ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Molecular characterization of colorectal cancer using whole‐ exome sequencing in a Taiwanese population

1 Epigenome Research Center, China Medical University Hospital, Taichung, Taiwan

²Department of Laboratory Medicine, China Medical University Hospital, Taichung, Taiwan

3 Center for Precision Medicine, China Medical University Hospital, Taichung, Taiwan

4 Department of Medical Laboratory Science and Biotechnology, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan

5 Department of Colorectal Surgery, China Medical University Hospital, Taichung, Taiwan

6 School of Medicine, China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan

7 Department of Bioinformatics and Medical Engineering, Asia University, Taichung, Taiwan

Correspondence

Jan‐Gowth Chang, Epigenome Research Center, China Medical University Hospital, 2 Yuh‐Der Road, Taichung 404, Taiwan. Email: d6781@mail.cmuh.org.tw

Funding information

China Medical University Hospital, Grant/ Award Number: DMR106-105

Abstract

Next-generation sequencing (NGS) technology is currently used to establish mutational profiles in many heterogeneous diseases. The aim of this study was to evaluate the mutational spectrum in Taiwanese patients with colorectal cancer (CRC) to help clinicians identify the best treatment method. Whole-exome sequencing was conducted in 32 surgical tumor tissues from patients with CRC. DNA libraries were generated using the Illumina TruSeq DNA Exome, and sequencing was performed on the Illumina NextSeq 500 system. Variants were annotated and compared to those obtained from publicly available databases. The analysis revealed frequent mutations in *APC* (59.38%), *TP53* (50%), *RAS* (28.13%), *FBXW7* (18.75%), *RAF* (9.38%), *PIK3CA* (9.38%), *SMAD4* (9.38%), and *SOX9* (9.38%). A mutation in *TCF7L2* was also detected, but at lower frequencies. Two or more mutations were found in 22 (68.75%) samples.

The mutation rates for the WNT, P53, RTK‐RAS, TGF‐β, and PI3K pathways were 78.13%, 56.25%, 40.63%, 18.75%, and 15.63%, respectively. RTK‐RAS pathway mutations were correlated with tumor size $(P = 0.028)$. We also discovered 23 novel mutations in *NRAS*, *PIK3CA*, *SOX9*, *APC*, *SMAD4*, *MSH3*, *MSH4*, *PMS1 PMS2*, *AXIN2*, *ERBB2*, *PIK3R1*, *TGFBR2*, and *ATM* that were not reported in the COSMIC, The Cancer Genome Atlas, and dbSNP databases. In summary, we report the mutational landscape of CRC in a Taiwanese population. NGS is a cost‐effective and time‐saving method, and we believe that NGS will help clinicians to treat CRC patients in the near future.

KEYWORDS

colorectal cancer, gene mutation, next‐generation sequencing, pathway mutation

1 | **INTRODUCTION**

Globally, colorectal cancer (CRC) is one of the most common human cancers and the fourth leading cause of cancer-related death among males and females, with an estimated 1.4 million new cases and $694\,000$ deaths from the disease annually.¹

In Taiwan, CRC ranked as the fourth leading cause of death, accounting for 14 965 cases diagnosed in 2012. CRC has increased significantly from 1990, with a growth rate of more than 2% per year worldwide. The likelihood of developing CRC is strongly correlated with old age, male gender, smoking, drinking alcohol, lack of exercise, being overweight, the

This is an open access article under the terms of the [Creative Commons Attribution](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/) License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

© 2019 The Authors. *Cancer Medicine* published by John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

