CUL3, CUL4A, CUL4B, CYLD, CYP2C9, CYP2D6, DAXX, DDX3X, DICER1, DNMT3A, DOCK3, DPYD, DSC1, DSC3, ELF3, ENO1, EP300, EPCAM, EPHA2, ERAP1, ERAP2, ERCC2, ERCC4, ERCC5, ERRFI1, ETV6, FANCA, FANCC, FANCD2, FANCE, FANCF, FANCG, FANCI, FANCL, FANCM, FAS, FAT1, FBXW7, FUBP1, GATA3, GNA13, GPS2, HDAC2, HDAC9, HLA-A, HLA-B, HNF1A, ID3, INPP4B, JAK1, JAK2, JAK3, KDM5C, KDM6A, KEAP1, KLHL13, KMT2A, KMT2B, KMT2C, KMT2D, LARP4B, LATS1, LATS2, MAP2K4, MAP2K7, MAP3K1, MAP3K4, MAPK8, MEN1, MGA, MLH1, MLH3, MRE11, MSH2, MSH3, MSH6, MTAP, MTUS2, MUTYH, NBN, NCOR1, NF1, NF2, NOTCH1, NOTCH2, NOTCH3, NOTCH4, PALB2, PARP1, PARP2, PARP3, PARP4, PBRM1, PDCD1, PDCD1LG2, PDIA3, PGD, PHF6, PIK3R1, PMS1, PMS2, POLD1, POLE, POT1, PPM1D, PPP2R2A, PRDM1, PRDM9, PRKAR1A, PSMB10, PSMB8, PSMB9, PTCH1, PTEN, PTPRT, RAD50, RAD51, RAD51B, RAD51C, RAD51D, RAD52, RAD54L, RASA1, RASA2, RB1, RBM10, RECQL4, RNASEH2A, RNASEH2B, RNASEH2C, RNF43, RPA1, RPL22, RPL5, RUNX1, RUNX1T1, SDHA, SDHB, SDHC, SDHD, SETD2, SLX4, SMAD2, SMAD4, SMARCA4, SMARCB1, SOCS1, SOX9, SPEN, STAG2, STAT1, STK11, SUFU, TAP1, TAP2, TBX3, TCF7L2, TET2, TGFBR2, TMEM132D, TNFAIP3, TNFRSF14, TP53, TP63, TPP2, TSC1, TSC2, UGT1A1, USP9X, VHL, WT1, XRCC2, XRCC3, ZBTB20, ZFHX3, ZMYM3, ZRSR2

Relevant Therapy Summary

● In this cancer type ○ In other cancer type ◑ In this cancer type and other cancer types ✖ No evidence

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
osimertinib	●	●	●	●	● (III)
afatinib	●	●	●	●	● (II)
dacomitinib	●	●	●	●	● (II)
gefitinib	●	●	●	●	● (II)
erlotinib + ramucirumab	●	●	●	●	✖
amivantamab + carboplatin + pemetrexed	●	●	●	✖	✖
amivantamab + lazertinib	●	●	●	✖	✖
datopotamab deruxtecan-dlnk	●	●	✖	✖	✖
osimertinib + chemotherapy + pemetrexed	●	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab + erlotinib	✖	●	●	●	✖
erlotinib	✖	●	●	●	✖
osimertinib + carboplatin + pemetrexed	✖	●	✖	✖	✖
osimertinib + cisplatin + pemetrexed	✖	●	✖	✖	✖
BAT1706 + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Allergan) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Biocon) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Celltrion) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Mabxience) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Pfizer) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Samsung Bioepis) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
bevacizumab (Stada) + erlotinib	✖	✖	●	✖	✖
atezolizumab + bevacizumab + carboplatin + paclitaxel	✖	✖	✖	●	✖
gefitinib + carboplatin + pemetrexed	✖	✖	✖	●	✖
adebrelimab, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
afatinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
befotertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
bevacizumab, almonertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
catequentinib, toripalimab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

● In this cancer type ○ In other cancer type ◑ In this cancer type and other cancer types ✖ No evidence

