

DETECTION OF EBV AND HPV IN ORAL SQUAMOUS CELL CARCINOMA AND AMELOBLASTOMA: REAL TIME POLYMERASE CHAIN REACTION STUDY

Abstract

Background: Head and neck cancer (HNC) includes several malignancies that originate in the paranasal sinuses, nasal cavity, salivary glands, oral cavity, pharynx, and larynx. The burden of viral infections in cancer is high but underappreciated by much of the cancer research community. The purpose of this study was to examine the association between HPV and EBV with oral squamous cell carcinoma and ameloblastoma assessed by detection of their DNA in these tissues and to correlate the presence of the viral DNA and aggressiveness of these tumors.

Methods: Thirty formalin fixed and paraffin embedded blocks were used in the study. Fifteen of them were previously diagnosed as oral squamous cell carcinoma and the others fifteen were previously diagnosed as Ameloblastoma and all of them underwent the EBV and HPV by real time PCR.

Results: HPV was detected among 2/15 (13.3%) of squamous cell carcinoma cases and in 4/15 (26.6%) of ameloblastoma while EBV was detected among 3/15 (20%) of squamous cell carcinoma cases and in 4/15 (26.6%) in ameloblastoma.

Conclusion: The current study provides support for the contributing role of HPV and EBV infection in the etiology of oral SCC. HPV might be implicated in the etiology of ameloblastoma and hence in malignant transformation of this tumor.

Keywords: HPV, EBV, oral squamous cell carcinoma

Introduction:

Head and neck cancer (HNC) includes several malignancies that originate in the paranasal sinuses, nasal cavity, salivary glands, oral cavity, pharynx and larynx [1]. HNC is the seventh most common type of cancer in the world and in the European Union. HNC accounts for an estimated 130,000 new cases every year [2]. Odontogenic tumors arise from epithelial, ectomesenchymal or mesenchymal elements that are parts of the tooth forming apparatus.

Ameloblastoma(AB) is a common odontogenic neoplasm  estimated to form 36% of all odontogenictumors in China [3]. Although classified as benign, its local invasion, distant metastasis and malignant transformation pose a therapeutic challenge in oral and maxillofacial surgery [4]. The burden of viral infections in cancer is high but underappreciated by much of the cancer research community. The International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) estimates that one in five cancer cases worldwide are caused by infection,  with most of them are caused by viruses [5,6]. These cancers are particular public health problems for the developing world, as well as for underserved and immunosuppressed populations in developed countries. Most importantly, these cancers have readily identifiable targets for diagnosis, prevention and therapy. Vaccination programs against two human tumor viruses , hepatitis B virus (HBV) and human papilloma virus (HPV) , have already  begun to alter ageold cancer patterns on an international scale [7,8].

 Approximately 35 years ago, a role of HPV in cervical cancer was postulated. Today, it is well established how this very heterogeneous virus family represents an important human carcinogen, causing not only the vast majority of cervical and ano-genital tumors, but also a variable number of cancers in other  districts of the human body including the head and neck. In females, HPV infections ,on a global scale , account for more than 50% of infection-linked cancers; in males they are responsible for barely 5% [9]. Owing to the increase in Epstein Barr virus (EBV) detection in many cancers, numerous molecular surveys on oral cancer , which mainly used polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and in situ hybridization methods to detect viral DNA and RNA transcripts, have been performed in many geographic areas worldwide including Asian and European countries. Among those investigations reporting the detection of EBV in oral squamous cell carcinomas (OSCCs) in the past decades, the viral prevalent rates varied greatly ranging from 15% to 77% [10,11], whereas few studies showed the total absence of EBV in the OSCCs specimens [13].

Aims of the study:

The aims of this study are:

- To examine the association of HPV and EBV with OSCCs and AB assessed by detecting of their DNA in these tissues.
- To correlate the presence of viral DNA with aggressiveness of theses tumors.

