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80	Abstract	<p>Occurrence of genetic and epigenetic alterations affecting p14ARF and p16INK4A were investigated in tumour samples of 37 oral (OSCC) and 28 laryngeal squamous cell cancer (LSCC) patients, and compared to exfoliated buccal epithelial cells of 68 healthy controls. Presence of deletions and mutations/polymorphisms affecting exons were examined using sequencing. Methylation status of promoters was assessed by methylation-specific PCR. Chi-square and Fisher's exact tests were used to compare frequency of events. Exon deletions were found in four controls, one OSCC and 22 LSCC patients; the latter significantly differed from controls (<math>p &lt; 0.001</math>). Only two mutations (T24610A and C24702A) were in p16 exon 1 of two OSCC patients. Polymorphisms G28575A (Ala140Thr), G31292C (C540G) and G28608A were found in both patient groups. The p14 promoter was unmethylated in 86.7 % of OSCC and in 85.7 % of LSCC patients; for the p16 promoter these rates were 69.0 % and 76.2 % for OSCC and LSCC patients, respectively. Combining the two patient groups, unmethylated promoter was significantly less frequent in case of both p14 and p16 (<math>p = 0.043</math> and <math>p = 0.001</math>, respectively) compared to the control group. In summary, exon deletion may be important in LSCC, while promoter methylation was relatively frequent in both patient groups.</p>	
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81	Keywords	<p>Oral squamous cell cancer - Laryngeal squamous cell cancer - separated by ' - ' Tumour suppressor gene - Promoter methylation</p>	

82 Foot note  
information

# Frequency of Genetic and Epigenetic Alterations of p14ARF and p16INK4A in Head and Neck Cancer in a Hungarian Population

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**Abstract** Occurrence of genetic and epigenetic alterations affecting p14ARF and p16INK4A were investigated in tumour samples of 37 oral (OSCC) and 28 laryngeal squamous cell cancer (LSCC) patients, and compared to exfoliated buccal epithelial cells of 68 healthy controls. Presence of deletions and mutations/polymorphisms affecting exons were examined using sequencing. Methylation status of promoters was assessed by methylation-specific PCR. Chi-square and Fisher's exact tests were used to compare frequency of events. Exon deletions were found in four controls, one OSCC and 22 LSCC patients; the latter significantly differed from controls ( $p < 0.001$ ). Only two mutations (T24610A and C24702A) were in p16 exon 1 of two OSCC patients. Polymorphisms G28575A (Ala140Thr), G31292C (C540G) and G28608A were found in both patient groups. The p14 promoter was unmethylated in 86.7 % of OSCC and in 85.7 % of LSCC patients; for the p16 promoter these rates were 69.0 % and 76.2 % for OSCC and LSCC patients, respectively. Combining the two patient groups, unmethylated promoter was significantly less frequent in case of both p14 and p16 ( $p = 0.043$  and  $p = 0.001$ , respectively) compared to the control group. In summary, exon deletion may be important in LSCC,

while promoter methylation was relatively frequent in both patient groups.

**Keywords** Oral squamous cell cancer · Laryngeal squamous cell cancer · Tumour suppressor gene · Promoter methylation

## Introduction

Head and neck cancer is a heterogeneous group of malignant diseases. It is the sixth most common malignancy and accounting for more than 500,000 new cases annually and approximately 350,000 deaths per year [1–3]. Though it is widely accepted that mainly chemical carcinogens (especially smoking and alcohol consumption) are involved in the aetiology of head and neck squamous cell cancer (HNSCC) [3–6]; a portion (approximately 15–20 %) of HNSCC develops in non-smoker and non-drinker patients [7, 8]. This suggests the role of additional factors such as dietary habit, genetic predisposition as well as oncogenic viruses, e.g. human papillomaviruses (HPVs) or the Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) [9–13]. As the mentioned viruses interact with the tumour suppressor pathways involving the retinoblastoma protein (pRB) and the p53 tumour suppressor proteins, the concerted action of these viruses with genetic/epigenetic variations or alterations in the genes of these pathways offers a likely explanation for carcinogenesis.

