

Expressional Proteins of p53 and p16 Genes in Human Papillomavirus16/18 - Associated Sinonasal and Nasopharyngeal Lesions: An Immunohistochemical Study

***Iman Alwan Hussien¹, Dr. Saad Hasan Mohammed Ali²,
Talib Abdullah Hussein¹, Dr. Mohammed Sobhi Kamal³**

¹Department of Biology, College of Science for women, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq.

²Communicable Diseases Research Unit, Baghdad Medical College, University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq

³Department of pathology, Ghazi Al-Hariri Teaching Hospital, Ministry of Health, Baghdad, Iraq.

Abstract : Background: High-risk HPV may play significant roles in cell malignancy through dysregulation of cell cycle proteins expression via activity of two viral oncoproteins E6, E7.

Objectives: The present study was designed to determine the rates of p16 and p53 expression in relation to high- risk (HPV16/18) genotypes infections in of sinonasal and nasopharyngeal lesions.

Methods: This retrospective study included total 125 formalin -fixed paraffin-embedded tissue blocks including 35 nasal polyps(NP), 35 sinonasal papillomas(SNP), 29 nasopharyngeal carcinomas (NPC),6 sinonasal carcinomas(SNC) and 20 nasal apparently healthy tissues. After histopathological confirmation, a Chromogenic In Situ Hybridization technique (CISH) was done for HPV16/18 DNA localization and for P16 and p53 expression immunohistochemistry technique (IHC) were performed.

Results: The percentages of DNA detection of HPV16/18 genotypes in carcinoma group and sinonasal papilloma were 31.4 % and 25.7%, respectively, while in nasal polyps was detected in 11.4 % .these results have revealed non-significant differences ($P>0.05$). P53-IHC positivity in carcinoma group and sinonasalpapillomas was noticed in 68.6 % and 34.3%, respectively, in nasal polyps was 28.6% which showed highly significant differences at ($P<0.01$). P16-IHC positivity in carcinoma group and sinonasalpapillomas was 51.4 % and 60.0% respectively, whereas in nasal polyps was 37.1% and the statistical analysis shows significant differences among them at ($P<0.05$). Positive correlation between HPV16/18 and p16 among carcinoma group and nasal polyps group.

Conclusions: the present results indicate a possible association between infection with high oncogenic HPV types and carcinomas group as well as sinonasal papilloma group pathogenesis and tumorigenesis. The P53, as well as p16 expression, were increased significantly in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal carcinomas presenting for their addition impact in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal pathogenesis and carcinogenesis. The p16 is a good marker for detection oncogenic HPV in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal carcinoma group.

Key word : High- riskHPV-16/18, P53, P16, Sinonasal and Nasopharyngeal lesions.

Introduction:

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is a member of Papillomaviridae where their infections are related to the genesis of various benign and malignant human neoplasias. Depending upon their oncogenic potential, HPVs were classified into two types high- risk (HR) and low -risk (LR) (1) Human infection with high-risk HPV types 16 and 18 seem to be causally related to the development of most squamous cell carcinoma. (2). High-risk types of human papillomavirus (HPV) are now well established as major etiologic factors of head and neck cancer (3). , The P53 gene, is believed to serve as a gatekeeper against carcinogenesis where under normal circumstances, the function of p53 protein is to prevent the propagation of genetically damaged cell. (4). Protecting cells from malignant transformation involved in cell-cycle control and apoptosis. Mutations in p53 gene are observed in about 50% of primary tumors. (5,6).The ability of the high -risk HPV to induce cell carcinogenesis as recognized to be due to inactivation of tumor suppressor genes p53 and RB by early expressing of oncoproteins E6 and E7 respectively (7).The cell cycle is also controlled by a family of cyclins, cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) and their inhibitors (CDKI) like p16, p21 through activating and inactivating phosphorylation events. The absence of p16 is often a critical event in tumor progression,where at least deletion of one copy is sufficient in the premalignant lesions for giving a selective advantage to cell tumorigenesis (8). The loss of p16 (INK4a) due to homologous deletion, point mutation or methylation has also been widely observed in some malignant tumors such as esophagus, lung and head and neck squamousHNSCC (9,10,11). Several studies have evaluated the relationship between the tumor suppressor protein p16 and HPV, and have proposed the over-expression of p16 reflect the biologically active HPV infection giving the functional inactivation of pRb (by HPV oncoprotein E7) induced p16 upregulation (12,13). The present study is the first study in Iraq which explains the relationship between the high -risk HPV and the cell cycle proteins(p53 and p16) dysregulation in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal lesions.

Materials and Methods

The study was designed as a retrospective one. Totally, 125 formalin- fixed paraffin-embedded tissue samples (81 male, 44 female)with age ranging from 1 to 82 years were collected from archives of histopathological laboratories of several hospitals in Baghdad (Ghazi Al-Hariri Teaching Hospital, Al-kindy Teaching Hospital, Al-Yarmouk Teaching Hospital,) during the period extended from February to November 2015 and were related to the past four years(2012 ,2013 ,2014 and 2015). The collected samples include 6 sinonasalcarcinomas(SNC), 29 nasopharyngeal carcinomas (NPC), 35 sinonasalpapillomas(SNP). 35 inflammatory nasal polyps(INP) and 20 normal sinonasal tissues as apparently healthy control. All clinical data were taken from the accompanied histopathological reports with those collected archival tissues blocks. A confirmatory re-examination of each block was done by consultant histopathologist.

The study was carried out in the Research Laboratories at Communicable Diseases Research Unit/ Baghdad Medical College. The paraffin blocks are sectioned serially at 4 μ m thickness and stuck on charged slides. Chromogenic In Situ Hybridization technique (CISH) and (ZytoVision /Germany) kits were used for detection HPVs DNA in tissue sections. CISH assays were done according to the manufacturer company protocols.

