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Patient Name: 김향숙
Gender: F
Sample ID: N25-335

Primary Tumor Site: Lung
Collection Date: 20251127

Sample Cancer Type: Lung Cancer

Report Highlights

8 Relevant Biomarkers
21 Therapies Available
231 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	None detected
MET	None detected		

Genomic Alteration	Finding
Tumor Mutational Burden	***5.69 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: 18.80% Locus: chr7:55242469 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*	199

*** 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
IA	*FGFR2 imbalance* fibroblast growth factor receptor 2 Locus: chr10:123260339	erdafitinib	**futibatinib** [1, 2 / II+] **pemigatinib** [1, 2 / II+] erdafitinib [II+]	12
IIC	*MTAP deletion* methylthioadenosine phosphorylase Locus: chr9:21802646	None*	None*	14
IIC	*ATM deletion* ATM serine/threonine kinase Locus: chr11:108098341	None*	None*	4
IIC	*CDKN2A deletion* cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A Locus: chr9:21968178	None*	None*	4
IIC	*CTNNB1 p.(S37F) c.110C>T* catenin beta 1 Allele Frequency: 17.56% Locus: chr3:41266113 Transcript: NM_001904.4	None*	None*	4
IIC	*CDKN2B deletion* cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2B Locus: chr9:22005728	None*	None*	1
IIC	*CHEK1 deletion* checkpoint kinase 1 Locus: chr11:125496639	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 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

CCND1 p.(P287S) c.859C>T, MAP2K4 p.(Q163) c.487C>T, Microsatellite stable, UGT1A1 p.(G71R) c.211G>A, FAT1 p.(T2369Cfs*2) c.7105_7106delACinsT, HLA-B deletion, NQO1 p.(P187S) c.559C>T, DSC1 deletion, Tumor Mutational Burden*

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
EGFR	p.(L747_A750delinsP)	c.2239_2248delTTAAGAGAAGinsC	COSM12382	chr7:55242469	18.80%	NM_005228.5	nonframeshift Block Substitution

Variant Details (continued)

DNA Sequence Variants (continued)

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
CTNNB1	p.(S37F)	c.110C>T	COSM5662	chr3:41266113	17.56%	NM_001904.4	missense
CCND1	p.(P287S)	c.859C>T	COSM931396	chr11:69466021	14.60%	NM_053056.3	missense
MAP2K4	p.(Q163*)	c.487C>T	.	chr17:11998985	14.92%	NM_003010.4	nonsense
UGT1A1	p.(G71R)	c.211G>A	COSM4415616	chr2:234669144	52.91%	NM_000463.3	missense
FAT1	p.(T2369Cfs*2)	c.7105_7106delACinsT	.	chr4:187540634	5.11%	NM_005245.4	frameshift Block Substitution
NQO1	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T	.	chr16:69745145	49.47%	NM_000903.3	missense
C2orf16	p.(H1133R)	c.3398A>G	.	chr2:27802837	49.45%	NM_032266.3	missense
TET2	p.(H1893Y)	c.5677C>T	.	chr4:106197344	11.61%	NM_001127208.3	missense
CTCF	p.(P712R)	c.2135C>G	.	chr16:67671726	43.73%	NM_006565.4	missense
ZNF682	p.(R473Sfs*11)	c.1415_1416delAG	.	chr19:20116894	47.92%	NM_033196.3	frameshift Deletion

Gene Fusions

Genes	Variant ID	Locus
FGFR2	FGFR2	chr10:123260339

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
MTAP	chr9:21802646	0.15	0.63
ATM	chr11:108098341	1	0.85
CDKN2A	chr9:21968178	0	0.58
CDKN2B	chr9:22005728	0	0.6
CHEK1	chr11:125496639	1	0.84
HLA-B	chr6:31322252	0.13	0.62
DSC1	chr18:28710424	0	0.59
XRCC2	chr7:152345702	5.18	1.64
CUL4B	chrX:119660593	5.03	1.61
STAG2	chrX:123156472	5.15	1.63

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[21]. In addition to EGFR/ERBB1/HER1, other members of the ERBB/HER family

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

include ERBB2/HER2, ERBB3/HER3, and ERBB4/HER4[130]. 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[131]. Activation of these pathways promotes cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival[132,133].

