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Patient Name: 김군호
Gender: M
Sample ID: N25-299

Primary Tumor Site: Lung
Collection Date: 2025.10.27.

Sample Cancer Type: Lung Cancer

Report Highlights

3 Relevant Biomarkers
18 Therapies Available
199 Clinical Trials

Relevant Lung Cancer Findings

Gene	Finding	Gene	Finding
ALK	None detected	NTRK1	None detected
BRAF	None detected	NTRK2	None detected
EGFR	***EGFR exon 19 deletion***	NTRK3	None detected
ERBB2	None detected	RET	None detected
KRAS	None detected	ROS1	***ROS1 amplification***
MET	None detected		

Genomic Alteration	Finding
Tumor Mutational Burden	***4.75 Mut/Mb measured***

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IA	*EGFR exon 19 deletion* epidermal growth factor receptor Allele Frequency: 33.56% Locus: chr7:55242466 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*	192

*** 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	*CDK4 amplification* cyclin dependent kinase 4 Locus: chr12:58142242	None*	None*	5
IIC	*ROS1 amplification* ROS proto-oncogene 1, receptor tyrosine kinase Locus: chr6:117622071	None*	None*	3

*** 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 exon 19 deletion	**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

CUL4B deletion, Microsatellite stable, RIT1 amplification, NQO1 p.(P187S) c.559C>T, ZRSR2 deletion, BCOR deletion, USP9X deletion, DDX3X deletion, RBM10 deletion, STAG2 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.(E746_T751delinsI)	c.2236_2252delGAATTAAGAGAAGCAACinsAT	COSM26680	chr7:55242466	33.56%	NM_005228.5	nonframeshift Block Substitution
NQO1	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T	.	chr16:69745145	44.92%	NM_000903.3	missense
LRP1B	p.(G35A)	c.104G>C	.	chr2:142567949	75.77%	NM_018557.3	missense
CUL3	p.(L4V)	c.10C>G	.	chr2:225449717	8.29%	NM_003590.5	missense
MAP3K4	p.(V982I)	c.2944G>A	.	chr6:161510474	29.46%	NM_005922.4	missense
MALRD1	p.(T906A)	c.2716A>G	.	chr10:19498334	51.65%	NM_001142308.3	missense
PARP4	p.(?)	c.3285_3285+5delinsAGT	.	chr13:25021149	100.00%	NM_006437.4	unknown
MGA	p.(M2751T)	c.8252T>C	.	chr15:42058532	62.30%	NM_001164273.1	missense
TSC2	p.(R1639C)	c.4915C>T	.	chr16:2136798	3.05%	NM_000548.5	missense
TP53	p.(?)	c.994-1G>T	.	chr17:7574034	46.35%	NM_000546.6	unknown

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
CDK4	chr12:58142242	10.21	2.93

Variant Details (continued)

Copy Number Variations (continued)

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
ROS1	chr6:117622071	8.85	2.61
CUL4B	chrX:119660593	0.45	0.63
RIT1	chr1:155870154	5.68	1.87
ZRSR2	chrX:15808582	0.23	0.59
BCOR	chrX:39911340	0.3	0.6
USP9X	chrX:40982869	0.26	0.59
DDX3X	chrX:41193501	0.04	0.54
RBM10	chrX:47006798	0.34	0.61
STAG2	chrX:123156472	0.38	0.62
PHF6	chrX:133511628	0.09	0.55
CDC73	chr1:193091224	6.09	1.96
SDHA	chr5:218412	6.68	2.1
NF1	chr17:29422233	4.26	1.53
AXIN2	chr17:63526027	4.7	1.64
ARAF	chrX:47422311	0.32	0.6

Biomarker Descriptions

EGFR exon 19 deletion

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[1]. In addition to EGFR/ERBB1/HER1, other members of the ERBB/HER family include ERBB2/HER2, ERBB3/HER3, and ERBB4/HER4[112]. 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[113]. Activation of these pathways promotes cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival[114,115].