Materials and methods:

Thirty formalin fixed and paraffin embedded blocks were used in this study. Fifteen of them were previously diagnosed as OSCC and the other fifteen were previously diagnosed as AB. They were collected from the archives of Pathology department, Faculty of Medicine, Minia University and the National Cancer Institute (NCI), Cairo University.

Histopathologic examination was done using hematoxylin and eosin stain. **Reevaluation** of these cases was carried out to confirm the diagnosis and establish the histopathologic grading. According to the histopathologic criteria, squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) cases were categorized as **five** well differentiated, seven moderately differentiated and three poorly differentiated. While AB cases were categorized as eleven benign cases and four malignant cases.

DNA was extracted from formalin fixed and paraffin embedded tissues using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (QIAGEN).

Real time PCR was done on Light Cycler Instrument (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) using the Light Cycler fast Start DNA Master plus SYBR Green I.

We used these primers for EBV: forward 5'CCGAAATCTGACACTTTAGAGC 3' and reverse 5' CCCTGACCTTTGGTGAAGTG 3' and for HPV16: forward 5' GGTCGGTGGACCGGTCGATG 3' and reverse 5' GCAATGTAGGTGTATCTCCA 3'.

The PCR protocol on Light Cycler for SYBR Green I is shown in table 1.

SYBR Green I dye binds to the minor groove of dsDNA and thus, fluorescence is enhanced. During various stages of PCR, different intensities of fluorescent signals can be detected depending on the amount of dsDNA that is present. All DNA become single stranded after denaturation. At this stage of reaction, SYBR Green I dye will not bind and the intensity of fluorescent signal is low.

During annealing, the PCR primers hybridize to the target sequence resulting in small parts of dsDNA to which SYBR Green I dye can bind and therefore increasing fluorescent signal intensity. In the elongation phase, the PCR primers are extended and more SYBR Green I dye can bind. At the end of the elongation phase, all DNA has become double stranded and a maximum amount of dye is bound. The fluorescence is recorded at the end of the elongation phase and increasing amount of PCR product can be monitored from cycle to cycle.

Interpretation of results:

Fluorescence measurement at the end of the elongation step of every PCR cycle was performed to monitor the increasing amount of amplified DNA (in positive cases) and no fluorescence signals in the negative cases (figure 1 and figure 2). In each run, one negative control was used. The DNA extraction and real time PCR (RT-PCR) were done at PCR laboratory, South Egypt Cancer Institute, Assiut University.

Statistics

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 1^{the} comparison levels and parameters was analyzed by a non-parametric test (Mann–Whitney), to evaluate the significant difference between them. A p -value of <0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

Results:

Distribution of SCC and AB according to demographic characteristics is shown in Table 2.

HPV results: HPV was detected among 2/15 (13.3%) of SCC cases. Of these two cases, one was moderately differentiated while the other was poorly differentiated. The positivity of HPV in the moderately differentiated case was lower than that in the poorly differentiated one. This difference was proven to be statistically non-significant ($P=0.4$). Regarding HPV in AB, it was detected among 4/15 (26.6%) of cases. Of these cases, two of them were malignant while the other two were benign. Also, the positivity of HPV was higher in malignant AB than in benign cases and the difference was proven to be statistically non-significant ($P=0.5$) (Table 3 and Table 4).

EBV results: EBV was detected among 3/15 (20%) of SCC cases. Of these three cases, one was well differentiated, one was moderately differentiated and the third was poorly differentiated. The positivity of EBV in the well differentiated case was higher than that in the moderately differentiated case but lower than that in the poorly differentiated case. This difference was proven to be statistically non-significant ($p=0.7$). Regarding EBV in AB, it was detected among 4/15 (26.6%) of cases. The four cases of AB were benign. The positivity of EBV was zero in malignant AB and 36.4% of benign AB. This difference was also proven to be statistically non-significant ($p=0.4$). (Table 3 and Table 4)

Correlation between positivity of HPV and severity of SCC: A strong positive correlation existed between the positivity of HPV and severity of SCC ($r=0.34$) which was found to be statistically non-significant ($p=0.2$). (Figure 3)