TABLE 1 Clinical features of 32 colorectal cancer patients

Characteristic	n (Frequency)						
Age (years)							
Average: 60.47	Range: 35-90						
Sex							
Male	20						
Female	12						
Differentiation							
Low	$\overline{2}$						
Middle	28						
Middle to Low	\overline{c}						
AJCC stage							
I	$\overline{4}$						
IIA	15						
IIIB	5						
IIIC	$\overline{2}$						
IVA	$\mathbf{1}$						
IVB	$\overline{4}$						
NA	$\mathbf{1}$						
Regional lymph node metastasis							
N ₀	19						
N1	$\overline{4}$						
N ₂	7						
NA	$\overline{2}$						
Site							
Rectum	8						
Colon	24						

consumption of red and/or processed meat, and a history of diabetes. $2,3$

Epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) has been recognized as an effective anticancer target during the last few years. Monoclonal antibodies used to block EGFR in combination with chemotherapy or radiation have yielded improved outcomes in CRC patients with extended *RAS* wild‐type tumors. Mutations in the *RAS* and *BRAF* genes are harmful to anti‐EGFR therapy in metastatic CRC (mCRC).4 *RAS* and *BRAF* oncogene mutations are mutually exclusive and occur in 36.97% and 4.24% of CRC patients, respectively, as described in our previous work.⁵ Thus, identifying the unique genomic profiles and molecular phenotypes could help effectively establish the best treatment method in patients with anti‐EGFR therapy resistance.

CRC is one of the most interesting fields of next‐generation sequencing (NGS) application. The number of studies employing the NGS technique continues to increase. The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) project studied more than 224 CRC cases and showed that 24 genes, including *APC*, *TP53*, *SMAD4*, *PIK3CA*, and *KRAS*, contained significant

 | CHANG et al. **³⁷³⁹**

mutations. Three genes (*ARID1A*, *SOX9*, and *FAM123B/* WTX) were frequently mutated.⁶ Ashktorab et al analyzed 63 Iranian patients using targeted exome sequencing and found higher mutation rates of *MSH3*, *MSH6*, *APC*, and *PIK3CA* and hypothesized a larger role for these genes in CRC. They suggested the adoption of a specific informed genetic diagnostic protocol and tailored therapy in this population.⁷ Because patients with *RAS* wild‐type CRC can be non‐responders to EGFR‐targeted therapy, Geibler et al analyzed cell lines and tumor specimens to identify prediction markers by NGS, *EGFR* methylation and expression, and E-cadherin expression. The authors revealed *ATM* mutations and low E‐cadherin expression as novel supportive predictive markers.⁸ Adua et al analyzed primary tumor and liver metastasis samples from 7 *KRAS* wild‐type patients and compared the genotypes of 22 genes associated with anti‐EGFR before and after chemotherapy. The results showed marked genotypic differences between pre- and post-treatment samples, which were likely attributable to tumor cell clones selected by therapy.⁹ Gong et al analyzed 315 cancer-related genes and introns of 28 frequently rearranged genes in 138 mCRC cases using FoundationOne. They identified a novel KRAS mutation (R68S) associated with an aggressive phenotype. The authors reported that *ERBB2*‐amplified tumors may benefit from anti‐HER2 therapy, and hypermutated tumors or tumors with high tumor mutational burden with MSI‐H or *POLE* mutation may benefit from anti-PD-1 therapy.¹⁰

This study examined genetic alterations in CRC in a Taiwanese population. We performed whole‐exome sequencing (WES) to detect the mutational status in all human protein‐coding genes using fresh frozen tissue from 32 Taiwanese patients with CRC.

2 | **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

2.1 | **Study patients and tumor samples**

This study was approved by the China Medical University Hospital Institutional Review Board. A summary of all patient characteristics is provided in Table 1. Patients ranged in age from 35 to 90 years, with a median age of 62 years. DNA was extracted using a QIAamp® DNA Micro Kit (QIAGEN, Valencia, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Extracted DNA was immediately stored at −20°C until further processing. DNA concentration was measured by the Qubit dsDNA Assay Kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

2.2 | **WES and data analysis**

DNA libraries were prepared using the Illumina TruSeq Exome Library Prep Kit and sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq 500 platform. Base calling and quality scoring were performed by an updated implementation of Real‐Time Analysis in NextSeq500. Bcl2fastq Conversion Software **3740 WII FY** Cancer Medicine **CHANG ET AL.**

was used to demultiplex data and convert BCL files into FASTQ files. Sequenced reads were trimmed for low‐quality sequences and aligned to the human reference genome (hg 19) using Burrows-Wheeler Alignment.¹¹ Finally, single nucleotide polymorphisms and small insertion and deletion mutations were called in individual samples by the Genome Analysis Toolkit and VarScan using default settings.^{12,13} We then performed ANNOVAR to functionally annotate genetic variants.14 The following criteria were used to select confident somatic single nucleotide variants: mutant allele frequency >5%, global minor allele frequency <1%, or NA (comparing

the ExAC and 1000 Genome Databases data), eliminating known harmless variants present in ClinVar or the in-house polymorphism database, and predicted to be pathogenic by all three software programs (SIFT, PolyPhen‐2, and CADD).

