

Accepted Article

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version record](#). Please cite this article as [doi:10.1002/cncr.31063](https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.31063).

Title: Distinct pattern of *TP53* mutations in HIV-related head and neck squamous cell carcinoma

Running title: *TP53* mutations in HIV-related HNSCC

Authors: Frederico O. Gleber-Netto, PhD¹; Mei Zhao, ¹; Sanchit Trivedi, ¹; Jiping Wang, ¹; Samar Jasser, ¹; Christina McDowell, ²; Humam Kadara, PhD²; Jiexin Zhang, ³; Jing Wang, PhD³; William N. William Jr, MD⁴; J. Jack Lee, PhD⁵; Minh Ly Nguyen, MD/MPH⁶; Sara I Pai, MD/PhD⁷; Heather M. Walline, PhD⁸; Dong M. Shin, MD⁹; Robert L. Ferris, MD/PhD¹⁰; Thomas E Carey, PhD¹¹; Jeffrey N Myers, MD/PhD¹; Curtis R Pickering, PhD¹, on behalf of the HNC SPORE HIV supplement consortium.

1 – Department of Head and Neck Surgery, University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX

2 – Department of Translational Molecular Pathology, University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX

3 – Department of Bioinformatics and Computational Biology, University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX

4 – Department of Head and Neck Medical Oncology, University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX

5 – Department of Biostatistics, University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX

6 – Department of Internal Medicine, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA

7 – Massachusetts General Hospital Cancer Center, Boston, MA

8 – Department of Otolaryngology/Head and Neck Surgery, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI

9 – Department of Hematology and Medical Oncology, Emory University School of Medicine, Atlanta, GA

10 – Department of Otolaryngology, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA

11 – Department of Otolaryngology/Head and Neck Surgery, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI

Current affiliations: HK – American University of Beirut, JRG – University of California San Francisco, SIP – Massachusetts General Hospital

Correspondent author: Curtis R. Pickering, The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center 1515

Holcombe Blvd – Houston, TX - USA, Phone: (+1)713-794-4512, email: CRPickering@mdanderson.org

Funding: NCI HIV Supplement to the Head and Neck SPORE Consortium, ARRA: University of Michigan: P50 CA097248; University of Michigan Cancer Center Core Grant P30 CA46592; M.D. Anderson: 5P50 CA097007; University of Pittsburgh: P50 CA097190; Johns Hopkins University, P50 DE019032 and 3P50 DE019032-14S2; Emory University: P50 CA128613, R01 DE021395 (GD), P50 CA128613, and P50 CA128613-02S1. Sarah Pai is supported by 1R01 DE025340 (SIP).

Conflict of interest disclosures: No conflict of interest

Author contribution: Conception or design: Thomas E Carey, Jeffrey N Myers, Curtis R Pickering;

Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of the data: Frederico O Gleber-Netto, Mei Zhao, Sanchit

Trivedi, Jiping Wang, Samar Jasser, Christina McDowell, Humam Kadara, Jiexing Zhang, Jing Wang, Jeff

Lewis, William J. William Jr, J. Jack Lee, Sara I Pai, Dong M Shin, Heather M. Walline, Thomas E Carey,

Jeffrey N Myers, Curtis R Pickering; **Drafting of the article:** Frederico O Gleber-Netto, Curtis R

Pickering; **Critical revision of the article for important intellectual content:** Minh Ly Nguyen, Sara I

Pai, Dong M Shin, Robert L Ferris, Thomas E Carey, Jeffrey N Myers; **Statistical analysis:** Frederico O

Gleber-Netto;

Acknowledgments: The SPORE HNC network contributed collectively to this study. Biospecimens

were provided by the sites and processed by the centralized testing laboratory. In addition to the

leading contributions of the authors listed above, other important contributions were made by the

following: Pathology contributors: Jonathan B. McHugh, Martin Graham, Christine Komarck

(University of Michigan, Ann Arbor,MI); Raja Seethala, Simion Chiosea (University of Pittsburgh,

Pittsburgh, PA); Marina Mosunjac (Emory University, Atlanta, GA); Adel K. El-Naggar (MD Anderson

Cancer Center, Houston, TX); William H. Westra (Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD). Data

coordination: Jeff Lewis (M.D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX); Nicole Kluz, Alicia Wentz (Johns

Hopkins School of Public Health, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD); Kelly R. Magliocca (Emory

University, Atlanta, GA); Charles Moore (Emory University, Atlanta, Ga); James Riddell IV, MD

(Medicine-Infectious Disease, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI). The SPORE Directors are listed

as follows: Dong M Shin, Director, Emory University Head and Neck Cancer SPORE. David Sidransky,

Director, Johns Hopkins Head and Neck Cancer SPORE. Jeffrey Myers, Director, MD Anderson Head

and Neck Cancer SPORE. Gregory T. Wolf, Director, University of Michigan Head and Neck Cancer

SPORE. Robert L. Ferris (corresponding PI) and Jennifer G. Grandis (co-PI), University of Pittsburgh

Head and Neck Cancer SPORE.

Precis for use in the Table of Contents: HNSCC in patients infected by HIV showed a specific pattern of DNA mutations when compared to non-HIV infected HNSCC individuals. This was particularly true for mutations in TP53, where tumors from HIV-infected patients showed a virus-related mutation fingerprint irrespectively of HPV co-infection.

Accepted Article

Abstract: Background: HIV-infected individuals (HIVII) have a higher incidence of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC), and clinical and histopathological differences have been observed in their tumors when compared to HNSCC patients without HIV infection. The reasons for these differences are not clear and molecular differences between HIV-related and non-HIV-related HNSCC may exist. We compared the mutational patterns between HIV-related and non-HIV-related HNSCC.

Methods: We sequenced the DNA of 20 samples of HIV-related and 32 samples of non-HIV-related HNSCCs. DNA libraries covering exons of 18 genes frequently mutated in HNSCC (*AJUBA*, *CASP8*, *CCND1*, *CDKN2A*, *EGFR*, *FAT1*, *FBXW7*, *HLA-A*, *HRAS*, *KEAP1*, *NFE2L2*, *NOTCH1*, *NOTCH2*, *NSD1*, *PIK3CA*, *TGFBR2*, *TP53* and *TP63*) were prepared and sequenced on an Ion PGM Sequencer. DNA sequencing data was analyzed by using the Ion Reporter Software. HPV status of the tumor samples was assessed by in situ hybridization, HPV MultiPlex PCR-MassArray assay and p16 immunostaining. Mutation calls were compared among the studied groups. **Results:** HIV-related HNSCC revealed a distinct pattern of mutations when compared to non-HIV-related HNSCC. TP53 mutation frequencies were significantly lower in HIV-related HNSCC. Mutations in HIV+ patients tended to be TpC>T nucleotide changes, considering all mutated genes but especially for *TP53*. **Conclusions:** HNSCC in HIVII presented a distinct pattern of genetic mutations, particularly in the *TP53* gene. HIV-related HNSCC may have a distinct biology and an effect of the HIV virus on pathogenesis of these tumors should not be ruled out.