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[5,6,116,117]. 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[118]. These mutations constitutively activate EGFR resulting in downstream signaling, and represent 80% of the EGFR mutations observed in lung cancer[118]. A second group of less prevalent activating mutations includes E709K, G719X, S768I, L861Q, and short in-frame insertion mutations in exon 20[119,120,121,122]. EGFR activating mutations in lung cancer tend to be mutually exclusive to KRAS activating mutations[123]. 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[118,124]. 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[5,6,117,124,125]. 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[126,127,128]. Alterations in EGFR are rare in pediatric cancers[5,6]. 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)[5,6]. 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)[5,6].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

Potential relevance: Approved first-generation EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) include erlotinib[129] (2004) and gefitinib[130] (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[131]. Second-generation TKIs afatinib[132] (2013) and dacomitinib[133] (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[77,134,135,136]. In 2025, the FDA approved the irreversible EGFR inhibitor, sunvozertinib[137], 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)[138] 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[139]. The primary resistance mutation that emerges following treatment with first-generation TKI is T790M, accounting for 50-60% of resistant cases[118]. Third generation TKIs were developed to maintain sensitivity in the presence of T790M[139]. Osimertinib[140] (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[139]. 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[141]. T790M and C797S can occur in either cis or trans allelic orientation[141]. 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[141]. 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[141,142]. However, C797S occurring in cis conformation with T790M, confers resistance to first- and third-generation TKIs[141]. Fourth-generation TKIs are in development to overcome acquired resistance mutations after osimertinib treatment, including BDTX-1535[143] (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[144]. The bispecific antibody, amivantamab[145] (2021), targeting EGFR and MET was approved for NSCLC tumors harboring EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations. A small molecule kinase inhibitor, lazertinib[146] (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[147], 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[148] (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[149] (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[150,151,152].

CDK4 amplification

cyclin dependent kinase 4

Background: The CDK4 gene encodes the cyclin-dependent kinase 4 protein, a homologue of CDK6. Both proteins are serine/threonine protein kinases that are involved in the regulation of the G1/S phase transition of the mitotic cell cycle[153,154]. CDK4 kinase is activated by complex formation with D-type cyclins (e.g., CCND1, CCND2, or CCND3), which leads to the phosphorylation of retinoblastoma protein (RB), followed by E2F activation, DNA replication, and cell-cycle progression[155]. Germline mutations in CDK4 are associated with familial melanoma[156,157,158].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations of CDK4 codon K22 and R24 are observed in melanoma (1-2%) and lung cancer (approximately 0.1%). Codons K22 and R24 are necessary for binding and inhibition by p16/CDKN2A[159,160,161]. CDK4 is recurrently amplified in several cancer types, most notably in sarcomas (15-20%), glioma (10-15%), adrenocortical carcinoma (5%), lung adenocarcinoma (5%), and melanoma (3%)[5,6,117,124].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for CDK4 aberrations. Amplification of region 12q14-15, which includes CDK4, is useful as an ancillary diagnostic marker of atypical lipomatous tumor/welldifferentiated liposarcoma (ALT/WDLS)[20]. Small molecule inhibitors targeting CDK4/6 including palbociclib (2015), abemaciclib (2017), and ribociclib (2017), are FDA approved in combination with an aromatase inhibitor or fulvestrant for the treatment of hormone receptor-positive, HER2-negative advanced or metastatic breast cancer.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

ROS1 amplification

ROS proto-oncogene 1, receptor tyrosine kinase

Background: The ROS1 gene encodes the ROS proto-oncogene receptor tyrosine kinase 1, which exhibits structural similarity to anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK)[53,54]. Like ALK, ROS1 is the target of recurrent chromosomal rearrangements that generate fusion proteins containing the intact ROS1 tyrosine kinase domain combined with numerous fusion partner genes[55]. ROS1 fusion kinases are constitutively activated and drive oncogenic transformation[56].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in ROS1 are observed in 24% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 13% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 8% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 7% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 6% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 5% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, 4% of lung adenocarcinoma and uterine carcinosarcoma, 3% of adrenocortical carcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, cholangiocarcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, and glioblastoma multiforme, and 2% of mesothelioma, brain lower grade glioma, breast invasive carcinoma, and acute myeloid leukemia[5,6]. ROS1 fusions are observed in cholangiocarcinoma, gastric cancer, and ovarian cancer and have been reported in approximately 1-2% of non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) and glioblastoma[53,57,58,59,60,61]. ROS1 amplification is observed in 3% of sarcoma[5,6]. Alterations in ROS1 are rare in pediatric cancers[5,6]. Somatic mutations are observed in 2% of bone cancer and embryonal tumors, and 1% or less in B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (3 in 252 cases), glioma (3 in 297 cases), leukemia (1 in 311 cases), peripheral nervous system tumors (3 in 1158 cases), and Wilms tumor (1 in 710 cases)[5,6]. Amplification of ROS1 is observed in less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (1 in 731 cases)[5,6].