Correlation between positivity of EBV and severity of SCC: A fair positive direct correlation existed between the positivity of EBV and severity of SCC ($r=0.08$) which was found to be statistically non-significant ($p=0.7$) (Figure 4)

Correlation between positivity of HBV and severity of AB: A strong positive direct correlation existed between the positivity of HBV and severity of AB ($r=0.31$) which was found to be statistically non-significant ($p=0.1$). (Figure 5)

Correlation between positivity of EBV and severity of AB: A strong negative inverse correlation existed between the positivity of EBV and severity of AB ($r=0.36$) which was found to be statistically non-significant ($p=0.1$). (Figure 6)

The relation between HPV and EBV in SCC and AB:

In SCC: among EBV positive cases 66.7% were also HPV positive, while all EBV negative cases were also HPV negative and this was found to be statistically significant ($p=0.002$).

In AB: among EBV positive cases 50% were also HPV positive, while 81.8% of EBV negative cases were also HPV negative but this was found to be statistically non-significant ($p=0.2$).

Discussion:

In the present study, PCR results revealed HPV positive cases in 13.3% of SCC cases. These results were found to be in accordance with that reported by Halimi and Morshedi [13] who found that 20% of their OSCC specimens were HPV positive. The rate of HPV infection in patients with OSCC is 1.4% in Africa [14], 29%-67% in the United States [15], 22-90% in Taiwan [16], 33.6% in India [17], 75% in Brazil [18] and 74% in China [19]. In two meta-analysis by Miller and Johnstone [20] and Kreimer et al [21] the rates ranged between 12.9 and 55% in different areas. The rate of HPV infection in OSCC specimens in our study also falls in these ranges. The epidemiological association of HPV with OSCC was well established [22]. The prevalence of oral carcinomas reported to be associated with HPV has varied widely. This is due to differences in both the population studied and the sensitivity of the assay used for HPV detection [23]. Our results in the present study were linear with Gadelkarim and Merghany [24] who found a strong association between high risk HPV types 16, 18 and risk of oral cancers using PCR for detection of HPV types 16 and 18 DNA. But this was in contrary to Ibrahim et al [25] who found that all oral carcinomas were negative for HPV with PCR. Also Elena and Fabio [26] found complete absence of HPV DNA in OSCC using PCR. Kumar et al [27]

performed comparative study between the Hybrid Capture II (HC-II) test and PCR based assay for detection of HPV DNA in OSCC and found that HPV DNA positivity were 32.4% using PCR and 31.5% using HC-II test. Kujan et al [28] from United Kingdom reported that all OSCC samples were negative for HPV using HC-II technique while Vidal et al [29] from Brazil studied the role of HPV using this assay in OSCC and reported 22.5% positivity of HPV DNA. They also suggested that the detection of HPV by this technique not only helped to identify viral infections, but also correspond to find out the koilocytosis on exfoliative cytology and concluded that presence of HPV might also contributed to the development of cancer, but there are many other factors such as tobacco smoking, tobacco chewing and radiations that were consistently present in persons suffering from oral malignancies.

In the present study, PCR results revealed EBV positive in 20% of squamous cell carcinoma cases. These results were found to be lower than that reported by Ching et al [30] who used microarray analysis for detection of EBV infection in oral cancer and said that a high EBV prevalent rate of 82.5% was detected, which was greater than that in all previous investigations on OSCC reported worldwide.

Our study detected HPV DNA in 26.6% of AB cases which were linear with Namin et al [31] and Sand et al [32] who reported HPV positivity by PCR in intraosseous AB and concluded that in spite of the higher percentage of HPV positivity by PCR, the explanation of entrance of the virus deeply into these intraosseous tissues remains unexplained. A study of Jang et al [33] was the first to identify positive immunohistochemical expression of HPV antibody in 30% of AB cases. Ayoub et al [34] also revealed in their immunohistochemical results a positive expression of HPV antibody in 40% of AB cases. In contrary to our study, Migaldi et al studied the real integration of HPV-DNA into AB cells by in situ hybridization and reported no evidence of presence of capsid proteins or HPV-DNA in AB tumor cells. They ruled out any implication of HPV as an etiologic factor of AB.

