

Patient Name: 한길동
Gender: M
Sample ID: N25-347

Primary Tumor Site: colon
Collection Date: 2025.12.08

Sample Cancer Type: Colon Cancer

Table of Contents

	Page
Variant Details	2
Biomarker Descriptions	3
Alert Details	9
Relevant Therapy Summary	15

Report Highlights

4 Relevant Biomarkers
6 Therapies Available
23 Clinical Trials

Relevant Colon Cancer Findings

Gene	Finding	Gene	Finding
BRAF	None detected	NTRK3	None detected
ERBB2	None detected	PIK3CA	PIK3CA p.(E542K) c.1624G>A
KRAS	None detected	POLD1	None detected
NRAS	NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T	POLE	None detected
NTRK1	None detected	RET	None detected
NTRK2	None detected		

Genomic Alteration	Finding
Microsatellite Status	Microsatellite stable
Tumor Mutational Burden	12.33 Mut/Mb measured

HRD Status: **HR Proficient (HRD-)**

Relevant Biomarkers

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IA	NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T NRAS proto-oncogene, GTPase Allele Frequency: 35.31% Locus: chr1:115258747 Transcript: NM_002524.5	bevacizumab + chemotherapy ^I	None*	9
IIC	PIK3CA p.(E542K) c.1624G>A phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha Allele Frequency: 11.56% Locus: chr3:178936082 Transcript: NM_006218.4	aspirin ^{II+}	inavolisib + palbociclib + hormone therapy ^{1, 2 / I} alpelisib + hormone therapy ^{1, 2 / II+} capivasertib + hormone therapy ^{1, 2 / II} + aspirin ^{II+}	5

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

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

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

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

Relevant Biomarkers (continued)

Tier	Genomic Alteration	Relevant Therapies (In this cancer type)	Relevant Therapies (In other cancer type)	Clinical Trials
IIC	Microsatellite stable	None*	lenvatinib + pembrolizumab + berahyaluronidase alfa¹	8
IIC	TP53 p.(R249S) c.747G>T tumor protein p53 Allele Frequency: 44.78% Locus: chr17:7577534 Transcript: NM_000546.6	None*	None*	3

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

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

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

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

⚠ Alerts informed by public data sources: 🚫 Contraindicated, ⚠ Resistance, ↗ Breakthrough, ⚠ Fast Track

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T 🚫 **cetuximab^{1,2}, cetuximab + chemotherapy², panitumumab¹, panitumumab + chemotherapy²**

Public data sources included in alerts: FDA1, NCCN, EMA2, ESMO

Prevalent cancer biomarkers without relevant evidence based on included data sources

APC p.(Q1378*) c.4132C>T, MAP2K4 p.(G85*) c.253G>T, MLH1 p.(V384D) c.1151T>A, UGT1A1 p.(G71R) c.211G>A, HLA-B deletion, IKBKB amplification, PDCD1LG2 amplification, NQO1 p.(P187S) c.559C>T, Tumor Mutational Burden

Variant Details

DNA Sequence Variants							
Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
NRAS	p.(G12V)	c.35G>T	COSM566	chr1:115258747	35.31%	NM_002524.5	missense
PIK3CA	p.(E542K)	c.1624G>A	COSM760	chr3:178936082	11.56%	NM_006218.4	missense
TP53	p.(R249S)	c.747G>T	COSM10817	chr17:7577534	44.78%	NM_000546.6	missense
APC	p.(Q1378*)	c.4132C>T	COSM18862	chr5:112175423	50.73%	NM_000038.6	nonsense
MAP2K4	p.(G85*)	c.253G>T	.	chr17:11984707	22.76%	NM_003010.4	nonsense
MLH1	p.(V384D)	c.1151T>A	.	chr3:37067240	58.68%	NM_000249.4	missense
UGT1A1	p.(G71R)	c.211G>A	COSM4415616	chr2:234669144	33.47%	NM_000463.3	missense
NQO1	p.(P187S)	c.559C>T	.	chr16:69745145	64.41%	NM_000903.3	missense
MTOR	p.(V2417M)	c.7249G>A	.	chr1:11174426	38.18%	NM_004958.4	missense
JAK1	p.(D145H)	c.433G>C	.	chr1:65339103	59.69%	NM_002227.4	missense
RGSL1	p.(L400del)	c.1198_1200delCTT	.	chr1:182443440	60.80%	NM_001137669.2	nonframeshift Deletion
BARD1	p.(L115P)	c.344T>C	.	chr2:215657041	66.43%	NM_000465.4	missense
HLA-B	p.([N104I;L105A])	c.311_314delACCTinsT . CGC	.	chr6:31324494	100.00%	NM_005514.8	missense, missense
POM121L1	p.(R110*) 2	c.328C>T	.	chr7:53103692	6.01%	NM_182595.4	nonsense

Variant Details (continued)

DNA Sequence Variants (continued)

Gene	Amino Acid Change	Coding	Variant ID	Locus	Allele Frequency	Transcript	Variant Effect
KMT2C	p.(P860S)	c.2578C>T	.	chr7:151935866	30.72%	NM_170606.3	missense
CSMD3	p.(T2045R)	c.6134C>G	.	chr8:113392583	16.90%	NM_198123.2	missense
JAK2	p.(L47P)	c.140T>C	.	chr9:5022127	28.41%	NM_004972.4	missense
SLCO1B3	p.(N477S)	c.1430A>G	.	chr12:21033887	15.32%	NM_019844.4	missense
SLCO1B3-S LC01B7	p.(N477S)	c.1430A>G	.	chr12:21033887	15.32%	NM_001371097.1	missense
DDX3X	p.(?)	c.104-8_104-2delinsAT TTTTTTAT	.	chrX:41198281	46.81%	NM_001356.5	unknown

Copy Number Variations

Gene	Locus	Copy Number	CNV Ratio
HLA-B	chr6:31322252	0.71	0.65
IKBKB	chr8:42129602	5.16	1.87
PDCD1LG2	chr9:5522530	5.53	1.97

Biomarker Descriptions

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T

NRAS proto-oncogene, GTPase

Background: The *NRAS* proto-oncogene encodes a GTPase that functions in signal transduction and is a member of the RAS superfamily which also includes *KRAS* and *HRAS*¹. RAS proteins mediate the transmission of growth signals from the cell surface to the nucleus via the PI3K/AKT/MTOR and RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK pathways, which regulate cell division, differentiation, and survival^{114,115,116}. Recurrent mutations in RAS lead to several genetic disorders known as RASopathies, including Noonan syndrome, which results in heart and congenital defects, growth inhibition, and facial dysmorphic features¹¹⁷. Point mutations in *NRAS* are also observed in several cancers including melanoma, characterized thick tumors, increased tumor recurrence, treatment resistance, and increased mitosis¹¹⁸.

Alterations and prevalence: *NRAS* mutations are observed in 29% of skin cutaneous melanoma, 8% of acute myeloid leukemia and thyroid carcinoma, 6% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 4% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 3% of testicular germ cell tumors and cholangiocarcinoma, and 2% of thymoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, and kidney chromophobe^{8,9,119}. The majority of *NRAS* mutations consist of point mutations at G12, G13, and Q61^{8,9,120}. Mutations at A59, K117, and A146 have also been observed but are less frequent^{9,121}. Alterations in *NRAS* are also observed in pediatric cancers⁹. Somatic mutation in *NRAS* are observed in 16% of leukemia (57 in 354 cases), 10% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (24 in 252 cases), 8% of soft tissue sarcoma (3 in 38 cases), and less than 1% of glioma (2 in 297 cases), bone cancer (2 in 327 cases), and embryonal tumors (1 in 332 cases)⁹.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for *NRAS* aberrations. The EGFR antagonists, cetuximab¹²² and panitumumab¹²³, are contraindicated for treatment of colorectal cancer patients with *NRAS* mutations in exon 2 (codons 12 and 13), exon 3 (codons 59 and 61), and exon 4 (codons 117 and 146)¹²¹. In 2022, the FDA granted fast track designation to the pan-RAF inhibitor, KIN-2787¹²⁴, for the treatment of *NRAS*-mutant metastatic or unresectable melanoma. In 2023, the FDA granted fast track designation to the pan-RAF inhibitor, nafoparafenib, in combination with trametinib¹²⁵ for *NRAS*-mutated unresectable or metastatic melanoma. In 2024, the FDA granted fast track designation to the MAPK pathway inhibitor, IMM-1-104¹²⁶, for the treatment of *NRAS*-mutant metastatic or unresectable melanoma. *NRAS* mutations are associated with poor prognosis in patients with low-risk myelodysplastic syndrome⁵⁸ as well as melanoma¹²⁷. In a phase III clinical trial in patients with advanced *NRAS*-mutant melanoma, binimetinib improved progression free survival (PFS) relative to dacarbazine with median PFS of 2.8 and 1.5 months, respectively¹²⁸.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

