Effect of Subtype of K-*Ras* Mutation on Survival in Resected Pancreatic Adenocarcinoma

Kyung Chu, William Sherman

Laura and Issac Perlmutter Cancer Center, USA

ABSTRACT

Objective The purpose is to determine if the different Kras mutations found in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDA) confer different survivals after adjuvant gemcitabine, docetaxel and capecitabine (GTX) therapy, a regimen that affects Kras signaling. **Methods** We evaluated the survival with the type of Kras mutation in 53 patients who had resected PDA. All patients were treated either with neoadjuvant or adjuvant GTX therapy. The types and frequencies of Kras mutations in our PDA patients were compared to those in the literature for PDA, lung cancer and colon cancer. **Results** We found that 79% of our patients had a mutation in Kras at codon 12, with replacement of the glycine for either aspartic acid (47%), valine (19%), arginine (9%) or cysteine (4%). Serine and alanine substitutions and codon 13 mutations were not found. The frequency of Kras mutations detected in PDA differs markedly from those found in lung and colon cancer. Our PDA patients with aspartic acid or valine substitutions for glycine 12 had more relapses (p=0.026). **Summary** The types and frequencies of Kras mutations are different in PDA from those observed in lung cancer or colon cancer. PDA patients with aspartic acid and valine have a poor survival, but it is not clear if all Kras mutations are equally detrimental as other mutation had fewer relapses. Larger sample sizes are needed to know different amino acid substitutions in Kras result in different responses or survivals with GTX or other therapy.

INTRODUCTION

K-*ras* is activated when bound to GTP and inactivated by hydrolysis to GDP. K-*ras* has a slow intrinsic rate of lysis of the bound GTP, requiring an accessory protein to augment its catalytic activity. The accessory proteins are called regulators of G protein signaling (RGS) also known as GTPase activating protein (GAP) [1].

In wild-type K-*ras*, codons 12 (GGT) and 13 (GGC) code for glycine. Wild-type K-*ras* is mutated at codon 12 in over 70% of PDA's, which replaces the glycine for another amino acid with a side-chain. Mutating the first or second guanosine of the codon 12 yields 6 potential mutations. The 6 possible amino acid substitutions arginine (R), cysteine (C), serine (S), valine (V), alanine (A), and aspartic (D) should confer different degrees of allosteric inhibition of the RGS protein's augmentation of K-*ras* hydrolysis of GTP [2]. Thus, the rate of catalysis of GTP should differ among the different mutations, conferring different durations of signaling activity of GTP-K-*ras*. Different durations of signaling may lead to different clinical outcomes. We analyzed our non-metastatic pancreatic cancer patients, all treated with the same GTX regimen, for the frequency and type of K-*ras* mutation and the effect of the mutation on survival.

METHODS

This data collection was approved by the IRB of Columbia University.

We reviewed sixty-five patients who underwent resection for localized pancreatic adenocarcinoma for K-*ras* mutation. All were treated with adjuvant or neoadjuvant GTX chemotherapy at Columbia University Medical Center from 2006 to 2014. Patients presenting with arterial involvement or those with R1 resection (<2 mm margin of resection) without prior RT received localized radiation therapy with GX [3]. The resected tissue was assayed for K-*ras* mutation by PCR as a routine pathology procedure. Patients were followed for recurrence and survival. Upon relapse, most patients resumed GTX, and FOLFIRINOX following progression on GTX. Of the 65 patients, 55 patients with k-*ras* data were included in this analysis. K-*ras* data was not available on 10 patients.

We reviewed the literature for the type of K-*ras* mutation in PDA and representative articles for patients with lung and colon cancers.

STATISTICS

The data analysis included descriptive statistics for all variables. Frequency tables were used to evaluate the distributions of categorical and discrete variables. Chi

Received March 21st, 2015-Accepted June 26th, 2015 Key words Adenocarcinoma; Survival Correspondence William H Sherman 88 Central Park West New York, N.Y. 10023 Phone + 917-570-2906 Fax + 212-496-5109 E-mail whs@williamhshermanmd.com

Square and Mann-Whitney U tests were performed to compare the difference between groups. Overall survival (OS) and Disease free survival (DFS) were performed with Kaplan-Meier method and compared with log rank test. Cox proportional hazard regression model and odd ratio were used to evaluate the prognostic value of K-*ras* status. Significant values were considered when p<0.05. Statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS® statistical program (V 21; SPSS, Chicago, III).