Such tumour suppressor genes in these pathways are the p16INK4A and the p14ARF, encoded by the INK4A/ARF locus containing four exons (1 $\alpha$ , 1 $\beta$ , 2 and 3) localized on chromosome 9p21, which is one of the major sites of chromosomal abnormalities in human tumours. The p16INK4A is encoded by exons 1 $\alpha$ , 2 and 3, while p14ARF is encoded by exons 1 $\beta$ , 2 (and possibly also by exon 3); the two proteins use the second exon with alternative reading frames, thus

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68 sharing a common second [14] and possibly also a third exon  
69 [15, 16]. The p16INK4A is a cyclin-dependent kinase inhibi-  
70 tor and can inhibit cyclin D-Cdk4/6 thus preventing  
71 hyperphosphorylation of pRB. The p14 interacts physically  
72 with MDM-2 and stabilizes the p53 tumour suppressor protein  
73 in the nucleus by blocking its cytoplasmic transport and  
74 MDM-2-mediated degradation [14, 15]. In this manner, both  
75 p16INK4A and p14ARF plays a role in inhibition of G1 to S  
76 transition in the cell cycle.

77 Genetic and epigenetic alterations of tumour suppressor  
78 genes, including p16INK4A and p14ARF, were found to  
79 contribute to tumourgenesis in various types of cancer  
80 [17–20]. Polymorphisms G28575A (Ala140Thr) in the p16  
81 gene is generally regarded as neutral [21]; G31292C in the  
82 non-coding region (C540G at mRNA level) and C580T  
83 shown to be protective in cervical and ovarian cancer, respec-  
84 tively [22, 23]. However, C580T or both was shown to be  
85 associated with faster progression in pancreatic cancer [24,  
86 25] or melanoma [35], respectively. The polymorphisms  
87 C540G and C580T were shown to be neutral for squamous  
88 head and neck cancers [27].

89 The aim of this study was to determine the frequency of the  
90 genetic alterations and promoter inactivation through methyl-  
91 ation of p16INK4A and p14ARF tumour suppressor genes in  
92 patients with HNSSC of known virological (HPV and EBV)  
93 status in an Eastern Hungarian population [28, 29].

## 94 Materials and Methods

### 95 Patients, Specimens and DNA Extraction

96 Patients and controls were recruited between 2001 and 2007  
97 from Department of ~~Maxillofacial and Oral~~ Surgery (oral  
98 squamous cell cancer patients) and Department of  
99 Periodontology (healthy controls), Faculty of Dentistry, as  
100 well as from the Clinic of Otorhinolaryngology and Head  
101 and Neck Surgery (laryngeal squamous cell cancer patients)  
102 at the University of Debrecen, Hungary. All participants  
103 signed an informed consent; the study was conducted under  
104 the supervision of the local Ethics Committee (No. of Ethics  
105 Committee approval 2273–2004).

106 Thirty-seven patients with oral squamous cell carcinoma  
107 (OSCC) (28 ~~male~~, 9 ~~female~~; mean age 54.5; age-range 39–80)  
108 and 28 patients with laryngeal squamous cell carcinoma  
109 (LSCC) (27 ~~male~~, 1 ~~female~~; mean age 56.8; age-range 43–  
110 71) were enrolled. Individuals of both groups were newly  
111 diagnosed and none of the patients received neoadjuvant  
112 chemo- or radiotherapy before the surgical intervention and  
113 specimen collection. All individuals fulfilling the inclusion  
114 criteria and agreeing to participate were enrolled. Fresh tissue  
115 samples were obtained from the central part of the tumours  
116 during operation.

117 As an age-matched control population, 68 healthy individ-  
118 uals (16 ~~male~~, 52 ~~female~~; mean age 52.4; age-range 22–77)  
119 without history of oral cancer and with healthy mucosa at-  
120 tending the Faculty of Dentistry for regular oral screening  
121 were sampled. Exfoliated buccal epithelial cells were collect-  
122 ed from the controls using cytobrush after a thorough rinse of  
123 the mouth with physiological saline. Importantly, control in-  
124 dividuals lived in the same geographical area (Eastern  
125 Hungary) where the patients came from.

126 Occurrence of human papillomaviruses and Epstein-Barr  
127 virus in these samples has been reported elsewhere [28, 29].

128 All samples were frozen immediately after collection  
129 at  $-70^{\circ}\text{C}$  and stored at this temperature until use. From  
130 tumour tissue (OSCC and LSCC) samples, the DNA was  
131 isolated using TRI Reagent (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA)  
132 according to manufacturers' recommendations. Exfoliated  
133 cells were treated with proteinase K-SDS, proteins were  
134 removed by 5 M NaCl treatment, and finally, DNA was  
135 precipitated with 96 % ethanol.

