**K-ras oncogene mutations in sporadic colorectal cancer in The Netherlands Cohort Study**

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**Activation of K-ras oncogene has been implicated in colorectal carcinogenesis, being mutated in 30–60% of the adenocarcinomas. In this study, 737 incident colorectal cancer (CRC) patients, originating from 120 852 men and women (55–69 years at baseline) participating in the Netherlands Cohort Study (NLCS), were studied in order to evaluate subgroups with respect to K-ras mutation status. Mutation analysis of the exon 1 fragment of the K-ras oncogene, spanning codons 8–29, was performed on archival colorectal adenocarcinoma samples of all patients using macrodissection, nested PCR and direct sequencing of purified fragments. The method of mutation detection was validated by the confirmation of reported K-ras status in CRC cell lines, a good correlation between fresh-frozen and routinely fixed, paraffin-embedded tissue, a detection limit of 5% mutated DNA and a good reproducibility. Various types of K-ras mutations were evaluated with respect to tumour sub-localization, Dukes’ stage and tumour differentiation. In 37% (271/737) of the patients, the exon 1 fragment of K-ras gene was found to be mutated. The predominant mutations are G>A transitions and G>T transversions, and codons 12 and 13 are the most frequently affected codons. Patients with a rectal tumour were found to have the highest frequency of G>T transversions as compared with patients with a colon or rectosigmoid tumour. This difference appeared to be confined to women with a rectal tumour harbouring G>T transversions. No significant differences were observed for Dukes’ stage with respect to types of K-ras mutation, which does not support direct involvement of the K-ras oncogene in adenocarcinoma progression. The equal distribution of K-ras mutations among cases with or without a family history of colorectal cancer argues against an important role for this mutation in familial colorectal cancer, and could imply that K-ras mutations are more probably involved in environmental mechanisms of colorectal carcinogenesis.**

**Abbreviations:** CRC, colorectal cancer; GDP, guanosine-diphosphates; GTP, guanosine-triphosphates; NLCS, Netherlands Cohort Study.

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**Introduction**

The development of colorectal cancer (CRC) is a multi-step process characterized by the accumulation of genetic alterations (1,2). The Fearon and Vogelstein model assumes the involvement of the APC (Adenomatous Polyposis Coli) gene in adenoma formation and the K-ras oncogene in the transition from intermediate adenomas to carcinomas in sporadic CRC (1).

The K-ras oncogene has been found mutated in 10–15% of the screened adenomas <1 cm and in 30–60% of adenomas >1 cm. Also, 30–60% of the adenocarcinomas have a K-ras mutation (3–5). It was suggested, therefore, that a mutated K-ras gene contributes to the transition of an intermediate adenoma to a late adenoma or carcinoma (2). The K-ras gene product, a 21 kDa protein located at the inner plasma membrane, is involved in the transduction of mitogenic signals. The Ras protein is activated transiently as a response to extracellular signals such as growth factors, cytokines and hormones that stimulate cell surface receptors (6). The hallmark of Ras function is a switch between an inactive state, in which the proteins are bound to guanosine-diphosphates (GDP) and an active state in which conversion to guanosine-triphosphates (GTP) has occurred. This transit is governed by two types of regulatory proteins: GDP–GTP exchange factors that catalyse the GDP–GTP exchange and GTPase-activating proteins that enhance the intrinsic capacity of Ras proteins to hydrolyse GTP into GDP, thereby returning Ras to the inactive state (7).

Mutant, activated forms of Ras proteins have an impaired intrinsic GTPase activity, which renders the protein resistant to inactivation by regulatory GTPase-activating proteins (4). Approximately 90% of the activating mutations are found in codons 12 (wild-type GGT) and 13 (wild-type GGC) of exon 1 and ~5% in codon 61 (wild-type CAA) located in exon 2 (8–10). Previous studies from various countries have revealed specific point mutations in codons 12 and 13. The most frequently observed types of mutations are G>A transitions (11) and G>T transversions (12) and these alterations were found associated with gender and sub-localization of the tumour (9).

