

available at www.sciencedirect.comjournal homepage: www.ejconline.com

Down-regulation of K-ras and H-ras in human brain gliomas

Rena Lymbouridou^a, Giannoula Soufla^a, Anthoula M. Chatzinikola^a, Antonios Vakis^b,
Demetrios A. Spandidos^{a,*}

^aDepartment of Virology, Faculty of Medicine, Medical School, University of Crete, P.O. Box 1527, Heraklion 710 03, Crete, Greece

^bDepartment of Neurosurgery, University Hospital of Heraklion, Crete, Greece

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 25 September 2008

Received in revised form 17

December 2008

Accepted 19 December 2008

Available online 27 January 2009

Keywords:

Ras

Astrocytomas

Glioblastomas multiforme

Prognosis

ABSTRACT

Ras genes, a class of nucleotide-binding proteins that regulate normal and transformed cell growth, have been scarcely investigated in human brain tumours. We evaluated the mutational, mRNA and protein expression profile of the ras genes in 21 glioblastomas multiforme (grade IV), four fibrillary astrocytoma (grade II), four anaplastic astrocytoma (grade III) and 15 normal specimens. K-, H- and N-ras transcript levels were determined by real-time RT-PCR and mutational status by PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) and direct sequencing. p21 protein was evaluated by Western blot analysis. Two K-ras mutations were found in codons 16 and 26 in one pathological and one normal sample, respectively. Glioblastoma multiforme cases exhibited significantly lower K- and H-ras mRNA levels compared to controls ($P < 10^{-4}$). K- and H-ras mRNA down-regulation was not associated with patient outcome or survival. K-ras was positively correlated with H-ras in glioblastomas ($P = 0.005$), but not in normal specimens. p21 protein was absent in all samples. Our findings provide evidence of K- and H-ras involvement in brain malignant transformation through transcriptional down-regulation, while N-ras seems to contribute less to brain carcinogenesis.

© 2008 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

The human ras genes, K-, H- and N-ras, are members of a family of proto-oncogenes that are implicated in the development of tumours.¹ These genes encode for the plasma membrane p21 protein, which has guanosine triphosphatase activity. Wild-type ras genes have onco-suppressor properties, but can act as oncogenes and participate in the development and progression of human tumours upon their activation and aberrant expression of p21 protein.² Activation of ras oncogenes occurs by several routes, including point mutations, over-expression, gene amplification, and translocations, or by insertion of a promoter or enhancer element (Fig. 1). Codons 12, 13 and 61 are hot spots for mutations, resulting in a constitutive stimulation of cell growth, cell proliferation and malignant cell transformation. Mutations in normal ras

alleles are not a prerequisite for rendering of oncogenic properties to the ras family genes, since it has been demonstrated that normal ras allele over-expression alone can trigger cell transformation.³

Activated ras oncogenes have been found in a significant proportion of all human cancers; however, their frequency varies considerably among different tumour types. K-ras mutations were found at a high frequency in astrocytoma,^{4,5} colon,⁶ intestinal⁷ and lung⁸ tumours, whereas low K-ras mutation incidence was observed in carcinomas of the uterine cervix,⁹ breast¹⁰ and kidney.¹¹ Spandidos and colleagues reported H-ras mRNA over-expression in breast cancer as compared to normal specimens,¹² while Whittaker and colleagues found N- and K-ras over-expression in malignant breast tumours compared to benign breast tumours.¹³ p21 protein was found to be significantly elevated in gastric and

* Corresponding author: Tel.: +30 2810 394631; fax: +30 2810 394759.

E-mail address: spandidos@spandidos.gr (D.A. Spandidos).
0959-8049/\$ - see front matter © 2008 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.
doi:10.1016/j.ejca.2008.12.028

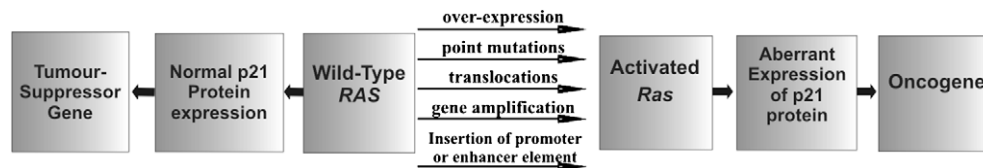


Fig. 1 – Dual role of *ras* genes. Wild-type *ras* can act as tumour suppressor genes, but when they are activated, they can act as oncogenes.

colon cancers,^{14,15} while in lung cancer, *ras* p21 expression differed according to histological classification.¹⁶

The prognostic significance of *ras* activation has been demonstrated in a variety of human cancers. K-*ras* mutations have been associated with poor survival in colon and lung cancer patients.^{17,18} Elevated K- and H-*ras* expression has been demonstrated to correlate with poor prognosis in colon neoplasms.¹⁹ High *ras* p21 protein expression was correlated with disease recurrence in breast cancer.²⁰

A limited number of studies, however, have examined the molecular alteration of the *ras* genes in gliomas. K-*ras* mutations have been reported in astrocytomas by two independent investigators,^{21,22} whereas N-*ras* mutations were investigated only in neuroblastomas and medulloblastomas.^{23,24} Decreased H-*ras* mRNA expression as well as over-expression of the *ras* p21 oncoprotein has been demonstrated in a small number of gliomas.^{25,26} However, the combined mutational, mRNA and protein expression status of the three *ras* genes and its correlation with prognosis and survival have not been investigated in a large number of brain tumours.

The aim of this study was to investigate the role of the *ras* genes in human brain tumours of various grades and specifically astrocytomas of grades II, III and IV. Therefore, we evaluated the mRNA expression of the K-, H- and N-*ras* genes, as well as the expression of *ras* p21 protein, in human brain astrocytomas and in normal brain tissue. Furthermore, we examined the presence of activating mutations of the three *ras* genes, and correlated our results with the clinicopathological characteristics and survival data of the patients.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Tissue specimens

Samples were surgically obtained from 21 glioblastoma multiforme (GBM) tumours, eight astrocytomas and 15 normal brain tissues (12 from glioblastoma multiforme patients, 2 from fibrillary astrocytoma patients and 1 from an anaplastic astrocytoma patient) (Table 1) from patients who had undergone therapeutic surgical tumour removal without prior radio- or chemotherapeutic treatment, at the Department of Neurosurgery of the University Hospital of Crete between 2005 and 2007. The normal tissue specimens were cerebral tissue debris that was produced during tumour resection in patients, who had undergone surgery for deep sighted tumours. The mean age (\pm SEM) of the patients at the time of surgery was 64.1 (\pm 2), with a range of 35–78 years.