Potential relevance: The tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI), entrectinib[62] (2019), is approved for the treatment of ROS1 fusion-positive metastatic NSCLC. Taletrectinib[63] (2025) is a kinase inhibitor approved for the treatment of adult patients with locally advanced or metastatic ROS1-positive NSCLC. Crizotinib[64] (2011), originally approved for the treatment of ALK-positive NSCLC, is also approved (2016) for the treatment of ROS1-positive NSCLC[65]. Acquired resistance to crizotinib in ROS1-positive NSCLC is associated with kinase domain mutations S1986F/Y, G2032R, D2033N, and L2155S[66,67,68]. Repotrectinib[69] (2023) is a kinase inhibitor approved for the treatment of locally advanced or metastatic ROS1-positive NSCLC. In 2024, zidesamtinib[70] received breakthrough designation for the treatment of patients with ROS1-positive NSCLC who have been previously treated with two or more ROS1 TKIs. Ceritinib[71] (2017) is a second-generation ALK inhibitor approved for ALK-positive NSCLC that has also shown efficacy in ROS1-positive NSCLC[72]. In a phase II study, ceritinib demonstrated systemic and intra-cranial activity with an objective response rate (ORR) of 62% in patients with advanced ROS1-positive NSCLC[72]. Lorlatinib[73], a CNS-penetrant third-generation ALK and ROS1 inhibitor, is FDA approved (2018) for ALK-positive metastatic NSCLC. Emerging pre-clinical evidence suggests that lorlatinib may target almost all known ALK and ROS1 resistance mutations[74,75]. In a phase I/II study of lorlatinib in advanced ROS1-positive NSCLC, objective responses were observed in both TKI-naïve and those previously treated with crizotinib, regardless of CNS metastasis[76]. Lorlatinib is recommended for subsequent therapy in ROS1 fusion-positive NSCLC patients who have progressed after treatment with crizotinib, entrectinib, or ceritinib[77].

CUL4B deletion

cullin 4B

Background: The CUL4B gene encodes cullin 4B, a member of the cullin family, which includes CUL1, CUL2, CUL3, CUL4a, CUL5, CUL7, and Parc[1,2]. CUL4B belongs to the CUL4 subfamily which also includes CUL4A[3]. CUL4A and CUL4B share greater than 80% sequence identity and functional redundancy[3,4]. Cullin proteins share a conserved cullin homology domain and act as molecular scaffolds for RING E3 ubiquitin ligases to assemble into cullin-RING ligase complexes (CRLs)[2]. CUL4B is part of the CRL4 complex which is responsible for ubiquitination and degradation of a variety of substrates where substrate specificity is dependent on the substrate recognition component of the CRL4 complex[4]. CRL4 substrates include oncoproteins, tumor suppressors, nucleotide excision repair proteins, cell cycle promoters, histone methylation proteins, and tumor-related signaling molecules, thereby impacting various processes critical to tumor development and progression and supporting a complex role of CUL4B in oncogenesis[3,4].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in CUL4B are observed in 9% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 5% of skin cutaneous melanoma, and 2% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, colorectal adenocarcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, brain lower grade glioma, and lung squamous cell carcinoma[5,6]. Amplification of CUL4B is observed in 2% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma[5,6]. Biallelic loss of CUL4B is observed in 1% sarcoma and testicular germ cell tumors[5,6].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for CUL4B 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[90]. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[91,92]. 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[93]. 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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

(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[94]. 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)[94]. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS[95,96,97,98,99]. 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[92]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[91,92,96,100].

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[91,92,101,102]. 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[101,102].

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab[103] (2014) and nivolumab[104] (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab[103] 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[103]. Dostarlimab[105] (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[97,106]. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab[107] (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[97,108,109]. 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[109]. 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[110,111]. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers[110,111].