PIK3CA p.(E542K) c.1624G>A

phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha

Background: The PIK3CA gene encodes the phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha of the class I phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) enzyme⁸¹. PI3K is a heterodimer that contains a p85 regulatory subunit, which couples one of four p110 catalytic subunits to activated tyrosine protein kinases^{82,83}. The p110 catalytic subunits include p110α, β, δ, γ and are encoded by genes PIK3CA, PIK3CB, PIK3CD, and PIK3CG, respectively⁸². PI3K catalyzes the conversion of phosphatidylinositol (4,5)-bisphosphate (PI(4,5)P2) into phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-trisphosphate (PI(3,4,5)P3) while the phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) catalyzes the reverse reaction^{84,85}. The reversible phosphorylation of inositol lipids regulates diverse aspects of cell growth and metabolism^{84,85,86,87}. Recurrent somatic alterations in PIK3CA are frequent in cancer and result in the activation of PI3K/AKT/MTOR pathway, which can influence several hallmarks of cancer including cell proliferation, apoptosis, cancer cell metabolism and invasion, and genetic instability^{88,89,90}.

Alterations and prevalence: Activating mutations in PIK3CA commonly occur in exons 10 and 21 (previously referred to as exons 9 and 20 due to exon 1 being untranslated)^{91,92}. These mutations typically cluster in the exon 10 helical (codons E542/E545) and exon 21 kinase (codon H1047) domains, each having distinct mechanisms of activation^{93,94,95}. Somatic mutations in PIK3CA are observed in 50% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 35% of uterine carcinosarcoma, 32% of breast invasive carcinoma, 29% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, 28% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, 22% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 17% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 16% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 11% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 9% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 8% of brain lower grade glioma, 6% of cholangiocarcinoma, 5% of skin cutaneous melanoma and lung adenocarcinoma, 4% of liver hepatocellular carcinoma, 3% of pancreatic adenocarcinoma and sarcoma, and 2% of mesothelioma, prostate adenocarcinoma, testicular germ cell tumors, and ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma^{8,9}. PIK3CA is amplified in 38% of lung squamous cell carcinoma, 20% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, 18% of esophageal adenocarcinoma, 16% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, 15% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma, 11% of uterine carcinosarcoma, 7% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 5% of stomach adenocarcinoma, 4% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, 3% of breast invasive carcinoma and pancreatic adenocarcinoma, and 2% of prostate adenocarcinoma, lung adenocarcinoma, and kidney renal clear cell carcinoma^{8,9}. Alterations in PIK3CA are also observed in pediatric cancers⁹. Somatic mutations in PIK3CA are observed in 6% of non-Hodgkin Lymphoma (1 in 17 cases), 4% of glioma (11 in 297 cases), 3% of soft tissue sarcoma (1 in 38 patients), 2% of embryonal tumors (6 in 332 cases), 1% of leukemia (5 in 354 cases), and less than 1% of bone cancer (3 in 327 cases), B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 252 cases), and peripheral nervous system tumors (1 in 1158 cases)⁹.

Potential relevance: The PI3K inhibitor, alpelisib⁹⁶, is FDA-approved (2019) in combination with fulvestrant for the treatment of patients with PIK3CA-mutated, hormone receptor (HR)-positive, human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)-negative, advanced or metastatic breast cancer. Specifically, exon 21 H1047R mutations were associated with more durable clinical responses in comparison to exon 10 E545K mutations⁹⁷. However, alpelisib did not improve response when administered with letrozole in patients with ER + early breast cancer with PIK3CA mutations⁹⁸. The FDA also approved the kinase inhibitor, capivasertib (2023)⁹⁹ in combination with fulvestrant for locally advanced or metastatic HR-positive, HER2-negative breast cancer with one or more PIK3CA/AKT1/PTEN-alterations following progression after endocrine treatment. The kinase inhibitor, inavolisib¹⁰⁰, is also FDA-approved (2024) in combination with palbociclib and fulvestrant for the treatment of adults with endocrine-resistant, PIK3CA-mutated, HR-positive, and HER2-negative breast cancer. Case studies with mTOR inhibitors sirolimus and temsirolimus report isolated cases of clinical response in PIK3CA mutated refractory cancers^{101,102}. In colorectal cancers, PIK3CA mutations predict significantly improved survival and reduced disease recurrence with adjuvant aspirin therapy, compared to no benefit in wild-type PIK3CA tumors^{70,76,103,104}. In 2025, the FDA granted fast track designation to the PI3Kα inhibitor and degrader, ETX-636¹⁰⁵, for the treatment of PIK3CA-mutant, HR-positive/HER-negative advanced breast cancer.

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 genome⁶⁷. Microsatellite instability (MSI) is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue^{20,22}. MSI is closely tied to the status of the mismatch repair (MMR) genes. In humans, the core MMR genes include MLH1, MSH2, MSH6, and PMS2²¹. 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 D17S250⁶⁸. 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)⁶⁸. Tumors classified as MSI-L are often phenotypically indistinguishable from MSS tumors and tend to be grouped with MSS^{23,69,70,71,72}. 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 genes²². LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer^{20,22,23,24}.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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^{20,22,73,74}. 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^{73,74}.

Potential relevance: Anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitors including pembrolizumab³⁰ (2014) and nivolumab³¹ (2015) are approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR colorectal cancer who have progressed following chemotherapy. Pembrolizumab³⁰ 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 indication³⁰. Dostarlimab⁷⁵ (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^{70,76}. The cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab³² (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^{70,77,78}. 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 patients⁷⁸. 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^{79,80}. However, checkpoint blockade with the addition of chemotherapy or targeted therapies have demonstrated response in MSS or pMMR cancers^{79,80}.

TP53 p.(R249S) c.747G>T

tumor protein p53

Background: The TP53 gene encodes the tumor suppressor protein p53, which binds to DNA and activates transcription in response to diverse cellular stresses to induce cell cycle arrest, apoptosis, or DNA repair¹. In unstressed cells, TP53 is kept inactive by targeted degradation via MDM2, a substrate recognition factor for ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis⁴¹. Alterations in TP53 are required for oncogenesis as they result in loss of protein function and gain of transforming potential⁴². Germline mutations in TP53 are the underlying cause of Li-Fraumeni syndrome, a complex hereditary cancer predisposition disorder associated with early-onset cancers^{43,44}.

Alterations and prevalence: TP53 is the most frequently mutated gene in the cancer genome with approximately half of all cancers experiencing TP53 mutations. Ovarian, head and neck, esophageal, and lung squamous cancers have particularly high TP53 mutation rates (60-90%)^{8,9,45,46,47,48}. Approximately two-thirds of TP53 mutations are missense mutations and several recurrent missense mutations are common, including substitutions at codons R158, R175, Y220, R248, R273, and R282^{8,9}. Invariably, recurrent missense mutations in TP53 inactivate its ability to bind DNA and activate transcription of target genes^{49,50,51,52}. Alterations in TP53 are also observed in pediatric cancers^{8,9}. Somatic mutations are observed in 53% of non-Hodgkin lymphoma, 24% of soft tissue sarcoma, 19% of glioma, 13% of bone cancer, 9% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, 4% of embryonal tumors, 3% of Wilms tumor and leukemia, 2% of T-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma, and less than 1% of peripheral nervous system cancers (5 in 1158 cases)^{8,9}. Biallelic loss of TP53 is observed in 10% of bone cancer, 2% of Wilms tumor, and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases) and leukemia (1 in 250 cases)^{8,9}.

