UDK 577.1 : 61

JMB 28: 285-292, 2009

ISSN 1452-8258

Original paper Originalni naučni rad

SIMULTANEOUS DETECTION OF COLORECTAL CANCER MUTATIONS IN STOOL SAMPLES WITH BIOCHIP ARRAYS

SIMULTANA DETEKCIJA MUTACIJA KOLOREKTALNOG KANCERA U UZORCIMA STOLICE POMOĆU BIOČIP SKUPOVA

Helena A. Murray, Mark J. Latten, Andrew Cartwright, Damien McAleer, Stephen P. Fitzgerald

Randox Laboratories Ltd, Crumlin, Co. Antrim, United Kingdom

Summary: Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the second main cause of cancer-related death in the Western world and like many other tumours is curable if detected at an early stage. Current detection options include faecal occult blood testing and invasive direct visualisation techniques such as flexible sigmoidoscopy, colonoscopy and barium enema. The availability of a more simple, non-invasive test that detects tumour specific products with optimal analytical performance might overcome barriers among patients who are not willing to undergo more sensitive but invasive tests. One such emerging technology, which has shown promise in recent years, is the analysis of DNA alterations exfoliated from tumour cells into stool. Here we report an analytical platform for non-invasive detection of 28 common mutations within CRC-related genes APC, TP53, K-ras and BRAF in stool samples based on biochip array technology and applied to the semi-automated Evidence Investigator analyser. Mutation detection was possible in 1000-fold excess of wildtype DNA and analysis of 10 CRC-positive patient samples showed presence of targeted mutations with equivalent mutations also identified by an alternative method. This application represents an excellent tool for the multiplex detection of CRC-specific mutations using a single platform.

Keywords: biochip array technology, colorectal cancer, mutation, non-invasive, stool

Introduction

Colorectal cancer (CRC) has a long premalignant phase and relatively slow progression from organ defined invasive disease to local and distant metastatic disease and as such there is ample

Mr Damien McAleer Randox Laboratories Ltd. 55 Diamond Road, Crumlin Co. Antrim, BT29 4QY Northern Ireland, UK e-mail: damien.mcaleer@randox.com Kratak sadržaj: Kolorektalni kancer je drugi glavni uzrok smrtnosti usled raka u zapadnom svetu i poput mnogih drugih tumora izlečiv je ukoliko se otkrije u ranoj fazi. Trenutno dostupne mogućnosti detekcije uključuju testiranje okultnog krvarenja u stolici i invazivne tehnike direktne vizualizacije kao što su fleksibilna sigmoidoskopija, kolonoskopija i barijum enema. Dostupnost jednostavnijeg, neinvazivnog testa za otkrivanje produkata specifičnih za tumor uz optimalne analitičke performanse doprinela bi prevazilaženju barijera kod pacijenata koji se nerado podvrgavaju senzitivnijim ali invazivnim testovima. Takva tehnologija koja se poslednjih godina razvija i daje ohrabrujuće rezultate je analiza alteracija DNK koje iz ćelija tumora dospevaju u stolicu. U radu će biti predstavljena analitička platforma za neinvazivnu detekciju 28 uobičajenih mutacija u okviru gena povezanih sa kolorektal-nim kancerom, APC, TP53, K-ras i BRAF u uzorcima stolice, zasnovana na tehnologiji biočip skupova primenjenoj na poluautomatskom analizatoru Evidence Investigator. Detekciju mutacija bilo je moguće uraditi u 1000-strukom višku DNK a analiza 10 uzoraka pacijenata pozitivnih na kolorektalni kancer je otkrila prisustvo ciljanih mutacija sa ekvivalentnim mutacijama takođe identifikovanim alternativnom metodom. Takva primena predstavlja sjajnu alatku za detekciju mutacija specifičnih za kolorektalni kancer pomoću jedinstvene platforme.