The ZytoFast Plus Implementation kit HRP-AEC: T-1062-40 and Digoxigenin – labeled DNA probe (ZyoVision GmbH, Bremerhaven / Germany: T-1056-400) were used for detection HPV 16/18 genotypes the signals were detected as bright red discoloration at the sites of complementary sequences and counter stained with nuclear blue solution. The positive reactions were performed by adding specific gene probe to reagents, while the negative control was contained all reagents except the diluted probe. Quantification in situ hybridization signal was assessed under light microscopy at X1000. Scoring and intensity of signals were based on the number and the strength of positive signals, respectively. The positive signals were counted in ten fields of 100 cells for each tissue section and the average of positive signals was scored according to one of the following score categories 1-25%: (1), 26-50 %:(2) and > 50%: (3). A scale of 0-3 was used for recording the relative intensity where 0 corresponding to no detectable signal and 1, 2, 3 refer to low, moderate, and high signal intensity, respectively(14).Immunohistochemical (IHC) assays were used to evaluate p53 and p16 genes expression in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal lesions by using (ab 80436 – Expose mouse and rabbit specific HRP/DAB detection IHC Kit, Abcam/England) for detecting anti-p53 antibody [Mouse monoclonal Anti-p53

antibody ,ab26, abcam/ England)and anti -p16 antibody[Rabbit monoclonal Anti- P16 ARC antibody ab51243 abcam/ England] and assays were done according to the manufacturer company procedures .

The positive result appears as dark brown precipitate in nucleus or cytoplasm of p53 and p16, positive cells on tissue sections. Signals were evaluated under light microscopy at X1000 and the scoring of positive results were done as follow: No positive cells (0), 1-25% positive cells (+), 26-50% positive cells (++) and 51-100% positive cells (+++)(14). The intensity of IHC staining was based on theintensity of positive cell staining also a scale of 0-3 was used to determine the relative intensity as in the following: IHC negative reaction: 0,low intensity: (1),moderate intensity: (2) andhigh intensity: (3).In this study Chi-Square test (χ^2), Odd ratio andSpearman's rho were used to assess the significances between variables and the statistical analysis was done by SPSS program (version-18).

Results:

Detecting of High- Risk HPV16/18 DNA:

The positive signals for theHPV16/18-DNA-CISH test in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal cancers were observed in (31.4%:11).Insinonasal papilloma group, the tissues with positive signals were (25.7%:9) and those inflammatory nasal polyps tissues the positive signals were (11.4%:4). While in theapparently healthy nasal control group, the positive signals were (5%:1).Statistically, there are non- significant differences (P>0.05) among the studied groups. The results have revealedthat SNC-NPC and SNP have odds ratio value of 8.708 (770.8%) and 6.577(557.7%), respectively, while INP has anodds ratio of 2.452(145.2%) (Table.1 and 2).

Table (1): The HPV16/18 DNA-CISH signal results of the studied groups according to their scores.

HPV16/18- CISH signal (scores)		Studied groups				Pearson Chi-Square (P-value)
		Healthy Control	Inflammatory Nasal polyp	Sino-nasal Papilloma	Sino-nasal &naso-pharyngeal Carcinoma	
No stain	N	19	31	26	24	P=0.246 Non Sign. (P>0.05)
	%	95.0%	88.5%	74.3%	68.6%	
+	N	0	1	4	4	
	%	0.0%	2.9%	11.4%	11.4%	
++	N	0	1	2	5	
	%	0.0%	2.9%	5.7%	14.3%	
+++	N	1	2	3	2	
	%	5.0%	5.7%	8.6%	5.7%	
Total	N	20	35	35	35	
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Odds ratio			2.452	6.577	8.708	

Non- significant differences (P>0.05)

Table(2): The HPV16/18DNA-CISH signal intensities results among the studiedgroups.

HPV16 /18-CISH signal(intensity)		Studied groups				Pearson Chi-Square (P-value)
		Healthy Control	Inflammatory Nasal polyp	Sino-nasal Papilloma	Sino-nasal &naso-pharyngeal Carcinoma	
NO stain	N	19	31	26	24	P=0.199 Non Sign. (P>0.05)
	%	95.0%	88.6%	74.3%	68.6%	
Weak	N	0	1	1	1	
	%	0.0%	2.9%	2.9%	2.9%	
Moderate	N	1	2	1	4	
	%	5.0%	5.7%	2.9%	11.4%	
Strong	N	0	1	7	6	
	%	0.0%	2.9%	20.0%	17.1%	
Total	N	20	35	35	35	
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Odds ratio			2.452	6.577	8.708	

Non- significant differences (P>0.05)

Distribution of P53- Protein among Studied Groups:

In sinonasal and nasopharyngeal cancers group the positive P53-IHC signals were detected in (68.6%:24), in sinonasal papilloma group signals were observed in (34.3%:12) and in those inflammatory nasal polyp positive signals were in (28.9%:10), while in apparently healthy tissues (30%:6). Statistically, there are significant scoring differences (P<0.05) and highly significant intensity differences among studied groups. The results have revealed that SNC-NPC has anodds ratio of 5.091 (409.1%), while SNP and INP have anodds ratio of 1.217 (21.7%) and 0.933(-6.7%), respectively.(Table.3 and 4).

Table.(3): Immunohistochemical signal scoring results ofP53 expression among the studied groups

P53- IHC signal (scores)		Studied groups				Pearson Chi-Square (P-value)
		Healthy control	Inflammatory Nasal polyp	Sino-nasal Papilloma	Sino-nasal &naso-pharyngeal Carcinoma	
Negative	N	14	25	23	11	P=0.034 Sign. (P<0.05)
	%	70.0%	71.4%	65.7%	31.4%	
+	N	3	4	5	11	
	%	15.0%	11.4%	14.3%	31.4%	
++	N	3	5	4	7	
	%	15.0%	14.3%	11.4%	20.0%	
+++	N	0	1	3	6	
	%	0.0%	2.9%	8.6%	17.1%	
Total	N	20	35	35	35	
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Odds ratio			0.933	1.217	5.091	

Significant differences (P<0.05)

Table.(4):Immunohistochemical signal intensity results of P53 expression among the studied groups.

P53-IHCsignal (intensity)		Studied groups				Pearson Chi-Square (P-value)
		Healthy Control	Inflammatory Nasal polyp	Sino-nasal Papilloma	Sino-nasal &naso-pharyngeal Carcinoma	
No stain	N	14	25	23	11	P=0.00 Highly Sign. (P<0.01)
	%	70.0%	71.4%	65.7%	31.4%	
Weak	N	4	1	2	2	
	%	20.0%	2.9%	5.7%	5.7%	
Moderate	N	2	3	4	2	
	%	10.0%	8.6%	11.4%	5.7%	
Strong	N	0	6	6	20	
	%	0.0%	17.1%	17.1%	57.1%	
Total	N	20	35	35	35	
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Odds ratio			0.933	1.217	5.091	

Highly significant differences (P<0.01)

Distribution of P16- Protein among Studied Groups:

The positive P16-IHC signals in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal cancers group were detected in (51.4%:18), in thesinonasal papilloma group were (60%:21), in inflammatory nasal polyp the positive signals were (37.1%:13), and in apparently healthy tissues (40%:8). Statistically, there are significant scoring differences (P<0.05) and non-significant intensity differences (P>0.05) among studied groups.the results have revealed that SNP and SNC-NPC have anodds ratio of 2.251(125.1%) and 1.588 (58.8%), respectively, while INP has anodds ratio of 0.886 (-11.4%).(Table.5 and6).