Potential relevance: The small molecule p53 reactivator, PC14586⁵³ (2020), received a fast track designation by the FDA for advanced tumors harboring a TP53 Y220C mutation. In addition to investigational therapies aimed at restoring wild-type TP53 activity, compounds that induce synthetic lethality are also under clinical evaluation^{54,55}. TP53 mutations are a diagnostic marker of SHH-activated, TP53-mutant medulloblastoma⁵⁶. TP53 mutations confer poor prognosis and poor risk in multiple blood cancers including AML, MDS, myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN), and chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), and acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL)^{57,58,59,60,61}. In mantle cell lymphoma, TP53 mutations are associated with poor prognosis when treated with conventional therapy including hematopoietic cell transplant⁶². Mono- and bi-allelic mutations in TP53 confer unique characteristics in MDS, with multi-hit patients also experiencing associations with complex karyotype, few co-occurring mutations, and high-risk disease presentation as well as predicted death and leukemic transformation independent of the IPSS-R staging system⁶³.

APC p.(Q1378*) c.4132C>T

APC, WNT signaling pathway regulator

Background: The APC gene encodes the adenomatous polyposis coli tumor suppressor protein that plays a crucial role in regulating the β -catenin/WNT signaling pathway which is involved in cell migration, adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation¹⁰⁶. APC is an antagonist of WNT signaling as it targets β -catenin for proteasomal degradation^{107,108}. Germline mutations in APC are predominantly inactivating and result in an autosomal dominant predisposition for familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) which is characterized by

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

numerous polyps in the intestine^{106,109}. Acquiring a somatic mutation in APC is considered to be an early and possibly initiating event in colorectal cancer¹¹⁰.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in APC are observed in up to 65% of colorectal cancer, and in up to 15% of stomach adenocarcinoma and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma^{8,9,111}. In colorectal cancer, ~60% of somatic APC mutations have been reported to occur in a mutation cluster region (MCR) resulting in C-terminal protein truncation and APC inactivation^{112,113}.

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

MAP2K4 p.(G85*) c.253G>T

mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 4

Background: The MAP2K4 gene encodes the mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 4, also known as MEK4¹. MAP2K4 is a member of the mitogen-activated protein kinase 2 (MAP2K) subfamily which also includes MAP2K1, MAP2K2, MAP2K3, MAP2K5, and MAP2K6³⁵. Activation of MAPK proteins occurs through a kinase signaling cascade^{35,36,37}. Specifically, MAP3Ks are responsible for phosphorylation of MAP2K family members^{35,36,37}. 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^{35,36,37}. Mutations observed in MAP2K4 were have been observed to impair kinase activity and promote tumorigenesis in vitro, supporting a possible tumor suppressor role for MAP2K4³⁸.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MAP2K4 have been observed in 5% of uterine carcinoma and colorectal cancer, and 4% of breast invasive carcinoma^{8,9}. 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^{8,9}. 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^{39,40}.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for MAP2K4 aberrations.

MLH1 p.(V384D) c.1151T>A

mutL homolog 1

Background: The MLH1 gene encodes the mutL homolog 1 protein¹. MLH1 is a tumor suppressor gene that heterodimerizes with PMS2 to form the MutLa complex, PMS1 to form the MutL β complex, and MLH3 to form the MutLy complex¹⁴. The MutLa complex functions as an endonuclease that is specifically involved in the mismatch repair (MMR) process and mutations in MLH1 result in the inactivation of MutLa and degradation of PMS2^{14,15}. Loss of MLH1 protein expression and MLH1 promoter hypermethylation correlates with mutations in these genes and are used to pre-screen colorectal cancer or endometrial hyperplasia^{16,17}. MLH1, along with MSH6, MSH2, and PMS2 form the core components of the MMR pathway¹⁴. The MMR pathway is critical to the repair of mismatch errors which typically occur during DNA replication¹⁴. Deficiency in MMR (dMMR) is characterized by mutations and loss of expression in these genes¹⁸. dMMR is associated with microsatellite instability (MSI), which is defined as a change in the length of a microsatellite in a tumor as compared to normal tissue^{19,20,21}. MSI-high (MSI-H) is a hallmark of Lynch Syndrome (LS), also known as hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer, which is caused by germline mutations in MMR genes^{19,22}. LS is associated with an increased risk of developing colorectal cancer, as well as other cancers, including endometrial and stomach cancer^{20,22,23,24}. Specifically, MLH1 mutations are associated with an increased risk of ovarian and pancreatic cancer^{25,26,27,28}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in MLH1 are observed in 6% of uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma, 4% of colorectal adenocarcinoma, and 2-3% of bladder urothelial carcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, and melanoma^{8,9}. Alterations in MLH1 are observed in pediatric cancers^{8,9}. Somatic mutations are observed in 1% of bone cancer and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 252 cases), embryonal tumor (2 in 332 cases), and leukemia (2 in 311 cases)^{8,9}.

Potential relevance: The PARP inhibitor, talazoparib²⁹ in combination with enzalutamide is approved (2023) for metastatic castration-resistant prostate cancer (mCRPC) with mutations in HRR genes that includes MLH1. Additionally, pembrolizumab (2014) is an anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitor that is approved for patients with MSI-H or dMMR solid tumors that have progressed on prior therapies³⁰. Nivolumab (2015), an anti-PD-1 immune checkpoint inhibitor, is approved alone or in combination with the cytotoxic T-lymphocyte antigen 4 (CTLA-4) blocking antibody, ipilimumab (2011), for patients with dMMR colorectal cancer that have progressed on prior treatment^{31,32}. MLH1 mutations are consistent with high grade in pediatric diffuse gliomas^{33,34}.

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

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^{1,129}. UGTs are microsomal membrane-bound enzymes that catalyze the glucuronidation of endogenous and xenobiotic compounds and transform the lipophilic molecules into excretable, hydrophilic metabolites^{129,130}. 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 resistance¹³¹. 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^{131,132,133,134}. 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-38¹³⁵.

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^{8,9}.

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

HLA-B deletion

major histocompatibility complex, class I, B

Background: The HLA-B gene encodes the major histocompatibility complex, class I, B¹. MHC (major histocompatibility complex) class I molecules are located on the cell surface of nucleated cells and present antigens from within the cell for recognition by cytotoxic T cells². MHC class I molecules are heterodimers composed of two polypeptide chains, α and B2M³. The classical MHC class I genes 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^{4,5,6}. Downregulation of MHC class I promotes tumor evasion of the immune system, suggesting a tumor suppressor role for HLA-B⁷.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in HLA-B are observed in 10% of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), 5% of cervical squamous cell carcinoma and stomach adenocarcinoma, 4% of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and colorectal adenocarcinoma, 3% of uterine cancer, and 2% of esophageal adenocarcinoma and skin cutaneous melanoma^{8,9}. Biallelic loss of HLA-B is observed in 5% of DLBCL^{8,9}.