Ključne reči: tehnologija biočip skupova, kolorektalni kancer, mutacija, neinvazivni, stolica

opportunity to identify patients at a curable stage (1). Current tests are either non-specific as with faecal occult blood testing (2) or invasive. Analysis of DNA markers in stool represents an attractive alternative basis for the molecular detection of CRC (3).

Address for correspondence:

Abbreviations: CIN – Chromosomal Instability Pathway; CRC – Colorectal Cancer; MCR – Mutation Cluster Region; ME-PCR – Mutant-enriched Polymerase Chain Reaction; MPCR – Multiplex Polymerase Chain Reaction; PCR-RFLP – Polymerase Chain Reaction – Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism; RLU – Relative Light Unit; WT – Wildtype.

CRC is a disease in which many DNA mutations associated with the process of carcinogenesis have been characterised (4). This characterisation makes it potentially valuable to examine stool for the presence of DNA with different mutations as indicators of both pre-clinical and clinical disease (5). This is important since no single mutation has been identified which is expressed across all colorectal cancers. DNA is seen as a good marker as it is stable in stool and can be assayed with sensitive techniques (6). DNA is also a consistent marker as it is shed continuously from colorectal cancer and its precursor polyps meaning only a single stool sample is required for analysis. Bleeding from cancers or polyps usually occurs only intermittently, requiring the collection of multiple samples for occult blood testing (5). Analysis also relies on functional, not spatial detection of polyps and cancers. By using a molecular profile rather than a physical shape, location or size, a reduction in false positives is thought to occur when compared to using direct visualisation techniques (5). Overall, assaying stool DNA is a much more patient-friendly option, as it is non-invasive, requires no unpleasant cathartic preparation and allows for off-site collection of samples (6).

The most common pathway of CRC development is the chromosomal instability (CIN) pathway, which includes point mutations that occur within Kras/BRAF, APC and TP53 genes (4, 7). The CIN pathway leads to about 85% of all CRCs that are primarily sporadic. While there are thousands of possible mutations a relatively small number of mutations are actually associated with the vast majority of lesions. More than 50% of colorectal cancers display specific mutations in the K-ras gene, with an increasing frequency in larger and more advanced lesions (8). In contrast to other genes involved in tumourigenesis, mutations in the K-ras gene occur almost exclusively in codons 12, 13 and 61 (>90% in codons 12 and 13) (2). BRAF somatic mutation presents in 15% of sporadic CRCs (9) with a single hotspot at codon 600 accounting for 80% of BRAF mutations in CRC (10). Mutations tend to occur in a mutually exclusive relationship with K-ras mutations (7, 9, 11). Mutations in K-ras predominantly occur during the transformation of small to intermediate adenomas and it has been demonstrated that BRAF mutations arise within a similar phase of CRC development (7, 11) albeit in a much small percentage of cases. Approximately half of all CRCs display TP53 mutations, with higher frequencies observed in distal colon and rectal tumours and lower frequencies in proximal tumours (12). TP53 mutations tend to occur in the late adenoma stage (13). Mutations in five hotspot codons (175, 245, 248, 273 and 282) account for approximately 43% of all TP53 mutations in CRC (14-16). Somatic mutations in APC occur in about 75% of sporadic CRCs (17) and transpire early during tumourigenesis. Over 60% of somatic mutations present within <10% of the coding sequence of the APC gene between codons 1286 and 1513 known as the mutation cluster region (MCR) (18). Within the MCR, there are also two hotspots at codons 1309 and 1450 (19).

Here we therefore describe a platform for the simultaneous detection of multiple DNA mutations within K-ras, BRAF, TP53 and APC genes from stool samples by a combination of multiplex PCR, probe hybridisation, ligation, PCR amplification and biochip hybridisation. The latter stage is based on biochip array technology. This technology permits the simultaneous detection of multiple analytes within a single patient sample. This has implications with regards a reduction in sample/reagent consumption and as such the overall cost-effectiveness of assays. Applications of this methodology to protein and drug analysis have been previously described (20-24). The core of this technology is the biochip (9mm x 9mm), which represents not only the solid support, but also the vessel were hybridisation occurs. Chemiluminescent signal detection of array hybridisation and corresponding results are then processed on the Evidence Investigator semi-automated analyser.