2.3 | **Statistical analysis**

Comparisons between clinicopathological features and the status of critical pathway mutations in CRC were performed using Fisher's exact test. Two-sided *P*-values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

FIGURE 1 Overview of our approach used to identify variants

3 | **RESULTS**

3.1 | **WES analysis and coverage**

Using massive parallel sequencing on a NextSeq platform, we generated a mean of 157 M raw reads per sample, of which 141 M were aligned to the human reference genome (hg19; Table 2). The mean depth of the target regions for the 32 samples was 119× (range $34.79 - 197.53 \times$). The coverage of the target regions exceeded 97.97%. Figure 1 is an overview of our approach used to identifying variants.

3.2 | **CRC‐associated oncogene variants**

3.2.1 | *RAS* **mutations**

Overall, *RAS* mutations were present in 28.13% of our CRC patients (Figure 2). The most common *RAS* mutations were *KRAS* mutations in exon 2 (codons 12 and 13), including G12V (44.44%), G12C (11.11%), and G13D (11.11%). Beyond the well-established point mutations in codons 12 and 13 of exon 2 of *KRAS*, we identified mutations in codon 117 of exon 4 (K117N, 11.11%) and codon 146 of exon 4 (A146T, 11.11%). One mutation (11.11%) in codon 68 (exon

FIGURE 2 Proportion of *RAS*, *RAF* mutations, and *RAS*/*RAF* wild-type status identified by WES. WES, whole-exome sequencing

3) of *NRAS* was also detected; this was a novel alteration (R68I). The non‐synonymous variant at locus 115256508 had a C-to-A change mapped in the small GTP-binding protein domain, with an allele fraction of 21.19% (total reads 118, variant count 25) (Figure S1A). Together, these non‐ *KRAS* exon 2 mutations constituted 33.33% of all *RAS* mutations (Figure 3).

3.2.2 | *RAF* **mutations**

Two *RAF* mutations were found in 9.38% of our patients (Figure 2). Two patients (6.25%) had *BRAF* V600E mutations. One patient (3.13%) had an *ARAF* T256fs mutation.

FIGURE 3 Proportion of *RAS* alterations identified by WES. WES, whole-exome sequencing

None of the CRC patients with *RAS* mutations harbored a concomitant mutation in *RAF*. The remaining patients (62.5%) were *RAS*/*RAF* wild‐type (Figure 2).

3.2.3 | *PIK3CA* **mutations**

Three patients (9.38%) had *PIK3CA* mutation tumors. The mutation variants were R38S, G118D, and D350Y; D350Y was a novel mutation. The non-synonymous variant at locus 178921566 had a G‐to‐T change mapped in the phosphatidylinositol 3‐kinase, C2 domain, with an allele fraction of 17.53% (total reads 97, variant count 17) (Figure S1B).

3.2.4 | *TCF7L2* **mutations**

Two patients (6.25%) had *TCF7L2* mutation tumors. The identified variants were R471C, F357L, and G424E, and each patient had two of the three *TCF7L2* variants.

3.2.5 | *SOX9* **mutations**

Three patients (9.38%) had *SOX9* frameshift mutations. One patient had an S431fs mutation, another a G484fs mutation,

FIGURE 4 Frequency of genetic changes leading to deregulation of signaling pathways in CRC. CRC, colorectal cancer

and the third an S485fs mutation. The G484fs and S485fs mutations were novel variants (Figure S1C).