To date, frequencies and specific types of point mutations in the K-ras oncogene in colorectal cancer have been investigated in several studies (4,5,10,13). These reports were generally based on small numbers of selected patients. In the current study, however, the frequency of K-ras mutations is studied in a large series of unselected, incident colorectal cancer patients from The Netherlands identified in a prospective cohort study. Potential differences in tumour sub-localization, Dukes’ stage and tumour differentiation with respect to presence and type of the K-ras mutations are studied.

**Materials and methods**

**Study population**

The participants in this study are incident colorectal cancer cases from the Netherlands Cohort Study (NLCS) on diet and cancer. The NLCS has been
described in detail elsewhere (14). Briefly, the prospective study was initiated in 1986 and includes 58,279 men and 62,573 women, aged between 55 and 69 years old, who completed a self-administered questionnaire on diet, family history of cancer and other risk factors for cancer at baseline. The entire cohort is being more closely observed for cancer occurrence by annual record linkage to the Netherlands Cancer Registry (NCR) and to PALGA, a nationwide database of pathology reports (15). From 1989 until 1994, with exclusion of the first 2.3 years of follow up due to incomplete nationwide coverage of PALGA, 819 incident cases with histologically confirmed colorectal cancer have been identified. The PALGA database was also used to identify the location of tumour tissue storage in the Dutch PA laboratories. Colorectal cancer was classified according to site as follows. Proximal colon: cecum through transverse colon (ICD-O codes: 153.0, 153.1, 153.4, 153.5, 153.6); distal colon: splenic flexure through sigmoid colon (ICD-O codes: 153.2, 153.3, 153.7); rectosigmoid (ICD-O code 154.0) and rectum (ICD-O code 154.1). Information about age at diagnosis, gender and family history of colorectal cancer (at baseline) was retrieved from the NLCS database. Information about tumour sub-localization, Dukes’ stage and differentiation of the tumour was retrieved from the Netherlands Cancer Registry database.

Tissue samples

Tumour material was collected after approval by the Medical Ethical Commit-tees (MEC) of the Maastricht University, PALGA and the NCR. Subsequently, all pathology laboratories in the Netherlands agreed to make relevant tissue samples available for this study. Tumour tissue sample collection started in August, 1999 and was completed in December, 2001. The 819 tissue samples were distributed among 54 pathology laboratories throughout The Netherlands, and only 44 (5%) tumour tissue samples could not be traced. Finally, 775 (95%) of the eligible tissue samples have been retrieved and 737 (90%) of the tissue samples contained sufficient tumour material as confirmed by a pathologist (A.d.B.) and hence were available for molecular analyses. Archival tissue sample blocks were registered and coded using a consecutive, unique identification number.

Five CRC cell lines, i.e. HT29, Colo205, CaCo2, SW480 and HCT116 [American Type Culture Collection (ATCC), Rockville, MD] were used to check the specificity of K-ras mutation detection. In order to validate mutation analysis on paraffin-embedded tissue, 10 fresh CRC specimens were divided into two adjacent tissue blocks, one of which was fresh-frozen, and one routinely fixed and embedded in paraffin. These specimens were obtained from patients who did not participate in the NLCS.

DNA isolations

Sections (5 μm) were cut from paraffin-embedded tumour tissue blocks and stained with haematoxylin & eosin (H&E) for histopathological examination. For DNA isolation, five 20 μm sections of tumour tissue were used. Depara-finization of the sections was performed and, using the H&E section as a reference, tumour tissue was macrodissected from the normal colon ep-ithelium and scraped off.

Genomic DNA was extracted from macrodissected tumour tissue using the Puregene® DNA isolation kit (Gentra Systems). Briefly, 475 μl cell lysis solution and 25 μl proteinase K stock solution (20 mg/ml, obtained from Qiagen, St Louis, MO) were added to the tissue samples and incubated over-night at 55°C. Subsequently, DNA was extracted for 72 h at 37°C, protein was removed and DNA was precipitated using 100% 2-propanol and dissolved in hydration buffer. The DNA concentration and purity was measured at 260 and 280 nm.

DNA from fresh, unfixed CRC cell lines and the fresh-frozen tissue samples was extracted as described for paraffin-embedded sections.