### 136 Polymerase Chain Reaction and Single Strand Conformation 137 Polymorphism Analysis (PCR-SSCP)

138 Quality of the DNA was confirmed by PCR-amplification of  
139 the  $\beta$ -globin gene. Exon deletions in the p16INK4A/p14ARF  
140 locus were analysed by means of PCR assays described earlier  
141 using primers complementary to intron sequences close to the  
142 exon boundaries [30–32]. Briefly, the 25  $\mu\text{l}$  PCR mixture was  
143 composed 1 $\times$  PCR buffer containing 250–250  $\mu\text{M}$  of each  
144 dNTP, 25 pmol of each primer, 0.5 U of GoTaq DNA poly-  
145 merase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and 2  $\mu\text{l}$  (100–300 ng)  
146 template DNA. PCR conditions were  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 3 min, followed  
147 35 cycles of  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  denaturing for 1 min, annealing at temper-  
148 atures  $56$ – $63^{\circ}\text{C}$  depending on the primers used (see Table 1)  
149 for 1 min,  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$  elongation for 1 min with a final extension of  
150 7 min at  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Sensitivity of the four exon-specific PCR assays  
151 was determined on serial dilutions of DNA extracted from  
152 primary keratinocyte cell culture and human fibroblast cells to  
153 exclude bias caused by differences in PCR sensitivity. All  
154 assays were run in ~~duplicates~~. Samples repeatedly not yielding  
155 PCR product was considered as with a deleted respective exon.

156 Single nucleotide polymorphisms/point mutations were  
157 sought for by means of SSCP analyses of the amplified exons  
158 digested with different restriction enzymes. p16INK4A exon  
159 1 and 2 PCR products were digested with SmaI (Fermentas,  
160 Vilnius, Lithuania) while in case of p14ARF exon 1 DdeI  
161 (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) was applied. Human fibro-  
162 blast cells were used as a wild-type reference. PCR products  
163 were diluted in a buffer containing 95 % formamide, 0.05 %  
164 bromophenol blue and 0.05 % xylene cyanol, heat denatured  
165 at  $95^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 5 min and then loaded onto a denaturing 18 %  
166 polyacrylamide gel. Electrophoresis was performed at 300 V  
167 for 4–6 h at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$ . After electrophoresis, the gel was stained by

Primer ID	Primers	Product size (bp)	Annealing temperature (°C)
<b>Table 1</b> Primers used for amplification and sequencing of tumour suppressor gene exons			
PCR-SSCP			
p14 exon 1β	F: CTGCTCACCTCTGGTGCCAA R: TCTCCTCCTCCTCCTAGCCT	367	62
p16 exon 1α	F: GGAGGAAGAAAGAGGAGGG R: ACTTCGTCCTCCAGAGTCG	316	63
p16 exon 2	F: GCTCTGACCATTCTGTTCTC R: CTCAGATCATCAGTCCTCAC	355	56
p16 exon 3	F: GTAGGGACGGCAAGAGA R: ACCTTCGGTGACTGATG	159	60
Methylation-specific PCR			
p14 U	F: TTTTGGTGTTAAAGGGTGGTGTAGT R: CACAAAAACCCTCACTACAACAA	132	61
p14 M	F: GTGTAAAGGGCGCGTAGC R: AAAACCCTCACTCGCGACGA	122	61
p16 U	F: TTATTAGAGGGTGGGGTGGATTGT R: CAACCCCAAACCACAACCATAA	151	63
p16 M	F: TTATTAGAGGGTGGGGCGGATCGC R: GACCCCGAACCGCGACCGTAA	150	63

t1.11 SSCP: single strand conformation polymorphism; bp base pairs; F: forward primer; R: reverse primer; U: unmethylated; M: methylated