RESULTS

We had information on K-ras status in 55 patients 28 neoadjuvant patients and 27 adjuvant patients. Twentynine patients were male (53%) and 26 were female (47%) with a mean of age of 63 (range; 38-78) years at the time of diagnosis (Table 1). Of the 55 patients, 29 patients recurred. The median follow up time was 34.3 months (range; 7-97.7 months). Among those who received neoadjuvant treatment, only three had more than one positive lymph node. Seventeen (68%) of the adjuvant patients and 20 (71%) of the neoadjuvant patients had R0 resections and the rest had R1 resections. R0 was defined by a minimum of a 2 mm margin. Thirty-four patients received GX/RT: ten patients with R1 resections treated adjuvantly, twenty-two patients with arterial involvement treated neoadjuvantly and 2 patients with R1 resections following neoadjuvant GTX.

The distribution of the K-*ras* mutations in our patients is seen in **Table 1**. There is no difference between the adjuvant and neoadjuvant groups with respect to age, gender, wild type, mutations in K-*ras*, and recurrence. There were 10 dead (35%) in neoadjuvant group and 7 dead (26%) in adjuvant group (p=0.56). The median survival of the neoadjuvant group is 54. 7 months (95% CI; 41–70). The adjuvant group has been evaluated for a shorter period of time making the median survival indeterminate; but, so far the survival curves of the two groups appear similar.

Only 11 patients (20%) had wild type K-*ras*. Of the 44 patients (80%) with K-*ras* mutations, the two most common mutations were in the second guanosine of codon 12. This changed the glycine to aspartic acid (GAT) in 27 (61%) patients or to valine (GTT) in 11 (25%) patients. There were only 2 patients (5%) with a cysteine substitution (TGT) and 5 patients (11%) with an arginine substitution (CGT). Serine (AGT) and alanine (GCT) substitutions were not found. All K-*ras* mutations occurred at codon 12. No patient had a mutation at codon 13. The DNA sequence at codon 61 was not assessed.

The survival based on the type of K-*ras* mutation is seen in **Figure 1**. Valine and aspartic acid substitutions appear to have the same survival. The median survival for those with an aspartic acid substitution is 54.6 months (95% CI; 45-64). Patients with aspartic acid or valine have a trend to a shorter survival (OS; 54.7 months, 95% CI; 44.8-64.5) compared to wild-type K-*ras* or substitutions to arginine or cysteine where the median survival has not been reached (p=0.09) (Figure 2). Also patients with aspartic acid or valine substitutions appear more likely recur (OR; 1.353, 95% CI: 0.774-2.360) and die (OR; 1.520, 95% CI; 0.623-3.711) compared to the others. Early deaths from surgical mortality or medical complications, not progressive pancreatic cancer, and the small sample size limit the statistical analysis.

DISCUSSION

Kirsten *ras* (K-*ras*) is a small GTP binding protein with GTPase activity [23]. K-*ras* undergoes an activating conformational change when it binds GTP. This conformational change exposes a binding site for bringing other proteins together to effect signal transduction. K-*ras* is active as long as it binds GTP. While K-*ras* has intrinsic GTPase properties, the rate of hydrolysis is slow. Two additional

Tahla 1	Comparison	ofnationt	domographics
rable 1.	Comparison	of patient	uemographics.

		•		
	Neoadjuvant	Adjuvant	Stats	
Age mean (range)	63(45-78)	64 (38-78)	0.667(<i>U</i>)	
Gender (F/M)	15/13	11/16	$0.422(x^2)$	
Kras (pos/neg)	22/6	22/5	$1.00(x^2)$	
K <i>ras</i> subtype				
Aspartic	13	12		
Valine	4	7		
Cysteine	1	1		
Arginine	4	2		
Serine	0	0		
Recurrence	14	15	$0.789(x^2)$	
Death	10	7	$0.563(x^2)$	
OS	54.7mon	Not reached	P=1.57	
Total	28	27		



Figure 1. Survival based on type of K-ras mutation. Survival for valine and aspartic acid mutations are superimposed for the first 50 months. The late death for valine is due to new primary--adenocarcinoma of the lung. Survival for argenine and cystine mutations separate from those of valine and aspartic acid by 35 months.