Mutation analysis

An exon 1 fragment of the K-ras gene was amplified from isolated, genomic DNA using a nested PCR approach. In the first reaction, a fragment of 179 bp was generated, using the sense primer 5’-AGG CCT GCT GAA AAT GAC TGA ATA-3’ and antisense primer 5’-CTG TAT CAA AGA ATG ATC GTC CAC-3’. The annealing temperature was 58°C. The resulting fragment was used as a template to amplify a 114 bp fragment spanning codons 8–29. This PCR is performed using the biotinylated, sense primer 5’-AAA ATG ACT GAA TAT AAA CTT GTG G-3’ and the antisense primer 5’-CTC TAT TGT TGG ATC ATA TTT GTC GTC-3’ at an annealing temperature of 50°C. The inside reactions were performed using the polymerase DNA from fresh, unfixed CRC cell lines and the fresh-frozen tissue samples was extracted as described for paraffin-embedded sections.

Reactions with a Cy5 labelled primer 5’-CTC TAT TGT GTG ATC ATA TTT GTC GTC CAC-3’ and T7 DNA polymerase. The sequence profile is analysed on the ALFExpress II DNA Analysis System. Evaluation was independently performed using ALFwin software (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech) by two observers, based on the criterion that an increase of at least 5% is observed for the mutant peak as well as a decrease of at least 5% in the wild-type peak, relative to the wild-type pattern in the same sequence run. Data entry was performed blindly by two independent observers.

The mutation detection limit was determined by mixing wild-type DNA from the cell line CaCo2 and the homozygously mutated cell line SW480 in amounts varying from 0–100%.

Statistical analysis

The overall frequency of K-ras mutations as well as the type of mutation and affected codon was computed for all 737 cases with respect to age at diagnosis, gender, family history of colorectal cancer, tumour sub-localization, Dukes’ stage and tumour differentiation. Differences in mean values of age at diagnosis as a continuous variable was evaluated using the Student’s t-test. Differences in the categorical variables gender, family history of colorectal cancer, tumour sub-localization, Dukes’ stage and tumour differentiation between patients without and with K-ras mutations were evaluated for significance with the χ2-test. In addition, differences in tumour sub-localization, Dukes’ stage and tumour differentiation between patients without a K-ras mutation and patients with one or more G>A transition or G>T transversion or patients with at least one codon 12 or codon 13 mutation were evaluated with the χ2-test. A P-value of 0.05 or less was considered statistically significant. Statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS software (version 9.0).

Results

Validation of techniques

In the colorectal cancer cell lines HT29, Colo205 and CaCo2, wild-type K-ras was found, whereas homozygously mutated alleles in SW480 and heterozygously mutated alleles in HCT116 cells were revealed with direct sequence analysis. For the SW480 line, a GGT to GTT mutation in codon 12 was observed and for the HCT116 line, a GGC to GAC mutation in codon 13.

The effect of tissue processing was assessed by comparing an adjacent fresh-frozen and a paraffin-embedded tissue block in a series of 10 fresh colon tumour specimens. In nine specimens, the K-ras status in the paraffin-embedded tissue was identical to fresh, unfixed tissue, i.e. six specimens with wild-type K-ras, one with a G>T transversion at the second position of codon 12, one with a G>C transversion at the second position of codon 12 and one with a G>C transversion at the second position of codon 13. In one specimen, a G>C transversion at the third position of codon 19 was observed in the routinely fixed, paraffin-embedded tissue, but not in DNA extracted from the fresh tissue.

The detection limit of mutation detection was determined by mixing wild-type DNA isolated from the CaCo2 cell line with decreasing concentrations of mutated DNA which was prepared from the homozygously mutated colorectal cell line SW480. The lowest level of detection was 5% mutant DNA in a background of wild-type DNA as found in three independent experiments.

To establish the reproducibility of the mutation analysis, 32 NLCS adenocarcinoma specimens were subjected twice to the complete procedure, from tissue sectioning to DNA sequencing. In 88% (28/32) of the samples, the same K-ras status was observed in the duplicate experiments.