Sample sections were histologically evaluated by board-certified neuropathologists and were categorised according to the World Health Organisation (WHO) classification (Table

Table 1 – Clinical and histological characteristics of the patients.

Characteristic	Number of patients
Total number of patients	29
Age	
Mean \pm SEM	64.1 \pm 2
Range	35–78
Histological type	
Glioblastomas	21
Astrocytomas	8
Histological grade	
Grade II	4
Grade III	4
Grade IV	21

1). The purity of the tumour samples was estimated using H&E staining to ensure that each sample had >80% neoplastic cells. Tissue specimens were obtained at the time of the surgery, and they were snap frozen and stored at -80°C until RNA extraction.

The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Crete, and all patients gave written informed consent.

2.2. RNA and protein extraction and reverse transcription (RT-PCR)

Total RNA and protein were extracted from each tissue sample by the use of the TRIzol[®] reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) with the aid of a power homogeniser according to the manufacturers' instructions. RNA concentration and purity were evaluated by a spectrophotometer. Protein concentration was determined using the Bradford assay. Aliquots of RNA and protein were stored at -80°C and -20°C , respectively, until use.

cDNA from each sample was derived by reverse transcription of 2 μg of total RNA using the AffinityScript[™] Multi Temperature cDNA synthesis kit (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, USA). Random hexamers were used as amplification primers. To remove the RNA template, cDNA was incubated with *Escherichia coli* RNase H, and was stored at -20°C until use.

2.3. Real-time PCR

Transcript levels of K-, H- and N-*ras* were determined using the Mx3000P Real-Time PCR system (Stratagene) and SYBR[®] Green I Master Mix (Stratagene) according to the

Table 2 – Primer sequences used for quantitative real-time RT-PCR.

Oncogene	Primer pair sequence (5'-3')	Product size (bp)
K-ras	For: GGGGAGGGCTTCTTTGTGTA Rev: GTCCTGAGCCTGTTTGTGTC	174
H-ras	For: GGGGCAGTCGCGCCTGTGAA Rev: CCGGCGCCACACACACAG	110
N-ras	For: CTTCTCTGTGTATTTGCCATCA Rev: GCACCATAGGTACATCATCCGA	107
GAPDH	For: GGAAGGTGAAGGTGGGAGTCA Rev: GTCATTGATGGCAACAATATCCACT	101

manufacturers' instructions. All primers were designed to span at least one intron in order to avoid amplification of contaminating genomic DNA. Primers sequences and optimal annealing temperatures are listed in Table 2. Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) was used as an internal control to normalise K-, H- and N-ras mRNA expression levels. For each target gene, 1 µl of cDNA was amplified in a total volume of 20 µl containing 2X Brilliant SYBR® Green QPCR Master Mix supplemented with 300 nM of each primer set. A representative pool of all samples was diluted in a series of seven 2X dilutions and was used to construct a standard curve for the quantification process. Melting curves for each amplicon were generated to evaluate the specificity of the products. Data were collected and analysed using Mx3000P Real-Time PCR software version 2.00, Build 215, Schema 60 (Stratagene). For all the samples tested, we initially calculated the normalised expression of the target versus the house-keeping gene for each pathological or normal sample using the following formula: Normalised Sample or Control = $(1 + E_{\text{Ras}})^{-\Delta C_t \text{Ras}} / (1 + E_{\text{GAPDH}})^{-\Delta C_t \text{GAPDH}}$. Afterwards, we divided the normalised expression of each tumour sample with the mean normalised value of the controls (expression ratios). A twofold increased or decreased expression was considered significant over-expression or down-regulation, respectively. The expression ratios provided by the division

of the normalised expression of each tumour sample to that of its adjacent normal tissue, i.e. [(gene/GAPDH) tumour/ (gene/GAPDH) normal] were used to provide a distinct molecular portrait of each tumour in our brain tissue-pair analysis. Again, a twofold increased or decreased expression was considered to reflect over-expression or down-regulation, respectively.

2.4. Western blot analysis

Proteins extracts (20 µg) were electrophoresed through a 10% polyacrylamide gel, transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes and incubated with an anti-ras antibody (Cat. No. 05-516, Upstate Biotechnology, USA) at a dilution of 1:1000, and with anti-actin antibody (MAB1501, Chemicon Int., CA). Antibody binding was revealed by a peroxidase-labelled secondary antibody. Bands were visualised using the SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate (Pierce, USA), according to the manufacturers' protocol. The analysis was performed twice for each sample (normal or tumour) using a pre-neoplastic 208F rat fibroblast cell line bearing a G12V H-ras mutation as a control for ras p21 expression, and normal endometrial tissue protein extracts as a control of endogenous ras p21 expression. The positive controls (fibroblasts/endometrium) were run concomitantly with the test samples.

2.5. DNA extraction and PCR amplification

Genomic DNA was extracted using proteinase K followed by phenol extraction and ethanol precipitation according to the standard procedures. PCR reactions were performed using Go Taq Flexi DNA Polymerase (Promega, USA). The set of primers used in PCR and amplification conditions was as previously described.²⁷

2.6. DNA sequencing and restriction fragment length polymorphisms

Codon 12 was analysed by RFLP,²⁷ while codons that are included in our amplified sequence (hot spot codons 12 and

Table 3 – K-ras and H-ras mRNA expression in pathological and normal specimens.