Aspartic acid, and valine [OS=54.7 M (CI 44.8-64.6)] P=0.09
Argenine, cysteine and no mutation

Figure 2. Survival aspartic acid and valine vs wild and other mutations. The long-term survival for aspartic acid and valine mutations in K-ras appears worse than the survival for wild-type, cysteine or argenine mutations.

proteins—the guanosine exchange factors (GEP's) and RGS's--assist in the control of this important molecule. Guanosine exchange factors are needed to remove GDP from inactive K-*ras* so it can be re-activated by binding GTP. RGS proteins augment lysis of bound GTP to GDP to inactivate K-*ras* faster, thus decreasing the duration of active K-*ras*.

While there are 6 potential mutants at codon 12, only 3 are commonly found in PDA. Eighty-percent involve a transversion of the second guanosine to either adenosine (50%) or thymidine (30%) (Table 2). Transition of the second guanosine to cytosine (0.2%) is either a rare event or it may not be mutagenic. Transition of the first guanosine to cytosine (12%) is more common than transversion of the first guanosine to adenosine (1%) or thymidine (5%). This distribution of K-ras mutation differs markedly from the mutation frequency in lung cancer or colon cancer. In lung cancer, 44% of K-ras mutations are transversions of the first guanosine, but almost exclusively to thymidine not adenosine (Table 2). In colon cancer, mutations in codon 13 are almost all transversions to the bulky aspartic acid amino acid and account for 20% of the K-ras mutations. Codon 13 mutations are quite rare in pancreatic cancer. Whether by transversion or transition, mutations in K-ras that confer a very small side-chain on the new amino acid like serine-OH--or alanine--CH₃--are uncommon in all three malignancies—0 to 2.7% of all cancers. This suggests that smaller mutations may not, or only weakly, inhibit lysis of GTP.

Even though some mutagenic agents may have a predilection for a guanosine depending on the adjacent

nucleotides [24], the distribution of the mutations among pancreatic, lung and colon cancers is unlikely to be attributable to the mutagenic agent. While the major mutagen in cigarette smoke is found in the pancreatic duct fluid of smokers [25], the prevalent cysteine substitution found in lung cancer is uncommon in PDA. Thus, either there is a very specific mutagen for each cancer or involvement or other factors which may account for the frequency of types of K-*ras* mutations. These other factors include expression of DNA repair enzymes and/or selection by the expressed RGS protein.

The RGS proteins have a common motif - an arginine finger that promotes de-phosphorylation of GTP [1]. A bulky mutation at amino acids 12, 13 or 61 interferes with the ability of the arginine finger of the RGS to augment GTP lysis. The carboxyl group of aspartic acid or the two methyl groups of valine are bulkier than the hydroxyl group of serine. While there is a paucity of data on the RGS proteins in most cancers, RGS 16 is upregulated early in PDA, perhaps in an attempt to regulate mutant K-ras [26]. RGS 17 is up-regulated early in lung cancer [27]. Thus, differential tissue expression of RGS proteins could account for the observed frequency distributions of K-ras mutants among PDA, lung cancer, and colon cancer. Different mutations in K-ras have been shown to have an effect on survival in other malignancies. In lung cancer, Sun et al. [19] noted that those with valine substitutions had a longer survival than those with aspartic or cysteine substitutions. As there are on average over 360 mutations in non-small cell lung cancer, other mutations could be confounding the effect on survival [28]. In colon cancer, Al-Mulla et al. [29] suggested that valine substitutions do worse than others, but only 26 cases of Duke's D carcinomas were analyzed. In PDA, there are many fewer mutations than in lung cancer, on average less than 70 [30]. K-ras mutated pancreatic cancers have a shorter survival than wild type K-ras when erlotinib is part of the regimen [24, 25]. However, the reports did not analyze the specific types of mutation to see if all mutations confer the same prognosis.