In the present study EBV DNA was detected in 26.6% of AB cases, which were in accordance with Jang et al [33] who found a PCR positivity of EBV DNA in 8 (48%) out of 17 AB cases. While Ayoub et al [34] said that immunohistochemical results revealed EBV-immunopositivity in only one case of AB. This rarity of expression of EBV immunohistochemically might be due to the fact that a more sensitive PCR assay might be useful in detecting false negative results that might appear immunohistochemically.

Statistical analysis of the present study revealed that HPV positivity was zero in well differentiated SCC, while the positivity increased from moderately differentiated to poorly

differentiated SCC but this difference was proven to be statistically non-significant ($p=0.4$). These results were in contrary to Halimi and Morshedi [13] who found that all HPV positive cases were well differentiated, and also with Gadelkarim and Merghany [24] who found that all poorly differentiated cases were HPV negative. In the majority of the studies, OSCC related to HPV infection shows a better outcome and a reduced risk of relapse and second tumors compared with HPV negative tumors [36].

The concept of better treatment results in HPV-positive tumors has been confirmed both in patients submitted to organ preservation treatment as well as in those submitted to surgery [37]. The reason for the improved survival is unclear. However, better outcomes seem to be attributed to the ability of HPV-positive cancer cells to induce apoptotic cell death in response to DNA damage [38]. Another reason appears to be attributed to the absence of carcinogen induced early genetic changes in the epithelium and the development of multifocal tumors ("field cancerization concept") [39]. A better understanding of HPV-associated carcinogenesis is necessary for the development of HPV-targeted strategies. In the absence of cell mutations - classically associated with carcinogenesis in tobacco associated oropharyngeal cancers - the repression of E6 and E7 expression in HPV-positive carcinomas results in restoration of Rb and p53 tumor suppressor pathways and is sufficient to arrest cell growth or cause apoptosis.

In fact, HPV associated cancers constantly express the HPV E6 and E7 viral oncogenes even in the late stages of the disease, and repression of viral oncogene expression by drugs that interfere with the expression or function of viral proteins can induce senescence or apoptosis of cancer cells. Moreover, therapeutic vaccines that elicit a cytolytic immune response to cells expressing viral proteins could be curative possibly even in the advanced stages of the disease [40].

Statistical analysis of the present study revealed that a strong positive direct correlation existed between the positivity of HPV and severity of SCC ($r=0.34$) which was found to be statistically not significant ($P=0.2$). This finding might lead to the argument that when the positivity of HPV increased, the severity of SCC increased.

Our results might be explained by the fact that HPV related oropharyngeal carcinomas are not only distinct clinically, but also microscopically and molecularly. The tumors are characterized by non-keratinizing basaloid cell morphology. Microscopically, the neoplastic cells are generally monomorphic, oval or spindle shaped, with hyperchromatic basophilic nuclei, inconspicuous cytoplasm and indistinct cell borders. Palisading of the peripheral cells may be present. Excessive mitosis and apoptosis are observed. Keratinization and keratin pearl formation

are generally absent although some trend towards cell maturation may occasionally be present in focal areas [41].

Our study also revealed that the positivity of EBV was higher in well-differentiated SCC than in moderately differentiated cases but lower than the positivity in poorly differentiated cases. This difference was proven to be statistically non-significant ($P=0.7$). These results were linear with Soo and Ho [42], who said that EBV – positive gastric carcinomas were mostly of the poorly differentiated type.

Our study also revealed that a fair positive direct correlation existed between the positivity of EBV and severity of SCC ($r=0.34$) which was found to be statistically non-significant ($P=0.2$). In contrast to our results, there was no significant correlation between EBV infection and histological differentiation of the carcinoma [43] while EBV- positive gastric carcinomas showed favourable outcome when metastatic carcinomas were evaluated [45].