Keywords: TP53 Gene, Head and Neck Cancer, HIV, HPV, mutation

Introduction

HIV-infected individuals (HIVII) have a higher cancer incidence than the general population.

Kaposi sarcoma and non-Hodgkin lymphoma are the most common neoplasms among HIVII and are AIDS-defining malignancies. However, after the advent of antiretroviral therapy (ART) the incidence of other malignant tumors (non-AIDS-defining cancer) increased and became an important cause of death in these patients.¹⁻⁴

Three factors are considered important for the elevated cancer incidence among HIVII: high smoking rates, immunosuppression and increased susceptibility to infection by oncoviruses. Smoking is the main preventable cause of cancer, but is a common habit among HIVII. Prevalence of tobacco smoke exposure among this group is two times higher than in the overall population.^{5, 6} Immunosuppression is the main characteristic of HIV infection, and it is considered to be an important cause of cancer development. Organ-transplanted patients on immunosuppressive regimens demonstrate an increased incidence of malignant tumors as compared to the general population. Their cancer incidence is similar to the frequency observed among HIVII, suggesting that immunodeficiency plays an important role in HIVII-related carcinogenesis.¹ An important common effect of tobacco abuse and immunosuppression is an increased susceptibility to infection by oncoviruses with the subsequent development of virus-related carcinogenesis.⁷⁻¹⁰ Virus-related tumors are almost ten times higher in HIVII than in the general US population.¹¹ Human herpesviruses (HV) and human papillomaviruses (HPV) are responsible for the majority of these cases, leading to the development of sarcomas and lymphomas, but also squamous cell carcinomas in the anogenital and head and neck regions.¹¹ While human HV are related to AIDS-defining malignancies, HPV are the major oncoviruses linked to non-AIDS-defining cancers.⁷

All these elements are also recognized as important risk factors for head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) development and may explain the higher incidence of these tumors among HIVII.^{1, 2, 4, 12-14} HNSCC is diagnosed at an earlier age and at a more advanced stage in HIVII¹⁵, and they tend to be more aggressive¹⁶ and related to worse survival rates when expressing high levels of TP53 than in non-HIVII.¹⁷ The efficacy of current treatment approaches in HIVII-related HNSCC is still a matter of debate.¹⁸ Radiotherapy treatment has been found to be less effective for control of tumor relapse and related to worse overall survival and more treatment-related toxicity in HIVII.¹⁸

Whether these differences in presentation and prognosis are related to the systemic effects of HIV-mediated immunosuppression or by particular biological characteristics of the primary tumor are still unclear.

Histopathological findings indicate that HIV-related HNSCC have unique features, such as the enrichment of multinucleated giant tumor cells and the expression of HIV-related protein in some tumor cells.¹⁹ These observations indicate unique pathological processes that are associated with these tumors. In order to better understand the behavior of HIV-related HNSCC and possibly develop personalized treatment approaches it is important to determine if they represent a distinct molecular entity.

Recently, integrated genomic studies in HNSCC have dramatically expanded our knowledge about the pathogenesis, progression and treatment of these tumors. For instance, these studies have revealed the genes and pathways most frequently affected in HNSCC and have identified HPV-related HNSCC as a distinct molecular entity.²⁰⁻²³ In this way, we believe that the genomic analysis of HIV-related HNSCC might reveal whether this group of tumors has a distinct pattern of DNA alterations that could indicate differences in their pathogenesis and progression. In order to accomplish this, we compared the pattern of mutations between HIV-related and non-HIV-related HNSCC by sequencing a panel of genes frequently mutated in head and neck cancer.

Materials and methods

Patient selection

The cohort of patients used in this study was obtained from the Head and Neck Cancer Specialized Programs of Research Excellence (HNC-SPORE) HIV Supplement Consortium. A detailed description of patient recruitment, sample collection and clinical-pathologic data collection was described in a previous publication.¹⁷ Briefly, formalin fixed paraffin embedded tissue (FFPE) from patients diagnosed with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) and HIV infection were retrieved after retrospective review of medical records. HNSCC patients not infected by HIV were also retrieved as an age, subsite and stage matched-control group. DNA was extracted from the FFPE tissues and only samples with sufficient DNA yield for sequencing were included in this study.

HPV Testing

For HPV status classification, we considered p16 expression by immunohistochemistry and HPV detection by *in situ* hybridization (ISH) and multiplex PCR-MassArray. Detailed description of these methods can be found in Walline et al. (2016).¹⁷ Briefly, p16 expression (CINtec, mtm Laboratories) was evaluated semi quantitatively considering expression intensity (1 – no staining; 2 – low; 3 – moderate; 4 – high) and proportion of positive cells (1: < 5%; 2: 5% to 20%; 3: 21% to 50%; 4: 51% to 100%). The p16 expression score was determined by the product of intensity by proportion of p16 positive cells. Scores of 1 to 4 were considered negative/low; 5 to 11 were considered moderate; and 12 to 16 were considered high.¹⁷

HPV detection based on *in situ* hybridization (ISH) was performed using the INFORM HPV III Assay (Ventana Medical Systems). This assay allows the detection of 12 oncogenic HPV types (HPV16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58 and 66) but does not specify the HPV type.¹⁷

DNA extracted from tumors was used for PCR-based HPV detection using the HPV MultiPlex PCR MassArray, designed to detect 15 oncogenic HPV types (HPV16, 18, 31, 33, 35, 39, 45, 51, 52, 56, 58, 59, 66, 68 and 73). Samples with p16 expression-score higher than 5 and positive in ISH or PCR based HPV detection methods, were considered HPV positive. Tumors where HPV was detected in the absence of p16 overexpression were considered HPV negative.

Library preparation and DNA sequencing

Ten nanograms of DNA were used as input for target DNA library preparation using the Ion AmpliSeq Library Kit. For amplification of the targeted DNA it was used a customized pool of primers designed for amplification of all exon regions of the following genes: *AJUBA*, *CASP8*, *CCND1*, *CDKN2A*, *EGFR*, *FAT1*, *FBXW7*, *HLA-A*, *HRAS*, *KEAP1*, *NFE2L2*, *NOTCH1*, *NOTCH2*, *NSD1*, *PIK3CA*, *TGFBR2*, *TP53* and *TP63*. The target DNA libraries were sequenced in the Ion PGM Sequencer platform. Variant calls were made on the Ion Reporter server by using the Ampliseq tumor-normal pair CCP pipeline with customized filters. Although *HLA-A* is included in the sequencing assay it is currently excluded from the analysis because of the difficulty in accurately calling mutations in this highly polymorphic gene.