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

IKBKB amplification

inhibitor of nuclear factor kappa B kinase subunit beta

Background: The IKBKB gene encodes the nuclear factor kappa B kinase subunit beta, also known as IKK-B. IKBKB is a serine/threonine kinase, which acts as an enzyme protein subunit of the IKK complex¹⁰. IKBKB and IKBKA dimerize to form the regulatory subunit of the IKK complex. Along with modulator IKK γ /NEMO, the IKK complex acts as a master regulator of the family of NF- κ B transcription factors¹⁰. NF- κ B signaling is critical in the inflammatory response and is also known to be implicated in other important physiological processes including cell proliferation¹¹. In resting cells, NF- κ B dimers are sequestered in the cytoplasm by I κ B proteins¹¹. Upon signal initiation, I κ B proteins are phosphorylated by the IKK complex, leading to I κ B protein degradation and liberation of NF- κ B dimers¹¹. Subsequently, released NF- κ B dimers undergo nuclear translocation which leads to the expression of various proinflammatory and cell survival genes^{12,13}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in IKBKB are observed in 6% of uterine carcinoma, 5% of melanoma and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL)^{8,9}. Amplifications are observed in 14% of uterine carcinosarcoma, 7% of breast invasive carcinoma and esophageal cancer^{8,9}. IKBKB activating mutations are most commonly found at lysine 175 and are observed in 8% of splenic marginal B-cell lymphomas¹⁰.

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

Biomarker Descriptions (continued)

PDCD1LG2 amplification

programmed cell death 1 ligand 2

Background: The PDCD1LG2 gene encodes the programmed cell death 1 ligand 2, also known as PD-L2¹. PDCD1LG2 is a type I transmembrane protein expressed by antigen-presenting cells and tumor cells^{64,65}. PDCD1LG2 is an immunoregulatory ligand of PDCD1, a type I transmembrane inhibitory receptor and immune checkpoint belonging to the CD28/CTLA-4 family within the immunoglobulin superfamily^{64,65}. PDCD1LG2 and CD274 (also known as PD-L1) act as co-inhibitors and regulate immune tolerance of central and peripheral T-cells, reducing proliferation and cytokine production^{64,66}.

Alterations and prevalence: Somatic mutations in PDCD1LG2 are observed in 2% of skin cutaneous melanoma and uterine corpus endometrial carcinoma^{8,9}. Amplifications are observed in 4% of sarcoma, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL), and 2% of ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, esophageal adenocarcinoma, stomach adenocarcinoma, lung squamous cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, uterine carcinosarcoma, and cervical squamous cell carcinoma^{8,9}. Alterations in PDCD1LG2 are rare in pediatric cancers⁹. Somatic mutations in PDCD1LG2 are observed in 3% of pediatric soft tissue sarcoma⁹. Amplification of PDCD1LG2 is observed in 1% of Wilms tumor (2 in 136 cases) and less than 1% of B-lymphoblastic leukemia/lymphoma (2 in 731 cases)⁹.

Potential relevance: Currently, no therapies are approved for PDCD1LG2 aberrations.

Alerts Informed By Public Data Sources

Current FDA Information

 Contraindicated

 Not recommended

 Resistance

 Breakthrough

 Fast Track

FDA information is current as of 2025-11-25. For the most up-to-date information, search www.fda.gov.

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T

cetuximab

Cancer type: Colorectal Cancer

Label as of: 2021-09-24

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Indications and usage:

Erbxitux® is an epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) antagonist indicated for treatment of:

Head and Neck Cancer

- Locally or regionally advanced squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck in combination with radiation therapy.
- Recurrent locoregional disease or metastatic squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck in combination with platinum-based therapy with fluorouracil.
- Recurrent or metastatic squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck progressing after platinum-based therapy.

Colorectal Cancer

K-Ras wild-type, EGFR-expressing, metastatic colorectal cancer as determined by FDA-approved test

- in combination with FOLFIRI for first-line treatment,
- in combination with irinotecan in patients who are refractory to irinotecan-based chemotherapy,
- as a single agent in patients who have failed oxaliplatin- and irinotecan-based chemotherapy or who are intolerant to irinotecan.

Limitations of Use: Erbitux® is not indicated for treatment of Ras-mutant colorectal cancer or when the results of the Ras mutation tests are unknown.

BRAF V600E Mutation-Positive Metastatic Colorectal Cancer (CRC)

- in combination with encorafenib, for the treatment of adult patients with metastatic colorectal cancer (CRC) with a BRAF V600E mutation, as detected by an FDA-approved test, after prior therapy.

Reference:

https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2021/125084s279lbl.pdf

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T (continued)

🚫 panitumumab

Cancer type: Colorectal Cancer

Label as of: 2025-01-16

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Indications and usage:

VECTIBIX® is an epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) antagonist indicated for the treatment of:

Adult patients with wild-type RAS (defined as wild-type in both KRAS and NRAS as determined by an FDA-approved test)
Metastatic Colorectal Cancer (mCRC)*:

- In combination with FOLFOX for first-line treatment.
- As monotherapy following disease progression after prior treatment with fluoropyrimidine, oxaliplatin, and irinotecan-containing chemotherapy.

KRAS G12C-mutated Metastatic Colorectal Cancer (mCRC)*

- In combination with sotorasib, for the treatment of adult patients with KRAS G12C-mutated mCRC, as determined by an FDA-approved test, who have received prior treatment with fluoropyrimidine-, oxaliplatin-, and irinotecan-based chemotherapy.

*Limitations of Use: VECTIBIX® is not indicated for the treatment of patients with RAS-mutant mCRC unless used in combination with sotorasib in KRAS G12C-mutated mCRC. VECTIBIX® is not indicated for the treatment of patients with mCRC for whom RAS mutation status is unknown.

Reference:

https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125147s213lbl.pdf

PIK3CA p.(E542K) c.1624G>A

▲ ETX-636

Cancer type: Breast Cancer

Variant class: PIK3CA mutation

Other criteria: ERBB2 negative, Hormone receptor positive

Supporting Statement:

The FDA has granted Fast Track designation to the pan mutant-specific allosteric PI3K α inhibitor and degrader, ETX-636, for the treatment of adult patients with PIK3CA-mutant, hormone receptor positive (HR+)/human epidermal growth factor negative (HER2-) advanced breast cancer.

Reference:

<https://www.cancernetwork.com/view/fda-grants-fast-track-designation-to-novel-pik3-inhibitor-in-breast-cancer>

Current NCCN Information

 Contraindicated

 Not recommended

 Resistance

 Breakthrough

 Fast Track

NCCN information is current as of 2025-11-03. To view the most recent and complete version of the guideline, go online to [NCCN.org](https://www.nccn.org).

For NCCN International Adaptations & Translations, search www.nccn.org/global/what-we-do/international-adaptations.

Some variant specific evidence in this report may be associated with a broader set of alterations from the NCCN Guidelines. Specific variants listed in this report were sourced from approved therapies or scientific literature. These therapeutic options are appropriate for certain population segments with cancer. Refer to the NCCN Guidelines® for full recommendation.

All guidelines cited below are referenced with permission from the NCCN Clinical Practice Guidelines in Oncology (NCCN Guidelines®) National Comprehensive Cancer Network, Inc. 2023. All rights reserved. NCCN makes no warranties regarding their content.

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T

cetuximab

Cancer type: Colon Cancer

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Summary:

NCCN Guidelines® include the following supporting statement(s):

- "Patients with any known KRAS mutation (exon 2, 3, 4) or NRAS mutation (exon 2, 3, 4) should not be treated with either cetuximab or panitumumab, unless given as part of a regimen targeting a KRAS G12C mutation."

Reference: NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Colon Cancer [Version 5.2025]

panitumumab

Cancer type: Colon Cancer

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Summary:

NCCN Guidelines® include the following supporting statement(s):

- "Patients with any known KRAS mutation (exon 2, 3, 4) or NRAS mutation (exon 2, 3, 4) should not be treated with either cetuximab or panitumumab, unless given as part of a regimen targeting a KRAS G12C mutation."

Reference: NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Colon Cancer [Version 5.2025]

cetuximab

Cancer type: Rectal Cancer

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Summary:

NCCN Guidelines® include the following supporting statement(s):

- "Patients with any known KRAS mutation (exons 2, 3, and 4) or NRAS mutation (exons 2, 3, and 4) should not be treated with either cetuximab or panitumumab, unless given as part of a regimen targeting a KRAS G12C mutation."