168 silver precipitation. Fragments with electrophoretic mobility  
 169 different from the wild type were analysed by direct sequenc-  
 170 ing to confirm and characterize the nature of the alteration.  
 171 Exons of tumour suppressor genes were amplified using the  
 172 abovementioned primers and conditions. PCR products were  
 173 purified by EZ-10 Spin Column DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Bio  
 174 Basic Inc., East Markham Ontario, Canada) and sequenced by  
 175 the Sanger chain termination method using the BigDye  
 176 Terminator Kit (Life Technologies) in an ABI 3100-Avant  
 177 Genetic Analyser. Resulting sequences were compared to the  
 178 GenBank reference sequence (Accession Number NG007485).  
 179 When sequencing suggested heterozygosity, this was con-  
 180 firmed by cloning and sequencing of ten clones. TA cloning  
 181 of the PCR fragments was performed with pGEM-T Easy  
 182 vector (Promega, Madison, USA). Transformed cells were  
 183 recovered on duplicate LB agar plates supplemented with am-  
 184 picillin (100 µg/mL). Ten colonies were tested further; plasmids  
 185 were isolated by PureYield Plasmid Miniprep System  
 186 (Promega, Madison, USA) kit according to the protocol pro-  
 187 vided. Sequencing of the inserted PCR fragments was carried  
 188 out as described above.

189 Methylation Analysis of the p16INK4A and p14 ARF  
 190 Promoters

191 Promoter hypermethylation of the p16INK4A and p14ARF  
 192 genes was determined by methylation-specific PCR as de-  
 193 scribed Herman et al. [33]. First, genomic DNA was modified  
 194 with sodium bisulphite. Briefly, 1 µg DNA was treated with  
 195 NaOH (final concentration 0.3 M) for 20 min at 42 °C. Freshly  
 196 prepared 3.8 M sodium bisulphite and 1 nM hydroquinone  
 solution (pH 5.0) were added and incubated at 55 °C for 16 h.  
 Modified DNA was purified on Wizard DNA Clean-Up sys-  
 tem (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) according to the protocol  
 provided by the manufacturer, ethanol precipitated and resus-  
 pended in water. The methylation-specific PCR was per-  
 formed using primers (Table 1.) and conditions as described  
 earlier with minor modifications [33]. Briefly, the 25 µl PCR  
 mixture contained 1× AmpliTaq Gold PCR buffer, 250 µM of  
 each dNTP, 25 pmol of each primer, 0.5 U AmpliTaq Gold  
 DNA polymerase (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA,  
 USA) and 2 µl template DNA. PCR conditions were as  
 follows: 95 °C for 5 min, the 35 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s,  
 62 °C for 30 s, 72 °C for 30 s and finally 72 °C for 4 min.  
 Methylation status was determined based on the PCR patterns  
 seen. BL41 (methylated for p16INK4A; CRL-2323) and  
 Ramos (methylated for p14ARF; CRL-1596) as well as  
 Namalwa cell lines (CRL-1432) were used as methylated  
 and unmethylated controls, respectively.

Statistical Analysis

Frequency of genetic differences or epigenetic alterations was  
 compared between study populations using chi-square test or  
 Fisher exact test, survival was analysed with Kaplan-Meier  
 test by means of SPSS for Windows 15.0.

**Results**

Sensitivities of the exon-specific PCR assays were uniformly  
 as low as 1 ng total DNA. Among the controls four individuals



223 were found lacking one or more exon-specific amplimers; one  
 224 showed p16 exon-1 $\alpha$  deletion, another exhibited lack of p16  
 225 exon2 amplimer, two individuals has deletion in two exons,  
 226 one in p16 exon-1 $\alpha$  and 2, another in p14 exon1 $\beta$  and p16  
 227 exon3. Out of the 37 patients with OSCC, only one patient  
 228 showed lack of p16 exon1 $\alpha$ , all other exons were detected in  
 229 all other patients. In patients with LSCC, deletion of at least  
 230 one of the three exons (exon1 $\alpha$ , 2 and 3) of p16INK4A was  
 231 observed in 21 cases (75.0 %), while 10 cases (35.7 %) showed  
 232 p14 exon1 $\beta$  deletion; ten of 28 LSCC samples showed deletion  
 233 in p14ARF exon1 $\beta$ ; 19 in exon1 $\alpha$ ; nine in exon2 and only  
 234 two samples in exon3 of p16INK4A. Regarding inactivation  
 235 by exon deletion, p14 is inactivated in three controls, none of  
 236 the OSCC, and 14 of the LSCC patients; p16 is inactivated in  
 237 four controls, one OSCC and 21 LSCC patients; both are lost  
 238 in three controls, none of the OSCC and thirteen of the LSCC  
 239 patients. This corresponds to a significantly different distribu-  
 240 tion of deletions in LSCC as compared to the controls or to  
 241 OSCC patients ( $p < 0.001$  in both comparisons).