Gene	Fibrillary astrocytomas (Grade II) (N=4)	Anaplastic astrocytomas (Grade III) (N=4)	Glioblastoma Multiforme (Grade IV) (N=21)	Normal (N=15)	P value*
K-ras	0.66±0.16	0.49±0.18	0.59±0.09	1.34±0.11	<10 ⁻⁴
P value**	0.029	0.004		<10 ⁻⁴	
H-ras	1.24±0.38	0.92±0.10	0.77±0.17	2.16±0.52	0.002
P value**	NS	NS		<10 ⁻⁴	

Data are presented as the mean ± SEM (standard error of the mean).

*Kruskal-Wallis test. P<0.05 is considered statistically significant.

**Bonferroni's correction and Mann-Whitney test. P < 0.05 is considered statistically significant. NS, not significant.

13, as well codons 14–47) were analysed by direct sequencing. PCR products were purified with the Wizard SV Gel and PCR clean-up system (Promega, USA) and were amplified with the BigDye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, USA) in a 10- μ l volume containing purified PCR product using the previously described primers (Table 2). Sequencing and results analysis was performed onto the ABI PRISM 3100 Genetic Analyser (Applied Biosystems) using the Sequence Analysis 3.7 software (Applied Biosystems, USA).

2.7. Statistical analysis

The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was used to determine whether the expression data obtained follow a normal distribution pattern. The mRNA expression of K-, H- and N-ras was compared between the groups of normal and pathological samples, as well as between the groups of different histological features using non-parametric procedures (the Kruskal–Wallis and Mann–Whitney tests). The Spearman rank correlation (non-parametric test) was used to evaluate the significance of the ras gene mRNA correlation pair-wise. Finally, the Chi-square (χ^2) test was applied to evaluate the significant statistical differences in K-, H- and N-ras mRNA expression status (over-expression or down-regulation). Survival analysis was performed according to the Kaplan–Meier method and was analysed using the log-rank test. Survival was assessed as corrected survival from the date of surgery to the date of death or to the closing date of the study: 23 months survival time.

Probability values (*P* values) < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. Statistical calculations were performed using SPSS 11.5 software (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

3. Results

In the present study, we examined the presence of mutations in codon 12 of the K-, H- and N-ras genes by PCR-RFLP and direct sequencing, and we evaluated the mRNA expression profile of these ras family genes in 21 glioblastomas, four anaplastic astrocytomas (grade III), four fibrillary astrocytomas (grade II) and 15 normal brain tissues specimens by Real-time PCR. Ras p21 protein was assessed by Western blot analysis in tissue protein extracts of both tumour and normal specimens.

3.1. Mutation analysis

PCR-RFLP and sequencing analysis did not detect the GGT \rightarrow GTT (Gly12Val) mutation in codon 12 of the three ras genes, but did reveal a loss of A in codon 16 of K-ras in a pathological sample, leading to the change of the amino acid Lys to Arg (Fig. 2A). A C insertion in K-ras codon 26 resulting in the change of the amino acid Asn to Gln in the produced protein was found in a normal specimen (Fig. 2B). No H- and N-ras codon 12 mutations were found.

3.2. Transcript levels of K-, H- and N-ras

Normal brain specimens were found to have significantly elevated K- and H-ras mRNA levels (normalised to GAPDH) com-

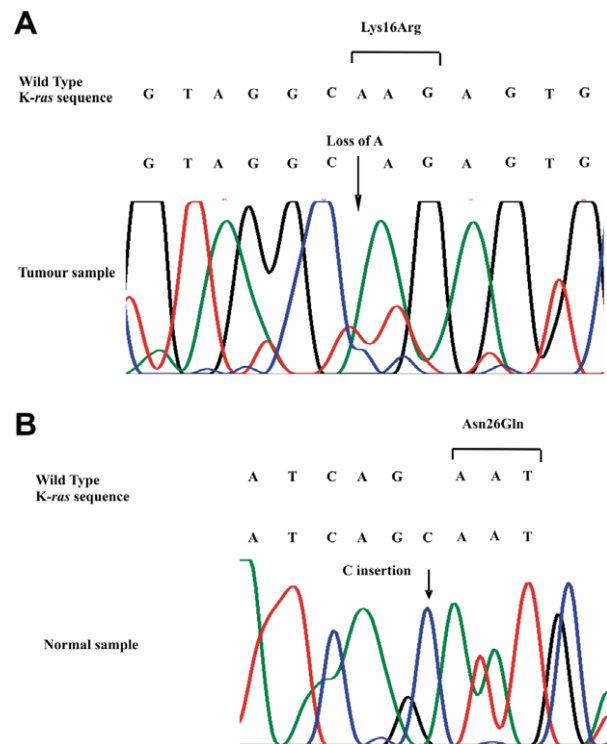


Fig. 2 – (A) Sequencing chromatogram showing the loss of A in codon 16 of a glioblastoma multiforme sample (AAG \rightarrow AGA; Lys16Arg) and (B) Sequencing chromatogram showing the C insertion in codon 26 of a normal brain sample (AAT \rightarrow CAA; Asn26Gln).

pared to glioblastomas ($P < 10^{-4}$ for both; Mann–Whitney test) (Fig. 3). Furthermore, K-ras transcript levels were found to be lower in fibrillary as well as in anaplastic astrocytomas compared to normal specimens ($P = 0.009$ and $P = 0.006$, Mann–Whitney test; $P = 0.029$ and $P = 0.004$, respectively, after the Bonferroni correction for small number of samples) (Fig. 3A, Table 3). N-ras normalised transcript levels were similar in glioblastomas, astrocytomas and in the normal specimens.

K-, H- and N-ras transcript levels in each pathological sample were, respectively, divided by the mean value of K-, H- and N-ras expression in the normal specimen group. A twofold increased or decreased expression ratio was considered to reflect over-expression or down-regulation. K- and H-ras down-regulation was, respectively, observed in 57% and 81% of the glioblastomas, while normal expression was observed in 43% and 19% of the corresponding cases. K- and H-ras down-regulation occurred more often than normal expression in glioblastomas ($P = 0.048$, odds ratio (OR) = 0.57, confidence interval (CI) = 0.31–1.03; $P < 10^{-7}$, OR = 0.06, CI = 0.03–0.12, respectively). N-ras down-regulation was more frequent in glioblastomas (62%) compared to up-regulation (9.5%) or normal expression (28.5%) ($P < 10^{-7}$, OR = 4.50, CI = 2.36–8.64; $P < 10^{-6}$, OR = 0.25, CI = 0.13–0.47).