RIT1 amplification

Ras like without CAAX 1

Background: The RIT1 gene encodes the ras-like without CAAX1 protein[1]. RIT1 is a member of the Ras family, possessing intrinsic GTP hydrolysis activity[48]. Specifically, RIT1 is ubiquitously expressed and plays a role in neuron survival following oxidative stress and dendritic cell retraction[48,49,50]. RIT1 mutations have been shown to activate PI3K and MEK signaling pathways and likely promotes tumorigenesis[51]. Hereditary mutations in RIT1 lead to constitutive activation of RAS and MAPK pathways resulting in Noonan syndrome, a type of RASopathy[51,52].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in RIT1 are observed in 3% of cholangiocarcinoma, 2% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma and lung adenocarcinoma, and 1% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, skin cutaneous melanoma, and acute myeloid leukemia (AML)[5,6]. Amplifications in RIT1 are observed in 14% of uterine carcinosarcoma, 11% of liver hepatocellular and cholangiocarcinoma, 8% of lung adenocarcinoma, breast invasive carcinoma, uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, and 6% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma[5,6].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for RIT1 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[39]. ZRSR2 interacts with components of the pre-spliceosome assembly including SRSF2 and U2AF2/U2AF1 heterodimer[39,40]. 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[39,41].

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[6,12].

Potential relevance: Mutation of ZRSR2 is associated with poor prognosis in myelodysplastic syndromes as well as poor/adverse risk in acute myeloid leukemia (AML)[12,22,23].

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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[7,8]. BCOR also associates with class I and II histone deacetylases (HDACs), suggesting an alternate mechanism for BCOR-mediated transcriptional repression independent of BCL6[8]. Genetic alterations in BCOR result in protein dysfunction, which suggests BCOR functions as a tumor suppressor gene[9,10,11].

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)[5,12,13,14]. 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[5,6]. Although less common, BCOR fusions and internal tandem duplications (ITDs) have been reported in certain rare cancer types[15,16,17]. Specifically, BCOR::CCNB3 rearrangements define a particular subset of sarcomas with Ewing sarcoma-like morphology known as BCOR::CCNB3 sarcomas (BCS)[18,19]. Alterations in BCOR are also observed in pediatric cancers[5,6]. 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)[5,6]. 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[15].

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[20,21]. Additionally, translocation t(x;22)(p11;q13) resulting in ZC3H7B::BCOR fusion is a useful ancillary diagnostic marker of high-grade endometrial stromal sarcoma[20]. 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[12,13,22,23,24]. 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%)[14]. Additionally, BCOR ITDs and BCOR::EP300 fusion are molecular alterations of significance in pediatric gliomas[25,26].

USP9X deletion

ubiquitin specific peptidase 9 X-linked

Background: The USP9X gene encodes the ubiquitin specific peptidase 9 X-linked protein[1]. USP9X is a deubiquitinating enzyme (DUB) and a member of the ubiquitin-specific protease (USP) subclass of cysteine proteases[31]. DUBs catalyze the removal of ubiquitin from target proteins, thereby counter-regulating post-translational ubiquitin modifications within the cell[31,32]. USP9X has many substrates and is commonly upregulated in several solid tumor types, supporting an oncogenic role for USP9X[32]. 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[32]. In breast cancer, USP9X has been shown to stabilize BRCA1 by inhibiting its ubiquitination, thereby influencing the regulation of homologous recombination and repair[32].

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[5,6]. 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[5,6]. Alterations in USP9X are also observed in the pediatric population[6]. 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)[6]. 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)[6].

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

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[1,78]. 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)[78,79,80,81]. In DEAD-box proteins, the DEAD domain interacts with β- and γ-phosphates of ATP through Mg2+ and is required for ATP hydrolysis[78]. DDX3X is involved in several processes including the

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

unwinding of double-stranded RNA, splicing of pre-mRNA, RNA export, transcription, and translation[82,83,84,85,86,87,88,89]. Deregulation of DDX3X has been shown to impact cancer progression by modulating proliferation, metastasis, and drug resistance[82].

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[5,6]. 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[5,6].

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

RBM10 deletion

RNA binding motif protein 10

Background: RBM10 encodes RNA binding motif protein 10, a member of the RNA binding proteins (RBP) family[1,27]. RBM10 regulates RNA splicing and post-transcriptional modification of mRNA[27,28]. 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[27]. RBM10 has been observed to promote transformation and proliferation in lung cancer, supporting an oncogenic role for RBM10[29,30].