Materials and Methods

Patient samples and extraction of stool DNA

CRC-positive human stool samples (n=10) were obtained from Medical Solutions (Nottingham, UK). Samples from apparently healthy volunteers (n=10) were collected in-house and frozen at -80 °C within 24 hours of defaecation. Long-term storage of all samples was maintained at -80 °C.

DNA was extracted from each specimen using the QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (51504, Qiagen, Germany) following the manufacturer's protocol for the isolation of DNA from stool for human DNA analysis. 220 mg sections of stool were analysed per specimen in three different locations. Purified DNA was eluted in 200 μ L of supplied elution buffer. DNA yield was quantified by ultraviolet spectrometry (260/280 nm). Long-term storage of extracted DNA was maintained at -20 °C. Triplicate aliquots of extracted stool DNA per patient sample were therefore available for downstream analysis.

Tumour cell lines and extraction of DNA

Two colorectal adenocarcinoma cell lines were assessed (SW-480 ATCC No. CL-228 and HT-29 ATCC No. HTB-38). Both were purchased from ATCC and grown according to the supplier's instructions. DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (69504, Qiagen, Germany) and DNA yield quantified by ultraviolet spectrometry (260/280 nm). Long-term storage of extracted cell line DNA was maintained at -20 °C.

RanplexCRC Array Analysis

Analysis of extracted DNA was performed using RanplexCRC Array Kit (EV3536A/B Randox Laboratories Ltd, Crumlin, UK) according to the manufacturer's instructions and as summarised below.

Pre-enrichment. Pre-enrichment of each replicate of extracted DNA per stool specimen was performed via a multiplex PCR (MPCR) reaction. Two MPCR reactions were carried out per DNA replicate. Reaction 1 (MPCR1) permits simultaneous amplification of Kras, BRAF and TP53 gene regions of interest with reaction 2 (MPCR2) amplifying the APC gene regions of interest. Amplification was achieved using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (F-530S, FINNZYMES, Finland). Products were visualised using agarose gel electrophoresis with ethidium bromide staining. Each positive MPCR reaction was purified using QIAquick PCR purification kit (28104, Qiagen, Germany). Purified DNA was eluted in 30 µL of 10 mmol/L Tris.Cl pH 8.5. Two MPCR purified reactions (MPCR1 and MPCR2) are therefore available per replicate of extracted stool DNA assessed.

Hybridisation-ligation-PCR amplification. Two hybridisation reactions were carried out per MPCR reaction available. Hybridisation of MCPR1 reactions (K-ras/BRAF/TP53) was carried out with RanplexCRC mutant probe mix 1 and RanplexCRC wildtype probe mix 1. MPCR2 (APC) reactions were hybridised with RanplexCRC mutant probe mix 2 and wildtype probe mix 2. After hybridisation for up to 16 hours at 60°C in a thermal cycler, a ligation step at 54°C followed. Aliquots of each ligation reaction were PCR amplified using RanplexCRC primers and AmpliTag Gold (N808-0240, Applied Biosystems, USA). Products were visualised using agarose gel electrophoresis with ethidium bromide staining. A total of four hybridisedligated-PCR amplified products are available per replicate of extracted stool DNA assessed.

Biochip hybridisation. Array hybridisation of hybridised-ligated-PCR amplified products is performed on two biochips. Biochip 1 corresponds to Kras/BRAF/TP53 targets (16 mutations; 3 WT controls) and biochip 2 to APC (12 mutations; 2 WT controls) as shown in Table 1. Hybridisation was carried out for 1 hour at 60 °C in the thermoshaker provided with the system. Post-hybridisation stringency washes followed. Conjugation with streptavidin-HRP was then performed at 37 °C for 1 hour before chemiluminescence detection within Evidence Investigator semi-automated analyser (EV3602, Randox Laboratories Ltd., Crumlin, UK). Signal was expressed as relative light units (RLUs). Results were processed automatically using dedicated software.