TP53 mutation classification

TP53 gene mutations were classified according to two functional impact and risk classification systems proposed by Poeta et al. (2007)²⁴ and by Neskey et al. (2015)²⁵. For Poeta et al. (2007)²⁴ system, the *TP53* mutations were classified as disruptive and non-disruptive mutations. Disruptive mutations were those that induce a disruption of p53 protein production (nonsense, frame shift, in frame and splice site mutations) or any missense mutation that occurs within L2 or L3 DNA binding domains (codons 163 to 195 and 236 to 251) and that changes original amino acid polarity or charge category. For the Neskey et al. (2015)²⁵ classification, we used the online software EAp53 server (<http://mammoth.bcm.tmc.edu/cgi-bin/panos/EAp53.cgi>) that classifies *TP53* mutations in high and low risk for HNSCC, and determines a numeric risk score (EAscore). Only missense mutations are classifiable in this system.

Statistical analysis

For statistical analysis we used the IBM SPSS Statistics version 22 and the GraphPad Prism version 6.07, for Windows. Associations between categorical variables were determined applying the Fisher's exact test. Associations between categorical and quantitative variables were determined using the Mann-Whitney Test, when categories have two values, and the Kruskal-Wallis Test, when categories have three or more values. Significant associations were considered when the p-value was lower than 0.05. The log-rank test was employed to access differences among survival curves.

Results

In order to understand the mutation frequencies and patterns in HIV+ HNSCC, we sequenced tumor samples from 20 HIV positive (HIV+) HNSCC patients. We also sequenced 32 HIV negative (HIV-) patients as controls (Table 1). Among HIV+ cases, 11 (55%) were HPV negative (HPV-) and 9 (45%) were HPV positive (HPV+), and among HIV- cases 6 (18.75%) were HPV+ and 26 (81.25%) were HPV-. Gender and tissue site were not different among these groups, but HIV+HPV+ patients were significantly younger than HIV-HPV+. All HIV+ patients were smokers or former smokers, and all except 1 were alcohol users. No information about tobacco and alcohol consumption were available for HIV- cases.

DNA was extracted from FFPE samples and sequenced on a custom Ion Torrent AmpliSeq panel

containing 18 genes frequently altered in HNSCC. The identified mutations, as well as mutation frequencies described in HNSCC in The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA)²², are listed in Table 2 and summary oncoprints are found in Figure 1. Because HPV is known to alter the mutational landscape of HNSCC, the cohort was divided into 4 groups for most analyses based on the HIV and HPV statuses. The associations were assessed by comparing all four groups together, and also by comparing HIV+ and HIV- groups with the same HPV status. Overall, 84.6% of the patient tumors were found to have at least 1 mutation in the examined genes, and the number of patients with tumors harboring mutations was significantly different among the 4 groups ($p=0.002$). Among the HPV+ cases, there was no difference in number of tumors harboring mutations when comparing HIV+ (55.6%) and HIV- (66.7%) patients. However, in the HPV- cases, the number of mutations was higher in the HIV- group (100%) when compared to HIV+ group (81.8%) (Figure 2a). The number of patients harboring mutations was significantly lower overall in the virus-related groups (HIV or/and HPV positive) as compared to the HPV negative cases from TCGA ($p<0.001$) as well as with the HIV-HPV- group ($p=0.004$). The number of genes mutated per patient and the number of mutations per patient varied among the groups (Figures 2b and 2c). Both variables showed higher values among HPV- patients, irrespective of HIV status.

No mutations were detected in four of the studied genes that are known to have low mutation frequencies in HNSCC (*AJUBA*, *CASP8*, *CCND1* and *TGFBR2*). Mutations in the *TP53* and *NOTCH1* genes were detected in all groups. Comparing the frequency of gene mutations among the groups, only *TP53* mutations were significantly different ($p<0.001$) (Table 2). HIV-HPV- (88.5%) patients had the highest frequency of mutations in the *TP53* gene, while HIV+HPV+ (14.3%) patients had the least number of mutations in this gene. A strikingly high frequency of *TP53* mutations was observed in HPV+ patients (33.3% of all 15 HPV+ cases) when compared to other HNSCC HPV+ sequencing studies. We do not currently have an explanation for this high rate. Mutations in *NFE2L2* gene were found in 2 of 20 HIV+ patients (10%), which were a higher detected frequency as compared to non-HIV patients (3.1%) and that reported in the TCGA cohort (6.5%). *NOTCH1* mutations were observed in 3 of 9 HIV+HPV+ patients (33.3%), which were a higher mutation frequency compared to our other groups and that reported in the TCGA dataset. However, statistical significance was not reached in the *NFE2L2* and *NOTCH1* associations. *NSD1* mutations were differentially distributed among tumor sites

($p=0.025$), being observed in larynx (two mutated cases) and other H&N sites (one mutated case) but absent in oral cavity and oropharynx cases. This is consistent with the distribution of NSD1 mutations in TCGA. The frequency of mutations in any gene did not differ significantly between HIV+ and HIV- tumors with the same HPV status.

In order to assess qualitative differences in *TP53* mutations, we compared the types of *TP53* mutations among the groups (Figure 3). While HPV+ cases exhibited only missense *TP53* mutations, HPV- tumors also contained truncating and in-frame indel mutations. Among HIV+HPV- cases, truncating mutations were the most common (55.5%), while these mutations represented just 26.9% of the HIV-HPV- events. Next, we employed two *TP53* functional impact and risk classification systems previously utilized for HNSCC (Table 3). In both systems, *TP53* mutations related to aggressive tumors (“high risk” and “disruptive”) were more prevalent in HIV and HPV negative cases. The mutations in virus-related cases were predominantly classified as wild-type or low risk/non-disruptive mutations.

Truncating and frame shift mutations are not classifiable in the Neskey et al. 2015(15) system and are therefore referred to as “Others”. These were more prevalent among HIV+ (45% of mutated cases) than in HIV- group (30.8% of wild type cases).

We also assessed the type of nucleotide changes in each studied group for all genes, as well as for the *TP53* gene individually (Figure 4). C>T mutations were the most prevalent nucleotide changes observed in all groups and for the majority of the genes. Only the genes NFE2L2, NSD1 and PIK3CA showed more C>G, C>A and T>C nucleotide changes, respectively. No significant difference in the distribution of nucleotide changes was observed among the four groups ($p=0.93$) (Fig.4a), neither between HIV+ and HIV- groups with the same HPV status ($p=0.24$ among HPV+ tumors and $p=0.98$ among HPV-). No difference in the pattern of nucleotide change distribution was observed when patients were grouped according to HIV status ($p=0.95$) (Fig.4b).