Table(5): Immunohistochemical signal scoring results ofP16 expression among the studied groups.

P16-IHCsignal (scores)		Studied groups				Pearson Chi-Square (P-value)
		Healthy control	Inflammatory Nasal polyp	Sino-nasal Papilloma	Sino-nasal &naso-pharyngeal Carcinoma	
Negative	N	12	22	14	17	P=0.475 Non Sign. (P>0.05)
	%	60.0%	62.9%	40.0%	48.6%	
+	N	2	5	6	2	
	%	10.0%	14.3%	17.1%	5.7%	
++	N	3	5	11	10	
	%	15.0%	14.3%	31.4%	28.6%	
+++	N	3	3	4	6	
	%	15.0%	8.6%	11.4%	17.1%	
Total	N	20	35	35	35	
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Odds ratio			0.886	2.251	1.588	

Non- significant differences (P>0.05)

Table(6):Immunohistochemical signal intensity results of P16 expression among the studied groups.

P16 IHC-signal (intensity)		Studied groups				Pearson Chi-Square (P-value)
		Healthy control I	Inflammatory nasal polyp	Sino-nasal papilloma	Sino-nasal & nasopharyngeal carcinoma	
No stain	N	12	22	14	17	P=0.012 Sign. (P<0.05)
	%	60.0%	62.9%	40.0%	48.6%	
Weak	N	7	5	3	3	
	%	35.0%	14.3%	8.6%	8.6%	
Moderate	N	0	3	10	9	
	%	0.0%	8.6%	28.6%	25.7%	
Strong	N	1	5	8	6	
	%	5.0%	14.3%	22.9%	17.1%	
Total	N	20	35	35	35	
	%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Odds ratio			0.886	2.251	1.588	

Significant differences (P<0.05)

Correlation of HPV16/18,withp16, in Patients with Sinonasal and Nasopharyngeal Lesions :

There are strong positive relationships and significant differences at (p <0.05) between HPV16/18 scores with P 16 scoring {r = 0.335, P = 0.049, (p <0.05)} in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal carcinoma group. In nasal polyps there are strong positive relationships with highly significant differences in correlation between HPV16/18 scores with P16scoring {r = 0.473, P = 0.004, (p<0.01)}.while no correlation between HPV16/18 scores with P16scoring in sinonasalpapillomas .(Table. 7)

Correlation of HPV16/18, with p53, in Patients with Sinonasal and Nasopharyngeal Lesions.

No relationships and non- Significant differences at (P > 0.05) in the correlations of HPV16/18, with p53among the studied groups.(Table.7).

Table(7): Spearman's rho statistical testing to evaluate studied molecular markers scoring in relation with HPV infections in sinonasal –nasopharyngeal lesions.

Spearman's rho (Scoring)		HPV16/18		
		Nasal polyp	Sino-nasal Papilloma	Sino-nasal & nasopharyngeal Carcinoma
p53	r.	-.061	-.114	-.130
	P-value	.729	.515	.455
P16	r.	.473**	.272	.335*
	P-value	.004	.114	.049

*. The correlation is significant at the P < 0.05 level.

**.. The correlation is Highlysignificant at the P < 0.01 level.

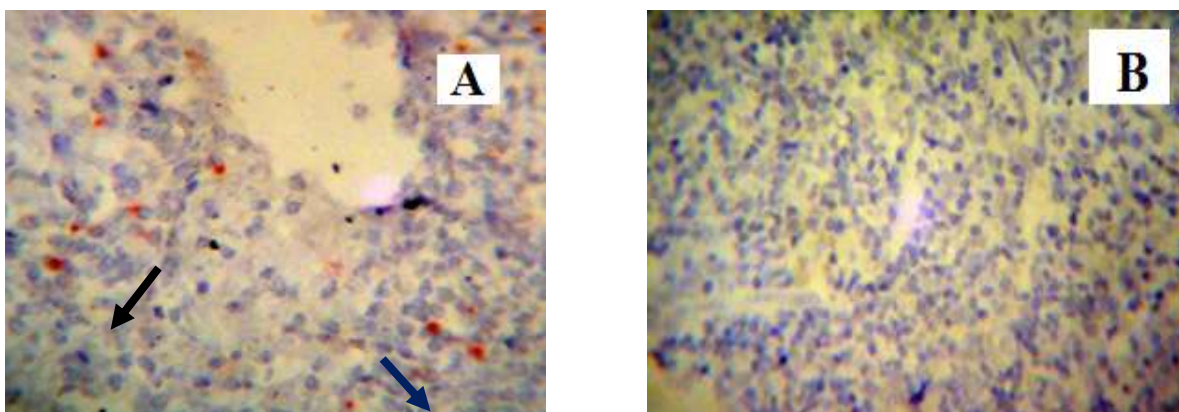


Figure (1): Microphotographs of HPV 16/18 DNA CISH-signals (x400):A-redsignal of HPV16/18 in nasophryngeal cancer tissue (integrated (punctuated) DNA black arrow and diffused signal blue arrow) .B- Nasophryngeal cancer tissue CISH- negative signal.