3.3 | **CRC‐associated tumor suppressor gene variants**

3.3.1 | *APC* **mutations**

In total, we identified 19 patients (59.38%) with *APC* alter ations. A total of 26 *APC* mutations were identified in the 19 samples, most of which were nonsense mutations that introduced a premature stop codon (R283*, S320*, Q541*, R564*, R876*, R1114*, Q1294*, E1309*, Q1367*, Q1378*, R1450*, E1544*, Q1916*, and R2204*). Six variants were frameshift deletions (L620fs, D1297fs, E1306fs, G1312fs, E1374fs, and E1397fs), 5 were frameshift insertions (L540fs, L852fs, T1292fs, L1302fs, and E1554fs,), and 1 was a mis sense mutation (S1400L). Among these mutations, 7 novel mutations were found (L540fs, T1292fs, D1297fs, L1302fs, E1306fs, E1374fs, and Q1916*) (Figure S1D).

3.3.2 | *TP53* **mutations**

Overall, *TP53* mutations were present in 50% of our CRC pa tients. Fifteen *TP53* mutations were identified in the 16 sam ples. All variants have been reported (L43fs, K132N, P151S, R175H, C176F, R196*, L206*, M237I, R245C, M246R, E258K, R273H, R273C, R282W, and R306*).

3.3.3 | *FBXW7* **mutations**

Six of the 32 samples (18.75%) had a mutation in *FBXW7*. Four *FBXW7* variants were found in the 6 samples. All variants have been reported (G80W, W307C, R347H, and R387C).

3.3.4 | *SMAD4* **mutations**

Three patients (9.38%) had *SMAD4* mutations. Two variants have been reported previously (G419R and R496H), and the other was novel (Y260_H261delins*). The frameshift variant at locus 48584605 had an A insertion with an allele fraction of 22.18% (total reads 284, variant count 63) (Figure S1E).

TABLE 3 Correlation between clinicopathological features and mutational status

 $\tilde{\mathbf{c}}$

ABLE Н

Correlation between clinicopathological features and mutational status

3.4 | **Mismatch repair (MMR) gene variants**

3.4.1 | *MLH1, MSH3, MSH4***,** *PMS1***, and** *PMS2* **mutations**

Five patients (15.63%) had mismatch repair (MMR) gene mu tations. Mutations in the MMR gene included *MLH1*, *MSH3, MSH4*, *PMS1*, and *PMS2*. The mutation variants were R385C and T117M in *MLH1*, A61delinsAAPA and E456K in *MSH3*,

 $\sqrt{11}$ FV

P‐Value by Fisher's Exact Test.P-Value by Fisher's Exact Test **3744 WII FY-Cancer Medicine CHANG ET AL.** CHANG ET AL.

E583* in *MSH4*, R265Q in *PMS1*, and L633I in *PMS2*. Among these, *MSH3* A61delinsAAPA and E456K, *MSH4* E583*, *PMS1* R265Q, and *PMS2* L633I were novel mutations (Figure S1F-I). The numbers of variants discovered in the MMR wildtype and mutation carriers are listed in Tables S1 and S2.

3.5 | **Altered signaling pathways in CRC**

Based on our analytical approach, we identified multiple genes in the RTK‐RAS, PI3K, TGF‐β, WNT, and P53 pathways. The *APC* gene in the WNT pathway had relatively high levels of somatic mutations compared to genes in the RTK‐ RAS, PI3K, TGF‐β, and P53 pathways. We found 10 different altered WNT pathway genes, including *LRP5*, *FZD10*, *APC*, *AXIN2*, *FAM123B*, *CTNNB1*, *TCF7L2*, *SOX9*, *FBXW7*, and *ARID1A*, confirming the importance of this pathway in CRC. We found that 78.13% of tumors had alterations in the WNT pathway. We also evaluated genetic alterations in the RTK‐RAS, PI3K, TGF‐β, and P53 pathways, with mutation rates of 40.63%, 15.63%, 18.75%, and 56.25%, respectively (Figure 4).

3.6 | **Pathway mutations and associations**

We compared the clinicopathological data of CRC patients with mutations in mutation-related pathways. The RTK-RAS pathway mutation rate was significantly higher in patients with a tumor size ≤ 4 cm compared to those with a tumor of >4 cm (57.89% versus 15.38%, $P = 0.028$). No clinicopathological variables were significantly correlated with WNT, PI3K, TGF‐β, or P53 pathway mutations (Table 3).