In our PDA patients treated with GTX, there is a trend for survival to negatively correlate with the "bulkiness" of the amino acid replacing glycine **(Figure 1)**. This trend was not statistically significant; but, most patients are still alive and early post-operative deaths confound the survival data. With a longer time to follow these patients, the survival differences may reach statistical significance for aspartic acid or valine as compared with other substitutions **(Figure 2)**. Given the frequency of the various K-*ras* mutations, at least 200 patients, all treated with the same regimen, are needed to assess the statistical significance of each mutation on survival.

SUMMARY

The frequency of specific K-*ras* mutations differs among different types of cancers. Bulky substitutions of

Table 2. K-ras mutatuion in pancreatic, lung and colon cancer.

Pancreatic cancer	Wild(%) Gly	CGT(%) aRg	TGT(%) Cys	AGT(%) Ser	GTT(%) Val	GCT(%) Ala (A)	GAT(%) Asp (D)	Codon 13
Burmer [4] (n=20)	4 (20)	8 (40)	2 (10)	0	4 (20)	1 (10)	1 (10)	
Capella [5] (n=68)	17 (25)	5 (7)	6 (9)	1	14 (21)	0	24 (35)	1D
Grunwald [6] (n=63)	16 (25)	15 (24)	0	0	15 (24)	1 (1)	16 (25)	
Mariyama [7] (n=12)	4 (33)	2 (17)	0	0	2 (17)	0	4 (33)	
Motojuma [8] (n=41)	5 (12)	4 (10)	1 (2.5)	0	7 (17.5)	0	24 (60)	
Nagata [9] (n=40)	3 (8)	2 (15)	1 (3)	0	9 (24)	0	24 (63)	1D
Smit [10] (n=30)	2 (7)	1 (3)	10 (33)	0	8 (23)	0	9 (30)	
Hruban [11] (n=82)	14 (17)	8 (10)	3 (4)	0	24 (29)	0	33 (40)	
Wei [12] (n=30)	5 (17)	4 (13)	4 (13)	0	11 (43)	0	5 (17)	1C
Kitago [13] (n=13)	1 (8)	0	0	0	6 (46)	0	6 (46)	
Kulmann [14] (n=25)	12 (48)	0	0	0	1 (4)	0	10 (40)	
Kim [25] (n=135)	65 (48)	7 (5)	3 (2)	0	19 (14)	0	41(30)	0
Schultz [16] (n=160)	34 (21)	13(8)	0	6 (4)	46 (29)	0	60 (38)	1-D
Shin [17] (n=234)	108(46)	13 (5.6)	4 (1.7)	1 (0.4)	34(14.5)	0	73(31)	1-S
Sherman (n=55)	11(20)	5 (9)	2 (4)	0	11 (20)	0	27 (48)	0
Total (n=1099)	301(30)	87(7.7)	36 (4.5)	8 (0.8)	213 (21)	2 (0.2)	357(35)	5(0.5)
% of mutant		12%	5%	1%	30%	0.20%	50%	0.70%
Lung Cancer	Wild(%)	CGT(%)	TGT(%)	AGT(%)	GTT(%)	GCT(%)	GAT(%)	Codon 13(%)
Dogan [18] (n=2529)	1859 (74)	8(0.3)	261 (10)	8 (0.3)	141(60)	74(30)	114 (50)	8 (0.3)
Sun [19] (n=632)	595 (94)	0	9 (1.4)	1 (0)	10 (1.6)	3(0.1)	33 (5)	1LYS
Tsao [20] (n=253)	134 (53)	4 (1.6)	51 (20)	3 (0.1)	29 (19)	8 (2.3)	10 (0.7)	6 (0.2)
Total (n=3414)	2588 (76)	12(0)	321(9)	12(0)	180 (5)	85(2)	157(5)	15 (0)
% of mutant		1.6	44	1.6	25	12	22	2
Colon Cancer	Wild(%)	CGT(%)	TGT(%)	AGT(%)	GTT(%)	GCT(%)	GAT(%)	Codon 13(%)
Brink [21] (n=737)	465 (73)	0	16 (2.2)	16(2.2)	68(93)	16(2.2)	74(10)	ASP(D),56(7.7)
Neumann [22] (n=1018)	621 (71)	0	32(3.1)	27(2.7)	86(8.5)	23(2.3)	142 (14)	79(7.8)
Total (n=1755)	1086 (72)	0	48 (2.7)	47 (2.4)	154 (8.8)	39 (2.2)	216 (13)	135 (13)
% of mutant		0	7	7	23	6	32	20