PCR results of the present study revealed that the positivity of HPV was higher in malignant AB than in benign AB, but this difference was proven to be statistically non-significant ($P=0.5$). These results were in accordance with Sand et al [32] and Ayoub et al [34]. These results might be explained by the finding that HPV-DNA was detected by PCR in recurrent cases of AB only at secondary surgery indicating that this positive reaction might be due to surgical manipulation causing tumor contamination from the adjacent surface mucosal epithelium. Statistical analysis also revealed that a strong positive direct correlation existed between the positivity of HPV and severity of AB ($r=0.31$) which was found to be statistically non-significant ($P=0.1$). Positivity for HPV-DNA (types 16 and 18) was demonstrated by in situ hybridization in an extraosseous peripheral AB arisen in a 16 year-old black male suggesting that HPV might have a role, if not directly involved, in promoting tumor cell growth. The positive nuclear reaction was evidenced in peripheral columnar epithelial cells and in a few central stellate reticulum cells [46]. Type 18 HPV was detected in a case of intraosseous AB by Van Heerden et al [47] using radiolabelled in situ hybridization. Since the viral DNA was observed only in a verrucous lesion located in adjacent cystic area but not in the tumor epithelia component, this finding was considered to represent a secondary viral infection.

HPV positivity employing a PCR analysis was reported in 20 out of 50 samples of AB and in 9 out of 50 impacted third molar follicles used as normal control group by Namin et al [31]. Given that none of the above works demonstrated a real integration of HPV-DNA into the

tumor cells of AB, the majority of these authors correctly underlined that the presence of HPV-DNA positivity in AB likely represented a secondary surgically acquired contamination from the overlying oral mucosa or a secondary event rather than a true infection [47]. AB generally arises from the epithelial lining of dentigerous cysts, enamel organ or from the basal layer of the oral mucosa and it is therefore, sequestered within the bone and relatively unexposed to HPV. Thus, it is more likely that the viral presence merely represented a biologic bystander without changes related to active infection [48].

PCR results also revealed that EBV-DNA was detected only in benign AB cases (36.4%), while all malignant cases were EBV negative. These results were linear with Ayoub et al [34] who said that EBV immunopositivity was found only in one case of AB while all malignant cases were immunonegative.

Statistical analysis also revealed a strong negative inverse correlation was present between the positivity of EBV and the severity of AB ($r=0.36$) which was found to be statistically non-significant ($P=0.1$). This was in contrary to what reported by Jang et al [33] who found a PCR positivity of EBV-DNA in 8 (48%) of 17 cases of AB. This contradiction might be due to the fact that a more sensitive PCR assay might be useful in detecting false negative results that might appear by immunohistochemistry, a notice that has to be taken into consideration when studying the role of EBV in development of AB and malignant AB. They also concluded that of EBV regions used for PCR, the *BamC* gene was detected in odontogenic tumors.

Statistical analysis regarding the relation between EBV and HPV among patients with SCC revealed that among EBV positive cases, 66.7% were also HPV positive while all EBV negative cases were also HPV negative. This was found to be statistically significant ($P=0.002$). This finding might lead to the argument that HPV and EBV might be considered as causative factors for SCC. On the contrary, statistical analysis regarding the relation between HPV and EBV among patients with AB revealed that 50% of EBV positive cases were also HPV positive while 81.8% of EBV negative cases were HPV negative but this was found to be statistically non-significant ($P=0.2$). This finding might lead to the argument that HPV and EBV are not strongly associated with the etiology of AB.