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[15,16,134,135]. 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[136]. These mutations constitutively activate EGFR resulting in downstream signaling, and represent 80% of the EGFR mutations observed in lung cancer[136]. A second group of less prevalent activating mutations includes E709K, G719X, S768I, L861Q, and short in-frame insertion mutations in exon 20[137,138,139,140]. EGFR activating mutations in lung cancer tend to be mutually exclusive to KRAS activating mutations[141]. 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[136,142]. 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[15,16,135,142,143]. 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[144,145,146]. Alterations in EGFR are rare in pediatric cancers[15,16]. 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)[15,16]. 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)[15,16].

Potential relevance: Approved first-generation EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKIs) include erlotinib[147] (2004) and gefitinib[148] (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[149]. Second-generation TKIs afatinib[150] (2013) and dacomitinib[151] (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[152,153,154,155]. In 2025, the FDA approved the irreversible EGFR inhibitor, sunvozertinib[156], 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)[157] 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[158]. The primary resistance mutation that emerges following treatment with first-generation TKI is T790M, accounting for 50-60% of resistant cases[136]. Third generation TKIs were developed to maintain sensitivity in the presence of T790M[158]. Osimertinib[159] (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[158]. 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[160]. T790M and C797S can occur in either cis or trans allelic orientation[160]. 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[160]. 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[160,161]. However, C797S occurring in cis conformation with T790M, confers resistance to first- and third-generation TKIs[160]. Fourth-generation TKIs are in development to overcome acquired resistance mutations after osimertinib treatment, including BDTX-1535[162] (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[163]. The bispecific antibody, amivantamab[164] (2021), targeting EGFR and MET was approved for NSCLC tumors harboring EGFR exon 20 insertion mutations. A small molecule kinase inhibitor, lazertinib[165] (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[166], 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[167] (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[168] (2020), in combination with osimertinib, received fast track designation from the FDA for NSCLC tumors harboring EGFR mutations that

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

progressed on osimertinib alone. Amplification and mutations of EGFR commonly occur in H3-wild type IDH-wild type diffuse pediatric high-grade glioma[43,169,170].

FGFR2 imbalance

fibroblast growth factor receptor 2

Background: The FGFR2 gene encodes fibroblast growth receptor 2, a member of the fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR) family that also includes FGFR1, 3, and 4[21]. These proteins are single transmembrane receptors composed of three extracellular immunoglobulin (Ig)-type domains and an intracellular kinase domain[21]. Upon FGF-mediated stimulation, FGFRs activate several oncogenic signaling pathways, including the RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK, PI3K/AKT/MTOR, PLCγ/PKC, and JAK/STAT pathways influencing cell proliferation, migration, and survival[91,92,93].

Alterations and prevalence: Aberrations most common to the FGFR family are amplifications, followed by mutations and fusions. The majority of these aberrations result in gain of function[94]. Somatic mutations in FGFR2 are observed in 15% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinomas, 10% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 6% of cholangiocarcinoma, 4% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 3% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 2% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, lung adenocarcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, and cervical squamous cell carcinoma[15,16]. In endometrial cancers, missense mutations are the most prevalent alterations in FGFR2[95]. These mutations are predominantly activating, most often involve substitutions at S252 and P253, and confer sensitivity to pan-FGFR2 inhibitors[95,96]. FGFR2 amplification occurs in up to 4% of stomach adenocarcinoma, and 2% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma[15,16]. FGFR2 fusions have also been reported in up to 14% of cholangiocarcinoma and confer sensitivity to select FGFR inhibitors[15,97,98]. Aberrations in FGFR2 are rare in pediatric cancers[15,16]. Somatic mutations in FGFR2 occur in 2% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma and FGFR2 is amplified in 2% of bone cancer[15,16].