In fibrillary astrocytomas, K-ras mRNA down-regulation was the most frequent event (75%) ($P < 10^{-7}$, OR = 9.00, CI = 4.53–18.4), whereas H- and N-ras mRNA was either down regulated (50%) or normally expressed (50%). In anaplastic astrocytomas, transcriptional down-regulation of all ras

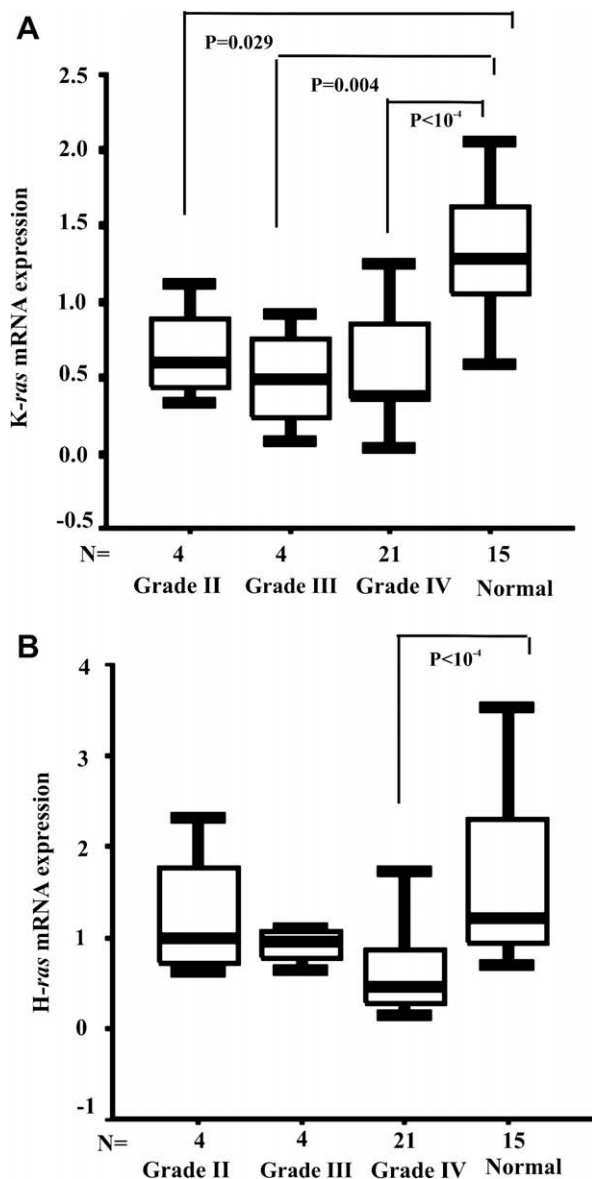


Fig. 3 – (A) K-ras mRNA levels in glioblastoma multiforme (grade IV), anaplastic astrocytomas (grade III), fibrillary astrocytomas (grade II) and normal tissues. Glioblastoma multiforme, as well as fibrillary and anaplastic astrocytomas, demonstrated lower K-ras mRNA levels than normal brain specimens ($P < 10^{-4}$, Mann-Whitney test; $P = 0.009$ and $P = 0.006$, respectively, Bonferroni's correction). (B) H-ras mRNA levels in glioblastoma multiforme (grade IV), anaplastic astrocytomas (grade III), fibrillary astrocytomas (grade II) and normal tissues.

genes was the most common event, occurring in 100% of the cases for K-ras and in 75% of the cases for H- and N-ras ($P < 10^{-7}$, OR = 9.00, CI = 4.53–18.4) (Table 4).

The incidence of K-ras down-regulation was significantly higher in grade III (100%) than in grade II gliomas (75%), followed by grade IV cases (57%). H-ras mRNA down-regulation was most frequently observed in grade IV (81%) followed by grade III (75%) and grade II (50%) gliomas. H-ras down-regulation was more frequent in grades IV and III compared to grade II gliomas, respectively ($P < 10^{-6}$, OR = 4.26, CI = 2.16–8.47;

$P < 10^{-3}$, OR = 3.00, CI = 1.55–5.72). N-ras down-regulation was more frequent in grade III (75%) compared to grade IV (62%) ($P = 0.047$, OR = 1.94, CI = 0.96–3.53) followed by grade II gliomas (50%).

K-, H- and N-ras mRNA levels were not found to be associated with any of the clinicopathological features of the grade IV specimens examined, such as tumour location or patient age. Due to the limited number of grade II and III samples, the association between mRNA levels and clinicopathological features of the patients was not evaluated.

3.3. Prognostic value of K-, H- and N-ras mRNA expression

K-, H- and N-ras transcript levels were not found to correlate with the survival of patients with glioblastoma multiforme tumours. Specifically, the Kaplan-Meier analysis did not reveal any prognostic value for the observed down-regulation of K-, H- and N-ras mRNA levels compared to glioblastoma multiforme patients with normal expression levels of the same genes (Fig. 4).

3.4. mRNA co-expression analysis

The Spearman correlations for evaluation of K-, H- and N-ras co-expression patterns in the groups of malignant and normal brain tissue specimens are shown in Table 5.

No correlations were observed in the group of normal specimens, whereas K-ras was found to be positively correlated with H-ras ($P < 10^{-5}$, the Spearman correlation) in glioblastoma multiforme specimens ($P = 0.005$, the Spearman correlation).