Regarding nucleotide changes in the *TP53* gene, C>T changes were the most commonly observed, but no statistical difference was observed among the four groups ($p=0.80$) (Fig.4c), neither between HIV+ and HIV- samples with the same HPV status ($p=0.34$ among HPV+ tumors and $p=0.92$ among HPV-). Although the frequency of C>T changes was higher among tumors with HIV infection (66.7%) than in the HIV- tumors (43.3%), the difference between them was not significant ($p=0.95$) (Fig.4d).

Considering high frequency of C>T mutations in these samples, we investigated the 5' flanking

nucleotide for each mutation (Fig.4e). HIV+HPV- samples exhibited higher TpC>T mutations (26.3%) than tumors of HIV-HPV- negative patients (10.2%), when all mutated genes were taken into account.

Considering HPV+ tumors, TpC>T changes were observed only among HIV+ patients (42.9% of all mutations), being absent in HIV- ones ($p=0.02$). When tumors were grouped according their HIV status, irrespective of HPV infection, the frequency of TpC>T among HIV+ patients (34.8%) was significantly higher than in HIV- patients (10.9%) ($p=0.02$) (Fig.4f). The same trend was observed when only the *TP53* gene was considered, where only HIV+ tumors exhibited TpC>T nucleotide changes ($p = 0.02$) (Fig.4h).

Differences in 5-years survival rates were accessed among patients considering their HIV/HPV groups, *TP53* status (WT vs mutated) and *TP53* mutation type (ins/del vs transition vs transversion). No significant differences among survival curves were observed in any comparison ($p = 0.45$; $p = 0.30$; $p = 0.46$, respectively). Presence of mutations in other genes (alone or in combination) were also not associated with survival in these patients. Due to the absence of TNM information for HIV negative patients, the influence of tumor clinical stage on these results were not possible to access.

Discussion

In this study, we observed an overall decreased frequency of mutations in HIV+ HNSCCs and HIV-related HNSCC have a distinct pattern of genetic mutations in the *TP53* gene characterized by truncating mutations and TpC>T nucleotide changes

HIV+ are a unique group of patients in the context of HNSCC. They have a higher exposure to tobacco and alcohol, have impaired immune functions and consequently are more prone to infection by high-risk HPV.^{4-7, 14} In this way, these patients have multiple key risk factors for cancer development, particularly HNSCC. Not surprisingly, HIV+ have higher rates of HNSCC than the general population. It has been described that HIV+ with HNSCC present at more advanced tumor stage and have reduced survival rates.^{15, 16, 18, 26} However, it is not clear if these findings are caused by intrinsic features of the tumor cells or if they are related to host factors related to HIV infection.^{22, 23, 27} We aimed to investigate this by comparing the pattern of mutations in HIV-related and non-HIV-related tumors in genes frequently mutated in HNSCC. Because HPV infection causes a distinct subtype of HNSCC^{22, 23, 27} we considered HPV status as a key variable as well.

Our observations regarding genetic alterations in HNSCC from HIVI are unique in the literature. The only similar analysis we could find was performed by Souza et al. (2013)²⁸ that compared the pattern of *TP53* mutations in DNA obtained from cervical swabs (normal and altered cytology) from HIV-infected and non-infected patients (all HPV+), and they found that the frequency of *TP53* mutations was similar between both groups (~19%).

Souza et.al. (2013)²⁸ also found that the genomic position of *TP53* mutations changed with HIV status. HIV+ patients had more mutations located in exon 7, while HIV- patients had more mutations in exon 6. Our small sample size made it difficult to compare the genomic location of *TP53* mutations but we did examine the types of mutations. HIV+HPV- patients presented a higher frequency of truncating mutations, and the missense mutations were more frequently classified as low risk and non-disruptive. Many *TP53* mutations have been studied for their gain-of-function properties which can provide novel characteristics to the tumors. While missense mutations in the p53 DNA binding domain can promote loss of DNA binding activity, this event may also change the protein structure leading to new potential protein interactions, which in turn may result in p53 gain-of-function.²⁹ The pattern of *TP53* mutations in HIV+ cases suggest that there are fewer gain-of-function *TP53* mutations and it is intriguing to speculate that this could be related to the immune status of the individuals or HIV itself.

Another interesting qualitative observation is the different pattern of nucleotide changes in all mutated genes, but especially in the *TP53* gene, among HIV+ and HIV- tumors. The presence of C>A changes in the *TP53* gene was considered a hallmark of tobacco-related DNA mutations in lung cancer and also in some HNSCCs.^{21, 22, 30, 31} In fact, only one HPV+ case in our cohort exhibited C>A transversions. Among the HIV+HPV- cases, the percentage of C>A changes was similar to HIV-HPV- cases (12.5% and 9.6%, respectively), which might be expected considering that all HIV+ patients were smokers. C>T transition have been demonstrated as being more predominant in virally transformed tumors, including HNSCC.^{22, 32} However, we demonstrated that a specific subtype of C>T changes, the TpC>T mutations, were enriched in the HIV infected patients, conferring a virus-related mutation fingerprint for these cases. Interestingly, the increased number of TpC>T changes among HIV+ tumors was independent of the presence of HPV co-infection.

Cytosine deamination is a defense mechanism against retrovirus infection exerted by the APOBEC

family of enzymes. Human APOBEC3G is induced by HIV infection in order to impair virus infectivity by promoting mutations in its DNA.³³⁻³⁵ However, the mutagenic potential of APOBEC3G is not restricted to the viral genome, and cytosine deamination may also occur in human DNA. The APOBEC-related pattern of mutations, characterized by TpC>T transitions, are observed in numerous human cancers, including HNSCC, and are commonly described in the *TP53* gene.³⁶⁻⁴⁰ Interestingly, oncogenic pathogens such as HPV and *Helicobacter pylori* have proved to cause APOBEC3G-mediated mutations in oral and gastric epithelium.^{36, 40} The enrichment of TpC>T changes in HIV-related tumors might suggest that HIV infection contributes to the *TP53* mutation pattern observed in this cohort.

Some studies have demonstrated that HIV-encoded proteins may interact with the p53 protein and modulate its function in different ways.⁴¹⁻⁴³ One of these HIV-encoded products, the Nef protein, is believed to interact with p53 and inhibit its function, thus promoting HIV infection and replication. Greenway et al. (2002)⁴⁴ observed that Nef inhibits p53-dependent apoptosis, and McLemore et al. (2010)¹⁹ found the expression of this protein in the cytoplasm of 7 HNSCC samples. These results might indicate that HIV infection would have a direct role in HNSCC pathogenesis independent of HPV infection.⁴⁵ HIV DNA, RNA and viral particles have been detected in the oral mucosa of HIV¹⁴⁶ and it has been demonstrated that epithelial cells from the oral mucosa lining are susceptible to HIV infection.⁴⁷ These findings might suggest a direct oncogenic effect of the virus on oral epithelial cells. More extensive sequencing would be necessary to confirm this.