Mutant-enriched PCR

Mutant-enriched PCR (ME-PCR) analysis was performed on 10 CRC-positive patient samples to

 Table I
 Targets detectable via RanplexCRC Array.

Gene	Mutation	WT control
K-ras	K-ras12.2AL, K-ras12.1AR, K-ras12.2AS, K-ras12.1CY, K-ras12.1SE, K-ras12.2VA, K-ras13.2AS	K-ras12.1WT
BRAF	BRAF600.2	BRAF600.2WT
TP53	TP53175.2, TP53245.1, TP53245.2, TP53248.1, TP53248.2, TP53273.1, TP53273.2, TP53282.1	<i>TP53</i> 175.2WT
APC	APC876.1, APC1306.1, APC1309.1, APC1309.5del, APC1312.1, APC1338.1, APC1367.1, APC1378.1, APC1379.1, APC1450.1, APC1465.2del, APC1554.1ins	APC876.1WT, APC1450.1WT

assess agreement with RanplexCRC Array generated results.

K-ras codon 12 together with *TP53* codons 175, 245, 248 and 273 were assessed using primers and corresponding restriction enzymes as previously detailed (25) with one adaptation in the initial assay pre-amplification step to include the addition of Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (F-530S, FINNZY-MES, Finland). Up to three subsequent PCR-RFLP enrichments were performed.

K-ras codon 13 and BRAF codon 600 analysis was carried out using the previously described method of (10).

TP53 codon 282 and *APC* codons 876, 1306, 1309, 1312, 1338, 1367, 1378, 1379 and 1450 were assessed using in-house designed mutantenriched primers and corresponding restriction enzymes. Enrichment was performed for these codons using the adapted method of Behn et al. (25).

Final restriction reactions were analysed on a 3% Nusieve gel (50081, Lonza, Rockland, USA) using ethidium bromide staining. Mutant-harbouring products were easily distinguished from the remaining wildtype alleles given their different base pair (bp) lengths. Positive products were excised and forwarded for gel purification using MinElute Gel Extraction kit (28606, Qiagen, Germany).

Sequencing

External automated sequencing of 1 ng/ μ L per 100bp of gel purified ME-PCR product was performed using relevant primers at 3 pmol and v3.1 Cycle Sequencing RR-100 (4336917, Applied Biosystems, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Results

Simultaneous detection of CRC-related mutations

Figure 1 illustrates an example of the simultaneous detection of the targeted mutations and wild-type controls with a single sample and *Table II* shows the corresponding RLU values for the CRC biochip arrays.

Probe/Array Specificity

Specificity of each target probe combination was confirmed via the use of target-specific complementary single-stranded synthetic oligonucleotides. Each of them was assessed under multiplex probe conditions through hybridisation-ligation-PCR amplification and biochip hybridisation confirming detection of each specific target. Each relevant target specific hybridisation-ligation-PCR product (≥100bp) was generated and no misligation or biochip cross-hybridisation was observed. Specificity of the unique tag array was confirmed through hybridisation of each target specific hybridised-ligated PCR product and also via hybridisation of complementary biotin-labelled tag sequences. Each individual array tag position was detected accordingly with no cross-hybridisation noted. Figure 2 illustrates some examples.



Figure 1 Example of an image of CRC biochip arrays from a sample.

Sensitivity

Two colorectal adenocarcinoma cell lines SW-480 and HT-29 covering 5 assay targets (Kras12.2VA, BRAF600.2, TP53273.2, APC1338.1, APC1554.1ins) were used to confirm assay sensitivity. DNA from these cell lines was separately spiked into wildtype DNA (WT DNA) at various ratios from 1:1 to 1:1000 using a total volume of 100 ng of DNA. Mutant targets were detected in the presence of 1000-fold excess WT DNA.