Potential relevance: Several pan-FGFR inhibitors have been approved for FGFR2 aberrations in cancer. Futibatinib[99] (2022) is approved for FGFR2 fusion-positive locally advanced or metastatic intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. Erdafitinib[100] (2019) is approved for the treatment of locally advanced or metastatic urothelial cancer with FGFR2 fusions, including FGFR2::BICC1 and FGFR2::CASP7. Pemigatinib[101] (2020) is approved for previously treated, advanced, or unresectable cholangiocarcinoma harboring FGFR2 fusions. The FDA has granted fast track designation to the FGFR2 inhibitor, 3HP-2827[102] (2024), for the treatment of patients with cholangiocarcinoma harboring FGFR2 mutations. The FDA has granted breakthrough designation to the FGFR2 inhibitor, lirafugratinib[103] (2024), for the treatment of FGFR2-driven cholangiocarcinoma and other FGFR2-altered solid tumors. The FDA also granted fast track designation to the small molecule inhibitor, Debio 1347[104] (2018), for solid tumors harboring FGFR1, FGFR2, or FGFR3 aberrations. The FDA has also granted breakthrough designation to bemarituzumab[105] (2021), in combination with modified FOLFOX6 (fluoropyrimidine, leucovorin, and oxaliplatin), for treating FGFR2b-overexpressing, HER2-negative metastatic and locally advanced gastric and gastroesophageal adenocarcinoma. Additional FGFR inhibitors are under clinical evaluation for FGFR2 aberrations[106,107]. In a phase II study of patients with FGFR2 fusion-positive intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma, the pan-kinase inhibitor derazantinib, demonstrated an overall response rate (ORR) of 20.7% with progression-free survival (PFS) of 5.7 months[106]. Likewise, results of a phase II trial testing the pan-FGFR inhibitor, infigratinib (BGJ398) demonstrated an ORR of 14.8% (18.8% FGFR2 fusions only), disease control rate (DCR) of 75.4% (83.3% FGFR2 fusions only), and a median PFS of 5.8 months[107].

MTAP deletion

methylthioadenosine phosphorylase

Background: The MTAP gene encodes methylthioadenosine phosphorylase[21]. Methylthioadenosine phosphorylase, a key enzyme in polyamine biosynthesis and methionine salvage pathways, catalyzes the reversible phosphorylation of S-methyl-5'-thioadenosine (MTA) to adenine and 5-methylthioribose-1-phosphate[28,29]. Loss of MTAP function is commonly observed in cancer due to deletion or promotor methylation which results in the loss of MTA phosphorylation and sensitivity of MTAP-deficient cells to purine synthesis inhibitors and to methionine deprivation[29].

Alterations and prevalence: MTAP is flanked by CDKN2A tumor suppressor on chromosome 9p21 and is frequently found to be co-deleted with CDKN2A in numerous solid and hematological cancers[29,30]. Consequently, biallelic loss of MTAP has been observed in 42% of glioblastoma multiforme, 32% of mesothelioma, 26% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 22% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma, 21% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 20% of lung squamous cell carcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, 15% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 12% of lung adenocarcinoma, 11% of cholangiocarcinoma, 9% of sarcoma, stomach adenocarcinoma and brain lower grade glioma, and 3% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, breast invasive carcinoma, adrenocortical carcinoma, thymoma and liver hepatocellular carcinoma[15,16]. Somatic mutations in MTAP have been found in 3% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma[15,16].

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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

ATM deletion

ATM serine/threonine kinase

Background: The ATM gene encodes a serine/threonine kinase that belongs to the phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase related kinases (PIKKs) family of genes that also includes ATR and PRKDC (also known as DNA-PKc)[74]. ATM and ATR act as master regulators of DNA damage response. Specifically, ATM is involved in double-stranded break (DSB) repair while ATR is involved in single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) repair[75]. ATM is recruited to the DNA damage site by the MRE11/RAD50/NBN (MRN) complex that senses DSB[75,76]. Upon activation, ATM phosphorylates several downstream proteins such as the NBN, MDC1, BRCA1, CHK2 and TP53BP1 proteins[77]. ATM is a tumor suppressor gene and loss of function mutations in ATM are implicated in the BRCAness phenotype, which is characterized by a defect in homologous recombination repair (HRR), mimicking BRCA1 or BRCA2 loss[78,79]. Germline mutations in ATM often result in Ataxia-telangiectasia, a hereditary disease also referred to as DNA damage response syndrome that is characterized by chromosomal instability[80].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations in ATM are observed in 17% of endometrial carcinoma, 15% of undifferentiated stomach adenocarcinoma, 13% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 12% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 9% of melanoma as well as esophagogastric adenocarcinoma and 8% of non-small cell lung cancer[15,16].