Despite of the genetic differences observed among these patients, no significant difference in survival was observed in our analysis, considering HIV and HPV status, *TP53* mutation status and *TP53* mutation type. We believe that our small sample size might limit definitive conclusions on the impact of such variables in survival of HNSCC patients. The impact of such variables should be further investigated in larger cohorts.

Considering these results, we conclude that HIV-related HNSCC likely represent a distinct genomic entity. The alterations observed in this study must be validated in larger cohorts, but they suggest that HIV¹ are biologically distinct tumors. More studies are needed to understand the unique etiology, pathogenesis, and biology of these tumors and to determine if there are unique therapeutic modalities that will benefit these HNSCC patients.

References

1. Grulich AE, Van Leeuwen MT, Falster MO, Vajdic CM. Incidence of cancers in people with HIV/AIDS compared with immunosuppressed transplant recipients: a meta-analysis. **Lancet** 2007; 370:59–67.
2. Patel P, Hanson DL, Sullivan PS, Novak RM, Moorman AC. Incidence of Types of Cancer among HIV-Infected Persons Compared with the General Population in the United States , 1992 – 2003. **Ann. Intern. Med.** 2008; 1992–2003.
3. Lin C-S, Lin C, Weng S-F, Lin S-W, Lin Y-S. Cancer survival in patients with HIV/AIDS in the era of highly active antiretroviral therapy in Taiwan: A population-based cohort study. **Cancer Epidemiol.** 2013; 37:719–724.
4. Brickman C, Palefsky JM. Cancer in the HIV-Infected Host: Epidemiology and Pathogenesis in the Antiretroviral Era. **Curr. HIV/AIDS Rep.** 2015; 12:388–396.
5. Gritz ER, Vidrine DJ, Lazev AB, Amick BC, Arduino RC. Smoking behavior in a low-income multiethnic HIV/AIDS population. **Nicotine Tob. Res.** 2004; 6:71–77.
6. Mdodo R, Frazier EL, Dube SR, et al. Cigarette smoking prevalence among adults with HIV compared with the general adult population in the United States: Cross-sectional surveys. **Ann. Intern. Med.** 2015; 162:335–344.
7. Strickler HD, Burk RD, Fazzari M, et al. Natural history and possible reactivation of human papillomavirus in human immunodeficiency virus-positive women. **J. Natl. Cancer Inst.** 2005; 97:577–586.
8. Xi LF, Koutsky LA, Castle PE, et al. Relationship between cigarette smoking and human papilloma virus types 16 and 18 DNA load. **Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev.** 2009; 18:3490–3496.
9. Schabath MB, Villa LL, Lazcano-Ponce E, Salmerón J, Quiterio M, Giuliano AR. Smoking and human papillomavirus (HPV) infection in the HPV in men (HIM) study. **Cancer Epidemiol. Biomarkers Prev.** 2012; 21:102–110.
10. Mesri EA, Feitelson MA, Munger K. Human viral oncogenesis: A cancer hallmarks analysis. **Cell Host Microbe** 2014; 15:266–282.

Accepted Article

11. De Martel C, Shiels MS, Franceschi S, et al. Cancers attributable to infections among adults with HIV in the United States. **Aids** 2015; 29:2173-2181.
12. Engsig FN, Gerstoft J, Kronborg G, et al. Head and neck cancer in HIV patients and their parents: A Danish cohort study. **Clin. Epidemiol.** 2011; 3:217-227.
13. D'Souza G, Carey TE, William WN, et al. Epidemiology of Head and Neck Squamous Cell Cancer Among HIV-Infected Patients. **J AIDS-Journal Acquir. Immune Defic. Syndr.** 2014; 65:603-610.
14. Helleberg M, Gerstoft J, Afzal S, et al. Risk of cancer among HIV-infected individuals compared to the background population: impact of smoking and HIV. **AIDS** 2014; 28:1499-1508.
15. Singh B, Balwally AN, Shaha AR, Rosenfeld RM, Har-El G, Lucente FE. Upper aerodigestive tract squamous cell carcinoma. The human immunodeficiency virus connection. **Arch. Otolaryngol. Head. Neck Surg.** 1996; 122:639-643.
16. Powles T, Powles J, Nelson M, et al. Head and neck cancer in patients with human immunodeficiency virus-1 infection: incidence, outcome and association with Epstein-Barr virus. **J. Laryngol. Otol.** 2004; 118:207-212.
17. Walline HM, Carey TE, Goudsmit CM, et al. High-risk HPV, biomarkers, and outcome in matched cohorts of head and neck cancer patients positive and negative for HIV. **Mol. Cancer Res.** 2016; 15:179-188.
18. Mourad WF, Hu KS, Shasha D, et al. Long-term Outcome of Seropositive HIV Patients with Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma Treated with Radiation Therapy and Chemotherapy. **Anticancer Res** 2013; 33:5511-5516.
19. McLemore MS, Haigentz M, Smith R V., et al. Head and neck squamous cell carcinomas in HIV-positive patients: A preliminary investigation of viral associations. **Head Neck Pathol.** 2010; 4:97-105.
20. Agrawal N, Frederick MJ, Pickering CR, et al. Exome sequencing of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma reveals inactivating mutations in NOTCH1. **Science** 2011; 333:1154-1157.
21. Stransky N, Egloff AM, Tward AD, et al. The mutational landscape of head and neck

- squamous cell carcinoma. **Science** 2011; 333:1157–1160.
22. Lawrence MS, Sougnez C, Lichtenstein L, et al. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. **Nature** 2015; 517:576–582.
23. D'Souza G, Kreimer AR, Viscidi R, et al. Case-control study of human papillomavirus and oropharyngeal cancer. **N. Engl. J. Med.** 2007; 356:1944–1956.
24. Poeta ML, Manola J, Goldwasser MA, et al. TP53 Mutations and Survival in Squamous-Cell Carcinoma of the Head and Neck. **N. Engl. J. Med.** 2007; 357:2552–2561.
25. Neskey DM, Osman AA, Ow TJ, et al. Evolutionary action score of TP53 identifies high-risk mutations associated with decreased survival and increased distant metastases in head and neck cancer. **Cancer Res.** 2015; 75:1527–1536.
26. Picard A, Badoual C, Hourseau M, et al. HPV prevalence in HIV patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. **AIDS** 2016; 30:1257-1266.
27. Marur S, D'Souza G, Westra WH, Forastiere AA. HPV-associated head and neck cancer: A virus-related cancer epidemic. **Lancet Oncol.** 2010; 11:781–789.
28. Souza RP, Gimenes F, De Abreu AL, et al. Differences in the mutation of the p53 gene in exons 6 and 7 in cervical samples from HIV- and HPV-infected women. **Infect. Agent. Cancer** 2013; 8:38.
29. Zhou G, Wang J, Zhao M, et al. Gain-of-function mutant p53 promotes cell growth and cancer cell metabolism via inhibition of AMPK activation. **Mol. Cell** 2014; 54:960–974.
30. Pfeifer GP, Denissenko MF, Olivier M, Tretyakova N, Hecht SS, Hainaut P. Tobacco smoke carcinogens, DNA damage and p53 mutations in smoking-associated cancers. **Oncogene** 2002; 21:7435–7451.
31. Pickering CR, Zhang J, Neskey DM, et al. Squamous cell carcinoma of the oral tongue in young non-smokers is genomically similar to tumors in older smokers. **Clin. Cancer Res.** 2014; 20:3842–3848.
32. Hayes DN, Van Waes C, Seiwert TY. Genetic landscape of human papillomavirus-