Conclusion:

Based upon PCR results and statistical results of this study, it could be concluded that:



- 282 ○ The current study provides support **as** regarding the contributing role of HPV and EBV
- 283 infections in the aetiology of OSCC.
- 284 ○ Presence of HPV-DNA could be used as an indicator for aggressiveness of SCCs as
- 285 **strong positive direct correlation** was found between the positivity of HPV and the
- 286 severity of SCC.
- 287 ○ Presence of EBV-DNA is not a reliable indicator for aggressiveness of SCC as a **fair**
- 288 **direct correlation** was found between positivity of EBV and the severity of SCC.
- 289 ○ HPV might **bee** implicated in the etiology of AB and hence in malignant transformation
- 290 of this tumor as a strong positive correlation was found between the positivity of HPV
- 291 and the severity of AB.

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Table 1: PCR protocol on Light Cycler for SYBRGreen I

Analysis mode	Cycle	Segment	Temperature	Hold time	Acquisition mode
Pre-incubation					
None	1		95 C°	10 min.	None
Amplification					
Amplification	45	Denaturation	95 C°	10 s.	None
		Annealing	C°*	10 s.	none
		Extension	72 C°	10 s.	Single
Cooling					
None	1		40 C°	30s.	None

*55C for EBV and 60 C for HPV

Table 2: Distribution of SCC and AB according to demographic characteristics

variable	Categories	OSCC		variable	Categories	AB	
		No.	%			No.	%
Age (years)	40 – 60	9	60	Age (years)	20-50	11	73.3
	60 -75	6	40		50-80	4	26.7
Sex	Male	9	60	Sex	Male	7	46.6
	Female	6	40		female	8	53.4
Site	Oral cavity proper	11	73.4	Site	Mandible	9	60
	Lip vermillion	4	26.6		Maxilla	4	26.6
					Gingiva	2	13.4
Pathology	Well differentiated	5	33.3	Pathology	Benign	11	73.3
	Moderately differentiated	7	46.7		Malignant	4	26.7
	Poorly differentiated	3	20				

Table (3): The positivity of HPV and EBV in the different grades of SCC

	HPV(+)		HPV(-)		P	EBV(+)		EBV(-)		P
	No	%	N	%		No.	%	No.	%	
Well differentiated (no.5)	0	0	5	100	0.007	1	20	4	80	0.005
Moderately differentiated (no. 7)	1	14.3	6	85.7	0.003	1	14.3	6	85.7	0.003
Poorly differentiated (no. 3)	1	33.3	2	66.6	0.2	1	33.3	2	66.6	0.2

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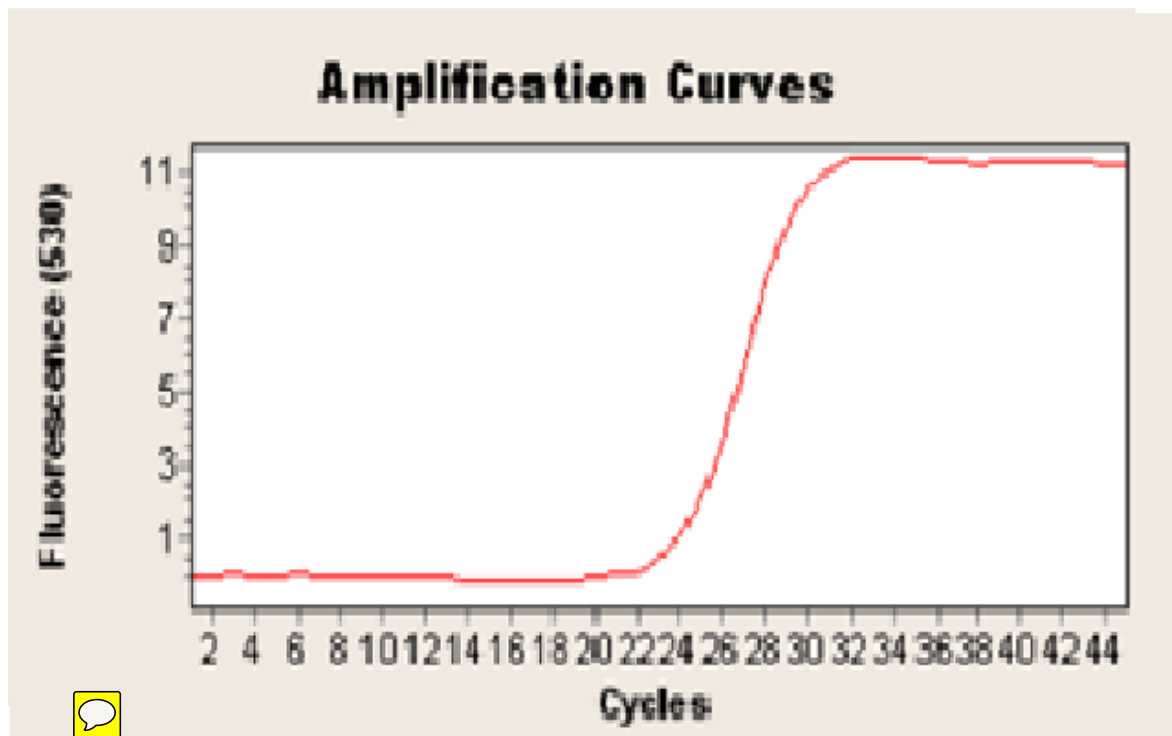
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426 Table (4) The positivity of EBV and HPV in Ameloblastoma