Types of mutations

In exon 1 of the K-ras oncogene, a total of 281 mutations were found in 271 (37%) out of 737 patients. No significant differences were observed in mean age at diagnosis (67.75 ± 4.21
versus 68.29 ± 4.32), gender (55 versus 57%) and family
history of colorectal cancer (11 versus 9%) between patients
without and patients with one or more K-ras oncogene mutations
in the tumour (Table I).

For 10 patients, two different mutations were observed in
exon 1. In six of these patients both mutations were found in
codon 12, and the other four patients showed one mutation in
codon 12 or codon 13 and one mutation in another codon. In
18 patients without aberrations in codon 12 or codon 13, a
mutation was found in codons 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 19, 20 or 25.

Table II summarizes the frequencies of genetic aberrations
by type of mutation, affected codons and corresponding amino
acids in the exon 1 fragment of the K-ras oncogene. The most
frequently observed mutations in the gene are G>A transitions,
G>T transversions and G>C transversions, i.e. 55 (155/
281 mutations), 32 (90/281 mutations) and 9% (24/281 muta-
tions), respectively. Of the total number of mutations in the
exon 1 fragment, 72% (201/281) was observed in codon 12
mutations, 32 (90/281 mutations) and 9% (24/281 muta-
tions), respectively. Of the total number of mutations in the
tumour (Table I).

Patients with a rectal tumour have the highest frequency of
G>T transversions (16 versus 11%, 9 and 14% for proximal,
distal and rectosigmoid tumours, respectively, P = 0.22) and
codon 12 mutations (34 versus 25%, 22 and 25%, respectively,
P = 0.07) (Table III). It should be noted that most G>T
transversions are confined to codon 12 (Table II). Patients
with a tumour in the rectosigmoid, however, have the highest
frequency of codon 13 mutations (14 versus 11%, 5 and 6% for
proximal, distal and rectal tumour, respectively, P = 0.03)
(Table III). Stratification by gender, in addition, reveals that
women with a rectal tumour have the highest prevalence of
K-ras mutations (53 versus 37%, 23 and 37% for proximal,
distal and rectosigmoid tumour, respectively, P = 0.001). This
difference was confined, in particular, to the G>T transver-
sions (27% for rectal tumour versus 8%, 11 and 7% for

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codon</th>
<th>Type of point mutation</th>
<th>Number of point mutations</th>
<th>Wild-type codon (amino acid)</th>
<th>Mutated codon (amino acid)</th>
<th>Putative altered amino acid</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>A&gt;G</td>
<td>3 (1%)</td>
<td>GTA (val)</td>
<td>GTG (val)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Insertion</td>
<td>1 (0.4%)</td>
<td>GAT (asp)</td>
<td>GAG (glu)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>G&gt;A</td>
<td>1 (0.4%)</td>
<td>GGA (gly)</td>
<td>AGA (arg)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>G&gt;A</td>
<td>91 (33%)</td>
<td>GGT (gly)</td>
<td>GAT (asp)</td>
<td>75 (37%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G&gt;T</td>
<td>87 (31%)</td>
<td>GTA (val)</td>
<td>GTT (val)</td>
<td>16 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G&gt;C</td>
<td>23 (8%)</td>
<td>GGT (gly)</td>
<td>TGT (cyt)</td>
<td>17 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>G&gt;T</td>
<td>58 (21%)</td>
<td>GGC (gly)</td>
<td>GAC (asp)</td>
<td>58 (94%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G&gt;C</td>
<td>3 (1%)</td>
<td>TGC (arg)</td>
<td>CGC (cyt)</td>
<td>3 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>G&gt;A</td>
<td>1 (0.4%)</td>
<td>GCC (gly)</td>
<td>AGC (arg)</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>G&gt;A</td>
<td>1 (0.4%)</td>
<td>AAG (lys)</td>
<td>AAA (lys)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>G&gt;A</td>
<td>1 (0.4%)</td>
<td>TTG (leu)</td>
<td>TTA (leu)</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>C&gt;T</td>
<td>8 (3%)</td>
<td>ACG (thr)</td>
<td>ATG (met)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>G&gt;A</td>
<td>2 (0.8%)</td>
<td>CAG (glu)</td>
<td>CAA (glu)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*aComparing cases with at least one K-ras mutation to cases without a K-ras mutation.
*bgly, glycine; asp, aspartic acid; ser, serine; val, valine; cyt, cytostine; ala, alanine; arg, arginine; thr, threonine; met, methionine; glu, glutamine; leu, leucine; glz, glutamic acid.
*cThe insertion is six nucleotides (TGGAGC), located after the first position of codon 9, resulting in three altered codons.
proximal and distal colon tumour and rectosigmoid tumour, respectively, \(P = 0.002\) (Table IV). We also evaluated the \(K\)-ras mutational status for tumours in the proximal and distal colon and for tumours in the colon versus the rectum (tumours in the rectosigmoid were excluded for this analysis).