4 | **DISCUSSION**

All of the mutated genes discussed in our study have been previously classified as driver genes that confer a selective growth advantage to tumor cells harboring the mutations. CRC is similar to other cancers with only one or multiple driver gene mutations. Tumors with only one driver mutation, always in an oncogene, and with multiple driver mutations contain a combination of oncogene and tumor suppressor gene mutations.¹⁵ In our study, of the 4 samples with a single mutation (Table 4), 1 (25%) harbored a mutation in an oncogene (*KRAS*), and of the 22 samples with 2 or more mutations (Tables 5 and 6), 15 (68.18%) contained a combination of mutations in both oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes.

The integrative analysis of WES data provides insights into pathways that are dysregulated in CRC. The WNT signaling pathway was dysregulated in 78.13% of cases. WNT pathway mutations have been reported in 84.5%% of CRC

TABLE 4 Single point mutations detected in 32 colorectal cancer samples

TABLE 5 Double combination mutations detected in 32 colorectal cancer samples

Gene 1	Mutation 1	Gene 2	Mutation 2	Sex	Age (years)	Differentiation	AJCC stage
ARAF	p.T256fs	FBXW7	p.W307C	M	65	Middle to Low	NA
APC	$p.Q1916*$	MLH1	p.T117M	M	72	Middle	IIA
KRAS	p.G12V	<i>TP53</i>	p.C176F	$\boldsymbol{\mathrm{F}}$	57	Middle	IIIB
APC	p.Q1367*	TP53	p.R282W	M	61	Middle	IIIB
SOX9	p.G485fs	APC	$p.R283*$	F	78	Middle	IIA
APC	p.L540fs $p.R1450*$	TP53	p.L43fs	M	35	Middle	IIA
KRAS	p.G12V	APC	$p.R564*$ p.L1302fs	M	68	Middle	IIА
APC	$p. Q541*$	TP53	p.M246R	\mathbf{F}	58	Middle	IIA
APC	p.L620fs p.E1306fs	TP ₅₃	$p.L206*$	$\mathbf F$	47	Middle	I
APC	$p.S320*$ p.E1544*	FBXW7	p.R387C	\mathbf{F}	42	Middle	IIIB

WILEY

3746 WII FY-Cancer Medicine CHANG ET AL.

cases, which is higher than the mutation rate detected in our study.16 In 2012, the TCGA consortium reported that up to 93% of CRC cases involved at least 1 alteration in a known WNT regulator.⁶ Hyperactivation of the WNT pathway initiates the development of CRC, which predominantly occurs through inactivation of the APC gene.¹⁷ Several agents have been investigated to target this pathway, including WNT inhibitors (eg, Rofecoxib, PRI‐724, CWP232291) and a monoclonal antibody against frizzled receptors (e.g., vanituctumab).18 In addition to *APC* and *SOX9*, we also identified a novel mutation in *AXIN2* (p.R459L) (Figure S1J). The *AXIN2* mutation identified in the current study, R459, is located in the region that interacts with β‐catenin.

The frequency of alterations in the RTK‐RAS and PI3K pathways was 40.63% and 15.63%, respectively. RTK‐RAS and PI3K pathway mutations have been found in 60.7% and 30% of CRCs, respectively.¹⁶ In a normal cell, RTK-RAS and PI3K pathways control cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival.^{19,20} In a malignant cell, constitutive and aberrant activation of components of these pathways lead to increased cell growth, survival, and metastasis. Small molecule inhibitors, such as Sorafenib and PLX4720, which are currently being used to target BRAF p.V600E, have been developed to target the RTK‐RAS and PI3K pathways. NVP‐BEZ235 and BGT226 are being used to target the PI3K pathway in various cancers.21 In addition to *NRAS* and *PIK3CA*, we identified two novel mutations in *ERBB2* (p.W9fs) and *PIK3R1* (p.S147* and p.L161*) (Figure S1K,L). The *PIK3R1* p.S147* and p.L161* mutations were mapped to the Rho GTPase‐activating protein domain.