Patient Samples Analysis

No mutations were identified within the control samples assessed (n=10). Mutant targets were detected in eight out of ten of the CRC-positive samples analysed, as shown in *Table III*. Mutations were present in three out of the four genes assessed APC, *TP53* and K-*ras*. A patient sample (sample number 4) also produced multiple mutations within *TP53* plus a single APC mutation.

Equivalent mutations as generated by CRC biochip arrays were identified by mutant-enriched PCR (refer to *Table III*). Three out of the twenty-eight array mutational targets could not be assessed via ME-PCR, *APC*1309.5del, *APC*1465.2del and *APC*1554.1ins. An APC 1309 mutation, which is not present on the CRC biochip arrays, was also identified via ME-PCR for a single patient sample (sample number 5).

Sequencing data confirmed base change and examples of ME-PCR sequencing data are shown in *Figure 3*.

Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first analytical evaluation of the application of biochip array technology to DNA analysis on the semi-automated Evidence Investigator analyser. The technology enables simultaneous specific detection of up to 28 CRCspecific mutations within a single patient stool sample in less than 48 hours. This is due to the unique combination of probe design, sensitivity of ligase for a mismatch next to the ligation site, single PCR primer

Table II Corresponding RLU values for the positive targets on the CRC biochip arrays from a sample.

Target	Array 1 Position	RLU	Target	Array 2 Position	RLU
K-ras12.2VA	9	1816	APC1338.1	13	3616
TP53273.2	18	1985	APC876.1WT	22	1132
BRAF600.2WT	22	2207	APC1450.1WT	23	1167
<i>TP53</i> 175.2WT	23	2500	Reference	5&6	
Reference	5&6				



Figure 2 Examples of array/probe specificity. A: Array 1 (K-ras/BRAF/TP53) specific detection of K-ras 12.1SE. B: Array 2 (APC) specific detection of APC876.1.



Figure 3 Examples of ME-PCR sequencing chromatograms.

Sample No.	Disease State	RanplexCRC Array Mutations				ME-PCR Mutations			
		K-ras	BRAF	TP53	APC	K-ras	BRAF	TP53	APC
1	Cancer	K-ras12.1AR	_	-	-	K-ras12.1AR	-	-	-
2	Cancer	_	-	-	APC1338.1	-	-	-	APC1338.1
3	Cancer	-	-	-	APC1338.1	-	-	-	APC1338.1
4	Cancer	-	-	<i>TP53</i> 175.2	APC1338.1	-	-	TP <i>53</i> 175.2	APC1338.1
				<i>TP53</i> 245.1				TP <i>53</i> 245.1	
				TP53273.1				TP <i>53</i> 273.1	
				TP53273.2				TP53273.2	
5	Cancer	_	-	TP53273.2	_	-	-	TP53273.2	APC1309.2*
6	Cancer	_	-	_	APC1306.1	-	-	_	APC1306.1
7	Cancer	_	-	_	APC1338.1	-	-	_	APC1338.1
8	Cancer	_	-	TP53273.2	_	-	-	TP53273.2	_
9	Cancer	_	-	_	-	-	-	_	-
10	Cancer	_	-	_	_	-	-	_	_

Table III CRC biochip arrays and ME-PCR data from CRC-positive patient samples.

*not present on RanplexCRC panel

pair usage and tag array. Furthermore, the addition of an initial pre-enrichment stage enhances the sensitive detection of tumour-specific products against the high background of non-specific DNA present in stool, enabling mutation detection in a 1000-fold excess of WT DNA presence.

Mutations were detected in 8 out of 10 CRCpositive patient samples assessed and were predominantly within the APC gene. A single patient sample produced multiple mutations within TP53 plus a single APC mutation (sample number 4). Detection of multiple mutations within a single gene and across several genes has been observed previously (26–28). Array mutations were not detected for two CRCpositive patient samples. This result does not rule out the possibility that a mutation may be present within these samples as the CRC biochip arrays assess for the 28 common 'hotspot' mutations for CRC. No mutations were identified within the control specimens.