	HPV(-)		HPV(+)		P	EBV(-)		EBV(+)		P
	No.	%	No.	%		No.	%	No.	%	
Benign AB (No. 11)	2	18.2	9	81.8	0.001	4	36.4	7	63.6	0.1
Malignant AB(No. 4)	2	50	2	50	0.5	0	0	4	100	0.002

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430 Figure 1

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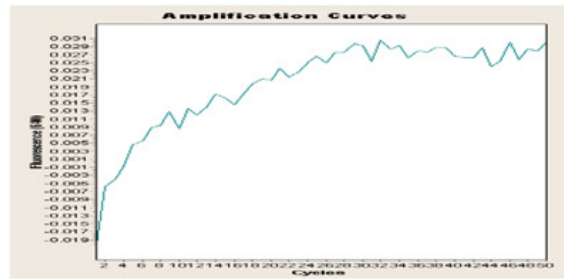


Figure 2: Negative case

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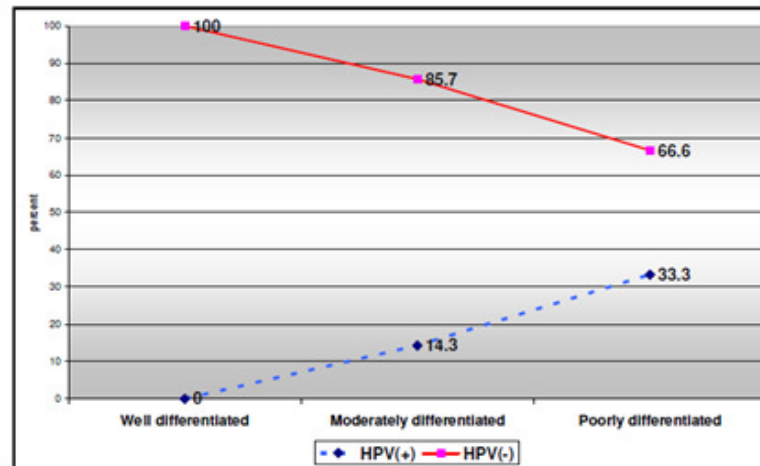


Figure 3: Line graph shows that the positivity of HPV increases between the different grades of SCC.