It was found that patients with a proximal colon tumour had a higher frequency of G\(>\)A transitions as compared with patients with a distal tumour (\(P = 0.11\)) (Table III). This difference in frequencies of G\(>\)A transitions with respect to proximal and distal colon tumours was more pronounced for women (\(P = 0.02\)) (Table IV). Patients with a rectal tumour showed a relatively higher frequency of \(K\)-ras mutations (\(P = 0.08\)), and in particular G\(>\)T transversions (\(P = 0.06\)), as compared with patients with a colon tumour. Again, this difference was due to the high frequency of G\(>\)T transversions in rectal tumours observed in women (\(P = 0.0003\)) (Table IV).

**Dukes’ stage**

Most tumours were staged as Dukes B (35%, 238/685), and tumours with Dukes D stage (12%, 85/685) constitute the smallest group (Table III). Patients with a Dukes A staged tumour more often have G\(>\)A transitions (26 versus 16, 20 and 19% for Dukes B, C and D, respectively; \(P = 0.13\), whereas patients with a Dukes D staged tumour have relatively a higher frequency of G\(>\)T transversions (18 versus 8, 15 and 9% for Dukes A, B and C, respectively; \(P = 0.04\)). No clear differences were observed in the frequencies of codon 12 or 13 mutations of \(K\)-ras.

### Table III. Characterization of \(K\)-ras mutations at gene and codon level according to tumour sub-localization, Dukes’ stage and differentiation of the tumour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-localizationa</th>
<th>Total CRC cases (n = 737)</th>
<th>Wild-type (K)-ras (n = 466)</th>
<th>(K)-ras mutation (n = 271)</th>
<th>Point mutation</th>
<th>Affected codon</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>G(&gt;)A transition (n = 153)b</td>
<td>G(&gt;)T transversion (n = 88)b</td>
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<td>(P (\leq) 0.05)</td>
<td>(P (\leq) 0.05)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Proximal colon</td>
<td>240 (65%)</td>
<td>91 (38%)</td>
<td>55 (23%)</td>
<td>27 (11%)</td>
<td>7 (3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distal colon</td>
<td>224 (68%)</td>
<td>68 (30%)</td>
<td>38 (17%)</td>
<td>20 (9%)</td>
<td>6 (3%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rectosigmoid</td>
<td>85 (60%)</td>
<td>34 (40%)</td>
<td>20 (24%)</td>
<td>12 (14%)</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rectum</td>
<td>176 (58%)</td>
<td>74 (42%)</td>
<td>37 (21%)</td>
<td>28 (16%)</td>
<td>9 (5%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>179 (64%)</td>
<td>65 (36%)</td>
<td>46 (26%)</td>
<td>15 (8%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>238 (65%)</td>
<td>84 (35%)</td>
<td>39 (16%)</td>
<td>36 (15%)</td>
<td>7 (3%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>183 (66%)</td>
<td>63 (34%)</td>
<td>37 (20%)</td>
<td>17 (9%)</td>
<td>9 (5%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>85 (55%)</td>
<td>38 (45%)</td>
<td>16 (19%)</td>
<td>15 (18%)</td>
<td>4 (5%)</td>
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<td>P (=) 0.40</td>
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<td>Dukes’ stagec</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>179 (64%)</td>
<td>65 (36%)</td>
<td>46 (26%)</td>
<td>15 (8%)</td>
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<td>7 (3%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>183 (66%)</td>
<td>63 (34%)</td>
<td>37 (20%)</td>
<td>17 (9%)</td>
<td>9 (5%)</td>
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<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>85 (55%)</td>
<td>38 (45%)</td>
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</table>