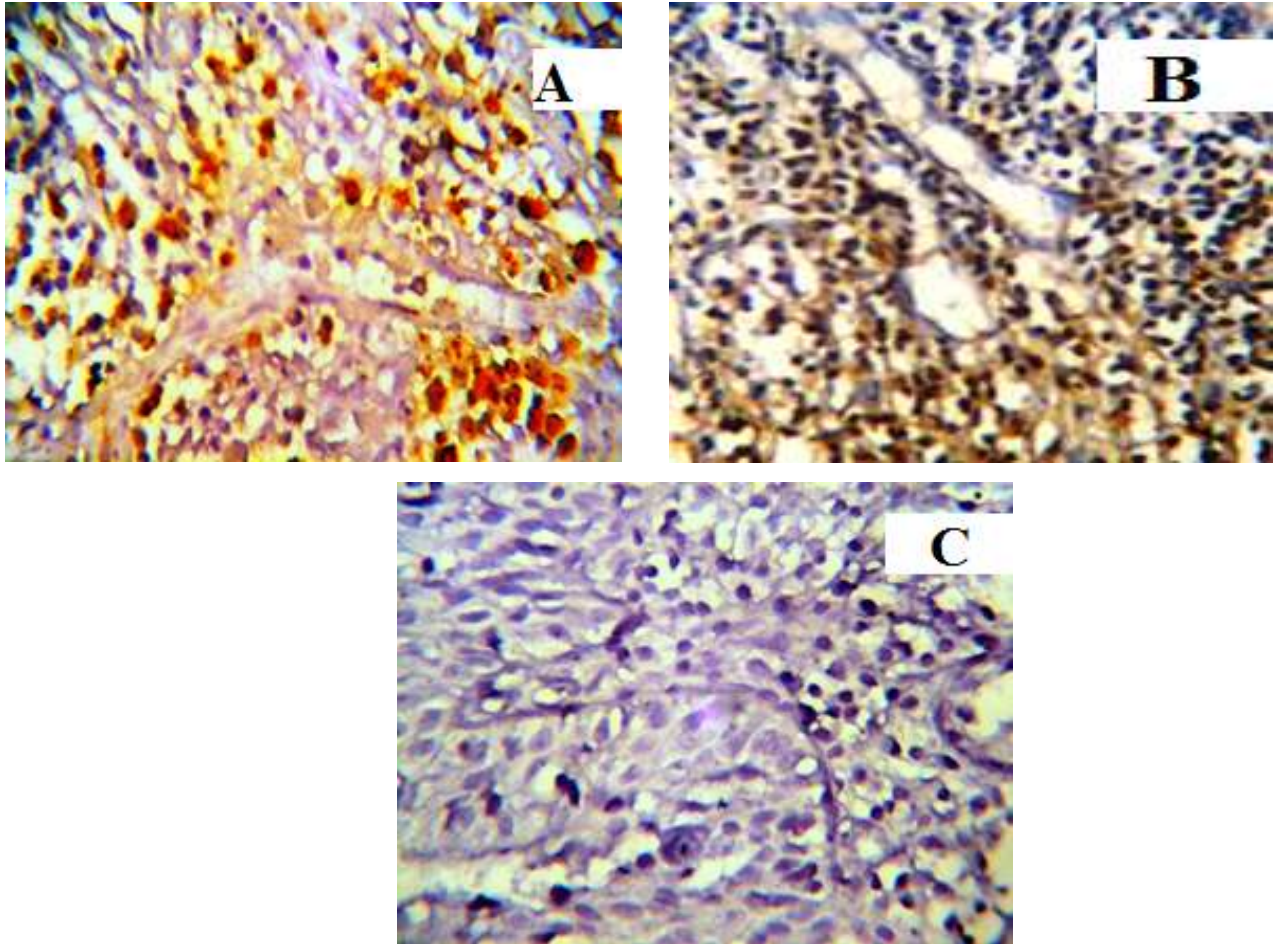


Figure (2): Microphotographs of IHC-signals (x400):A- brown –nuclear signals detected for p53-IHC in Nasopharyngeal cancer tissue. B- Brown –nuclear signals detected for p16-IHC in Nasopharyngeal cancer tissue. C.Nasopharyngeal cancer tissue IHC- negative signal.

Discussion:

Head and neck cancers (NHCs) are close related to tobacco smoking, alcohol intake, spicy food, and radiation and virus infections. The differences in anatomical sites of cancer are related to the local factors (such as climate and lifestyle), genetic and mode of viral infection transmission (15). Viral infections are important risk factors for nasopharyngeal and sinonasal carcinoma, such as Epstein-Barr, herpes virus, and HPV infections, particularly the high-risk HPV types (HR-HPV) (16,17).

Detecting of HPV16/18 DNA in Sinonasal and Nasopharyngeal Lesions:

The results of present study coincide with previous studies used PCR and ISH and found that HR- HPV types were prevalent in malignant tumors of sinonasal and nasopharyngeal more than sinonasal benign tumors. A study have been found HR-HPV type 16 with a detection rate of (20 %) as the most common type in sinonasal squamous cell carcinomas (SSCC)(18), another study(19) found that high-risk HPV DNA positivity in sinonasal carcinomas was (21%). Also, oncogenic HPV types 16 and 18 positivity were (22.2%) in sinonasal squamous cell carcinomas (SSCC) cases, while HPV types 16 and 18 were not detected in a sinonasal papilloma(20). Moreover, high-risk HPV-16 was the most common genotype seen in (16.4%) of NPC patients. in UK (21). A study in morocco has revealed that the detection of HR-HPV DNA in NPC cases was (34%)(22). However, one study has failed to find an association between HR-HPV and NPC since it has found HR-HPVs detection rates were equally in NPCs (31%) and nasopharyngeal controls (35%)(23).

In contrast to the results of present study, it has been found that HR- HPV types 16 and 18, were more common in inverted papilloma (29.4 %), than SSCC (25.0 %)(24). Also, the results of the present study are in

contrast to another study revealed that HPV16 in nasal polyps was the most common type with a detection rate of 76% (25).

According to the odds ratio values, the present study suggests a strong association between HR-HPV 16/18 and (SNC-NPC, SNP) progression. And the low association between HPV HR-HPV 16/18 and NP progression.

It has been found that HPV high loads and integration may play significant roles in HPV-mediated cell malignancy (26) by activities of two viral oncoproteins, E6 and E7. HPV E6 can induce the degradation of p53 by binding to the ubiquitin ligase (E6AP), resulting in inhibition of p53-dependent signaling upon stress stimuli, and leads to tumorigenesis (27) and the viral E7 protein binds to and inactivates pRb, activating E2F but independent of cyclin-dependent kinase. The inactivation of host pRb by HPV E7 resulting in transfer of cell from G1 to S phase. (24). According to previous researches, a higher frequency of HR-HPV types was detected in dysplastic and carcinoma of IP (28). One explanation for increased HR-HPV detection rates in benign and malignant tumors of the sinonasal tract was hypothesized by that the increasing detection rates of HR HPV types in dysplastic IP and IP with SCC in sinonasal tract as compared with non-dysplastic IP due to the viral tendency for integration and "hit and run" phenomenon in dysplastic IP and IP with SCC that result in losing most of LR-HPV infection as infected cells are shed (29; 26).