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
furmonertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
gefitinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
gefitinib, endostatin	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
natural product, gefitinib, erlotinib, icotinib hydrochloride, osimertinib, almonertinib, furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (IV)
almonertinib, apatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
almonertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
almonertinib, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
befotertinib, icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
bevacizumab, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
CK-101, gefitinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
datopotamab deruxtecan-dlnk, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
furmonertinib, osimertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
gefitinib, afatinib, erlotinib, metformin hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
glumetinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
icotinib hydrochloride, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
icotinib hydrochloride, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
icotinib hydrochloride, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
izalontamab brengitecan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
izalontamab brengitecan, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
JMT-101, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
osimertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
osimertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
osimertinib, datopotamab deruxtecan-dlnk	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
sacituzumab tirumotecan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
sacituzumab tirumotecan, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
savolitinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
SH-1028	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

● In this cancer type ○ In other cancer type ◑ In this cancer type and other cancer types ✖ No evidence

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
TY-9591, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
PM-1080, almonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II/III)
SCTB-14, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II/III)
ABSK-043, furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
afatinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib, adebrelimab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib, chemoradiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
almonertinib, dacomitinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
amivantamab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
amivantamab, lazertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
atezolizumab, bevacizumab, tiragolumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
befotertinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
bevacizumab, afatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
bevacizumab, furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
cadonilimab, chemotherapy, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
camrelizumab, apatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
capmatinib, osimertinib, ramucirumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
catequentinib, almonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
catequentinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
chemotherapy, atezolizumab, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
dacomitinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor, osimertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
erlotinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
erlotinib, OBI-833	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

● In this cancer type ○ In other cancer type ◑ In this cancer type and other cancer types ✖ No evidence

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
furmonertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, chemotherapy, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
gefitinib, bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
gefitinib, icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
gefitinib, thalidomide	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
icotinib hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
icotinib hydrochloride, autologous RAK cell	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
icotinib hydrochloride, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
ivonescimab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
izalontamab brengitecan, almonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
JS-207, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
lazertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
lazertinib, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
lazertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
osimertinib, radiation therapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
PLB-1004, bozitinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
ramucirumab, erlotinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sunvozertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sunvozertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sunvozertinib, golidocitinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
tislelizumab, chemotherapy, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
toripalimab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
toripalimab, bevacizumab, Clostridium butyricum, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
toripalimab, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
TY-9591, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
vabametkib, lazertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
YL-202	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
zorifertinib, pirotinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)

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

Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

● In this cancer type ○ In other cancer type ◑ In this cancer type and other cancer types ✖ No evidence

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
AP-L1898	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
BH-30643	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
bozitinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
BPI-361175	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
chemotherapy, DZD-6008	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
dacomitinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
DAJH-1050766	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
DB-1310, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
dositinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
FWD-1509	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
H-002	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
ifebemtinib, furmonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
MRTX0902	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
necitumumab, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
quaratusugene ozeplasmid, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
RC-108, furmonertinib, toripalimab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
sotiburafusp alfa, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
sotiburafusp alfa, HB-0030	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
sunvozertinib, chemotherapy	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
TRX-221	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
WSD-0922	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
alisertib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
almonertinib, midazolam	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
ASKC-202	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
AZD-9592	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
BG-60366	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
BPI-1178, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
catequentinib, gefitinib, metformin hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
DZD-6008	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

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Relevant Therapy Summary (continued)

● In this cancer type ○ In other cancer type ◑ In this cancer type and other cancer types ✖ No evidence

EGFR p.(L858R) c.2573T>G (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
genolimzumab, fruquintinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
IBI-318, lenvatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
KQB-198, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
LAVA-1223	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
MRX-2843, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
osimertinib, carotuximab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
osimertinib, Minnelide	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
osimertinib, tegatrabetan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
patritumab deruxtecan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
repotrectinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
VIC-1911, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
WTS-004	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
YH-013	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
zipalertinib, chemotherapy, glumetinib, pimitespib, quemliclustat	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

CDKN2A deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
palbociclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
palbociclib, abemaciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
AMG 193	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
ABSK-131	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

ATRX deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
pamiparib, tislelizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)

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

HRR Details

Gene/Genomic Alteration	Finding
LOH percentage	***1.4%***
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.

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