### Table IV. Stratification by gender with respect to tumour sub-localization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-localizationb</th>
<th>No (K)-ras mutation</th>
<th>(K)-ras mutationc</th>
<th>G(&gt;)A transitionc</th>
<th>G(&gt;)T transversionc</th>
<th>G(&gt;)C transversionc</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Sub-localizationb</td>
<td>Sub-localizationb</td>
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<td>Sub-localizationb</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximal colon</td>
<td>252 (61%)</td>
<td>206 (63%)</td>
<td>151 (39%)</td>
<td>116 (37%)</td>
<td>66 (24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distal colon</td>
<td>71 (61%)</td>
<td>78 (63%)</td>
<td>45 (39%)</td>
<td>46 (37%)</td>
<td>30 (24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rectosigmoid</td>
<td>84 (64%)</td>
<td>72 (77%)</td>
<td>47 (36%)</td>
<td>21 (23%)</td>
<td>11 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rectum</td>
<td>25 (57%)</td>
<td>26 (63%)</td>
<td>19 (43%)</td>
<td>15 (37%)</td>
<td>11 (27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>72 (64%)</td>
<td>30 (47%)</td>
<td>40 (36%)</td>
<td>34 (53%)</td>
<td>13 (20%)</td>
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<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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### Footnotes

aFor eight patients without a \(K\)-ras mutation and four patients with at least one mutation, the site of localization in the colon could not be determined (colon, NOS).
bComparing patients without a \(K\)-ras mutation to patients with at least one \(K\)-ras mutation, patients with at least one G\(>\)A transition (n = 153) or those with at least one G\(>\)T (n = 88) or G\(>\)C (n = 23) transversion.
cFor 21 patients without a \(K\)-ras mutation and 31 patients with at least one \(K\)-ras mutation, information on Dukes’ stage was not available.
dFor 10 patients, two mutations were found. These patients were included in the analyses and treated as patients with at least one \(K\)-ras mutation, etc.
eThe frequencies of G\(>\)A transition, G\(>\)T or G\(>\)C transversion per subsite were calculated by dividing the number of patients with G\(>\)A transitions, for example, through the total number of CRC cases.
codon 13 mutations with respect to the Dukes’ stage of the tumour (Table III).

Tumour differentiation

No differences were observed in frequencies of K-ras mutations, G>A transitions, G>T or G>C transversions or mutations in codon 12 or codon 13 ($P > 0.05$) with respect to tumour differentiation.

Discussion

Overall, we observed that the frequency of K-ras oncogene mutations in a large representative sample of CRC patients from The Netherlands (age at diagnosis between 57 and 76 years) was 37%. The frequency of K-ras gene mutations in CRC patients reported in the literature, ranges from 30 to 60% (3,9,11,12,16–27). This broad range of reported frequencies of K-ras mutations may be due to various factors, such as the sensitivity and specificity of mutation detection methods, small series of selected patients (3,12,17,20,21,23) and/or variability in analysed gene region, i.e. only codons 12 (21), 13 (12,20,22,23,28) and/or 61 (11). Also, environmental factors may be involved. Techniques used for mutation screening such as temperature gradient gel electrophoresis (3) or SSCP (17,29) and methods for mutation detection like PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism (22,28), or PCR-based mutant allele-specific amplification (MASA) (20) may show differences in sensitivity and/or specificity of mutation detection in the K-ras gene. In this study, the analysis of K-ras mutations is based on a highly sensitive and specific detection method, i.e. direct sequencing of purified PCR fragments. This method identifies mutations in DNA samples, which contain at least 5% or more mutated DNA. The reported frequency of K-ras mutations could, therefore, be an underestimation. Direct sequencing was validated by mutation analysis of five CRC cell lines, and of adjacent blocks with paraffin-embedded and fresh tissue from a series of 10 CRC specimens. The mutation analysis of five CRC cell lines confirmed the reported sequences of exon 1 fragments of the K-ras oncogene (30). In addition, the K-ras status as determined in paraffin-embedded tumour tissue was also found in fresh tumour tissue in nine out of 10 specimens. In one specimen, the mutation detected in paraffin-embedded tissue was not found in fresh tissue, which may be related to heterogeneity in the tumour tissue or a lack in the reproducibility of this sample. These results indicate that tissue processing does not significantly affect the reliability of mutation analysis in archival specimens. The reproducibility of the identification technique used in this study was found to be good, as duplication of the complete analytical procedure yielded the same results for 28 out of 32 (88%) adenocarcinomas. The K-ras gene mutation analysis is based on a relatively large series of non-selected, incident CRC patients, which indicates that the found frequency of K-ras mutations is representative for colorectal cancer patients in the Dutch population.