3.5. Brain tissue-pair analysis

In the present study, normal brain tissue specimens were available from 12 patients with glioblastoma multiforme. It was, therefore, considered appropriate to compare the mRNA levels of each pathological sample with those of its corresponding normal specimen. The ratio of the transcript levels of each gene to GAPDH in the tumour sample was calculated to that of its adjacent normal tissue, i.e. [(gene/GAPDH) tumour/(gene/GAPDH) normal]. This ratio was used to provide a distinct molecular portrait of each tumour, which was subsequently compared with clinicopathological features. A two-fold increased or decreased expression ratio was considered to reflect over-expression or down-regulation, respectively. The purpose of the present analysis was to investigate whether the results of tissue-pair analysis and of the 'non-pair analysis' of the specimens are in agreement. Transcript levels of K-ras were found to be under-expressed in 75% of glioblastoma multiforme pairs, while normal K-ras expression was observed in 25% of the cases, indicating that down-regulation occurs significantly more often than normal regulation ($P < 10^{-7}$, OR = 0.11, CI = 0.06–0.22). H-ras mRNA levels were down regulated in 92% and over expressed in 8% of the cases ($P < 10^{-7}$, OR = 0.01, CI = 0.00–0.02, χ^2 test). N-ras exhibited mRNA over-expression in 42% of tissue pairs, and under-expression and normal expression in 33% and 25% of the cases, respectively. The incidence of N-ras

Table 4 – Relative mRNA expression of K-, H- and N-ras in brain tumours.

A. Glioblastomas (n=21)									
Gene:	<i>K-ras</i>			<i>H-ras</i>			<i>N-ras</i>		
	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)
Cancer	-	43	57	-	19	81	9.5	28.5	62
<i>P</i> value*	0.048			$P<10^{-7}$			$P<10^{-7}$		$P<10^{-6}$
↑ , over-expression, - , normal expression, ↓ , reduced expression, * χ^2 test, (df=2)									

B. Fibrillary astrocytomas (n=4)									
Gene:	<i>K-ras</i>			<i>H-ras</i>			<i>N-ras</i>		
	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)
Cancer	-	25	75	-	50	50	-	50	50
<i>P</i> value*	$P<10^{-7}$			NS			NS		
↑ , over-expression, - , normal expression, ↓ , reduced expression, * χ^2 test, (df=2)									

C. Anaplastic astrocytomas (n=4)									
Gene:	<i>K-ras</i>			<i>H-ras</i>			<i>N-ras</i>		
	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)
Cancer	-	-	100	-	25	75	-	25	75
<i>P</i> value*	-			$P<10^{-7}$			$P<10^{-7}$		
↑ , over-expression, - , normal expression, ↓ , reduced expression, * χ^2 test, (df=2)									

D. Glioblastoma tissue-pairs (n=12)									
Gene:	<i>K-ras</i>			<i>H-ras</i>			<i>N-ras</i>		
	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)	↑ (%)	- (%)	↓ (%)
Cancer	-	25	75	8	-	92	42	25	33
<i>P</i> value*	$P<10^{-7}$			$P<10^{-7}$			$P=0,01$		
↑ , over-expression, - , normal expression, ↓ , reduced expression, * χ^2 test, (df=2)									

over-expression was significantly higher than that of under-expression and normal expression ($P < 10^{-4}$, OR = 0.3, CI = 0.15–0.59; $P = 0.01$, OR = 2.17, CI = 1.14–4.15, respectively) (Table 4D).

Pair-wise mRNA co-expression analysis demonstrated no significant correlation between the three *ras* genes in glioblastoma multiforme tissue pairs. No association was found between grade IV samples and the clinicopathological features of the patients, such as tumour location or patient age. Due to the limited number of grade II and III samples, the association between mRNA levels and clinicopathological features of the patients was not evaluated.

3.6. Western blot analysis

Western blot analysis did not result in detectable levels of *ras* protein in our samples, while beta-actin, which was used as

an internal control, was constantly expressed in the normal and tumour specimens (Fig. 5).

4. Discussion

In the present study, we evaluated the expression of *ras* gene mRNA and *ras* p21 protein in glioblastoma multiforme and anaplastic and fibrillary astrocytoma brain tumours, as well as in normal specimens. The mRNA expression levels obtained were associated with the clinicopathological features of the patients. We also examined the presence of codon 12 K-, H- and N-*ras* mutations in these samples.

Reports of only one K-*ras* codon 13 mutation in 21 pilocytic astrocytomas (grade I), and one codon 12 mutation in a group of 25 grade I and II astrocytomas indicate that K-*ras* mutations are a rare event.^{5,22} Our evaluation is, to the best of our knowledge, the first to investigate the incidence of

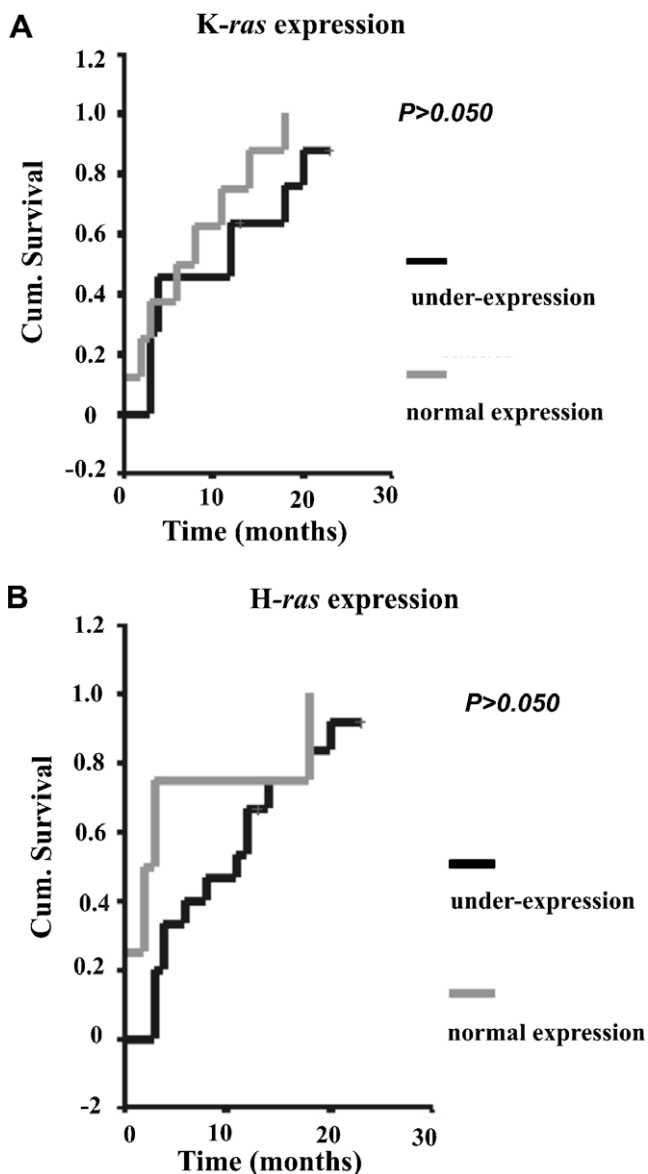


Fig. 4 – The Kaplan-Meier analysis survival plots of the glioblastoma multiforme patients ($N = 21$) demonstrating the effect of (A) K-ras and (B) H-ras mRNA down-regulation compared to normal expression status in the tumour tissues examined ($P > 0.050$) at the end-point, defined as the time period of survival in months.