Wild GGT=Glycine (G)--H; CGT=Arginine (R) C-C-C-NH-C(NH)₂; TGT=Cysteine (C) C-SH; AGT=Serine (S) C-OH; GTT=Valine (V) C-(CH3)₂; GCT=Alanine (A) CH₃; GAT=Aspartic (D) C-COOH

glycine to aspartic acid or valine may drive the PDA while the rare, less bulky substitutions to serine or alanine may not cause cancer. In our small series, there is a trend for patients with mutations in K-*ras* causing aspartic acid or valine substitutions to have a higher recurrence rate and a shorter survival.

More analyses of the specific K-*ras* mutations and RGS protein expression on treatment response and survival are needed to confirm our observations.

Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

References

1. Hollinger S, Helper JR. Cellular Regulation of RGS Proteins: Modulators and Integrators of G Protein Signaling. Pharmacological Reviews 2002; 54:527-559. [PMID: 12223533]

2. Scheffzek K, Ahmadian MR, Kabsch W, et al. The Ras-Ras GAP Complex: Structural Basis for GTP ase Activation and Its Loss in Oncogenic Ras Mutants. Science 1997; 277:333-338. [PMID: 9219684]

3. Sherman WH, Chu K, Chabot JC, et al. Neoadjuvant Gemcitabine, Docetaxel, and Capecitabine Followed by Gemcitabine and Capecitabine/ Radiation Therapy and Surgery in Locally Advanced, Unresectable Pancreatic Adenocarcinoma. Cancer 2015; 121:673-680. [PMID: 25492104] 4. Burmer GC, Rabinovitch PS, Loeb LA. Frequency and spectrum of c-Ki-ras mutations in human sporadic carcinoma, carcinomas arising in ulcerative colitis, and pancreatic adenocarcinoma. Envir Health Perspec 1991; 93:27-31. [PMID: 1773797]

5. Capella G, Cronauer-Mitra S, Peinado MA, Perucho M. Frequency and spectrum of mutations at codons 12 and 13 of the c-K-ras gene in human tumors. Environ Health Perspec 1991; 91:125-131. [PMID: 1685441]

6. Grunwald K, Lyons J, Frohlich A, et al. High frequency of Ki-ras codon 12 mutations in pancreatic adenocarcinomas. Int J Cancer 1989; 43:1037-1041. [PMID: 2659539]

7. Mariyama M, Kishi K, Makamura K, et al. Frequency and types of point mutation at the12th codon of the c-Ki-ras gene found in pancreatic cancers from Japanese patients. Jpn J Cancer Res 1989; 80:622-626. [PMID: 2507485]

8. Motojima K, Tsunoda T, Kanematsu T, et al. Distinguishing pancreatic carcinoma from other periampullary carcinomas by analysis of mutations in the Kirsten-ras oncogene. Ann Surg 1991; 214:657-662. [PMID: 1741644]

9. Nagata Y, Abe M, Motochima K et al. Frequent glycine to aspartic acid mutations at codon 12 of c-Ki-ras gene in human pancreatic cancer in Japanese. Jpn J Cancer Res 1990; 81:135-140. [PMID: 2110130]

10. Smit VTHBM, Boot AJM, Smits AMM, et al. K-ras codon 12 mutations occur very frequently in pancreatic adenocarcinomas. Nucleic Acids Res 1988; 16:7773-7782. [PMID: 3047672]

11. Hruban R, van Mansfeld ADM, Offerhaus GJA, et al. K-ras oncogene activation in adenocarcinoma of the human pancreas. Am J of Pathlogy 1993; 143:545-554. [PMID: 8342602]

12. Wei S, Liang Z, Gao J et al. Patterna of K-ras codon 12 and 13 mutations found in pancreatic adenocarcinoma of 30 Chinese patients by microdissection, PCR and direct sequencing. J Gastroenterology and Hepatology 2005; 20:67-72. [PMID: 15610449]

13. Kitago M, Ueda M, Aiura K, et al. Comparison of K-ras point mutation distributions in intraductal papillary mucinous tumors and ductal adenocarcinoma of the pancreas. Int J Cancer 2004; 110:1770182. [PMID: 15069678]