Slattery et al. (31) have evaluated the association between several genetic alterations and the presence or absence of family history of colorectal cancer using incident colon cancer cases. These authors did not find an association with overall K-ras mutations, although patients with a G>T transversion of the second base of codon 12 were more likely to have a family history of colorectal cancer compared with those without this specific type of point mutation. In our study, no significant differences were observed in family history of CRC between patients without and with a K-ras mutation. Our findings suggest that these genetic alterations in sporadic colorectal tumours are not associated with family history of CRC and that therefore, diet, environment and/or lifestyle factors may contribute to the acquisition of K-ras gene mutations involved in the early phases of carcinogenesis. However, more studies evaluating other genetic markers and/or a different kind of population study, i.e. twin studies, may be necessary to address this issue.

Studies from various countries have analysed the frequency of the type of K-ras point mutation in colorectal cancer. These studies were conducted in the UK (24,25), former Yugoslavia (12), Czech Republic (21), Norway (9), Switzerland (18), Mexico (11), USA (26) and The Netherlands (17,19,20). All studies except for the study performed in former Yugoslavia (12) have identified the G>A transition as the most frequently found type of K-ras mutation. In the current study, the G>A transition appeared also to be the predominant mutation. The pattern of specific alterations observed, i.e. G>A transitions and G>T transversions, could be due to differences in diet and/or other lifestyle factors. N-nitroso compounds, for example, in red and processed meat could induce G>A transitions (25) and this is supported by previous experimental studies (32,33). Two mechanisms, which could explain the G>A transition are the formation of guanine-adducts in the DNA and the silencing of the $O^6$-methylguanine DNA methyltransferase (MGMT). MGMT is a DNA repair protein that removes adducts from the $O^6$ position of guanine (34) in DNA. Promotor hypermethylation of the MGMT gene, a phenomenon often seen in colon cancer cells (28,35) and which leads to silencing of the gene, results in conversions of guanine-cytosine pairs to adenine–thymine pairs. Guanine–thymine transversions, however, are more likely to be induced by carcinogenic agents like the polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons found in smoked and barbecued meat (36), dietary fats (37) and cigarette smoke (38).

In the present study, codons 12 and 13 were affected in 94% of the tumours with a K-ras mutation in the exon 1 fragment, and the majority of mutations would result in an amino acid substitution of glycine by aspartic acid (57%) or by valine (33%). Mutations in either of these codons could lead to an activated Ras protein. Al-Mulla et al. (39) compared detailed crystal structures of the K-ras protein with these two most frequently observed mutations in codon 12, i.e. substitutions of glycine by aspartic acid or valine. The tightly bound complex of GTP in codon 12 glycine-to-valine mutant Ras protein may generate a more stable signal as compared with the codon 12 glycine-to-aspartic acid mutant Ras protein or the codon 12 wild-type Ras protein. Moreover, Andreyev et al. (27) have shown that the presence of the glycine to valine substitution in codon 12 leads to a decreased survival of CRC patients and suggest this alteration is important for cancer progression and also that it may predispose to a more aggressive biological behaviour in patients with advanced colorectal cancer. Span et al. (19) also observed an association between specific K-ras point mutations and cancer progression. Recently, Bazan et al. (40) reported biological relevance for codon 13 mutations in terms of colorectal cancer clinical outcome, such as Dukes’ stage ($P < 0.05$). They also reported a possible role for codon 12 mutations in the mucinous differentiation pathway. Associations between specific K-ras point mutations and cancer
mutations with more advanced stages of Dukes’ classification suggested an increase in the frequencies of the conditions based on tissue samples of selected series of patients with various distributions of Dukes’ staged tumours. Some suggested an increase in the frequencies of the K-ras oncogene mutations with more advanced stages of Dukes’ classification (12,17) whereas others (3,9,42) did not find any association between frequencies of point mutations and Dukes’ stage. In the current study, all incident CRC cases were included regardless of the Dukes’ stage. No significant differences in the distribution of Dukes’ stage were observed between patients without a K-ras mutation and those with a specific K-ras gene mutation. It suggests that K-ras mutations are not involved in the progression of adenocarcinomas and that genetic aberrations occur in pathways, which do not depend on K-ras mutations during the more advanced stages of colorectal cancer.