Reference: NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Rectal Cancer [Version 4.2025]

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T (continued)

🚫 panitumumab

Cancer type: Rectal Cancer

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Summary:

NCCN Guidelines® include the following supporting statement(s):

- "Patients with any known KRAS mutation (exons 2, 3, and 4) or NRAS mutation (exons 2, 3, and 4) should not be treated with either cetuximab or panitumumab, unless given as part of a regimen targeting a KRAS G12C mutation."

Reference: NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Rectal Cancer [Version 4.2025]

Current EMA Information

🚫 Contraindicated

🚫 Not recommended

⚠ Resistance

↗ Breakthrough

▲ Fast Track

EMA information is current as of 2025-11-25. For the most up-to-date information, search www.ema.europa.eu.

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T

🚫 cetuximab, cetuximab + oxaliplatin

Cancer type: Colorectal Cancer

Label as of: 2025-01-16

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Reference:

https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/product-information/erbitux-epar-product-information_en.pdf

🚫 panitumumab + oxaliplatin

Cancer type: Colorectal Cancer

Label as of: 2025-05-07

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Reference:

https://www.ema.europa.eu/en/documents/product-information/vectibix-epar-product-information_en.pdf

Current ESMO Information

 Contraindicated

 Not recommended

 Resistance

 Breakthrough

 Fast Track

ESMO information is current as of 2025-11-03. For the most up-to-date information, search www.esmo.org.

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T

cetuximab

Cancer type: Colorectal Cancer

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Summary:

ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines include the following supporting statement:

- "The presence of RAS mutations is associated with resistance to anti-EGFR mAbs and knowing the expanded RAS mutational status is mandatory for use of both cetuximab and panitumumab, avoiding anti-EGFR mAb treatment when a RAS mutation is confirmed".
- "RAS testing is mandatory before treatment with anti-EGFR mAbs and can be carried out on either the primary tumor or other metastatic sites [III, A]".

Reference: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines - ESMO-Metastatic Colorectal Cancer [Ann Oncol (2023); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.10.003> (published)]

panitumumab

Cancer type: Colorectal Cancer

Variant class: NRAS G12 mutation

Summary:

ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines include the following supporting statement:

- "The presence of RAS mutations is associated with resistance to anti-EGFR mAbs and knowing the expanded RAS mutational status is mandatory for use of both cetuximab and panitumumab, avoiding anti-EGFR mAb treatment when a RAS mutation is confirmed".
- "RAS testing is mandatory before treatment with anti-EGFR mAbs and can be carried out on either the primary tumor or other metastatic sites [III, A]".

Reference: ESMO Clinical Practice Guidelines - ESMO-Metastatic Colorectal Cancer [Ann Oncol (2023); <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annonc.2022.10.003> (published)]

Genes Assayed

Genes Assayed for the Detection of DNA Sequence Variants

ABL1, ABL2, ACVR1, AKT1, AKT2, AKT3, ALK, AR, ARAF, ATP1A1, AURKA, AURKC, AXL, BCL2, BCL2L12, BCL6, BCR, BMP5, BRAF, BTK, CACNA1D, CARD11, CBL, CCND1, CCND2, CCND3, CCNE1, CD79B, CDK4, CDK6, CHD4, CSF1R, CTNNB1, CUL1, CYSLTR2, DDR2, DGCR8, DROSHA, E2F1, EGFR, EIF1AX, EPAS1, ERBB2, ERBB3, ERBB4, ESR1, EZH2, FAM135B, FGF7, FGFR1, FGFR2, FGFR3, FGFR4, FLT3, FLT4, FOXA1, FOXL2, FOXO1, GATA2, GLI1, GNA11, GNAQ, GNAS, HIF1A, HRAS, IDH1, IDH2, IKBKB, IL6ST, IL7R, IRF4, IRS4, KCNJ5, KDR, KIT, KLF4, KLF5, KNSTRN, KRAS, MAGOH, MAP2K1, MAP2K2, MAPK1, MAX, MDM4, MECOM, MED12, MEF2B, MET, MITF, MPL, MTOR, MYC, MYCN, MYD88, MYOD1, NFE2L2, NRAS, NSD2, NT5C2, NTRK1, NTRK2, NTRK3, NUP93, PAX5, PCBP1, PDGFRA, PDGFRB, PIK3C2B, PIK3CA, PIK3CB, 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, SLC01B3, SMC1A, SMO, SNCAP, SOS1, SOX2, SPOP, SRC, SRSF2, STAT3, STAT5B, STAT6, TAF1, TERT, TGFBR1, TOP1, TOP2A, TPMT, TRRAP, TSHR, U2AF1, USP8, WAS, XPO1, ZNF217, ZNF429

Genes Assayed (continued)

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, CBF, 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, ERF1, 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, SLC01B3, SLX4, SMAD2, SMAD4, SMARCA4, SMARCB1, SMC1A, SMO, SOX9, SPEN, SPOP, SRC, STAG2, STAT3, STAT6, STK11, SUFU, TAP1, TAP2, TBX3, TCF7L2, TERT, TET2, TGFBR2, TNFAIP3, TNFRSF14, TOP1, TP53, 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, RSP02, RSP03, 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, CBF, 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, ERF1, 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, TP53, 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

NRAS p.(G12V) c.35G>T

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
bevacizumab + CAPOX	✗	✗	✗	●	✗
bevacizumab + FOLFIRI	✗	✗	✗	●	✗
bevacizumab + FOLFOX	✗	✗	✗	●	✗
bevacizumab + FOLFOXIRI	✗	✗	✗	●	✗
bevacizumab, chemotherapy	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (III)
fruquintinib	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (II)
fruquintinib, chemotherapy	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (II)
serplulimab, chemotherapy	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (II)
tunlameritinib	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (II)
anti-KRAS G12V mTCR, chemotherapy, aldesleukin	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I/II)
ERAS-0015	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I/II)
daraxonrasib	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I)
Nest-1	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I)

PIK3CA p.(E542K) c.1624G>A

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
alpelisib + fulvestrant	○	○	○	○	✗
capivasertib + fulvestrant	○	○	○	✗	✗
inavolisib + palbociclib + fulvestrant	○	○	○	✗	✗
aspirin	✗	●	✗	✗	✗
amquilix	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I/II)
ETX-636	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I/II)
HTL-0039732, atezolizumab	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I/II)
JS-105	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I)
SNV-4818, hormone therapy	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I)

Microsatellite stable

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
lenvatinib + pembrolizumab + berahyaluronidase alfa	○	✗	✗	✗	✗

* 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

Microsatellite stable (continued)

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
fruquintinib	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (II)
odetiglucan, pembrolizumab	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (II)
pumitamig, chemotherapy	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (II)
serplulimab, chemotherapy	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (II)
CS-2009, chemotherapy	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I/II)
mRNA-4359	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I/II)
IMGS-001	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I)
NTX-1088, pembrolizumab	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I)

TP53 p.(R249S) c.747G>T

Relevant Therapy	FDA	NCCN	EMA	ESMO	Clinical Trials*
SYN-608	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I)
SYN-818, olaparib	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (I)
TP53-EphA-2-CAR-DC, anti-PD-1	✗	✗	✗	✗	● (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	19.64%
BARD1	SNV, L115P, AF:0.66
RAD51B	LOH, 14q24.1(68290164-69061406)x2

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 (6.2.4 data version 2025.12(007)). 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 2025-11-25. NCCN information was sourced from www.nccn.org and is current as of 2025-11-03. EMA information was sourced from www.ema.europa.eu and is current as of 2025-11-25. ESMO information was sourced from www.esmo.org and is current as of 2025-11-03. Clinical Trials information is current as of 2025-11-03. For the most up-to-date information regarding a particular trial, search www.clinicaltrials.gov by NCT ID or search local clinical trials authority website by local identifier listed in 'Other identifiers.' Variants are reported according to HGVS nomenclature and classified following AMP/ASCO/CAP guidelines (Li et al. 2017). Based on the data sources selected, variants, therapies, and trials listed in this report are listed in order of potential clinical significance but not for predicted efficacy of the therapies.