K-, H- and N-ras mutations in glioblastoma multiforme and in grade II and III astrocytic tumours. Two different non-activating K-ras mutations were found in one glioblastoma multi-

Table 5 – The Spearman correlation rho and P values.

		K-ras	H-ras	N-ras
A. Normal specimens				
K-ras	Spearman's rho	1.000		
	Sig. 2-tailed			
H-ras	Spearman's rho	0.191	1.000	
	Sig. 2-tailed	0.494		
N-ras	Spearman's rho	0.166	0.131	1.000
	Sig. 2-tailed	0.553	0.643	
B. Glioblastomas				
K-ras	Spearman's rho	1.000		
	Sig. 2-tailed			
H-ras	Spearman's rho	0.587	1.000	
	Sig. 2-tailed	0.005		
N-ras	Spearman's rho	0.174	0.326	1.000
	Sig. 2-tailed	0.451	0.149	
C. Glioblastoma tissue pairs				
K-ras	Spearman's rho	1.000		
	Sig. 2-tailed			
H-ras	Spearman's rho	0.093	1.000	
	Sig. 2-tailed	0.742		
N-ras	Spearman's rho	-0.096	-0.1	1.000
	Sig. 2-tailed	0.732	0.723	

forme sample and in a normal specimen derived from a patient with glioblastoma, supporting the previous findings that ras mutations are a rare event in brain carcinogenesis. Sequencing analysis demonstrated the absence of H- and N-ras mutations in all samples, suggesting that H- and N-ras mutations are not a feature of gliomas.

Regarding mRNA expression profiles of the three ras genes being analysed, this is the first time that brain tumour samples were compared to normal tissue specimens from the same patient in order to investigate the molecular portrait of each tumour. In the previous studies, transcript levels in tumours were compared to the mean mRNA levels of normal brain specimens derived from a different set of patients. In the present study, the expression analysis and co-expression pattern were evaluated in both ways to investigate whether the results of tissue-pair analysis and of 'non-pair analysis' are in accordance in terms of molecular pattern.

According to the non-pair analysis, K- and H-ras transcript levels were significantly lower in glioblastoma multiforme than in normal brain specimens. Our findings are in accordance with a previous report²⁵ of decreased H-ras mRNA levels in a small number of glioblastomas ($N = 4$) compared to normal brain tissues. Additionally, grade II and III astrocytomas exhibited substantially lower K-ras mRNA levels than

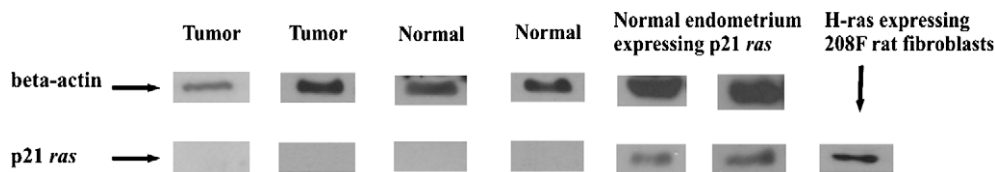


Fig. 5 – Representative examples of ras p21 and beta-actin protein expression assessed by Western blot analysis in tumour and normal brain specimens. The G12V H-ras-transformed 208F rat fibroblast cell line and normal endometrial tissue protein extracts were used as a positive control of ras p21 expression.

normal brain tissues. The decreased K- and H-*ras* mRNA levels observed in tumours are consistent with our finding of the absence of activating *ras* mutations and along with the absence of detectable *ras* protein support the lack of *ras* activation in brain gliomas. Interestingly, transcript levels of N-*ras* were not found to differ significantly between tumour and normal samples. In addition to the lack of N-*ras*-activating mutations, we can only speculate that N-*ras* plays a less crucial role in brain tumour formation than the other two *ras* oncogenes. This hypothesis is reinforced by our finding that K- and H-*ras* transcript levels are positively correlated in glioblastoma multiforme but not in normal brain specimens. The latter suggests a possible synergistic role of K- and H-*ras* in the malignant transformation processes of the brain.

Furthermore, the most prominent event in glioblastoma multiforme tumours is the down-regulation of all three *ras* genes. Down-regulation of the *ras* family genes was also the most frequent event in anaplastic astrocytomas (grade III). However, fibrillary astrocytomas (grade II) exhibited significant down-regulation only in K-*ras* transcript levels. Based on the fact that anaplastic astrocytomas (grade III) are considered to be more malignant than fibrillary astrocytomas (grade II), our findings, if verified in a larger set of specimens, would suggest that down-regulation of the three *ras* genes could be used as a molecular marker of brain malignancy. Genetic markers for primary glioblastoma formation such as the APOD gene that may have a crucial role in malignant astrocytoma formation are shown by MacDonald and colleagues²⁸ using microarray analysis. Similarly, our findings probably indicate that the down-regulation of the three *ras* genes comprises a genetic marker for glioblastomas versus non-malignant astrocytomas in the case of primary glioblastoma formation.