Various topographical subdivisions of the large intestine have been proposed, according to different criteria (22,43–45). The so-called rectosigmoid can be considered as a rather more clinically applied term than an anatomically defined transitional zone between the colon and rectum. Although the rectum is considered to comprise the last 12 cm of the intestine proximal of the anal verge, clinicopathological data are inconsistent as to whether the tumours in this region can be assigned to the colon or rectum (46). In our study, the NCR database contains the clinicopathological data, including the sub-localization of the tumour, as supplied by the clinicians. Therefore, in the current multi-centre study, for so-called rectosigmoid tumours it was not possible to definitively assign a tumour to either the colon or rectum. Consequently, the rectosigmoid was excluded from analysis when comparing colonic versus rectal adenocarcinomas. Among similar lines, another topographical issue, which we addressed, was the comparison of proximal versus distal colon tumours. Differences could be expected between these two with respect to faecal content and composition, microbial flora and activity, and the local variations in distribution of intestinal epithelial cell types. Owing to the mentioned unclear definition of the term rectosigmoid tumour, analyses were performed with both the ex- and inclusion of rectosigmoid tumours within the group of distal colon tumours. The resulting asymmetry between proximal and distal colon tumours was maintained, regardless of these differences in type of analysis.

Patients with a rectal tumour have a relatively higher frequency of G>T transversions as compared with patients with a distal colon tumour and this difference appeared to be most pronounced for female patients. This was not found in other studies (3,21,26,44). However, Breivik et al. (9) reported that K-ras mutations were not found in tumours located proximal to the descending colon of men under the age of 70, whereas rare mutations such as G>C transversions were almost exclusively observed in tumours of the rectum of women. Again, results based on a smaller number of samples (123 men and 125 women, stratified by age) could lead to biased, inconsistent associations. In the current study, G>C transversions also constitute a small group of specific point mutations, but were mainly observed in men with tumours in the distal colon and in women with tumours in the proximal colon. Plausible explanations for differences in tumour site could be the role of diet with respect to bowel transit time and bacterial fermentation of carbohydrates (47), production of volatile fatty acids (9) or exposure of colonic epithelium to potential dietary carcinogens (48). The relatively high frequency of G>T transversions in the rectum of women might be related to gender differences in faecal concentration and transit time. Both bowel transit time and frequency of constipation have been reported to be substantially higher in women than in men under similar conditions (49). The G>T transversions and also the generally higher frequency of K-ras mutations in women might be related to the time of contact with, and the concentration of, particular carcinogens. More aetiological insight in the underlying mechanisms is required to clarify this issue.

The K-ras mutational status was evaluated for differences in frequencies with respect to tumour differentiation. Most tumours were classified as ‘moderately’ differentiated. Generally, the distinction between good or moderately differentiated tumours is often ambiguous. Therefore, the classification of tumour differentiation could be biased. Our findings do not support a role of the K-ras oncogene in tumour differentiation.

In conclusion, we observed a frequency of 37% for mutations in exon 1 fragment of the K-ras oncogene, predominantly in codons 12 and 13. The G>A transition and the G>T transversion are the most frequently observed mutations, with the G>T transversion primarily confined to codon 12. Patients with a rectal tumour have a relatively higher frequency of G>T transversion as compared to patients with a left colon tumour and this is confined to female patients. The pattern of K-ras point mutations observed in the several sub-localizations of the colorectal tract is suggestive for the involvement of dietary factors.

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References


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