In our study population, the mutation rate of the TGF- β and P53 pathways was 18.75% and 56.25%, respectively. TGF‐β and P53 pathway mutations have been described in 28.9% and 69% of CRCs, respectively.¹⁶ The TGF- β signaling pathway has pleiotropic functions, including the regulation of cell growth, apoptosis, cell motility, and invasion. TGF- β signaling plays a key role in tumor initiation, development, and metastasis. Many TGF‐β pathway inhibitors, such as antisense oligonucleotides, neutralizing antibodies, and receptor kinase inhibitors, have been used in preclinical trials. For example, galunisertib is a TGFβR1 inhibitor that prevents signal transduction.22 Under cellular stress, such as DNA damage, oncogenes, oxidative free radicals, and UV irradiation, the P53 protein is activated. Activation of P53 can induce cell cycle arrest, senescence, and apoptosis. Small molecular inhibitors, such as MIs, nutlins, and RITA, have been tested as therapeutic agents in CRC by activating this pathway.23 In addition to *SMAD4*, we identified a novel mutation in *TGFBR2* (p.D549A) and *ATM* (p.E650*) (Figure S1M,N). Our relatively low rate of mutations in these 5 critical pathways may reflect our small sample size.

Most CRC samples can be grouped by WNT‐, RTK‐RAS‐, P53‐, TGF‐β‐, and PI3K‐dysregulated pathways. In our study population, 3 samples (3/32, 9.38%) had no mutation in any of these pathways. However, in these 3 samples, 2 had alterations in the Notch signaling pathway (*CTBP2*, *CREBBP*, *KAT2B*, *DVL2*, and *PSEN2*). Deregulation of Notch signaling in CRC has been reported.²⁴ The third sample exhibited alterations in cell adhesion molecules (*CNTN2*, *HLA‐DRB1*, *HLA‐DRB5*, and *NRXN3*). This indicates that it may be necessary to identify other dysregulated pathways to achieve therapeutic benefits.

We also compared the clinicopathological data of CRC patients with the mutational status of important signaling pathways in cancerous tissues. RTK‐RAS pathway mutations were correlated with tumor size $(P = 0.028)$. These results suggest that tumor progression is not linked to increased genetic instability, although this may be due to our small sample size and fact that most cases were stage II (48.39% cases); we need to collect more samples to confirm our results.

In conclusion, we identified recurrent mutations in genes such as *APC*, *TP53*, *KRAS*, and *FBXW7*, as well as unreported mutations in *NRAS*, *PIK3CA*, *SOX9*, *APC*, *SMAD4*, *MSH3*, *MSH4*, *PMS1 PMS2*, *AXIN2*, *ERBB2*, *PIK3R1*, *TGFBR2*, and *ATM* in a group of Taiwanese CRC patients. The data presented herein provide more comprehensive characteristics of the top deadly disease and identify a possibility for treating it in a targeted way.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work has been support by China Medical University Hospital grant (DMR106‐105).

ORCID

Jan-Gowth Chang **b** [https://orcid.](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0375-1427) [org/0000-0003-0375-1427](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0375-1427)

REFERENCES

- 1. Torre LA, Bray F, Siegel RL, Ferlay J, Lortet‐Tieulent J, Jemal A. Global cancer statistics, 2012. *CA: Cancer J Clin*. 2015;65(2):87‐108.
- 2. Brenner H, Kloor M, Pox CP. Colorectal cancer. *Lancet*. 2014;383(9927):1490‐1502.
- 3. Strum WB. Colorectal Adenomas. *N Engl J Med*. 2016;374(11):1065‐1075.
- 4. Gong J, Cho M, Fakih M. RAS and BRAF in metastatic colorectal cancer management. *J Gastrointest Oncol*. 2016;7(5):687‐704.
- 5. Chang YS, Chang SJ, Yeh KT, Lin TH, Chang JG. RAS, BRAF, and TP53 gene mutations in Taiwanese colorectal cancer patients. *Onkologie*. 2013;36(12):719‐724.
- 6. Cancer Genome Atlas N. Comprehensive molecular characterization of human colon and rectal cancer. *Nature*. 2012;487(7407):330‐337.
- 7. Ashktorab H, Mokarram P, Azimi H, et al. Targeted exome sequencing reveals distinct pathogenic variants in Iranians with colorectal cancer. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(5):7852‐7866.