The equivalent CRC-positive samples were subsequently analysed via the conventional ME-PCR method. A total of 17 codons were assessed for each patient sample confirming presence of mutant and/or WT targets. ME-PCR analysis resulted in the detection of equivalent targets as generated by the CRC biochip arrays. Furthermore an *APC* codon 1309 mutation (GAA- \Rightarrow GCA) was identified within a single patient sample (sample number 5), which is not present on the CRC biochip arrays panel. This patient sample also produced a *TP53* codon 273 mutation which was confirmed with CRC biochip arrays.

Current systems for the detection of CRCrelated mutations include the lengthy mutantenriched PCR method (10, 25). Such procedures require numerous PCR-RFLP stages in a bid to 'enrich' for mutant targets against the background of WT alleles. Confirmation of mutations obtained is then performed via automated sequencing further increasing the time required to complete the assay. ME-PCR is also known to be prone to false-positive results due to the numerous stages of PCR and inherent error rate of *Taq* polymerase (29–30).

Several faecal DNA tests are also currently available on the market (31–35) and most are based on the detection of multiple molecular markers for CRC including point mutations within K-ras, BRAF, *TP53* and APC. Analysis includes numerous different technologies such as real-time PCR, single-base extension, variation scanning technology and automated sequencing (31–34). Interpretation of results must therefore be performed individually for each technique rather than on a single platform as with the RanplexCRC Array panel. Moreover, with the biochip arrays reported here, full assessment is completed in the individual laboratory.

Additionally, genotyping of tumours has proven valuable in identifying genes whose alterations are associated with primary or acquired resistance to targeted therapies (36). Recent studies indicate that patients with metastatic CRC carrying tumours with K-ras mutations do not respond to monoclonal antibody treatment (cetuximab and panitumumab) (37, 38). The presence of K-ras mutations could therefore potentially be used routinely to select patients eligible for cetuximab and panitumumab treatment (36). In the future, identification of a patient specific mutational profile through analysis of stool and/or tumour could therefore be used to provide a personalised CRC treatment program.

In conclusion, data obtained clearly demonstrated the detection of mutations within CRC-related genes from CRC-positive single stool specimens using biochip array technology. The availability of such a non-invasive test that can detect tumour specific products with optimal analytical performance may be beneficial among patients who are unwilling to undergo more invasive procedures. Furthermore this

References

- Preventive Services Task Force. Recommendations and rationale: Screening for colorectal cancer. 2nd ed. Baltimore, Md: Williams and Wilkins; 1996; 89–103.
- Prix L, Uciechhowski P, Böckmann B, Giesing M, Schuetz AJ. Diagnostic biochip array for fast and sensitive detection of K-ras mutations in stool. Clinical Chemistry 2002; 48 (3): 428–35.
- Osborn NK, Ahlquist DA. Stool screening for colorectal cancer: molecular approaches. Gastroenterology 2005; 128: 192–206.
- Fearon ER, Vogelstein B. A genetic model for colorectal tumourigenesis. Cell 1990; 61: 759–67.
- Levin B, Brooks D, Smith RA, Stone A. Emerging technologies in screening for colorectal cancer: CT colonography, immunochemical faecal occult blood tests, and stool screening using molecular markers. CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians 2003; 53: 44–55.
- Ahlquist, DA, Shuber AP. Stool screening for colorectal cancer: evolution from occult blood to molecular markers. Clinica Chimica Acta 2002; 315: 157–68.
- 7. Yuen ST, Davies H, Chan TL, Ho JW, Bignell GR, Cox C, et al. Similarity of the phenotypic patterns associated with BRAF and KRAS mutations in colorectal neoplasia. Cancer Research 2002; 62: 6451–5.
- Smith AJ, Stern HS, Penner M, Hay K, Mitri A, Bapat BV, Gallinger S. Somatic APC and K-ras codon 12 mutations in aberrant crypt foci from human colons. Cancer Research 1994; 54: 5527–30.
- 9. Davies H, Bignell GR, Cox C, Stephens P, Edkins S, Clegg S, et al. Mutations of the BRAF gene in human cancer. Nature 2002; 417: 949–54.
- Nagasaka T, Sasamoto H, Notohara K, Cullings HM, Takeda M, Limura K, et al. Colorectal cancer with mutation in BRAF, KRAS, and wildtype with respect to both oncogenes showing different patterns of DNA methylation. Journal of Clinical Oncology 2004; 22 (22): 4584–94.
- Rajagopalan H, Bardelli A, Lengauer C, Kinzler KW, Vogelstein B, Velculescu, VE. Tumourigenesis: RAF/RAS oncogenes and mismatch-repair status. Nature 2002; 418: 934.
- 12. lacopetta B. TP53 mutation in colorectal cancer. Human Mutation 2003; 21: 271–6.
- 13. Baker SJ, Preisinger AC, Jessup JM, Paraskeva C,