Alteration of p53 – Expression in Relation with Sinonasal and Nasopharyngeal Lesions:

According to the statistical analysis of the odds ratio values the present study suggesting implication of p53 in the pathogenesis and carcinogenesis of SNC-NPC while not implicated in the pathogenesis and tumorigenesis of SNP and INP.

The present results are consistent with the results of the previous study that have found the positivity to p53 in SSCC was (62.5 %)(24) and the current results consist with another study found p53 expression in SSCC was (83 %)(30). Also, the present results are in line with the study that found the expression of p53 in NPC was (85.5%) (31) although their results are higher than the present finding.

Another study found overexpressed p53 in (73%) of NPC cases (23). In contrast to the results of present study, one study found p53 expression in SSCC was (33.3%)(33).

Regarding benign tumors, the present results are compatible to study that have found the positivity to p53 in SIP was 35.5 % (34) and also are consistent with a study that found p53 expression in SIP was 26.3% (35). Another study found p53 positivity in IP was 19% (36) is lower than the result of the present study whereas the same study has found p53 positivity in NP was 40% (36). Also, the present study is consistent with a study found p53 expression in NP patients was 42.9% (37). and the present results do not consist with the same study that has found p53 expression in IP was 75% (37).

The p53, as a tumor suppressor protein, plays an important role as a guardian of the genome and significant to cellular anti-carcinogenesis. (38). Some studies indicated the deletion of p53 function is the most common molecular alterations in HNSCC, which is mediated by p53 gene mutations, loss of heterozygosity of p53, or binding to HR-HPV oncoprotein E6 (39,40). The HPV-mediated tumorigenesis was demonstrated by the activities of viral oncoproteins, namely E6 and E7. HPV oncoprotein E6 can induce the degradation of p53 by binding to ubiquitin ligase (E6AP) then inhibit p53-dependent signaling upon stress stimuli and contribute to tumorigenesis (24,41).

Several studies have found that HNSCC patients with HPV infection are less likely to harbor p53 mutations as compared with those patients without HPV infection (3, 42). The present study suggesting no relationship between HPV infection and p53 dysregulation in benign and malignant tumors.

Alteration of p16- Expression in Sinonasal and Nasopharyngeal Lesions.

The CDK-inhibitor p16 is a tumor suppressor protein, the main function of p16 is negative regulation of the activity of specific cyclin and cyclin-dependent kinases (CDK) complexes such as cyclin D1, CDK4, and CDK6 thus preventing uncontrolled proliferation (43; 44).

According to the statistical analysis of the odds ratio values the present study suggesting the implication of p16 with the pathogenesis and carcinogenesis of SNP while not implication with the pathogenesis and tumorigenesis of SNC-NPC and INP.

The results of the current study are consistent with the previous study found that p16-IHC expression in nasopharyngeal tumors was 44% (45) and also consistent with a study found that p16 was detected in 37% of SNC cases (19). The present results also are consistent with another study found p16 expression was 58.3% in HNSCC (46). In contrast to the results of the present study, one study found weak or negative p16 staining in non-keratinized and undifferentiated SNC types while more likely p16 positivity in keratinized SNC (47) and also contrast with another study found the p16 positivity in IP with carcinomatous degeneration was seen in 14% of cases (27).

Regarding benign tumors of the sinonasal tract, the results of p16-IHC expression of the current study are consistent with previous study results that found p16 in IPs was positive in 62.5% (48) and consistent with another study that found p16-IHC expression was seen in 88.8% of SNPs cases (59). And also the present results are consistent with a study found an abundant p16 expression in normal respiratory mucosa as well as in SNPs and their adjacent mucosa. (43). Also, the present results are in line with the results of a study found p16-positivity was 64% in IP patients (27) and also in line with a study found that p16 over-expression was traceable non-significant in nasal polyps and nasal turbinates by western blot (25) while in a site analogous to the sinonasal tract, one study found p16 expression was observed in (28%) of tumour-free tonsil samples (50). The loss of p16 (INK4a) due to homologous deletion, point mutation or methylation has also been widely observed in some malignant tumors such as the esophagus, lung, and HNSCC (9,10,11). In addition, the absence of p16 is often a critical event in tumor progression, where at least deletion of one copy is sufficient in the premalignant lesions for giving a selective advantage to cell tumorigenesis (8). The previous study has found that knockout mice of p16 have increased cancer susceptibility and more spontaneous tumors when exposed to carcinogenic agents compared to wild-type mice (44).

Several studies have indicated that the replication of HPVs interferes with the normal cell cycle control mechanisms and have suggested that malignant transformation is closely related to these processes and the oncogenic potential of HPV probably due to their ability to modify cell cycle checkpoints, resulting in accumulation and transmission of genetic abnormalities (51,52). Several other studies have evaluated the relationship between the tumor suppressor protein p16 and HPV, and have suggested the expression of p16 as a surrogate marker for HPV infection and proposed the over-expression of p16 reflect the biologically active HPV infection giving the functional inactivation of pRb (by HPV oncoprotein E7) induced p16 upregulation (12,13).

However, the validity of p16 expression as a surrogate marker for HR-HPV infection has not been seen in an inverted papilloma. One study has suggested that p16 gene is not lost during the development of SNP, while in the carcinogenesis process a non-HPV related p16 expression was more likely to be inactivated not lost (27). The loss of p16 expression is the most common oncogenic alteration secondary to the loss of chromosomal locus 9p21 (53) and because of other factors such as RB abnormalities or deletion and methylation of the p16 gene can also induce p16 over-expression. Thus, it is not possible to indicate whether the p16 over-expression observed in SNP is HPV-related or not. However, p16 is one of the most frequently lost genes in head and neck cancers, thus it could provide false-negative results for the detection of HPV.

The p16 overexpression in nasal polyps may be a result of simultaneous inflammation and not induced by HPV oncogene dysregulation (50,25) thus, herein p16 expression can be a non-specific marker for detection of HPV infections.

Association between HPV16/18 Infection and p16 Expression in Sinonasal and Nasopharyngeal Lesions.

The present study reveals significant relationships between HPV16/18 infection and the p16 expression in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal cancers.