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[5,6]. Biallelic loss of RBM10 is observed in 3% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and 2% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma[5,6]. 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[5,6].

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

STAG2 deletion

stromal antigen 2

Background: The STAG2 gene encodes the stromal antigen 2 protein, one of the core proteins in the cohesin complex, which regulates the separation of sister chromatids during cell division[33,34]. Components of the cohesion complex include SMC1A, SMC3, and RAD21, which bind to STAG1/STAG2 paralogs[35,36]. Inactivating mutations in STAG2 contribute to X-linked neurodevelopmental disorders, aneuploidy, and chromosomal instability in cancer[35,37].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in STAG2 include nonsense, frameshift, and splice site variants[12]. Somatic mutations in STAG2 are observed in 14% of bladder cancer, 10% of uterine cancer, 5% of glioblastoma multiforme, 4% of lung adenocarcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, 3% of acute myeloid leukemia, stomach adenocarcinoma, kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma, and lung squamous cell carcinoma, and 2% of cholangiocarcinoma, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, colorectal adenocarcinoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, kidney renal clear cell carcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, breast invasive carcinoma, and esophageal adenocarcinoma[6]. Biallelic deletion of STAG2 is observed in 2% of uterine carcinosarcoma and 1% of sarcoma and acute myeloid leukemia[6]. Alterations in STAG2 are also observed in pediatric cancers[6]. Somatic mutations in STAG2 are observed in 10% of bone cancer (34 in 327 cases), 5% of soft tissue sarcoma (2 in 38 cases), 2% of embryonal tumors (5 in 332 cases), and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (1 in 252 cases) and peripheral nervous system cancers (1 in 1158 cases)[6]. Structural variants in STAG2 are observed in 2% of leukemia (1 in 64 cases) and less than 1% of bone cancer (1 in 150 cases)[6]. Biallelic deletion of STAG2 is observed in 1% of peripheral nervous system cancers (1 in 91 cases) and less than 1% of leukemia (1 in 250 cases)[6].

Potential relevance: Mutations in STAG2 are associated with poor prognosis and adverse risk in MDS and acute myeloid leukemia[12,23]. Truncating mutations in STAG2 lead to a loss of function in bladder cancer and are often identified as an early event associated with low grade and stage tumors[38].

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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

deacetylase (NuRD) complex, which regulates nucleosome positioning and transcription of genes involved in development and cell-cycle progression[42,43].

Alterations and prevalence: The majority of PHF6 aberrations are nonsense, frameshift (70%), or missense (30%) mutations, which result in complete loss of protein expression[42,44,45,46]. 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)[44,46]. Missense mutations recurrently involve codon C215 and the second zinc finger domain of PHF6[44]. PHF6 mutations are frequently observed in hematologic malignancies from male patients[42,44].

Potential relevance: Somatic mutations in PHF6 are associated with reduced overall survival in AML patients treated with high-dose induction chemotherapy[47].

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 exon 19 deletion

izalontamab brengitecan

Cancer type: Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer

Variant class: EGFR exon 19 deletion

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 exon 19 deletion 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 exon 19 deletion

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 exon 19 deletion

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 exon 19 deletion (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)
gefitinib, afatinib, erlotinib, metformin hydrochloride	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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)
TY-9591, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (III)
PM-1080, almonertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II/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 exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
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)
furmonertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
furmonertinib, chemotherapy, bevacizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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 exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
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, dalpiciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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)
AP-L1898	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/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 exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
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, 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)
EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
genolimzumab, fruquintinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

* 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 exon 19 deletion (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
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)
PB-101 (Precision Biotech Taiwan Corp), EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
repotrectinib, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
VIC-1911, osimertinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
WTS-004	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
YH-013	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
zipalertinib, chemotherapy, glumetinib, pimitespib, quemliclustat	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

CDK4 amplification

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
abemaciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
osimertinib, dalpiciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
palbociclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
palbociclib, abemaciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)

ROS1 amplification

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
cabozantinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
repotrectinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
crizotinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

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

HRR Details

Gene/Genomic Alteration	Finding
LOH percentage	***22.05%***
BRCA2	***LOH, 13q13.1(32890491-32972932)x2***
BARD1	***LOH, 2q35(215593375-215674382)x3***
FANCL	***LOH, 2p16.1(58386886-58468467)x3***

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

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