type of assay may improve the overall cost-effectiveness of screening for CRC by limiting the need for colonoscopy strictly to individuals with adenomatous polyps or cancer identified through this method (5). Further long term testing of altered DNA in stool samples may also decrease the number of surveillance colonoscopies needed after therapy for colonic neoplasia (5).

Markowitz S, Willson JK, et al. p53 gene mutations occur in combination with 17p allelic deletions as late events in colorectal tumourigenesis. Cancer Research 1990; 50: 7717–22.

- 14. Soong R, Powell B, Elsaleh H, Gnanasampanthan G, Smith DR, Goh HS, et al. Prognostic significance of TP53 gene mutation in 995 cases of colorectal carcinoma. Influence of tumour site, stage, adjuvant chemotherapy and type of mutation. European Journal of Cancer 2000; 36: 2053–60.
- Soussi T, Dehouche K, Beroud C. p53 website and analysis of p53 gene mutations in human cancer: forging a link between epidemiology and carcinogenesis. Human Mutation 2000; 15: 105–13.
- Soussi T, Beroud C. Significance of p53 mutations in human cancer: a critical analysis of mutations at CpG dinucleotides. Human Mutation 2003; 21: 192–200.
- Miyaki M, Konishsi M, Kikuchi-Yanoshita, R, Enomoto, M, Igari T, Tanaka K, et al. Characteristics of somatic mutation of the adenomatous polyposis coli gene in colorectal tumours. Cancer Research 1994; 54: 3011–20.
- Miyoshi, Y, Nagase H, Ando H, Horii A, Ichii S, Nakatsuru S, et al. Somatic mutations of the APC gene in colorectal tumours: mutation cluster region in the APC gene. Human Molecular Genetics 1992; 1: 229–333.
- Beroud C, Soussi T. APC gene: database of germline and somatic mutations in human tumours and cell lines. Nucleic Acids Research 1996; 24: 121–4.
- FitzGerald SP, Lamont JV, McConnell RI, Benchikh EO. Development of a high-throughput automated analyzer using biochip array technology. Clinical Chemistry 2005; 51 (7): 1165–76.
- Molloy RM, McConnell RI, Lamont JV, FitzGerald SP. Automation of biochip array technology for quality results. Clinical Chemistry Laboratory Medicine 2005; 43 (12): 1303–13.
- McAleer D, McPhillips FM, FitzGerald SP, McConnell RI, Rodriguez ML. Application of evidence investigatorTM for the simultaneous measurement of soluble adhesion molecules: L-, P-, E-selectins, VCAM-1, ICAM-1 in a biochip platform. Journal of Immunoassay and Immunochemistry 2006; 27 (4): 363–78.
- FitzGerald SP, Piper M, McAleer D, McConnell RI. Application of evidence biochip array technology to drug analysis in sports testing. Proceedings of the 16th

International Conference of Racing Analysts and Veterinarians 2006; 412–8.