Potential relevance: The PARP inhibitor, olaparib[66] is approved (2020) for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with deleterious or suspected deleterious, germline or somatic mutations in HRR genes that includes ATM. Additionally, talazoparib[81] in combination with enzalutamide is approved (2023) for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with mutations in HRR genes that includes ATM. Consistent with other genes associated with the BRCAness phenotype, ATM mutations may aid in selecting patients likely to respond to PARP inhibitors[78,82,83]. Specifically, in a phase II trial of metastatic, castration-resistant prostate cancer, four of six patients with germline or somatic ATM mutations demonstrated clinical responses to olaparib[84]. In 2022, the FDA granted fast track designation to the small molecule inhibitor, pidnarulex[67], for BRCA1/2, PALB2, or other homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) mutations in breast and ovarian cancers.

CDKN2A deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A

Background: CDKN2A encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression[21]. 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)[31]. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb[32,33,34]. CDKN2A encodes two alternative transcript variants, namely p16 and p14ARF, both of which exhibit differential tumor suppressor functions[35]. 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[21,35,36]. CDKN2A aberrations commonly co-occur with CDKN2B[31]. Loss of CDKN2A/p16 results in downstream inactivation of the Rb and p53 pathways, leading to uncontrolled cell proliferation[37]. Germline mutations of CDKN2A are known to confer a predisposition to melanoma and pancreatic cancer[38,39].

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[40]. 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[15,16]. 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 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[15,16]. Alterations in CDKN2A are also observed in pediatric cancers[16]. 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[16]. 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)[16].

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[18,41,42]. Additionally, deletion of CDKN2B is a molecular marker used in staging Grade 4 pediatric IDH-mutant astrocytoma[43]. 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[44,45,46]. Alternatively, CDKN2A expression and Rb inactivation demonstrate resistance to palbociclib in cases of glioblastoma multiforme[47]. CDKN2A (p16)

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

expression is associated with a favorable prognosis for progression-free survival (PFS) and overall survival (OS) in p16/HPV positive head and neck cancer[48,49,50,51].

CTNNB1 p.(S37F) c.110C>T

catenin beta 1

Background: The CTNNB1 gene encodes catenin beta-1 (β-catenin), an integral component of cadherin-based adherens junctions, which are involved in maintaining adhesion and regulating the growth of epithelial cell layers[1]. CTNNB1 binds to the APC protein in the cytoplasm and interacts with TCF and LEF transcription factors in the nucleus to regulate WNT signaling[2]. Steady-state levels of CTNNB1 are regulated by ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis[3,4,5]. CTNNB1 exon 3 mutations can lead to persistent activation of the WNT/β-catenin pathway and alter downstream nuclear transcription[6].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic mutations leading to CTNNB1 activation are common in cancer. The most prevalent alterations include missense mutations in exon 3 at codons S33, S37, T41, and S45 that block phosphorylation by GSK-3β and inhibit CTNNB1 degradation[6,7,8,9]. These activating mutations are observed in diverse solid tumors and have a prevalence of 20-30% in hepatocellular carcinoma, 20% in uterine carcinoma, and 15% in adrenocortical carcinoma[10,11,12,13,14,15,16]. Alterations in CTNNB1 are also observed in pediatric cancers[15,16]. Somatic mutations are observed in 36% of hepatobiliary cancer (4 in 11 cases), 6% of embryonal tumor (21 in 332 cases), 3% of soft tissue sarcoma (1 in 38 cases), 2% of Wilms tumor (11 in 710 cases), and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 252 cases) and bone cancer (1 in 327 cases)[15,16].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies have been approved for CTNNB1 aberrations. CTNNB1 alterations have been proposed to promote cancer progression and limit the response to EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitors in EGFR mutant lung cancer[17]. Mutation of CTNNB1 is considered an ancillary diagnostic biomarker for desmoid fibromatosis and WNT-activated medulloblastoma[18,19,20].

CDKN2B deletion

cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2B

Background: CDKN2B encodes cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2B, a cell cycle regulator that controls G1/S progression[21,31]. CDKN2B, also known as p15/INK4B, belongs to a family of INK4 cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors, which also includes CDKN2A (p16/INK4A), CDKN2C (p18/INK4C), and CDKN2D (p19/INK4D)[31]. The INK4 family regulates cell cycle progression by inhibiting CDK4 or CDK6, thereby preventing the phosphorylation of Rb[32,33,34]. CDKN2B is a tumor suppressor and aberrations in this gene commonly co-occur with CDKN2A[31]. Germline mutations in CDKN2B are linked to pancreatic cancer predisposition and familial renal cell carcinoma[21,52,53].