The results of the present study agree with most previous studies that have found significant relationships between the presence of HPV16/18 and the p16 expression in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal cancers (19,46,54,55). The expression of p16 in HPV-positive carcinomatous tissues is reasonable because p16 over-expression has been accepted as a marker of HR-HPV-associated carcinomas, such as vulva, (56), cervix

(57), penis (58), oropharynx and sinonasal tract (59) and tonsil (60). However, a recent study has reported that p16 over-expression has frequently been detected in normal tissues of the tonsil which were not associated with HPV infection (50). Also, another study found a significant relationship between HPV16/18 and over-expression of p16 in HNSCC (46). However, they also found a significant positive correlation between HPV 6/11 and p16 immun-expression. However, the p16 expression should be still considered as a surrogate marker for HR-HPV in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal cancers (50,61). The present study suggests that p16 over-expression is a good marker for detecting HR-HPV in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal carcinoma.

Association between HPV HPV16/18 Infection and the p16 Expression in the Nasal Inflammatory Polyp Lesions.

The present study reveals significant relationships between the HPV HPV16/18 infections and p16 expression in the nasal inflammatory polyps.

These results are supporting the hypothesis that p16 overexpression in nasal polyps may be a result of simultaneous inflammation and not induced by HPV oncogene dysregulation according to previous study (50) that have reported p16 expression can be detected in tumor-free tonsil suggesting that p16 accumulation, if observed in tumor-free tissue, may relate to accelerated cell ageing, which induced by chronic infection of epithelium by bacteria, viruses and fungi as well as prolonged activation of lymphocytes and APC dendritic cells in the areas (25; 50). Thus, the present results proposed over-expression of p16 can be nonspecific marker for detection HR- HPV infections in the inflammatory polyps and p16 over-expression might be induced as a result of inflammation.

Conclusions:

The present results suggest implication of HPV16/18 in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal pathogenesis and tumorigenesis, significant expression of p53 in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal carcinoma suggesting low association between HPV16/18 and p53 dysregulation and mutation and also indicate implication of p53 over-expression with early event in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal carcinogenesis, the present results indicated low implication of p16 over-expression with sinonasal papilloma pathogenesis and tumorigenesis whereas not implicated with sinonasal and nasopharyngeal pathogenesis and tumorigenesis, and there is a possible role of HPV16/18 in dysregulation of p16 in sinonasal and nasopharyngeal carcinoma.

References:

1. Durzynska J, Pacholska-Bogalska J, Kaczmarek M. (2011). HPV genotypes in the oral cavity/oropharynx of children and adolescents: cross-sectional survey in Poland. *Eur J Pediatr*; vol. 170: pp.757–61.
2. Flores ER., Allen-Hoffmann BL., Lee D., Lambert PF. (2000). The human papillomavirus type 16 E7 oncogene is required for the productive stage of the viral life cycle. *J Virol*; vol.74: pp.6622-6631.
3. Gillison ML., Koch WM., Capone RB., Spafford M., Westra WH., Wu L., Zahurak ML., Daniel RW., Viglione M., Symer DE., Shah KV., Sidransky D. (2000). Evidence for a causal association between human papillomavirus and a subset of head and neck cancers. *J Natl Cancer Inst*; vol.92: pp.709–720.
4. Iamaroon A., Khemaleelakul U., Pongsiriwet S. Pintong J. (2004). Co-expression of p53 and Ki67 and lack of EBV expression in oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Journal of Oral Pathology and Medicine*; vol.33: pp.30–36.
5. Collot-Teixeira S, Bass J, Deinis F, Ranger-Rogez S. (2004). Human tumor suppressor p53 and DNA viruses. *Rev Med Virol*, vol. 14: pp.301-319.
6. Brooks GF., Carroll K.C., Butel JS., Morse S.A., Mietzner TA. (2011). "Human cancer viruses". Ch43 In: Jawetz, Melnick, and Adelbergs "Medical Microbiology". 25th edition. McGraw-Hill Lange.
7. Wang X, Qi M, Yu X, Yuan Y, Zhao W. (2012). Type-specific interaction between human papillomavirus type 58 E2 protein and E7 protein inhibits E7-mediated oncogenicity. *J Gen Virol*; vol.93: pp.1563-1572.
8. Rocco JW, Sidransky D. (2001) p16(MTS-1/CDKN2/INK4a) in cancer progression. *Exp Cell Res*; vol. 264: pp. 42-55.