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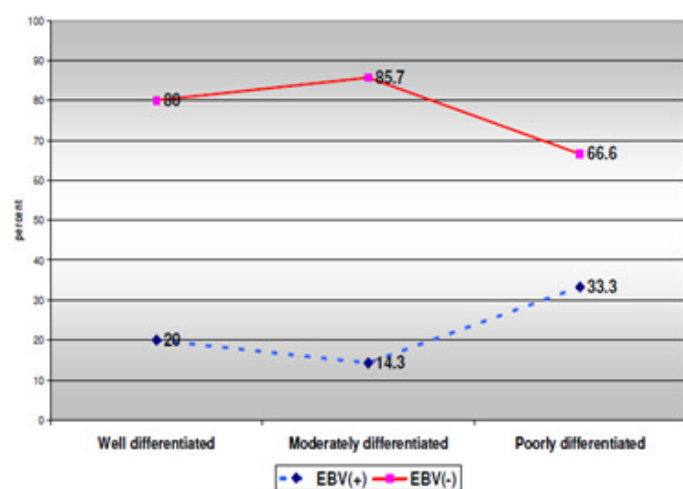


Figure 4: Line graph shows that the positivity of EBV decreases from well to moderate and increases from moderate to poorly differentiated SCC.

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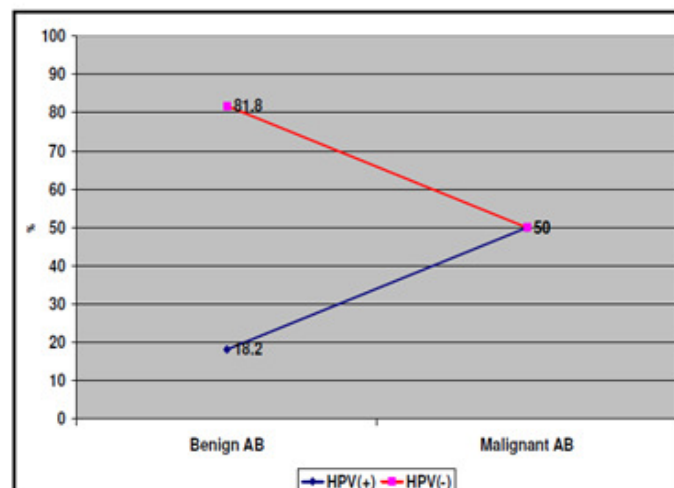


Figure5 : Line graph shows that the positivity of HPV increases from benign to malignant AB

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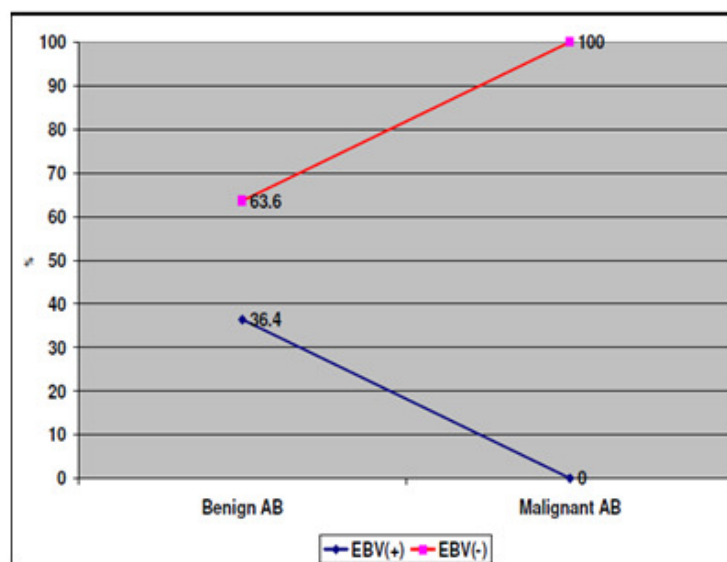


Figure 6 . Line graph shows that the positivity of EBV decreases from benign to malignant AB.

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Figure 1: graph show positive case either EBV or HPV as shown in LightCycler screen 443

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Figure 2: graph show negative case either EBV or HPV as shown in LightCycler screen

Figure 3: Line graph shows that the positivity of HPV increases between different grades 445

OSCC

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Figure 4: Line graph shows that the positivity of EBV decreases from well to moderate and

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increases from moderate to poorly differentiated SCC.

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Figure 5: Line graph shows that the positivity of HPV increases from benign to malignant AB.

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Figure 6: Line graph shows that the positivity of EBV decreases

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from benign to malignant AB.