References

1. O'Leary et al. Reference sequence (RefSeq) database at NCBI: current status, taxonomic expansion, and functional annotation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2016 Jan 4;44(D1):D733-45. PMID: 26553804
2. Hulpke et al. The MHC I loading complex: a multitasking machinery in adaptive immunity. *Trends Biochem Sci.* PMID: 23849087
3. Adams et al. The adaptable major histocompatibility complex (MHC) fold: structure and function of nonclassical and MHC class I-like molecules. *Annu Rev Immunol.* 2013;31:529-61. PMID: 23298204
4. Rossjohn et al. T cell antigen receptor recognition of antigen-presenting molecules. *Annu Rev Immunol.* 2015;33:169-200. PMID: 25493333
5. Parham. MHC class I molecules and KIRs in human history, health and survival. *Nat Rev Immunol.* 2005 Mar;5(3):201-14. PMID: 15719024
6. Sidney et al. HLA class I supertypes: a revised and updated classification. *BMC Immunol.* 2008 Jan 22;9:1. PMID: 18211710
7. Cornel et al. MHC Class I Downregulation in Cancer: Underlying Mechanisms and Potential Targets for Cancer Immunotherapy. *Cancers (Basel).* 2020 Jul 2;12(7). PMID: 32630675
8. Weinstein et al. The Cancer Genome Atlas Pan-Cancer analysis project. *Nat. Genet.* 2013 Oct;45(10):1113-20. PMID: 24071849
9. Cerami et al. The cBio cancer genomics portal: an open platform for exploring multidimensional cancer genomics data. *Cancer Discov.* 2012 May;2(5):401-4. PMID: 22588877
10. Page et al. Context-Dependent Role of IKK β in Cancer. *Genes (Basel).* 2017 Dec 8;8(12). PMID: 29292732
11. Christian et al. The Regulation of NF- κ B Subunits by Phosphorylation. *Cells.* 2016 Mar 18;5(1). PMID: 26999213
12. Kabacaoglu et al. NF- κ B/Rel Transcription Factors in Pancreatic Cancer: Focusing on RelA, c-Rel, and RelB. PMID: 31277415
13. Lawrence. The nuclear factor NF- κ appaB pathway in inflammation. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol.* 2009 Dec;1(6):a001651. PMID: 20457564
14. Li. Mechanisms and functions of DNA mismatch repair. *Cell Res.* 2008 Jan;18(1):85-98. PMID: 18157157
15. Zhao et al. Mismatch Repair Deficiency/Microsatellite Instability-High as a Predictor for anti-PD-1/PD-L1 Immunotherapy Efficacy. *J Hematol Oncol.* 12(1),54. PMID: 31151482
16. Berends et al. MLH1 and MSH2 protein expression as a pre-screening marker in hereditary and non-hereditary endometrial hyperplasia and cancer. *Int. J. Cancer.* 2001 May 1;92(3):398-403. PMID: 11291077
17. Gausachs et al. MLH1 promoter hypermethylation in the analytical algorithm of Lynch syndrome: a cost-effectiveness study. *Eur. J. Hum. Genet.* 2012 Jul;20(7):762-8. PMID: 22274583
18. Martin et al. Therapeutic targeting of the DNA mismatch repair pathway. *Clin Cancer Res.* 2010 Nov 1;16(21):5107-13. PMID: 20823149
19. Lynch et al. Review of the Lynch syndrome: history, molecular genetics, screening, differential diagnosis, and medicolegal ramifications. *Clin. Genet.* 2009 Jul;76(1):1-18. PMID: 19659756
20. Baudrin et al. Molecular and Computational Methods for the Detection of Microsatellite Instability in Cancer. *Front Oncol.* 2018 Dec 12;8:621. doi: 10.3389/fonc.2018.00621. eCollection 2018. PMID: 30631754
21. Saeed et al. Microsatellites in Pursuit of Microbial Genome Evolution. *Front Microbiol.* 2016 Jan 5;6:1462. doi: 10.3389/fmicb.2015.01462. eCollection 2015. PMID: 26779133
22. Nojadeh et al. Microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. *EXCLI J.* 2018;17:159-168. PMID: 29743854
23. Imai et al. Carcinogenesis and microsatellite instability: the interrelationship between genetics and epigenetics. *Carcinogenesis.* 2008 Apr;29(4):673-80. PMID: 17942460
24. Latham et al. Microsatellite Instability Is Associated With the Presence of Lynch Syndrome Pan-Cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol.* 2019 Feb 1;37(4):286-295. PMID: 30376427
25. Bonadonna et al. Cancer risks associated with germline mutations in MLH1, MSH2, and MSH6 genes in Lynch syndrome. *JAMA.* 2011 Jun 8;305(22):2304-10. PMID: 21642682
26. Engel et al. Risks of less common cancers in proven mutation carriers with lynch syndrome. *J Clin Oncol.* 2012 Dec 10;30(35):4409-15. PMID: 23091106
27. Grant et al. Prevalence of germline mutations in cancer predisposition genes in patients with pancreatic cancer. *Gastroenterology.* 2015 Mar;148(3):556-64. PMID: 25479140
28. Hu et al. Association Between Inherited Germline Mutations in Cancer Predisposition Genes and Risk of Pancreatic Cancer. *JAMA.* 2018 Jun 19;319(23):2401-2409. PMID: 29922827
29. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/217439s003lbl.pdf
30. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125514s178lbl.pdf

References (continued)

31. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125554s131lbl.pdf
32. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125377s136lbl.pdf
33. Buccoliero et al. Pediatric High Grade Glioma Classification Criteria and Molecular Features of a Case Series. *Genes (Basel)*. 2022 Mar 31;13(4). PMID: 35456430
34. Friker et al. MSH2, MSH6, MLH1, and PMS2 immunohistochemistry as highly sensitive screening method for DNA mismatch repair deficiency syndromes in pediatric high-grade glioma. *Acta Neuropathol.* 2025 Feb 2;149(1):11. PMID: 39894875
35. Pritchard et al. Molecular pathways: mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway mutations and drug resistance. *Clin. Cancer Res.* 2013 May 1;19(9):2301-9. PMID: 23406774
36. Lee et al. Targeting MAPK Signaling in Cancer: Mechanisms of Drug Resistance and Sensitivity. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2020 Feb 7;21(3). PMID: 32046099
37. Bubici et al. JNK signalling in cancer: in need of new, smarter therapeutic targets. *Br J Pharmacol.* 2014 Jan;171(1):24-37. PMID: 24117156
38. Ahn et al. Map2k4 functions as a tumor suppressor in lung adenocarcinoma and inhibits tumor cell invasion by decreasing peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ2 expression. *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 2011 Nov;31(21):4270-85. PMID: 21896780
39. Robinson et al. Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 4/c-Jun NH₂-terminal kinase kinase 1 protein expression is subject to translational regulation in prostate cancer cell lines. *Mol. Cancer Res.* 2008 Mar;6(3):501-8. PMID: 18337456
40. Xue et al. MAP3K1 and MAP2K4 mutations are associated with sensitivity to MEK inhibitors in multiple cancer models. *Cell Res.* 2018 Jul;28(7):719-729. PMID: 29795445
41. Nag et al. The MDM2-p53 pathway revisited. *J Biomed Res.* 2013 Jul;27(4):254-71. PMID: 23885265
42. Muller et al. Mutant p53 in cancer: new functions and therapeutic opportunities. *Cancer Cell.* 2014 Mar 17;25(3):304-17. PMID: 24651012
43. Olivier et al. TP53 mutations in human cancers: origins, consequences, and clinical use. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol.* 2010 Jan;2(1):a001008. PMID: 20182602
44. Guha et al. Inherited TP53 Mutations and the Li-Fraumeni Syndrome. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med.* 2017 Apr 3;7(4). PMID: 28270529
45. Peter S et al. Comprehensive genomic characterization of squamous cell lung cancers. *Nature.* 2012 Sep 27;489(7417):519-25. PMID: 22960745
46. Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. *Nature.* 2015 Jan 29;517(7536):576-82. PMID: 25631445
47. Campbell et al. Distinct patterns of somatic genome alterations in lung adenocarcinomas and squamous cell carcinomas. *Nat. Genet.* 2016 Jun;48(6):607-16. PMID: 27158780
48. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Integrated genomic characterization of oesophageal carcinoma. *Nature.* 2017 Jan 12;541(7636):169-175. doi: 10.1038/nature20805. Epub 2017 Jan 4. PMID: 28052061
49. Olivier et al. The IARC TP53 database: new online mutation analysis and recommendations to users. *Hum. Mutat.* 2002 Jun;19(6):607-14. PMID: 12007217
50. Rivlin et al. Mutations in the p53 Tumor Suppressor Gene: Important Milestones at the Various Steps of Tumorigenesis. *Genes Cancer.* 2011 Apr;2(4):466-74. PMID: 21779514
51. Petitjean et al. TP53 mutations in human cancers: functional selection and impact on cancer prognosis and outcomes. *Oncogene.* 2007 Apr 2;26(15):2157-65. PMID: 17401424
52. Soussi et al. Recommendations for analyzing and reporting TP53 gene variants in the high-throughput sequencing era. *Hum. Mutat.* 2014 Jun;35(6):766-78. PMID: 24729566
53. <https://www.globenewswire.com/news-release/2020/10/13/2107498/0/en/PMV-Pharma-Granted-FDA-Fast-Track-Designation-of-PC14586-for-the-Treatment-of-Advanced-Cancer-Patients-that-have-Tumors-with-a-p53-Y220C-Mutation.html>
54. Parrales et al. Targeting Oncogenic Mutant p53 for Cancer Therapy. *Front Oncol.* 2015 Dec 21;5:288. doi: 10.3389/fonc.2015.00288. eCollection 2015. PMID: 26732534
55. Zhao et al. Molecularly targeted therapies for p53-mutant cancers. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* 2017 Nov;74(22):4171-4187. PMID: 28643165
56. Louis et al. The 2021 WHO Classification of Tumors of the Central Nervous System: a summary. *Neuro Oncol.* 2021 Aug 2;23(8):1231-1251. PMID: 34185076
57. Döhner et al. Diagnosis and management of AML in adults: 2022 recommendations from an international expert panel on behalf of the ELN. *Blood.* 2022 Sep 22;140(12):1345-1377. PMID: 35797463