Alterations and prevalence: CDKN2B copy number loss is a frequently occurring somatic aberration that is observed in 55% of glioblastoma multiforme, 43% of mesothelioma, 35% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 31% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 29% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 28% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 27% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma, 26% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 25% of diffuse large B -cell lymphoma, 16% of lung adenocarcinoma, 15% of sarcoma, 14% of cholangiocarcinoma, 11% of stomach adenocarcinoma and brain lower grade glioma, 5% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, 4% of adrenocortical carcinoma, breast invasive carcinoma, thymoma, and kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma, 3% of kidney renal clear cell carcinoma and ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, and 2% of uterine carcinosarcoma and kidney chromophobe[15,16]. Somatic mutations in CDKN2B are observed in 2% of uterine carcinosarcoma[15,16]. CDKN2B copy number loss is also observed in pediatric cancers, including 64% of childhood T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 37% of pediatric B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 25% of pediatric gliomas, 14% of pediatric bone cancers, 6% of embryonal tumors, and 2% of peripheral nervous system cancers[15,16]. Somatic mutations in CDKN2B are observed in less than 1% of bone cancer (1 in 327 cases)[15,16].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for CDKN2B aberrations. Homozygous deletion of CDKN2B is a molecular marker used in staging grade 4 pediatric IDH-mutant astrocytoma[43].

CHEK1 deletion

checkpoint kinase 1

Background: The CHEK1 gene encodes the checkpoint kinase 1 protein and belongs to a family of serine/threonine checkpoint kinases, that also includes CHEK2[21]. Checkpoint kinases play an important role in S phase and G2/M transition and DNA damage induced cell cycle arrest[61]. CHEK1 is a tumor suppressor and it interacts with proteins involved in transcription regulation, cell-cycle arrest, and DNA repair including homologous recombination repair (HRR)[62,63]. Upon DNA damage, CHEK1 is phosphorylated and activated by DNA damage repair proteins ATM and ATR[62]. Activated CHEK1 subsequently phosphorylates and negatively regulates downstream proteins such as CDC25A thereby slowing or stalling DNA replication[62,64].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic alterations of CHEK1 include mutations and copy number loss. Somatic mutations of CHEK1 are observed in 3% of endometrial carcinoma, 2% of non-small cell lung cancer and 1% of cervical squamous carcinoma

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

cases[15,65]. CHEK1 copy number loss occurs in 10% of seminoma, 8% of non-seminomatous germ cell tumor, 5% of ocular melanoma, and 3% of melanoma cases[15,65].

Potential relevance: The PARP inhibitor, olaparib[66] is approved (2020) for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with deleterious or suspected deleterious, germline or somatic mutations in HRR genes that includes CHEK1. In 2022, the FDA granted fast track designation to the small molecule inhibitor, pidnarulex[67], for BRCA1/2, PALB2, or other homologous recombination deficiency (HRD) mutations in breast and ovarian cancers.

CCND1 p.(P287S) c.859C>T

cyclin D1

Background: The CCND1 gene encodes the cyclin D1 protein, a member of the highly conserved D-cyclin family that also includes CCND2 and CCND3[171,172,173]. D-type cyclins are known to regulate cell cycle progression by binding to and activating cyclin dependent kinases (CDKs), specifically CDK4 and CDK6, which leads to the phosphorylation and inactivation of the retinoblastoma (RB1) protein[171,172]. Consequently, RB1 inactivation results in E2F transcription factor activation and cellular G1/S phase transition thereby resulting in cell cycle progression, a common event observed in tumorigenesis[171,172,174]. Aberrations in the D-type cyclins have been observed to promote tumor progression suggesting an oncogenic role for CCND1[173,175].