242 The SSCP alterations confirmed the presence of two mu-  
 243 tations, a homozygous T24610A nucleotide change in the  
 244 non-coding region of p16 exon1 $\alpha$  and a heterozygous  
 245 C24702A change in the coding region of p16 exon1 $\alpha$ , leading  
 246 to an Ala13Asp acid change. Three polymorphisms were  
 247 identified. A G28575A polymorphism in exon2 correspond-  
 248 ing to alanine and threonine variants at codon 140, all present  
 249 heterozygously. A G31292C polymorphism was found in the  
 250 non-coding region of exon3 found in homozygous and het-  
 251 erozygous forms in six and seven patients, respectively; this  
 252 correspond to the C540G polymorphism at the mRNA level.  
 253 The third polymorphism G28608A was detected in the non-  
 254 coding region of exon2, always heterozygously. The occur-  
 255 rence of mutations/polymorphisms in the patients and controls  
 256 is shown in Table 2.

257 Examining the promoter methylation patterns, bisulphite  
 258 modification was successful in case of the p14 promoter for all  
 259 68 controls, for 30 of 37 OSCC and for all 28 LSCC samples;  
 260 in case of the p16 promoter success rates were 68 of 68, 29 of  
 261 37, and 21 of 28 for control, OSCC and LSCC samples,  
 262 respectively.

263 Neither p14 nor p16 promoter was found to be completely  
 264 methylated in samples obtained from healthy individuals; the  
 265 p14 and the p16 promoters were unmethylated in 97.1 % (66/  
 266 68) and 95.6 % (65/68) of the controls, respectively. Two and  
 267 three individuals showed partial methylation of p14 and p16  
 268 promoters, respectively.

269 In OSCC tumour samples, p14 promoter was unmethylated  
 270 in 86.7 % (26/30) of the patients; complete and partial meth-  
 271 ylation was found in one and three patients, respectively. The  
 272 p16 promoter was unmethylated in 69.0 % (20/29) of patients,  
 273 which correspond to complete and partial methylation in three  
 274 and six patients. Thus, unmethylated promoters were signifi-  
 275 cantly less frequent in case of p16 promoter ( $p = 0.001$ ) as

**Table 2** Distribution of mutations and polymorphisms in p16INK4A  
 exons of patients. Patients not shown did not carry mutations and poly-  
 morphisms; mutations or polymorphisms in the p14ARF were not found.  
 In case of heterozygous alterations the nucleotides of both strands are  
 shown separated by a slash

Exon	p16 exon1 $\alpha$		p16 exon2		p16 exon3		
	24610	24702	28575	28608	31292		
Reference (Accession number NG007485)	T	C	G	G	G	t2.2	
Control	K36		G/A			t2.3	
OSCC patients	M03	A				t2.4	
	M54		C/A			t2.5	
	M20			G/A		t2.6	
	M23			G/A	G/A	t2.7	
	M33				G/A	t2.8	
	M68				G/A	t2.9	
	M37					C	t2.10
	M65					C	t2.11
	M76					G/C	t2.12
	M29					G/C	t2.13
LSCC patients	M30					C	t2.14
	M71					G/C	t2.15
	T67			G/A			t2.16
	T38				G/A	G/C	t2.17
	T12					G/C	t2.18
	T16					C	t2.19
	T17					C	t2.20
	T35					G/C	t2.21
	T47					G/C	t2.22
	T54					C	t2.23
Amino acid change in coding regions			Ala13Asp	Ala140Thr		t2.24	

OSCC: oral squamous cell cancer; LSCC: laryngeal squamous cell cancer

276 compared to the control group. In case of the p14ARF  
 277 unmethylated promoters were also less frequent, but this was  
 278 not significant statistically ( $p = 0.069$ ).