Studies have shown a number of genetic markers for grade III and IV astrocytomas according to the WHO classification in relation to tumour progression. Van den Boom and colleagues²⁹ reported many genes such as VEGFA, COL4A1, COL4A2, COL5A2 and FOXM1 with distinct expression patterns in WHO grade II astrocytomas, as compared to WHO grade III astrocytomas and/or GBMs. According to Rickman and colleagues,³⁰ the transcript levels of several genes such as FOXG1B, FOXM1 and ZYX differ significantly in high-grade and low-grade gliomas. Another possible marker, according to Reddy and colleagues,³¹ is PEBF1 which had higher expression levels in GBMs than in lower-grade tumours. Our results, if expanded to a larger set of samples, may indicate the down-regulation of *ras* genes as a possible genetic marker of tumour progression for grade III/IV astrocytomas versus grade II astrocytomas. Specifically, down-regulation of the three *ras* genes is associated with grade III/IV astrocytomas, while only K-*ras* down-regulation is associated with grade II tumours. Consequently, the progressive down-regulation of the three *ras* genes is an indication of tumour progression.

In the tissue-pair analysis, which was performed in 12 glioblastoma tissue pairs, the results were somewhat different compared to those of the non-pair analysis. Specifically, the incidence of K- and H-*ras* down-regulation was higher than that found by means of non-pair analysis. N-*ras* over-expression appeared to be the prevailing event of glioblastoma tumourigenesis, while N-*ras* transcriptional

down-regulation was implied by the non-pair analysis. This, however, is in accordance with a previous report of N-*ras* over-expression in five glioblastoma multiforme cell lines compared to that in normal brain specimens.³² Furthermore, K-*ras* mRNA was not positively correlated with H-*ras*, perhaps due to the small number of glioblastoma tissue pairs used ($N = 12$) compared to non-pair-analysis ($N = 21$). Conclusively, there are discrepancies in the results provided by the two analytical techniques. We believe that the pair-wise comparison of inter-patient samples is the most appropriate way to evaluate the mRNA expression and co-expression profile of certain genes in brain tumours as opposed to normal samples, because both tumours and normal tissue specimens are derived from the same patient. In this analysis, the molecular portrait of each tumour was analysed based on the molecular portrait of a normal sample of the same patient taking into consideration the unique molecular profile of each individual.

K- and H-*ras* mRNA down-regulation in glioblastoma multiforme failed to provide prognostic information about patient outcome and survival according to the Kaplan-Meier analysis.

In our investigation, we found that wild-type *ras* genes are transcriptionally down regulated in human brain gliomas, while activating mutations are absent, suggesting the loss of *ras* onco-suppressor properties, leading to the formation of malignant astrocytomas. *Ras* genes have been demonstrated to possess a dual role in human malignancies.^{33–36} They can act as oncogenes when they are activated or may have tumour-suppressive functions. Expression of wild-type *ras* has been shown to inhibit the action of the mutant counterpart,³⁴ thus reversing the malignant phenotype of cells. Our findings reinforce previous reports supporting the onco-suppressive role of *ras*. We can only speculate that the mechanism through which wild-type *ras* can act as a tumour suppressor, is the activation of certain signalling pathways that may lead to apoptosis and senescence. The apoptotic and pro-apoptotic effects from *ras* family members have been exhibited in a number of studies indicating the involvement of several external signals^{37,38} or activation of pathways such as the Raf/MAP kinase.³⁹ Furthermore, *ras* activates the Raf kinase signalling cascade, resulting in the promotion of senescence which comprises an alternative mechanism to prevent proliferation of cells that have acquired a malignant phenotype.⁴⁰ The mechanism through which wild-type *ras* can activate certain signalling pathways that may lead to apoptosis and senescence, inhibiting in that way the action of the mutant counterpart, remains to be elucidated.

In conclusion, our results provide evidence of K- and H-*ras* involvement in glioma carcinogenesis through transcriptional down-regulation, whereas codon 12 *ras*-activating mutations and *ras* p21 protein expression are absent. Based on the non-pair analysis, K- and H-*ras* transcript levels were positively correlated suggesting a synergistic role in glioblastoma formation, whereas N-*ras* is hypothesised to play a less crucial role in brain tumour formation.

Conflict of interest statement

None declared.

Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.ejca.2008.12.028](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejca.2008.12.028).