Alterations and prevalence: Recurrent somatic alterations to CCND1, including mutations, amplifications, and chromosomal translocations, are observed in many cancer types. A common mechanism of these alterations is to increase the expression and nuclear localization of the cyclin D1 protein. Recurrent somatic mutations include missense mutations at codons T286 and P287 and c-terminal truncating mutations that are enriched in about 33% of uterine cancer, and missense mutations at Y44 that are enriched in about 50% of Mantle cell lymphoma (MCL)[13,15,16,176]. These mutations block phosphorylation-dependent nuclear export and proteolysis[177,178,179,180]. CCND1 is recurrently amplified in many cancer types, including up to 35% of esophageal cancer, 20-30% of head and neck cancer, and 10-20% of breast, squamous lung, and bladder cancers[15,16,143]. MCL is genetically characterized by the t(11;14)(q13;q13) translocation, a rearrangement that juxtaposes CCND1 to the immunoglobulin heavy (IgH) chain gene. This rearrangement leads to constitutive expression of cyclin D1 and plays an important role in MCL pathogenesis[181,182].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for CCND1 aberrations. The t(11;14) translocation involving CCND1 can be used to help diagnose some lymphoma subtypes including non-gastric MALT lymphoma, splenic marginal cell lymphoma, and mantle cell lymphoma[183].

MAP2K4 p.(Q163*) c.487C>T

mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 4

Background: The MAP2K4 gene encodes the mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 4, also known as MEK4[21]. MAP2K4 is a member of the mitogen-activated protein kinase 2 (MAP2K) subfamily which also includes MAP2K1, MAP2K2, MAP2K3, MAP2K5, and MAP2K6[85]. Activation of MAPK proteins occurs through a kinase signaling cascade[85,86,87]. Specifically, MAP3Ks are responsible for phosphorylation of MAP2K family members[85,86,87]. Once activated, MAP2Ks are responsible for the phosphorylation of various MAPK proteins whose signaling is involved in several cellular processes including cell proliferation, differentiation, and inflammation[85,86,87]. Mutations observed in MAP2K4 were have been observed to impair kinase activity and promote tumorigenesis in vitro, supporting a possible tumor suppressor role for MAP2K4[88].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MAP2K4 have been observed in 5% of uterine carcinoma and colorectal cancer, and 4% of breast invasive carcinoma[15,16]. Biallelic deletions have been observed in 3% of stomach cancer, and 2% of breast invasive carcinoma, diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), colorectal, pancreatic, and ovarian cancer[15,16]. Nonsense, frameshift, and missense mutations in MAP2K4 generally inactivate the kinase activity, and lost expression has been identified in prostate, ovarian, brain, and pancreatic cancer models[89,90].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for MA2PK4 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[108]. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue[109,110]. 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[111]. 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[112]. 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)[112]. Tumors classified as MSI-L are

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS[113,114,115,116,117]. 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[110]. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer[109,110,114,118].

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[109,110,119,120]. 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[119,120].

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab[121] (2014) and nivolumab[122] (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab[121] 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[121]. Dostarlimab[123] (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[115,124]. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab[125] (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[115,126,127]. 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[127]. 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[128,129]. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers[128,129].

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

UDP glucuronosyltransferase family 1 member A1

Background: The UGT1A1 gene encodes UDP glucuronosyltransferase family 1 member A1, a member of the UDP-glucuronosyltransferase 1A (UGT1A) subfamily of the UGT protein superfamily[21,54]. UGTs are microsomal membrane-bound enzymes that catalyze the glucuronidation of endogenous and xenobiotic compounds and transform the lipophilic molecules into excretable, hydrophilic metabolites[54,55]. UGTs play an important role in drug metabolism, detoxification, and metabolite homeostasis. Differential expression of UGTs can promote cancer development, disease progression, as well as drug resistance[56]. Specifically, elevated expression of UGT1As are associated with resistance to many anti-cancer drugs due to drug inactivation and lower active drug concentrations. However, reduced expression and downregulation of UGT1As are implicated in bladder and hepatocellular tumorigenesis and progression due to toxin accumulation[56,57,58,59]. Furthermore, UGT1A1 polymorphisms, such as UGT1A1*28, UGT1A1*93, and UGT1A1*6, confer an increased risk of severe toxicity to irinotecan-based chemotherapy treatment of solid tumors, due to reduced glucuronidation of the irinotecan metabolite, SN-38[60].

Alterations and prevalence: Biallelic deletion of UGT1A1 has been observed in 6% of sarcoma, 3% of brain lower grade glioma and uveal melanoma, and 2% of thymoma, cervical squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and esophageal adenocarcinoma[15,16].