References (continued)

58. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Myelodysplastic Syndromes [Version 1.2026]
59. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Myeloproliferative Neoplasms [Version 2.2025]
60. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Chronic Lymphocytic Leukemia/Small Lymphocytic Lymphoma [Version 1.2026]
61. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia [Version 2.2025]
62. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-B-Cell Lymphomas [Version 3.2025]
63. Bernard et al. Implications of TP53 allelic state for genome stability, clinical presentation and outcomes in myelodysplastic syndromes. *Nat. Med.* 2020 Aug 3. PMID: 32747829
64. Ai et al. Research Status and Outlook of PD-1/PD-L1 Inhibitors for Cancer Therapy. *Drug Des Devel Ther.* 2020;14:3625-3649. PMID: 32982171
65. Yang et al. Correlation Between PD-L2 Expression and Clinical Outcome in Solid Cancer Patients: A Meta-Analysis. *Front Oncol.* 2019;9:47. PMID: 30891423
66. Latchman et al. PD-L2 is a second ligand for PD-1 and inhibits T cell activation. *Nat Immunol.* 2001 Mar;2(3):261-8. PMID: 11224527
67. Lander et al. Initial sequencing and analysis of the human genome. *Nature.* 2001 Feb 15;409(6822):860-921. PMID: 11237011
68. Boland et al. A National Cancer Institute Workshop on Microsatellite Instability for cancer detection and familial predisposition: development of international criteria for the determination of microsatellite instability in colorectal cancer. *Cancer Res.* 1998 Nov 15;58(22):5248-57. PMID: 9823339
69. Halford et al. Low-level microsatellite instability occurs in most colorectal cancers and is a nonrandomly distributed quantitative trait. *Cancer Res.* 2002 Jan 1;62(1):53-7. PMID: 11782358
70. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Colon Cancer [Version 5.2025]
71. Pawlik et al. Colorectal carcinogenesis: MSI-H versus MSI-L. *Dis. Markers.* 2004;20(4-5):199-206. PMID: 15528785
72. Lee et al. Low-Level Microsatellite Instability as a Potential Prognostic Factor in Sporadic Colorectal Cancer. *Medicine (Baltimore).* 2015 Dec;94(50):e2260. PMID: 26683947
73. Cortes-Ciriano et al. A molecular portrait of microsatellite instability across multiple cancers. *Nat Commun.* 2017 Jun 6;8:15180. doi: 10.1038/ncomms15180. PMID: 28585546
74. Bonneville et al. Landscape of Microsatellite Instability Across 39 Cancer Types. *JCO Precis Oncol.* 2017;2017. PMID: 29850653
75. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/761174s009lbl.pdf
76. NCCN Guidelines® - NCCN-Rectal Cancer [Version 4.2025]
77. Ribic et al. Tumor microsatellite-instability status as a predictor of benefit from fluorouracil-based adjuvant chemotherapy for colon cancer. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2003 Jul 17;349(3):247-57. PMID: 12867608
78. Klingbiel et al. Prognosis of stage II and III colon cancer treated with adjuvant 5-fluorouracil or FOLFIRI in relation to microsatellite status: results of the PETACC-3 trial. *Ann. Oncol.* 2015 Jan;26(1):126-32. PMID: 25361982
79. Hermel et al. The Emerging Role of Checkpoint Inhibition in Microsatellite Stable Colorectal Cancer. *J Pers Med.* 2019 Jan 16;9(1). PMID: 30654522
80. Ciardiello et al. Immunotherapy of colorectal cancer: Challenges for therapeutic efficacy. *Cancer Treat. Rev.* 2019 Jun;76:22-32. PMID: 31079031
81. Volinia et al. Molecular cloning, cDNA sequence, and chromosomal localization of the human phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase p110 alpha (PIK3CA) gene. *Genomics.* 1994 Dec;24(3):472-7. PMID: 7713498
82. Whale et al. Functional characterization of a novel somatic oncogenic mutation of PIK3CB. *Signal Transduct Target Ther.* 2017;2:17063. PMID: 29279775
83. Osaki et al. PI3K-Akt pathway: its functions and alterations in human cancer. *Apoptosis.* 2004 Nov;9(6):667-76. PMID: 15505410
84. Cantley. The phosphoinositide 3-kinase pathway. *Science.* 2002 May 31;296(5573):1655-7. PMID: 12040186
85. Fruman et al. The PI3K Pathway in Human Disease. *Cell.* 2017 Aug 10;170(4):605-635. PMID: 28802037
86. Engelman et al. The evolution of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinases as regulators of growth and metabolism. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* 2006 Aug;7(8):606-19. PMID: 16847462
87. Vanhaesebroeck et al. PI3K signalling: the path to discovery and understanding. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* 2012 Feb 23;13(3):195-203. PMID: 22358332
88. Yuan et al. PI3K pathway alterations in cancer: variations on a theme. *Oncogene.* 2008 Sep 18;27(41):5497-510. PMID: 18794884
89. Liu et al. Targeting the phosphoinositide 3-kinase pathway in cancer. *Nat Rev Drug Discov.* 2009 Aug;8(8):627-44. PMID: 19644473

References (continued)