REFERENCES

- Kiaris H, Spandidos DA. Mutations of *ras* genes in human tumours (review). *Int J Oncol* 1995;7:413–21.
- Spandidos DA, Sourvinos G, Tsatsanis C, Zafiroopoulos A. Normal *ras* genes: Their onco-suppressor and pro-apoptotic functions (review). *Int J Oncol* 2002;21:237–41.
- Spandidos DA, Wilkie NM. Malignant transformation of early passage rodent cells by a single mutated human oncogene. *Nature* 1984;310:469–75.
- Sharma MK, Zehnbauser BA, Watson MA, Gutmann DH. RAS pathway activation and an oncogenic RAS mutation in sporadic pilocytic astrocytoma. *Neurology* 2005;25(65):1335–6.
- Janzarik WG, Kratz CP, Loges NT, et al. Further evidence for a somatic KRAS mutation in a pilocytic astrocytoma. *Neuropediatrics* 2007;38:61–3.
- Spandidos DA, Glarakis IS, Kotsinas A, Ergazaki M, Kiaris H. Ras oncogene activation in benign and malignant colorectal tumours. *Tumour* 1995;81:7–11.
- Spandidos DA, Liloglou T, Arvanitis D, Gourtsoyiannis NC. Ras gene activation in human small intestinal tumours. *Int J Oncol* 1993;2:513–8.
- Rodenhuis S, Slebos RJ. Clinical significance of *ras* oncogene activation in human lung cancer. *Cancer Res* 1992;52(Suppl.):2665–9.
- Dokianakis DN, Sourvinos G, Sakkas S, et al. Detection of HPV and *ras* gene mutations in cervical smears from female genital lesions. *Oncol Rep* 1998;5:1195–8.
- Koffa M, Malamou-Mitsi V, Agnantis NJ, Spandidos DA. Mutational activation of K-*ras* oncogene in human breast tumours. *Int J Oncol* 1994;4:573–6.
- Roth S, Partanen T, Saittala T, et al. Molecular analysis of occupational cancer: infrequent p53 and *ras* mutations in renal cell cancer in workers exposed to gasoline. *Int J Cancer* 1997;14:492–6.
- Spandidos DA, Agnantis NJ. Human malignant tumours of the breast as compared to their normal tissue have elevated expression of the Harvey *ras* oncogene. *Anticancer Res* 1984;4:269–72.
- Whittaker JL, Walker RA, Varley JM. Differential expression of cellular oncogenes in benign and malignant human breast tissue. *Int J Cancer* 1986;38:651–5.
- Czerniak B, Herz F, Koss LG, Schlom J. *ras* oncogene p21 as a tumour marker in the cytodiagnosis of gastric and colonic carcinomas. *Cancer* 1987;60:2432–6.
- De Biasi F, Del Sal G, Horan-Hand P. Evidence of enhancement of the *ras* oncogene protein product (p21) in a spectrum of human cancers. *Int J Cancer* 1989;43:431–5.
- Kurzrock R, Gallick GE, Guterman JU. Differential expression of p21 *ras* gene products among histological subtypes of fresh primary human lung tumours. *Cancer* 1994;69:367–71.
- Barault L, Veyrie N, Jooste V, et al. Mutations in the RAS-MAPK, PI(3)K (phosphatidylinositol-3-OH kinase) signalling network correlate with poor survival in a population-based series of colon cancers. *Int J Cancer* 2008;122:2255–9.
- Marks JL, Broderick S, Zhou Q, et al. Prognostic and therapeutic implications of EGFR and KRAS mutations in resected lung adenocarcinoma. *J Thorac Oncol* 2008;3:111–6.
- Monnat M, Tardy S, Saraga P, Diggelman H, Costa J. Prognostic implications of expression of the cellular gene *myc*, *fos*, *Ha-ras* and *Ki-ras* in colon carcinoma. *Int J Cancer* 1987;40:293–9.
- Clair T, Miller WR, Cho-Chung YS. Prognostic significance of the expression of a *ras* with a molecular weight of 21,000 by human breast cancer. *Cancer* 1987;47:5290–3.
- Maltzman TH, Mueller BA, Schroeder J, et al. Ras oncogene mutations in childhood brain tumours. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 1997;6:239–43.
- Sharma MK, Zehnbauser BA, Watson MA, Gutmann DH. RAS pathway activation and an oncogenic RAS mutation in sporadic pilocytic astrocytomas. *Neurology* 2005;65:1335–6.
- Ireland CM. Activated N-*ras* oncogenes in human neuroblastomas. *Cancer Res* 1989;49:5530–3.
- Iolascon A, Lania A, Badiali M, et al. Analysis of N-*ras* gene mutations in medulloblastomas by polymerase chain reaction and oligonucleotide probes in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissues. *Med Pediatr Oncol* 1991;19:240–5.
- Patt S, Thiel G, Zhou Q, et al. Chromosomal changes and correspondingly altered proto-oncogene expression in human gliomas. Value of combined cytogenetic and molecular genetic analysis. *Anticancer Res* 1993;13:113–8.
- Salgaller M, Agius L, Yates A, Pearl D, Roberts W, Stephens R. Application of automated image analysis to demonstrate the correlation between *ras* p21 expression and severity of gliomas. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 1990;169:482–91.
- Miyakis S, Sourvinos G, Spandidos DA. Differential expression and mutation of the *ras* family genes in human breast cancer. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 1998;251:609–12.
- MacDonald TJ, Pollack IF, Okada H, Bhattacharya S, Lyons-Weiler J. Progression-associated genes in astrocytoma identified by novel microarray gene expression data reanalysis. *Methods Mol Biol* 2007;377:203–22.
- Van den Boom J, Wolter M, Kuick R, et al. Characterization of gene expression profiles associated with glioma progression using oligonucleotide-based microarray analysis and real-time reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction. *Am J Pathol* 2003;163(3):1033–43.
- Rickman DS, Bobek MP, Misek DE, et al. Distinctive molecular profiles of high-grade and low-grade gliomas based on oligonucleotide microarray analysis. *Cancer Res* 2001;61(18):6885–91.
- Reddy PS, Umesh S, Thota B, et al. PBEF1/NAMPTase/Visfatin: a potential malignant astrocytoma/glioblastoma serum marker with prognostic value. *Cancer Biol Ther* 2008;7(5):663–8.
- Gerosa MA, Talarico D, Fognani C, et al. Overexpression of N-*ras* oncogene and epidermal growth factor receptor gene in human glioblastomas. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1989;4(81):63–7.
- Spandidos DA, Wilkie NM. The normal human H-*ras*1 gene can act as an onco-suppressor. *Brit J Cancer Suppl* 1988;9:67–71.
- Spandidos DA, Frame M, Wilkie NM. Expression of the normal H-*ras*1 gene can suppress the transformed and tumourigenic phenotypes induced by mutant *ras* genes. *Anticancer Res* 1990;10:1543–54.
- Zhang Z, Wang Y, Vikis HG, et al. Wild-type Kras2 can inhibit lung carcinogenesis in mice. *Nat Genet* 2001;29:25–33.
- Wyllie AH, Rose KA, Morris RG, Steel CM, Foster E, Spandidos DA. Rodent fibroblast tumours expressing human *myc* and *ras* genes: growth, metastasis and endogenous oncogene expression. *Brit J Cancer* 1987;56:251–9.
- Vater CA, Bartle LM, Dionne CA, Littlewood TD, Goldmacher VS. Induction of apoptosis by tamoxifen-activation of a p53-

-
- estrogen receptor fusion protein expressed in E1A and T24 H-ras transformed p53^{-/-} mouse embryo fibroblasts. *Oncogene* 1996;**13**:739–48.
38. Trent II JC, McConkey DJ, Loughlin SM, Harbison MT, Fernandez A, Ananthaswamy HN. Ras signaling in tumour necrosis factor-induced apoptosis. *EMBO J* 1996;**15**:4405–97.
39. Kauffman-Zeh A, Rodriguez-Viciana P, Ulrich E, et al. Suppression of c-Myc-induced apoptosis by Ras signaling through PI(3)K and PKB. *Nature* 1997;**385**:544–8.
40. Zhu J, Woods D, McMahon M, Bishop JM. Senescence of human fibroblasts induced by oncogenic Raf. *Genes Dev* 1998;**12**:2997–3007.