CANGET AL. CANGET AL. 3747

-
- 8. Geißler A‐L, Geißler M, Kottmann D, et al. ATM mutations and E‐cadherin expression define sensitivity to EGFR‐targeted therapy in colorectal cancer. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(10):17164‐17190.
- 9. Adua D, Di Fabio F, Ercolani G, et al. Heterogeneity in the colorectal primary tumor and the synchronous resected liver metastases prior to and after treatment with an anti‐EGFR monoclonal antibody. *Mol Clin Oncol*. 2017;7(1):113‐120.
- 10. Gong J, Cho M, Sy M, Salgia R, Fakih M. Molecular profiling of metastatic colorectal tumors using next-generation sequencing: a single‐institution experience. *Oncotarget*. 2017;8(26):42198‐42213.
- 11. Li H, Durbin R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler transform. *Bioinformatics*. 2009;25(14):1754‐1760.
- 12. McKenna A, Hanna M, Banks E, et al. The Genome Analysis Toolkit: a MapReduce framework for analyzing next‐generation DNA sequencing data. *Genome Res*. 2010;20(9):1297‐1303.
- 13. Koboldt DC, Zhang Q, Larson DE, et al. VarScan 2: somatic mutation and copy number alteration discovery in cancer by exome sequencing. *Genome Res*. 2012;22(3):568‐576.
- 14. Wang K, Li M, Hakonarson H. ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic variants from high‐throughput sequencing data. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2010;38(16):e164.
- 15. Vogelstein B, Papadopoulos N, Velculescu VE, Zhou S, Diaz LA Jr, Kinzler KW. Cancer genome landscapes. *Science*. 2013;339(6127):1546‐1558.
- 16. Lee D‐W, Han S‐W, Cha Y, et al. Association between mutations of critical pathway genes and survival outcomes according to the tumor location in colorectal cancer. *Cancer*. 2017;123(18):3513‐3523.
- 17. Schatoff EM, Leach BI, Dow LE. WNT signaling and colorectal cancer. *Curr Colorectal Cancer Rep*. 2017;13(2):101‐110.
- 18. Bahrami A, Amerizadeh F, ShahidSales S, et al. Therapeutic potential of targeting Wnt/β‐catenin pathway in treatment of colorectal cancer: rational and progress. *J Cell Biochem*. 2017;118(8):1979‐1983.
- 19. Nandan MO, Yang VW. An update on the biology of RAS/RAF mutations in colorectal cancer. *Curr Colorectal Cancer Rep*. 2011;7(2):113‐120.
- 20. Zenonos K, Kyprianou K. RAS signaling pathways, mutations and their role in colorectal cancer. *World J Gastrointest Oncol*. 2013;5(5):97‐101.
- 21. Regad T, Targeting R. Signaling pathways in cancer. *Cancers*. 2015;7(3):1758‐1784.
- 22. Neuzillet C, Tijeras‐Raballand A, Cohen R, et al. Targeting the TGFβ pathway for cancer therapy. *Pharmacol Ther*. 2015;147:22‐31.
- 23. Li XL, Zhou J, Chen ZR, Chng WJ. P53 mutations in colorectal cancer—molecular pathogenesis and pharmacological reactivation. *World J Gastroenterol*. 2015;21(1):84‐93.
- 24. Vinson KE, George DC, Fender AW, Bertrand FE, Sigounas G. The Notch pathway in colorectal cancer. *Int J Cancer*. 2016;138(8):1835‐1842.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

How to cite this article: Chang Y‐S, Lee C‐C, Ke T‐W, et al. Molecular characterization of colorectal cancer using whole‐exome sequencing in a Taiwanese population. *Cancer Med*. 2019;8:3738–3747. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.1002/cam4.2282) [org/10.1002/cam4.2282](https://doi.org/10.1002/cam4.2282)