- associated head and neck cancer and comparison to tobacco-related tumors. **J. Clin. Oncol.** 2015; 33:3227–3234.
33. Mangeat B, Turelli P, Caron G, Friedli M, Perrin L, Trono D. Broad antiretroviral defence by human APOBEC3G through lethal editing of nascent reverse transcripts. **Nature** 2003; 424:99–103.
34. Harris RS, Bishop KN, Sheehy AM, et al. DNA deamination mediates innate immunity to retroviral infection. **Cell** 2003; 113:803–809.
35. Bishop KN, Holmes RK, Sheehy AM, Malim MH. APOBEC-mediated editing of viral RNA. **Science** 2004; 305:645.
36. Matsumoto Y, Marusawa H, Kinoshita K, et al. Helicobacter pylori infection triggers aberrant expression of activation-induced cytidine deaminase in gastric epithelium. **Nat. Med.** 2007; 13:470–476.
37. Alexandrov LB, Nik-Zainal S, Wedge DC, et al. Signatures of mutational processes in human cancer. **Nature** 2013; 500:415–421.
38. Burns MB, Lackey L, Carpenter MA, et al. APOBEC3B is an enzymatic source of mutation in breast cancer. **Nature** 2013; 494:366–370.
39. Lindley RA. The importance of codon context for understanding the Ig-like somatic hypermutation strand-biased patterns in TP53 mutations in breast cancer. **Cancer Genet.** 2013; 206:222–226.
40. Henderson S, Chakravarthy A, Su X, Boshoff C, Fenton TR. APOBEC-Mediated Cytosine Deamination Links PIK3CA Helical Domain Mutations to Human Papillomavirus-Driven Tumor Development. **Cell Rep.** 2014; 7:1833–1841.
41. Izumi T, Io K, Matsui M, et al. HIV-1 viral infectivity factor interacts with TP53 to induce G2 cell cycle arrest and positively regulate viral replication. **Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.** 2010; 107:20798–20803.
42. Sato Y, Tsurumi T. Genome guardian p53 and viral infections. **Rev. Med. Virol.** 2013; 23:213–220.
43. Verma S, Ali A, Arora S, Banerjee AC. Inhibition of β -Trcp dependent ubiquitination of p53 by HIV-1 Vpu promotes p53 mediated apoptosis in human T cells. **Blood**

2011; 117:6600–6608.

44. Greenway AL, McPhee DA, Allen K, et al. Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 Nef binds to tumor suppressor p53 and protects cells against p53-mediated apoptosis. **J. Virol.** 2002; 76:2692–2702.
45. Kim RH, Yochim JM, Kang MK, Shin K-H, Christensen R, Park N-H. HIV-1 Tat enhances replicative potential of human oral keratinocytes harboring HPV-16 genome. **Int. J. Oncol.** 2008; 33:777–782.
46. Qureshi MN, Barr CE, Hewlitt I, et al. Detection of HIV in oral mucosal cells. **Oral Dis** 1997; 3 Suppl 1:S73–78.
47. Moore JS, Rahemtulla F, Kent LW, et al. Oral epithelial cells are susceptible to cell-free and cell-associated HIV-1 infection in vitro. **Virology** 2003; 313:343–353.

Accepted Article

Figure Legends

Fig.1 – Oncoprint showing the frequency of mutations detected in each studied group.

Fig.2 – Overall mutation pattern according to each studied groups; **Fig.2a** – Frequency of mutated and wild type cases for the studied genes (Y axis) according to each studied group. Groups with the same HPV status were compared showing a few number of mutated patients in HIV positive cases among HPV negative tumors; **Fig. 2b** – Number of genes mutated per patient in each studied group. No differences in number of genes mutated per patients are observed between groups with the same HPV status; **Fig. 2c** – Number of overall mutations per patient in each group. No differences in number of mutations per patients are observed between groups with the same HPV status.

Fig. 3 – Mutation maps of the *TP53* gene in each studied group. Green dots represent missense mutations; red dots represents truncating mutations; black dot represents in-frame indel; Truncating and in-frame indels are observed only among HPV negative cases. The frequency of truncating mutations among HIV positive cases is significantly higher than in HIV negative patients.

Fig. 4 – Distribution of nucleotide changes among the studied groups. **Fig.4a** – Frequency of nucleotide changes in all mutated genes among the four studied groups. **Fig.4b** – Frequency of nucleotide changes in all mutated genes among tumors from HIV+ and HIV- patients, irrespective of HPV status. **Fig.4c** – Frequency of nucleotide changes in *TP53* gene among the four studied groups. **Fig.3d** – Frequency of nucleotide changes in *TP53* gene among tumors from HIV+ and HIV- patients, irrespective of HPV status. **Fig.4e** – Frequency of each 5' nucleotide flanking

C>T mutations in all mutated genes, considering the four studied groups. **Fig.4f** -

Frequency of each 5' nucleotide flanking C>T mutations in all mutated genes among

tumors from HIV+ and HIV- patients, irrespective of HPV status. **Fig.4g** - Frequency of

each 5' nucleotide flanking C>T mutations in *TP53* gene, considering the four studied

groups. **Fig.4h** - Frequency of each 5' nucleotide flanking C>T mutations in TP53 gene

among tumors from HIV+ and HIV- patients, irrespective of HPV status.