279 In case of LSCC, the p14 promoter was unmethylated in  
 280 85.7 % (24/28) of patients; one and three patients had  
 281 completely methylated promoters and partial methylation,  
 282 respectively. The p16 promoter was unmethylated in 76.2 %  
 283 (16/21) of the patients, five patients showed partial methyla-  
 284 tion of the promoter; complete promoter methylation was not  
 285 found. Similarly to OSCC, these data differ significantly from  
 286 the healthy controls regarding the methylation status of the  
 287 p16 ( $p = 0.016$ ) but not of the p14 ( $p = 0.058$ ) promoter.  
 288 Between the methylation status of the two patient groups there  
 289 was no statistically significant difference in either comparison.

290 Combining the two patient groups to a group of head and  
 291 neck cancer patients, unmethylated promoter was significantly

292 less frequent in case of both p14 and p16 ( $p=0.043$  and  
293  $p=0.001$ , respectively) compared to the control group.

294 Table 3. summarizes the number of individuals in each  
295 group showing mutational inactivation of the tumour suppres-  
296 sor genes or promoter hypermethylation. Association of ge-  
297 netic events or promoter hypermethylation with presence or  
298 absence of human papillomaviruses or Epstein-Barr virus was  
299 not found.

300 Mean tumour-free survival time was 870 (93–1,807) days  
301 and 951 (167–2,988) days for OSCC and LSCC patients,  
302 respectively. Exon deletions in case of LSCC and p16 pro-  
303 moter methylation in case of OSCC led to poorer tumour free  
304 survival, but neither was statistically significant ( $p=0.054$  and  
305  $0.108$ , respectively).

306 **Discussion**

307 Major inactivating mechanism of p14ARF and p16INK4A  
308 gene is deletion, mutation and/or promoter methylation.  
309 Promoter methylation of p16INK4A was shown to be a rela-  
310 tively early event in the development of OSCC [34]. A num-  
311 ber of authors reported data on the prevalence of genetic as  
312 well as epigenetic alterations (mostly on promoter methyla-  
313 tion) affecting these genes in head and neck cancer, but the  
314 occurrence of these alterations varies widely among the stud-  
315 ies; e.g. promoter methylation rates vary from 5 to 68 % and  
316 14–34 % in case of p16ink4a and p14ARF, respectively, as  
317 reviewed by Demokan et al. [3]. As the majority of these  
318 studies concentrated on prevalence and used few or no healthy  
319 controls or other means to allow for statistical evaluation, the  
320 importance of genetic or functional inactivation of p16INK4A  
321 and/or p14ARF remains controversial in head and neck  
322 cancers.

323 According to the hereby presented data, major deletions  
324 may be important inactivation mechanisms for both genes in  
325 LSCC but not in OSCC; deletions in p16 may even affect  
326 survival. This is in agreement with a number of earlier studies

on OSCC or head and neck cancer [18, 35, 36]. In contrast,  
some studies reported relatively high deletion rates in OSCC  
[20, 36, 37]. The difference between the present results and  
the cited Japanese and Indian data may represent geographical  
differences, while the contrast with data derived from studies  
of mainly Caucasian patients may be due to differences in  
exposure to chemical carcinogens (smoking or dietary habits),  
which were unfortunately unrecorded in the cited studies.  
Published studies reporting deletion rates specifically in  
LSCC were not found.

Curiously, results suggesting major deletions were also  
found in a small number of healthy individuals. These may  
be regarded as individuals with higher risk of tumours, or as  
results due to less important genetic events, e.g. polymor-  
phism, mutation or deletion in primer binding sites. This also  
points to a potential limitation of studies using such an ap-  
proach (including the present one), i.e. a repeatedly negative  
PCR assay may not only be due to lack of amplifiable se-  
quences. This study tried to minimize such a possibility by  
running the assays in triplicates and by assessing PCR sensi-  
tivity to exclude negative results due to low sensitivity caused  
e.g. by mutations affecting primer binding sites. Another  
limitation of the approach is that only homozygous deletions  
can be detected.