90. Hanahan et al. Hallmarks of cancer: the next generation. *Cell*. 2011 Mar 4;144(5):646-74. PMID: 21376230
91. Brito et al. PIK3CA Mutations in Diffuse Gliomas: An Update on Molecular Stratification, Prognosis, Recurrence, and Aggressiveness. *Clin Med Insights Oncol*. 2022;16:11795549211068804. PMID: 35023985
92. Huret et al. Atlas of genetics and cytogenetics in oncology and haematology in 2013. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2013 Jan;41(Database issue):D920-4. PMID: 23161685
93. Miled et al. Mechanism of two classes of cancer mutations in the phosphoinositide 3-kinase catalytic subunit. *Science*. 2007 Jul 13;317(5835):239-42. PMID: 17626883
94. Burke et al. Synergy in activating class I PI3Ks. *Trends Biochem. Sci*. 2015 Feb;40(2):88-100. PMID: 25573003
95. Burke et al. Oncogenic mutations mimic and enhance dynamic events in the natural activation of phosphoinositide 3-kinase p110 α (PIK3CA). *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 2012 Sep 18;109(38):15259-64. PMID: 22949682
96. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2024/212526s009lbl.pdf
97. Mayer et al. A Phase Ib Study of Alpelisib (BYL719), a PI3K α -Specific Inhibitor, with Letrozole in ER+/HER2- Metastatic Breast Cancer. *Clin. Cancer Res*. 2017 Jan 1;23(1):26-34. PMID: 27126994
98. Mayer et al. A Phase II Randomized Study of Neoadjuvant Letrozole Plus Alpelisib for Hormone Receptor-Positive, Human Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor 2-Negative Breast Cancer (NEO-ORB). *Clin. Cancer Res*. 2019 Feb 5. PMID: 30723140
99. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/218197s002lbl.pdf
100. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/219249s002lbl.pdf
101. Jung et al. Pilot study of sirolimus in patients with PIK3CA mutant/amplified refractory solid cancer. *Mol Clin Oncol*. 2017 Jul;7(1):27-31. PMID: 28685070
102. Janku et al. PIK3CA mutations in patients with advanced cancers treated with PI3K/AKT/mTOR axis inhibitors. *Mol. Cancer Ther*. 2011 Mar;10(3):558-65. PMID: 21216929
103. Liao et al. Aspirin use, tumor PIK3CA mutation, and colorectal-cancer survival. *N Engl J Med*. 2012 Oct 25;367(17):1596-606. PMID: 23094721
104. Domingo et al. Evaluation of PIK3CA mutation as a predictor of benefit from nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug therapy in colorectal cancer. *J Clin Oncol*. 2013 Dec 1;31(34):4297-305. PMID: 24062397
105. <https://www.cancernetwork.com/view/fda-grants-fast-track-designation-to-novel-pik3-inhibitor-in-breast-cancer>
106. Wang et al. Loss of Tumor Suppressor Gene Function in Human Cancer: An Overview. *Cell. Physiol. Biochem*. 2018;51(6):2647-2693. PMID: 30562755
107. Stamos et al. The β -catenin destruction complex. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol*. 2013 Jan 1;5(1):a007898. PMID: 23169527
108. Minde et al. Messing up disorder: how do missense mutations in the tumor suppressor protein APC lead to cancer?. *Mol Cancer*. 2011 Aug 22;10:101. doi: 10.1186/1476-4598-10-101. PMID: 21859464
109. Aoki et al. Adenomatous polyposis coli (APC): a multi-functional tumor suppressor gene. *J. Cell. Sci*. 2007 Oct 1;120(Pt 19):3327-35. PMID: 17881494
110. Miyoshi et al. Somatic mutations of the APC gene in colorectal tumors: mutation cluster region in the APC gene. *Hum. Mol. Genet*. 1992 Jul;1(4):229-33. PMID: 1338904
111. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Comprehensive molecular characterization of gastric adenocarcinoma. *Nature*. 2014 Sep 11;513(7517):202-9. doi: 10.1038/nature13480. Epub 2014 Jul 23. PMID: 25079317
112. Rowan et al. APC mutations in sporadic colorectal tumors: A mutational "hotspot" and interdependence of the "two hits". *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* 2000 Mar 28;97(7):3352-7. PMID: 10737795
113. Laurent-Puig et al. APC gene: database of germline and somatic mutations in human tumors and cell lines. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 1998 Jan 1;26(1):269-70. PMID: 9399850
114. Pylayeva-Gupta et al. RAS oncogenes: weaving a tumorigenic web. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2011 Oct 13;11(11):761-74. PMID: 21993244
115. Karnoub et al. Ras oncogenes: split personalities. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol*. 2008 Jul;9(7):517-31. PMID: 18568040
116. Scott et al. Therapeutic Approaches to RAS Mutation. *Cancer J*. 2016 May-Jun;22(3):165-74. doi: 10.1097/PPO.0000000000000187. PMID: 27341593
117. Runtuwene et al. Noonan syndrome gain-of-function mutations in NRAS cause zebrafish gastrulation defects. *Dis Model Mech*. 2011 May;4(3):393-9. PMID: 21263000
118. Feichtenschlager et al. Suppression of NRAS-mutant melanoma growth with NRAS-targeting Antisense Oligonucleotide treatment reveals therapeutically relevant kinase co-dependencies. *Commun Med (Lond)*. 2025 Jun 5;5(1):216. PMID: 40473796
119. Janku et al. PIK3CA mutations frequently coexist with RAS and BRAF mutations in patients with advanced cancers. *PLoS ONE*. 2011;6(7):e22769. PMID: 21829508

References (continued)

120. Ohashi et al. Characteristics of lung cancers harboring NRAS mutations. *Clin. Cancer Res.* 2013 May 1;19(9):2584-91. PMID: 23515407
121. Allegra et al. Extended RAS Gene Mutation Testing in Metastatic Colorectal Carcinoma to Predict Response to Anti-Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor Monoclonal Antibody Therapy: American Society of Clinical Oncology Provisional Clinical Opinion Update 2015. *J. Clin. Oncol.* 2016 Jan 10;34(2):179-85. PMID: 26438111
122. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2021/125084s279lbl.pdf
123. https://www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda_docs/label/2025/125147s213lbl.pdf
124. <https://investors.kinnate.com/news-releases/news-release-details/kinnate-biopharma-inc-receives-fast-track-designation-us-food>
125. <https://investors.erasca.com/node/7891/pdf>
126. <https://ir.immuneering.com/news-releases/news-release-details/immuneering-granted-fda-fast-track-designation-imm-1-104>
127. Johnson et al. Treatment of NRAS-Mutant Melanoma. *Curr Treat Options Oncol.* 2015 Apr;16(4):15. doi: 10.1007/s11864-015-0330-z. PMID: 25796376
128. Dummer et al. Binimetinib versus dacarbazine in patients with advanced NRAS-mutant melanoma (NEMO): a multicentre, open-label, randomised, phase 3 trial. *Lancet Oncol.* 2017 Apr;18(4):435-445. PMID: 28284557
129. Ouzzine et al. The UDP-glucuronosyltransferases of the blood-brain barrier: their role in drug metabolism and detoxication. *Front Cell Neurosci.* 2014;8:349. PMID: 25389387
130. Nagar et al. Uridine diphosphoglucuronosyltransferase pharmacogenetics and cancer. *Oncogene.* 2006 Mar 13;25(11):1659-72. PMID: 16550166
131. Allain et al. Emerging roles for UDP-glucuronosyltransferases in drug resistance and cancer progression. *Br J Cancer.* 2020 Apr;122(9):1277-1287. PMID: 32047295
132. Izumi et al. Expression of UDP-glucuronosyltransferase 1A in bladder cancer: association with prognosis and regulation by estrogen. *Mol Carcinog.* 2014 Apr;53(4):314-24. PMID: 23143693
133. Sundararaghavan et al. Glucuronidation and UGT isozymes in bladder: new targets for the treatment of uroepithelial carcinomas?. *Oncotarget.* 2017 Jan 10;8(2):3640-3648. PMID: 27690298
134. Lu et al. Drug-Metabolizing Activity, Protein and Gene Expression of UDP-Glucuronosyltransferases Are Significantly Altered in Hepatocellular Carcinoma Patients. *PLoS One.* 2015;10(5):e0127524. PMID: 26010150
135. Karas et al. JCO Oncol Pract. 2021 Dec 3:OP2100624. PMID: 34860573