Accepted Article

Table 1 – Clinical characteristics of the studied head and neck cancer patients

	HIV+ HPV+ N=9	HIV+ HPV- N=11	HIV- HPV+ N=6	HIV- HPV- N=26	p-value *	p-value **	p-value ***	
Gender	Male	8	9	6	0.309	1.000	0.205	
	Female	1	2	0				
Age	Mean±SD	43.8±10.5	52.3±7.07	54.6±7.03	0.061	0.036	0.384	
	Oral cavity	2	2	2	14			
Tumor site	Oropharynx	5	3	3	0.188	0.580	0.228	
	Larynx	0	3	1				4
	Other H&N sites	2	3	0				3

SD – Standard Deviation; p-value* - comparison among all four groups; p-value ** - comparison between HIV+ and HIV- patients among HPV+ tumors; p-value*** - comparison between HIV+ and HIV- patients among HPV- tumors

Accepted Article

Accepted Article

Table 2 – Mutation findings according HIV and HPV statuses

Mutation status		TCGA* 279 patients		HIV+ HPV+ 9 patients		HIV+ HPV- 11 patients		HIV- HPV+ 6 patients		HIV- HPV- 26 patients		p-value**	p-value***	p-value****				
		HPV+ N=36 Freq.	HPV- N=243 Freq.	# Cases	Mut. Freq.	# Mut.	# Cases	Mut. Freq.	# Mut.	# Cases	Mut. Freq.				# Mut.	# Cases	Mut. Freq.	# Mut.
AJUBA	WT	44	3	4	44.4	-	2	18.2	-	2	33.3	-	0	0	-	0.002	1.000	0.083
	Mut	56	97	5	55.6	8	9	81.8	26	4	66.7	5	26	100	79			
CASP8	WT	0	7	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	-	-	-
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
CCND1	WT	0	0.4	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	-	-	-
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
CDKN2A	WT	0	26	0	0	-	2	18.2	2	0	0	-	9	34.6	11	0.090	-	0.445
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
EGFR	WT	0	5	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	2	7.7	2	1.000	-	1.000
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
FAT1	WT	0	26	0	0	-	2	18.2	4	0	0	-	2	7.7	2	0.610	-	0.567
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
FBXW7	WT	2.8	5	0	0	-	1	9.1	1	0	0	-	3	11.5	4	0.881	-	1.000
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
HRAS	WT	0	5	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	2	7.7	2	1.000	-	1.000
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
KEAP1	WT	0	5	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	2	7.7	3	1.000	-	1.000
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
NFE2L2	WT	0	7	0	0	-	2	18.2	2	0	0	-	1	3.8	1	0.306	-	0.205
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
NOTCH1	WT	8	20	3	33.3	3	1	9.1	1	1	16.7	1	7	26.9	10	0.583	0.604	0.391
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
NOTCH2	WT	0	5	1	11.1	1	1	9.1	1	0	0	-	4	15.4	10	0.924	1.000	1.000
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
NSD1	WT	8	11	0	0	-	2	18.2	2	0	0	-	1	3.8	1	0.306	-	0.205
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
PIK3CA	WT	36	19	1	11.1	1	2	18.2	3	0	0	-	4	15.4	4	0.876	1.000	1.000
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
TGFBR2	WT	2.8	4	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	-	-	-
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
TP53	WT	2.8	84	1	11.1	3	9	81.8	9	4	66.7	4	23	88.5	26	<0.001	0.089	0.623
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			
TP63	WT	0	2.5	0	0	-	1	9.1	1	0	0	-	3	11.5	3	0.881	-	1.000
	Mut	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-			

*TCGA HNSCC mutation frequency per patient according to Lawrence et al. (2015); p-value** was calculated based on the groups HIV+HPV+, HIV+HPV-, HIV-HPV+ and HIV-HPV-; p-value*** was calculated based on the groups HIV+HPV+ and HIV-HPV+; p-value**** was calculated based on the groups HIV+HPV- and HIV-HPV-; WT – Wild type; Mut – Mutated; Freq. – Frequency; # cases = number of cases; Mut. Freq. – mutation frequency; # Mut. – number of mutations

Table 3 – Association between TP53 mutations score and clinical characteristics of the head and neck cancer patients

		Neskey et al. (2015) TP53 mutation score				Poeta et al. (2007) TP53 mutation score						
		WT	Low risk	High risk	Other [‡]	p-value	p-value*	WT	Non-disruptive	Disruptive	p-value	p-value*
Gender	<i>Male</i>	14	9	14	11	1.000	-	14	24	10	1.000	-
	<i>Female</i>	1	0	1	2		-	1	2	1		-
Age	<i>Mean±SD</i>	47.2±12.2	54.5±8.36	53.8±9.09	53.6±11.1	0.419	-	47.2±12.2	53.6±10.2	54.7±7.53	0.354	-
	<i>Oral cavity</i>	7	1	6	6	0.119	-	7	9	4	0.303	-
Tumor site	<i>Oropharynx</i>	7	3	5	1		-	7	7	2		-
	<i>Larynx</i>	0	4	2	2		-	0	5	3		-
	<i>Other H&NS</i>	1	1	2	4		-	1	5	2		-
HIV status	<i>Positive</i>	10	3	2	5	0.011	-	10	6	4	0.020	-
	<i>Negative</i>	5	6	13	8		-	5	20	7		-
HPV status	<i>Positive</i>	10	2	3	0	0.001	-	10	3	2	<0.001	-
	<i>Negative</i>	5	7	12	13		-	5	23	9		-
Virus infection status	<i>Present</i>	12	5	4	5	0.022	-	12	8	6	0.010	-
	<i>Absent</i>	3	4	11	8		-	3	18	5		-
HIV/HPV status	<i>+/+</i>	8	0	1	0	0.001	0.071	8	1	0	0.001	0.071
	<i>-/+</i>	2	2	2	0			2	2	2		
	<i>+/-</i>	2	3	1	5		0.210	2	5	4		0.448
	<i>-/-</i>	3	4	11	8			3	18	5		

[‡] Refers to mutations not classifiable by Neskey et al. (2015) system; p-value* was calculated by comparing groups with the same HPV status ; H&NS – Head and neck sites

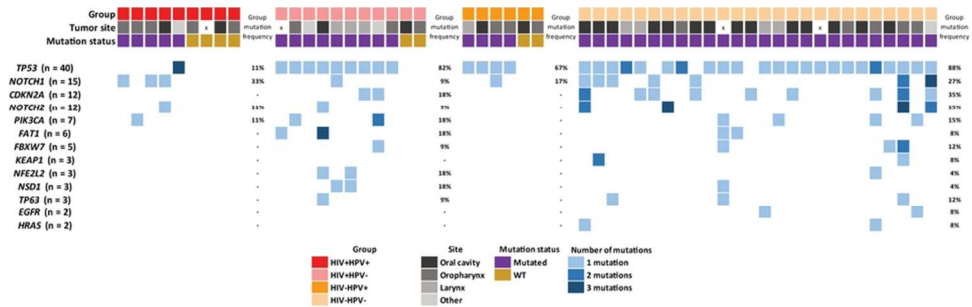


Fig.1 – Oncoprint showing the frequency of mutations detected in each studied group.