The role of p14ARF and p16INK4A mutations in  
tumourgenesis seems to be small, as only two mutations were  
found. Most alterations found correspond to well-known poly-  
morphisms of the exons involved. Though such polymor-  
phisms were shown to play a role in some cancers [23, 26],  
in the study population they do not seem to be important, as all  
alterations found in the coding region were heterozygous and  
mutations consistently associated with tumour tissue were not  
found. Previous studies report similarly low mutation carriage  
rates in the two genes in head and neck cancer patients [36, 38,  
39]. Occurrence of mutations was shown to be slightly higher  
in recurrent tumours [40]. Moreover, two of the three poly-  
morphisms detected were previously shown to be neutral in  
head and neck cancer [27].

t3.1 **Table 3** Distribution of genetic and epigenetic alterations in the different study groups

		p14ARF			p16INK4A			
		Control	OSCC	LSCC	Control	OSCC	LSCC	
t3.4	Exon deletions	4.4 % (3/68)	ND	50.0 % (14/28)	5.9 % (4/68)	2.7 % (1/37)	75.0 % (21/28)	
t3.5	Mutations	ND	ND	ND	ND	5.4 % (2/37)	ND	
t3.6	Polymorphisms	ND	ND	ND	1.5 % (1/68)	27.0 % (10/37)	28.6 % (8/28)	
t3.7	Promoter methylation status	m	ND	3.3 % (1/30)	3.6 % (1/28)	ND	10.3 % (3/29)	ND
t3.8		m/u	2.9 % (2/68)	10.0 % (3/30)	10.7 % (3/28)	4.4 % (3/68)	20.7 % (6/29)	23.8 % (5/21)
t3.9		u	97.1 % (66/68)	86.7 % (4/30)	85.7 % (4/28)	95.6 % (3/68)	69 % (20/29)	76.2 % (16/21)

OSCC: oral squamous cell cancer; LSCC: laryngeal squamous cell cancer; m: methylated promoter; m/u: partially methylated promoter; u: unmethylated promoter; ND: not detected

365 Methylation status of the promoters suggests an at least  
 366 moderate importance of promoter methylation in functional  
 367 inactivation of p16INK4a; less in case of p14ARF. Many of  
 368 these samples exhibited partial methylation similarly to the  
 369 findings of Shintani et al. and Kulkarni et al. [18, 41]. This  
 370 may be caused not only by partial methylation of the promoter  
 371 and consequent false priming, but also by heterogeneity of the  
 372 sample tissue, e.g. the bulk or a part of the tumour  
 373 hypermethylated, while the normal tissue present in the ex-  
 374 cised section (or part of the tumour) with very low or no  
 375 methylation level [18, 21].

376 Methylation of the p16INK4A and the p14ARF promoters  
 377 is a generally recognized epigenetic event in the literature in  
 378 many cancer types including squamous cell cancer of the head  
 379 and neck [39, 40] or the oesophagus [42], as well as in lung  
 380 cancer [17]. Association of promoter methylation with dietary  
 381 habits characteristic to certain geographical regions was dem-  
 382 onstrated in case of oesophageal squamous cell cancer [42].  
 383 High frequency of hypermethylation of p16 promoter was  
 384 even shown in oral epithelial dysplasia [43]. In the present  
 385 study, p16 promoter methylation was significantly more fre-  
 386 quent both in OSCC and LSCC than in healthy individuals; in  
 387 OSCC it may also affect survival unfavourably. Methylation  
 388 of the p14 promoter was also more frequent, but statistical  
 389 significance was seen only in case of OSCC.

390 It was shown that promoter methylation at critical CpG  
 391 islands is the main epigenetic silencing mechanism;  
 392 hypermethylated promoters are always inactive [44].  
 393 Acetylation and methylation of histone proteins modify gene  
 394 expression only in case of promoters where most or all CpG  
 395 islands are unmethylated [44]; micro RNAs play an exclu-  
 396 sively inhibitory role by promoting degradation of mRNA  
 397 [45]. Consequently, the gene expression levels suffer some  
 398 decrease even in case of partially methylated promoters;  
 399 therefore our data represent a conservative estimate of the  
 400 importance of epigenetic inactivation.

401 These data suggest that the importance of different genetic  
 402 events as well as of promoter methylation affecting the  
 403 p16INK4A and p14ARF tumour suppressor genes differs in  
 404 different types of head and neck cancer. Exon mutations seem  
 405 to be infrequent and consequently unimportant events both in  
 406 LSCC and OSCC. In OSCC, promoter methylation seems to  
 407 be the most frequent event, especially in case of the p16  
 408 promoter. In LSCC, both promoter methylation (mainly af-  
 409 fecting the p16 promoter) and exon deletions seem to play a  
 410 role in gene inactivation. The effect of these events on survival  
 411 needs to be confirmed in larger cohorts. The findings are  
 412 strengthened by the low rate of these events in the healthy  
 413 control population.

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