9. Koscielny S, Dahse R, Ernst G, von Eggeling F. (2007)The prognostic relevance of p16 inactivation in head and neck cancer. *ORL J OtorhinolaryngolRelatSpec*;vol.69:pp. 30-36.
10. Salam I., Hussain S., Mir MM., Dar NA., Abdullah S., Siddiqi MA.(2009). Aberrant promoter methylation and reduced expression of p16 gene in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma from Kashmir valley: a high-risk area. *Mol Cell Biochem*; vol.332: pp.51-58.
11. Ye Y, Wang D, Su C, Rong T, GuoA(2009). Combined detection of p53, p16, Rb, and EGFR mutations in lung cancer by suspension microarray. *Genet Mol Res*; vol. 8: pp.1509-1518.
12. Hoffmann M, Ihloff AS, Gorogh T, Weise JB, Fazel A, Krams M, (2010). p16 (INK4a) overexpression predicts translational active human papillomavirus infection in tonsillar cancer. *Int J Cancer*; vol. 127: pp.1595-1602.
13. Deng Z., Hasegawa M., Aoki K., Matayoshi S., Kiyuna A., Yamashita Y., Suzuk M. (2014). A comprehensive evaluation of human papillomavirus positive status and p16^{INK4a} overexpression as a prognostic biomarker in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *International Journal of Oncology*; vol.45:pp.67–76.
14. Zlobec I, Russell Steele, René P Michel, Carolyn C Compton, Alessandro Lugl and Jeremy R Jass, (2006). Scoring of p53, VEGF, Bcl-2 and APAF-1 immunohistochemistry and interobserver reliability in colorectal cancer. *Modern Pathology*; vol.19: pp.1236–1242.
15. Anas A., Murtala B., Oktawati S., Ilmar H. (2016).Epidemiological Aspects of Head and Neck Cancers Based on Radiotherapy Registry in Hospital of Hasanuddin University South of Sulawesi Indonesia *International Journal of Sciences: Basic and Applied Research (IJSBAR)*;vol. 27: pp 74-79.
16. Velez A. M. A., Howard, M. S. (2015). Tumor-suppressor Genes, Cell Cycle Regulatory Checkpoints, and the Skin. *North American Journal of Medical Sciences*; vol.7:pp.176–188.
17. Karligkiotis A, Machouchas N., Bozzo C.,Melis A., CossuA., BudroniM., Palmieri G., BernardiniE., VolpiL., MeloniF. (2014). Head and neck cancer epidemiology in north Sardinia, *Italy Acta Medica Mediterranea*; vol. 30: p.41-47.
18. HoffmannM,Klosea N., Gottschlich S., TiborGo'ro'gha,FazelaA.,LohreybC.,Rittgenc W., Ambroscha P., Schwarzb E., Kahn T. (2006) Detection of human papillomavirus DNA in benign and malignant sinonasal neoplasms. *Cancer Letters*; vol. 239:pp. 64–70.
19. Bishop J. A.,GuoT. W., Smith D. F.,Wang H., Ogawa T., PaiS. I.,WestraW. H., (2013). Human Papillomavirus-Related Carcinomas of the Sinonasal Tract. *Am J Surg. Pathol.*; vol. 37: pp. 185–192.
20. Ambreen B., Tasleem A Reyaz, Sheikh J., ImtiyazH., SummyiaF., Ruby R. (2016). Histopathological study of lesions of nose and paranasal sinuses and association of Human Papilloma Virus (HPV) with sinonasalpapillomas and squamous cell carcinoma. *International Journal of Medical Research & Health Sciences*,vol.5:pp.7-16.
21. Robinson M., SuhY., Paleri V., Devlin D., Ayaz B., Pertl L., Thavaraj S. (2013). Oncogenic human papillomavirus-associated nasopharyngeal carcinoma: an observational study of correlation with ethnicity, histological subtype and outcome in a UK population. *Infectious Agents and Cancer*; vol. 8:p. 30.
22. Laantri N., Attaleb M., Kandil M., Naji F., Mouttaki T., Dardari R., Belghmi K., Benchakroun N., El Mzibri M., Khyatti M. (2011). Human papillomavirus detection in Moroccan patients with nasopharyngeal carcinoma *Infectious Agents and Cancer.*;vol.6:p.3.
23. Huang CC., Hsiao JR., Yang MW., Wu YH., Hsu KF., Chang Y., Chen CW., Tsai ST., Wei HP., Jin YT.(2011). Human papilloma virus detection in neoplastic and non-neoplastic nasopharyngeal tissues in Taiwan *J ClinPathol .* ; vol. 64:pp.571-577.
24. Yamashita, Y., Hasegawa, M., Deng, Z., Maeda, H., Kondo, S., Kyuna, A., Suzuki, M. (2015). Human papillomavirus infection and immunohistochemical expression of cell cycle proteins pRb, p53, and p16^{INK4a} in sinonasal diseases. *Infectious Agents and Cancer*;vol. 10, p.23.
25. KnorM.,Tziridis K., Agaimy A., Zenk J., Wendler O. (2015). Human Papillomavirus (HPV) Prevalence in Nasal and Antrochoanal Polyps and Association with Clinical Data *PLoS ONE* 10(10): e0141722.
26. Hasegawa M, Deng Z, Maeda H, Yamashita Y, Matayoshi S, Kiyuna A.(2012). Human papillomavirus load and physical status in sinonasal inverted papilloma and squamous cell carcinoma.*Rhinology.*; vol.50: pp.87–94.
27. Lin G C., Scheel, A., Akkina S., Chinn S., Graham M., Komarck C., Zacharek M. A. (2013). P16, EGFR, Cyclin D1, and p53 Staining Patterns for Inverted Papilloma. *International Forum of Allergy and Rhinology*,vol. 3, pp.885–889.

28. Jalilvand S., Masoumeh Saidi B., Zabihollah Shoja C., Nastaran Ghavami A., Rasool Hamka R. (2016). The prevalence of human papillomavirus infection in Iranian patients with sinonasal inverted papilloma, *Journal of the Chinese Medical Association*; Vol. 79: pp. 137–140.
29. Lawson W, Schlecht NF, Brandwein-Gensler M. (2008). The role of the human papillomavirus in the pathogenesis of Schneiderian inverted papillomas: an analytic overview of the evidence. *Head Neck Pathol.*; vol. 2: pp.49–59.
30. Nudell J., Chiosea S., Lester D., Thompson R. (2014). Carcinoma Ex-Schneiderian Papilloma (Malignant Transformation): A Clinicopathologic and Immunophenotypic Study of 20 Cases Combined with Comprehensive Review of the Literature *Head and Neck Pathol* vol. 8: pp.269–286.
31. Agaoglu FY, Dizdar Y., Dogan O., Alatli C., Ayan I., Savci N., Tas S., Dalay N., Altun M. (2004). p53 Overexpression in Nasopharyngeal Carcinoma, *in vivo*; vol. 18: pp.555-560.
32. Taweevisit M. (2007). overexpression of p53 and neoplastic cell proliferation in undifferentiated nasopharyngeal carcinoma. *Southeast Asian J Trop Med Public Health.*; vol.38: pp.136-40.
33. Oncel S., Cosgul T., Calli A., Calli C., Pinar E. (2011). Evaluation of P53, P63, P21, P27, Ki-67 in Paranasal Sinus Squamous Cell Carcinoma and Inverted Papilloma. *Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*; vol. 63: pp.172–177.
34. Stasikowska-Kanicka O., Wagrowska-Danilewicz M., Danilewicz M. (2011). Effect of human papillomavirus on cell cycle-related proteins p16INK4A, p21waf1/cip1, p53 and cyclin D1 in sinonasal inverted papilloma and laryngeal carcinoma. An *in situ* hybridization study. *Folia Histochem Cytobiol*; vol.49: pp. 34-40.
35. Altavilla G., Staffieri A., Busatto G., Canesso A., Giacomelli L., Marioni G. (2009). Expression of p53, p16INK4A, pRb, p21WAF1/ CIP1, p27KIP1, cyclin D1, Ki-67 and HPV DNA in sinonasal endophytic Schneiderian (inverted) papilloma, *Acta Oto-Laryngologica*; vol.129: pp.1242-1249.
36. Sham CL., To KF., Chan PK., Lee DL., Tong MC., van Hasselt CA. (2012). Prevalence of human papillomavirus, Epstein-Barr virus, p21, and p53 expression in sinonasal inverted papilloma, nasal polyp, and hypertrophied turbinate in Hong Kong patients. *Head Neck*; vol.43: pp.520–533.
37. Ikegawa K., Matsukuma S. (2005). Immunohistochemical study of p53 and Ki-67 in inverted papillomas and nasal polyps arising from nasal or paranasal regions. *Rinsho Byori.*; vol.53: pp.499-503.
38. Efeyan A., Serrano M. (2007). p53: guardian of the genome and policeman of the oncogenes. *Cell Cycle.*; vol.6: pp.1006–1010.
39. Olshan AF., Weissler MC., Pei H., Conway K. (1997). p53 mutations in head and neck cancer: new data and evaluation of mutational spectra. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* ; vol.6: pp.499–504.
40. Maruyama H., Yasui T., Ishikawa-Fujiwara T., Morii E., Yamamoto Y., Yoshii T., Inohara H. (2014). Human papillomavirus and p53 mutations in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma among Japanese population. *Cancer Science*; vol. 105: pp.409–417.
41. Sisk J., Schweinfurth JM., Wang XT., Chong K. (2006). Presence of human papillomavirus DNA in tonsillectomy specimens. *Laryngoscope* vol. 116: pp.1372–1374.
42. Westra WH., Taube JM., Poeta ML., Begum S., Sidransky D., Koch WM. (2008). Inverse relationship between human papillomavirus-16 infection and disruptive p53 gene mutations in squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *Clin Cancer Res.*; vol.14: pp.366–369.
43. Schwerer MJ., Sailer A., Kraft K., Baczako K., Maier H. (2003). Expression of retinoblastoma gene product in respiratory epithelium and sinonasal neoplasms: relationship with p16 and cyclin D1 expression *Histol. Histopathol* ; vol.18: pp.143-151.
44. Silva S.D., Nonogaki S., Soares FA., Kowalski L.P (2012). p16 (INK4a) has clinicopathological and prognostic impact on oropharynx and larynx squamous cell carcinoma *Braz J Med Biol Res*; Vol. 45: pp.1327-1333.
45. Walline, H. M., Komarck, C., McHugh, J. B., Byrd, S. A., Spector, M. E., Hauff, S. J., Carey, T. E. (2013). High-risk human papillomavirus detection in oropharyngeal, nasopharyngeal, and oral cavity cancers: Comparison of multiple methods. *JAMA Otolaryngology-- Head & Neck Surgery*; vol. 139: pp. 1320–1327.
46. Konig F., Krekeler G., Hönig JF., Cordon-Cardo C., Fischer G., Korabiowska M. (2007). Relation between Human Papillomavirus Positivity and p16 Expression in Head and Neck Carcinomas – A Tissue Microarray Study *Anticancer Res.* ; vol.27: pp. 283-288.
47. El-Mofty SK., Lu DW. (2005). Prevalence of high-risk human papillomavirus DNA in nonkeratinizing (cylindrical cell) carcinoma of the sinonasal tract: a distinct clinicopathologic and molecular disease entity. *Am J Surg Pathol.*; vol.29: pp.1367–1372.