84x25mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Accepted A

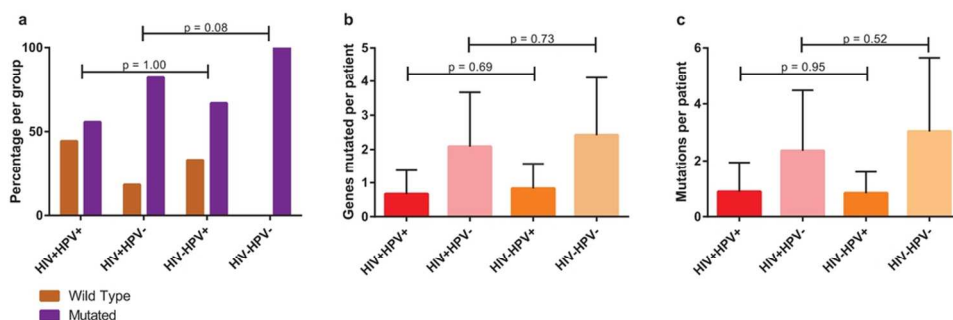


Fig.2 – Overall mutation pattern according to each studied groups; Fig.2a – Frequency of mutated and wild type cases for the studied genes (Y axis) according to each studied group. Groups with the same HPV status were compared showing a few number of mutated patients in HIV positive cases among HPV negative tumors; Fig. 2b – Number of genes mutated per patient in each studied group. No differences in number of genes mutated per patients are observed between groups with the same HPV status; Fig. 2c – Number of overall mutations per patient in each group. No differences in number of mutations per patients are observed between groups with the same HPV status.

93x34mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Accepted

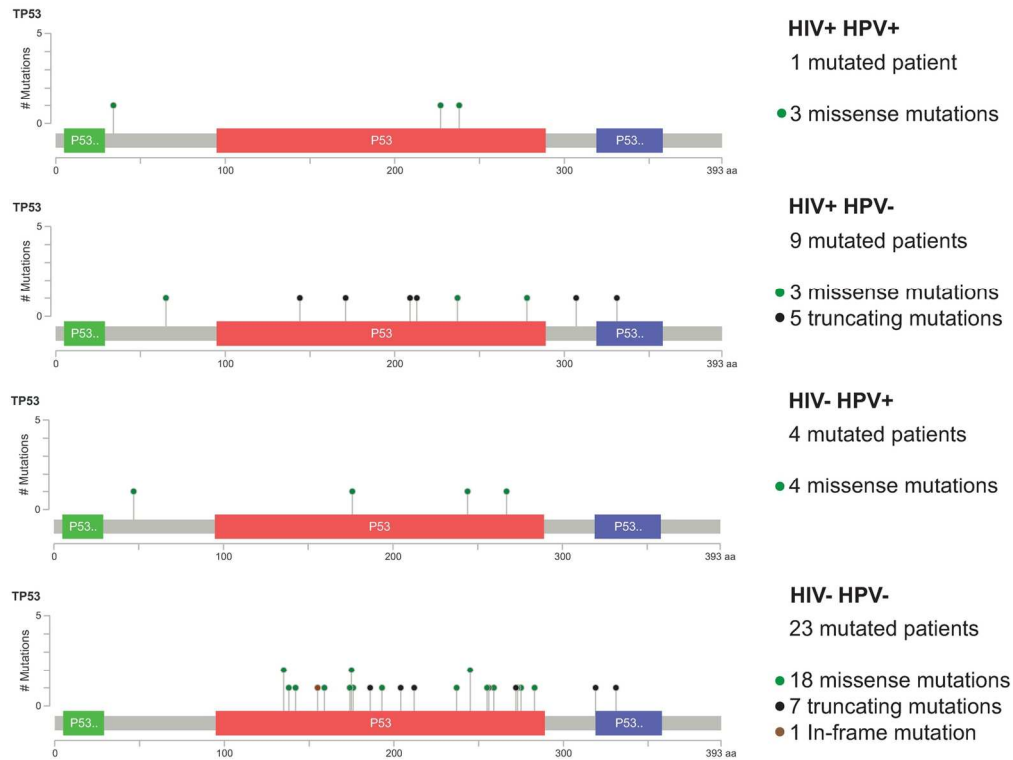


Fig. 3 – Mutation maps of the TP53 gene in each studied group. Green dots represent missense mutations; red dots represents truncating mutations; black dot represents in-frame indel; Truncating and in-frame indels are observed only among HPV negative cases. The frequency of truncating mutations among HIV positive cases is significantly higher than in HIV negative patients.

149x114mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Acce

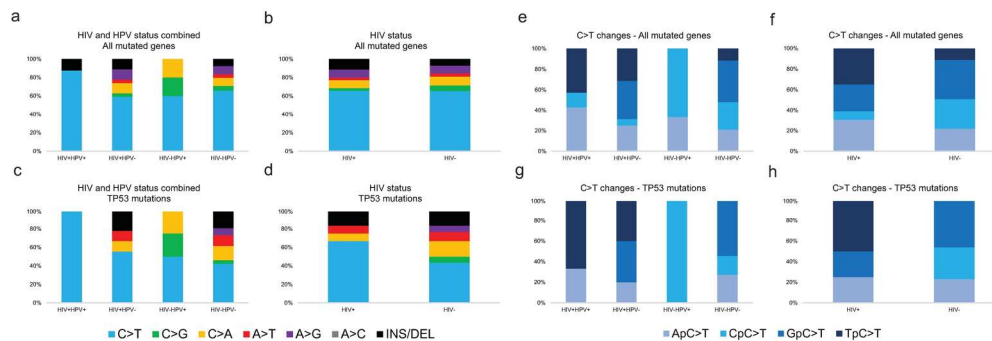


Fig. 4 – Distribution of nucleotide changes among the studied groups. Fig.4a – Frequency of nucleotide changes in all mutated genes among the four studied groups. Fig.4b – Frequency of nucleotide changes in all mutated genes among tumors from HIV+ and HIV- patients, irrespective of HPV status. Fig.4c – Frequency of nucleotide changes in TP53 gene among the four studied groups. Fig.4d – Frequency of nucleotide changes in TP53 gene among tumors from HIV+ and HIV- patients, irrespective of HPV status. Fig.4e – Frequency of each 5' nucleotide flanking C>T mutations in all mutated genes, considering the four studied groups. Fig.4f – Frequency of each 5' nucleotide flanking C>T mutations in all mutated genes among tumors from HIV+ and HIV- patients, irrespective of HPV status. Fig.4g – Frequency of each 5' nucleotide flanking C>T mutations in TP53 gene, considering the four studied groups. Fig.4h – Frequency of each 5' nucleotide flanking C>T mutations in TP53 gene among tumors from HIV+ and HIV- patients, irrespective of HPV status.

186x137mm (300 x 300 DPI)

AC