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

FAT1 p.(T2369Cfs*2) c.7105_7106delACinsT

FAT atypical cadherin 1

Background: FAT1 encodes the FAT atypical cadherin 1 protein, a member of the cadherin superfamily characterized by the presence of cadherin-type repeats[21,27]. FAT cadherins, which also include FAT2, FAT3, and FAT4, are transmembrane proteins containing a cytoplasmic domain and a number of extracellular laminin G-like motifs and EGF-like motifs, which contributes to their individual functions[27]. The cytoplasmic tail of FAT1 is known to interact with a number of protein targets involved in cell adhesion, proliferation, migration, and invasion[27]. FAT1 has been observed to influence the regulation of several oncogenic pathways, including the WNT/β-catenin, Hippo, and MAPK/ERK signaling pathways, as well as epithelial to mesenchymal transition[27]. Alterations of FAT1 lead to down-regulation or loss of function, supporting a tumor suppressor role for FAT1[27].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in FAT1 are predominantly truncating although, the R1627Q mutation has been identified as a recurrent hotspot[15,16]. Mutations in FAT1 are observed in 22% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 20% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 14% of lung squamous cell carcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma, and 12% diffuse large b-cell lymphoma and bladder urothelial carcinoma[15,16]. Biallelic loss of FAT1 is observed in 7% of head and neck squamous

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

cell carcinoma, 6% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 5% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, and 4% of diffuse large b-cell lymphoma, stomach adenocarcinoma and uterine carcinosarcoma[15,16].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for FAT1 aberrations.

HLA-B deletion

major histocompatibility complex, class I, B

Background: The HLA-B gene encodes the major histocompatibility complex, class I, B[21]. 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[68]. MHC class I molecules are heterodimers composed of two polypeptide chains, α and B2M[69]. 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[70,71,72]. Downregulation of MHC class I promotes tumor evasion of the immune system, suggesting a tumor suppressor role for HLA-B[73].

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[15,16]. Biallelic loss of HLA-B is observed in 5% of DLBCL[15,16].

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

DSC1 deletion

desmocollin 1

Background: The DSC1 gene encodes desmocollin 1, a member of the desmocollin (DSC) subfamily of the cadherin superfamily, which also includes DSC2 and DSC3[21]. DSCs along with desmogleins (DSGs) function as membrane-spanning constituents of the desmosomes[22]. Desmosomes are protein complexes in the intracellular junctions that confer stability and strengthen cell-cell adhesion[23]. Deregulation of DSC expression is suggested to impact β-catenin signaling and has been observed in a number of cancer types, supporting a potential role for DSC1 in tumorigenesis[22,24,25,26].

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in DSC1 are observed in 17% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 8% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% of uterine carcinosarcoma, and 3% of lung adenocarcinoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, and colorectal adenocarcinoma[15,16]. Biallelic deletion of DSC1 is observed in 2% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma and esophageal adenocarcinoma[15,16].

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for DSC1 aberrations.

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)
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 exon 19 deletion (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 exon 19 deletion (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 exon 19 deletion (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)

* 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*
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)
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)

FGFR2 imbalance

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
futibatinib	○	○	○	○	● (II)
pemigatinib	○	○	○	○	● (II)
erdafitinib	✖	◑	✖	✖	✖
ABSK061, ABSK-043	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
immune checkpoint inhibitor, pemigatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
sintilimab, pemigatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
ICP-192	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
afatinib, pemigatinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
KNT-0916	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (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

FGFR2 imbalance (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
TYRA-200	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

MTAP deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
AMG 193	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
CTS-3497	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
IDE397	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
MRTX-1719	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
TNG-456, abemaciclib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
TNG-462, pembrolizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
ABSK-131	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
GH-56	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
GTA-182	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
HSK-41959	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
ISM-3412	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
PH020-803	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
S-095035	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)
SYH-2039	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I)

ATM deletion

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
olaparib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
pamiparib, tislelizumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
senaparib, IMP-9064	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)

CDKN2A deletion

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

CDKN2A deletion (continued)

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

CTNNB1 p.(S37F) c.110C>T

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
sunvozertinib, catequentinib	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (II)
FOG-001, nivolumab	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)
tegatrabetan	✖	✖	✖	✖	● (I/II)

CDKN2B deletion

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

CHEK1 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	***17.69%***
ATM	***CNV, CN:1.0***
ATM	***LOH, 11q22.3(108098341-108236285)x1***
CHEK1	***CNV, CN:1.0***
CHEK1	***LOH, 11q24.2(125496639-125525271)x1***

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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