- 24. FitzGerald SP, McConnell RI, Huxley A. Simultaneous analysis of circulating human cytokines using a highsensitivity cytokine biochip array. Journal of Proteome Research 2008; 7 (1): 450–5.
- 25. Behn M, Qun S, Pankow W, Havemann K, Schuermann M. Frequent detection of ras and p53 mutations in brush cytology samples from lung cancer patients by a restriction fragment length polymorphism-based 'enriched PCR' technique. Clinical Cancer Research 1998; 4: 361–71.
- Lüchtenborg M, Weijenberg MP, Roeman GMJM, De Bruïne AP, Van den Brandt PA, Lentjes MHFM, et al. APC mutations in sporadic colorectal carcinomas from The Netherlands Cohort Study. Carcinogenesis 2004; 25: 1219–26.
- 27. Dong SM, Traverso G, Johnson C, Geng L, Favis R, Boynton K, et al. Detecting colorectal cancer in stool with the use of multiple genetic targets. Journal of the National Cancer Institute 2001; 93: 858–65.
- Berger BM, Robison BS, Glickman J. Colon cancer-associated DNA mutations: marker selection for the detection of proximal colon cancer. Diagnostic Molecular Pathology 2003; 12: 187–92.
- Ahrendt SA, Chow JT, Xu LH, Yang SC, Eisenberger CF, Esteller M, et al. Molecular detection of tumour cells in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid from patients with early stage lung cancer. Journal of the National Cancer Institute 1999; 91: 332–9.
- Lichenstein AV, Serdjuk OI, Sukhova TI, Melkonyan HS, Umansky SR. Selective 'stencil'-aided pre-PCR cleavage of wildtype sequences as a novel approach to detection of mutant K-ras. Nucleic Acids Research 2001; 29 (17) e90.

- Imperiale TF, Ransohoff DF, Itkowitz SH, Turnbull BA, Ross ME. Faecal DNA versus faecal occult blood for colorectal-cancer screening in an average-risk population. New England Journal of Medicine 2004; 351: 2704–14.
- Itzowitz SH, Jandorf L, Brand R, Rabeneck L, Schroy III, PC, Sontag S, et al. Improved fecal DNA test for colorectal cancer screening. Clinical Gastroenterology and Hepatology 2007; 5: 111–7.
- 33. Kann L, Han J, Ahlquist D, Levin T, Rex D, Whitney D, et al. Improved marker combination for detection of de novo genetic variation and aberrant DNA in colorectal cancer. Clinical Chemistry 2006; 52 (12): 2299–302.
- Itzowitz S, Brand R, Jandorf L, Durkee K, Millholland J, Rabeneck L, et al. A simplified, non-invasive stool DNA test for colorectal cancer detection. American Journal of Gastroenterology 2008; 103 (11): 2862–70.
- Ogreid D, Hamre E. Stool DNA analysis detects premorphological colorectal neoplasia: a case report. European Journal of Gastroenterology & Hepatology 2007; 19 (8): 725–7.
- Bleeker FE, Bardelli A. Genomic landscapes of cancers: prospects for targeted therapies. Pharmacogenomics 2007; 8 (12): 1629–33.
- Benvenuti S, Sartore-Bianchi A, Di Nicolantonio F, Zanon C, Moroni M, Veronese S, et al. Oncogenic activation of the RAS/RAF signalling pathway impairs the response of metastatic colorectal cancers to anti-epidermal growth factor receptor antibody therapies. Cancer Research 2007; 67 (6): 2643–8.
- Lievre A, Bachet JB, le Corre D, Boige V, Landi B, Emile JF, et al. KRAS mutation status is predictive of response to cetuximab therapy in colorectal cancer. Cancer Research 2006; 66 (8): 3992–5.

Received: June 10, 2009 Accepted: July 12, 2009