14. Kulmann F, Jartman A, Storh R, et al. KRAS mutation in metastatic pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma: Results of a multicenter Phase II study evaluating efficacy of cetuximab plus gemcitabine/oxaliplatin (GEMOXCET) in first-line therapy. Oncology 2011; 81:3-8. [PMID: 21894049]

15. Kim ST, Lim DH, Jang K, et al. Impact of Kras mutations on clinical outcomes in pancreatic cancer patients treated with first-line gemcitabine-based chemotherapy. Molecular Med in Practice 2011; 10:1993-1999. [PMID: 21862683]

16. Schultz NA, Roslind A, Christensen IJ, et al. Frequencies and prognostic role of Kras and Braf mutations in patients with localized pancreatic and ampullary adenocarcinomas. Pancreas 2012; 41:759-766. [PMID: 22699145]

17. Shin SH, Kim SC, Hong S, et al. Genetic alterations o k-ras, p53, c-erbB-2 and DPC4 in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma and their correlation with patient survival. Pancreas 2103; 42:216-222. [PMID: 23344532]

18. Dogan S, Shen R, Ang D, et al. Molecular Epidemiology of EGFR and KRAS Mutations in 3026 Lung Adenocarcinomas: Higher Susceptibility of Women to Smoking-related KRAS-mutant Cancers. Clin Cancer Res 2012; 18:6169–6177. [PMID: 23014527]

19. Sun J, Hwang DW, Ahn JS, Park K. Prognostic and predictive value of KRAS mutations in advanced non-small cell lung cancer. PLOS 2013; 8: 64816. [PMID: 23724098]

20. Tsao MS, Aviel-Ronen D, Ding K, et al. Prognostic and predictive importance of p53 and RAS for adjuvant chemotherapy in non small-cell lung cancer. J Clin Oncol 2007; 25:5240-5247. [PMID: 18024870]

21. Brink M, de Goeij AF, Weijenberg MP, et al. K-ras oncogene mutations in sporadic colorectal cancer in the Netherlands cohort study. Carcinogenesis 200; 24: 703-710. [PMID: 12727799]

22. Neumann J, Zeindl-Eberhart E, Kirchner T, et al. Frequency and type of KRAS mutations in routine diagnostic analysis of metastatic colorectal cancer. Pathol Res Pract 2009; 205: 858-862. [PMID: 19679400]

23. Ellis RW, Defeo D, Shih TY, et al. The p21 src genes of Harvey and Kirsten sarcoma viruses originate from divergent members of a family of normal vertebrate genes. Nature 1981; 292:506-511. [PMID: 6265801]

24. To MD, Rosario RD, Westcott PMK, et al. Interactions between wildtype and mutant Ras genes in lung and skin carcinogenesis. Oncogene 2013; 32: 4028–4033. [PMID: 22945650]

25. Prokopczyk B, Hoffmann D, Bologna M, et al. Identification of tobaccoderived compounds in human pancreatic juice. Chem Res Toxicol 2002; 15:677-685. [PMID: 12018989]

26. Ozhan O, Heath B, Rivera L, et al. Rgs16 is an early marker of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (842.7). The FASEB Journal 2014; 28: 1842.

27. James MA, Lu Y, Liu Y, et al. RGS17, an over-expressed gene in human lung and prostate cancer, induces tumor cell proliferation through the cyclic AMP-PKA-CREB pathway. Cancer Res 2009; 69: 2108-2101. [PMID: 19244110]

28. Cancer Genome Atlas Research Network. Comprehensive genomic characterization of squamous cell lung cancer. Nature 2012; 489:519-525. [PMID: 22960745]

29. Al-Mulla F, Going JJ, Sowden ETHH, et al. Heterogeneity of mutant versus wild-type Ki-ras in primary and metastatic colorectal carcinomas, and association of codon-12 valine with early mortality. J of Path 1988; 185:130-138. [PMID: 9713338]

30. Jones S, Zhang X, Parsons DW et al. Core Signaling Pathways in Human Pancreatic Cancers Revealed by Global Genomic Analyses. Science 2008; 321: 1801–1806. [PMID: 18772397]