48. Basak K., Kayıpmaz S., Kose Hİ. , Karaday N. (2014) ,Human Papilloma Virus and Epstein-Barr Virus in Sinonasal Inverted Papilloma. *Austin J Pathol Lab Med.*;vol.1:p.3.
49. Shah SN., Goswami Y. (2012).Study of lesions of nasal cavity, nasopharynx and paranasal sinuses by histopathological examination. *Gujarat Medical Journal*; vol.67:pp.70-72.
50. Klingenberg B., Hafkamp H C., Haesevoets A., Manni J J., Slootweg P J., Weissenborn S J., Klussmann J P., Speel E-J M. (2010). *Histopathology*; vol.56:pp. 957–967.
51. Smith EM., Rubenstein LM., Hoffman H., Haugen TH., Turek LP.(2010). Human papillomavirus, p16 and p53 expression associated with survival of head and neck cancer. *Infect Agent Cancer* vol. 5:p. 4.
52. Singhi AD., Westra WH.(2010). Comparison of human papillomavirus in situ hybridization and p16 immunohistochemistry in the detection of human papillomavirus-associated head and neck cancer based on a prospective clinical experience. *Cancer*, vol. 116: pp.2166-2173.
53. van der Riet P., Nawroz H., Hruban RH., Corio R., Tokino K., Koch W., Sidransky D.(1994). Frequent loss of chromosome 9p21-22 early in head and neck cancer progression. *Cancer research*; vol.54:pp.1156–1158.
54. Maxwell J H., Kumar B., Feng, F Y., Worden F P., Lee J., Eisbruch A., Carey, T E. (2010). Tobacco use in HPV-positive advanced oropharynx cancer patients related to increased risk of distant metastases and tumor recurrence. *Clinical Cancer Research : An Official Journal of the American Association for Cancer Research*; vol.16: p.1226
55. Doxtader EE., Katzenstein AL. (2012).The relationship between p16 expression and high-risk human papillomavirus infection in squamous cell carcinomas from sites other than uterine cervix: a study of 137 cases. *Hum. Pathol.* ;vol.43:pp.327–332.
56. Santos M., Landolfi S., Olivella A., Lloveras B., Klaustermeier J., Suarez H., Alos L., Puig-Tintore LM., Campo E., Ordi J. (2006). P16 overexpression identifies HPV-positive vulvar squamous cell carcinomas. *Am J SurgPathol*; vol.30: pp.1347- 1356.
57. Lu DW., El-Mofty SK., Wang HL. (2003). Expression of p16, rb, and p53 proteins in squamous cell carcinomas of the anorectal region harboring human papillomavirus DNA. *Mod Pathol*; vol.16: pp.692-699.
58. Rubin M A., Kleter B., Zhou M., Ayala G., Cubilla A L., Quint W. G V.,andPirog E C. (2001). Detection and Typing of Human Papillomavirus DNA in Penile Carcinoma : Evidence for Multiple Independent Pathways of Penile Carcinogenesis. *The American Journal of Pathology*; vol. 159:1211–1218.
59. Liu J., Li X., Zhang Y., Xing L., Liu H. (2016). Original Article Human papillomavirus-related squamous cell carcinomas of the oropharynx and sinonasal tract in 156 Chinese patients. *Int J ClinExpPathol*; vol.9:pp.1839-1848.
60. Shiboski CH., Schmidt BL., Jordan RC.(2005),Tongue and tonsil carcinoma: increasing trends in the U.S. population ages 20-44 years. *Cancer* 103: 1843-1849.
61. Hafkamp HC, Manni JJ., Haesevoets A., Voogd AC., Schepers M., Bot FJ., Hopman AH., Ramaekers FC., Speel EJ. (2008). Marked differences in survival rate between smokers and nonsmokers with HPV 16- associated tonsillar carcinomas. *Int. J. Cancer*; 122; 2656– 2664.
