



Published in final edited form as:

Expert Opin Med Diagn. 2010 January 1; 4(1): 53–65. doi:10.1517/17530050903338068.

Advances and Perspectives in the Molecular Diagnosis of Head and Neck Cancer

Wojciech K. Mydlarz¹, Patrick T. Hennessey¹, and Joseph A. Califano^{1,2,*}

¹Department of Otolaryngology - Head and Neck Surgery, Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions, Baltimore, MD 21231 United States

²Milton J Dance Head and Neck Center, Greater Baltimore Medical Center, Baltimore, MD 21204, United States

Abstract

Background—Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) is a debilitating and lethal disease. Despite significant advances in radiotherapy and surgical management, the 5-year survival rate for head and neck cancer has remained a dismal 50%. Advances in early detection have been made, but to improve patient outcomes better biomarkers and targeted therapeutic agents are needed. Novel biomarkers can improve early detection and provide data to optimize therapeutic strategy and patient survival, and could lead to potentially effective targeted therapies.

Objective—Report the advances in the discovery of novel biomarkers for HNSCC, and review the potential utility of biomarkers in the molecular diagnosis of HNSCC.

Methods—A review of the English literature (PubMed) from 1980 to 2009.

Results/conclusion—Currently the most widely accepted biomarker for HNSCC is high risk HPV status. EGFR is another promising biomarker, however, further research is necessary to determine its prognostic benefit. A large number of promising biomarker candidates are currently being evaluated including epigenetic, expression, and genomic based markers. Studies to validate the sensitivity and specificity of these biomarkers in clinical samples from adequately powered prospective cohorts are needed for successful translation of these findings into potential molecular diagnostic, prognostic, and therapeutic biomarkers for HNSCC.

Keywords

head and neck cancer; molecular biology; diagnosis; biomarkers; human papillomavirus; epidermal growth factor receptor; loss of heterozygosity; epigenetics; DNA methylation; proteomics; RNA; microRNA

1. INTRODUCTION

Over 48,000 new cases of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) are diagnosed in the United States annually, with a mortality rate close to 12,000 deaths annually. This

Wojciech K. Mydlarz, M.D. Resident Physician Department of Otolaryngology – Head and Neck Surgery Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions JHOC 6210 601 N. Caroline Street Baltimore, MD 21287 Telephone: (410) 955-1932 Fax: (410) 955-6526 mydlarz@jhmi.edu. Patrick T. Hennessey, M.D. Resident Physician Department of Otolaryngology – Head and Neck Surgery Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions JHOC 6210 601 N. Caroline Street Baltimore, MD 21287 Telephone: (410) 955-1932 Fax: (410) 955-6526 phennes2@jhmi.edu. *Corresponding author Professor Department of Otolaryngology – Head and Neck Surgery Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions 1550 E Orleans Street CRB II, Room 504 Baltimore, MD 21231 Telephone: (410) 502-2692 Fax: (410) 502-2693 jcalifa@jhmi.edu.

corresponds to >4% of all new cancer cases and 2% of all cancer deaths in the United States each year. Overall, this disease affects more than 500,000 people in the world [1,2]. Despite aggressive multidisciplinary treatment approaches along with significant advances in surgery, chemotherapy and radiotherapy, the survival rate has only moderately improved, with the 5-year overall survival remaining at 50% over the past 30 years. Most patients with premalignant lesions and early stage cancers have a high cure rate and survival, but the vast majority of stage III and IV cases are fatal partly due to the relatively high local and regional recurrence rates. Unfortunately, only 30% of HNSCC in the United States are diagnosed at an early clinical stage [1-3]. Early detection of HNSCC could improve clinical outcomes, but there is no definitive evidence that widespread population screening using conventional methods like head and neck examination, fiberoptic endoscopy, and/or staining with direct visualization decreases mortality from HNSCC [4].

To improve patient outcomes, the development of reliable biomarkers and more effective therapeutic agents are necessary. The use of biological markers in body fluids for molecular detection of cancer has been the subject of an increasing number of translational studies with the intent to improve overall screening accuracy and cost-effectiveness. Body fluids can potentially carry whole cells as well as protein, DNA, and RNA species that allow for detection of cellular alteration in cancer. Previously published examples of body fluids used for detection include sputum analysis for lung cancer, urine for urologic tumors, saliva for HNSCC, breast fluid for breast cancer, and several reports using serum and/or plasma for other malignancies [5-16].

The goal of any robust molecular detection and diagnostic strategy is to identify pre-malignant and malignant tumors early, but also to be able to use available biomarkers to prognosticate and risk stratify patients, as well as predict therapeutic response to conventional treatments and treatment failures. Many examples can be found in other tumor models, most notably *O*⁶-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (*MGMT*) promoter methylation status in glioblastoma and the presence of *estrogen (ER)*, *progesterone (PR)* and *human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER-2)* receptors in breast cancer. *MGMT* promoter methylation status is a key feature of glioblastomas that characterizes the response of tumors to temozolamide and radiotherapy treatment in approximately a third of tumors. Methylation of this molecular biomarker is associated with not only marked improvement in treatment response, but also increased survival [17]. Similarly, *ER*, *PR* and *HER-2* receptor positivity in breast cancer dictates disease behavior, prognosis and treatment selection [18-20]. Tumors expressing *ER* and *PR* receptors respond frequently to endocrine therapy with Tamoxifen and carry a much better prognosis. Most of these patients can avoid aggressive and toxic chemotherapy agents while still being effectively treated for the disease. *HER-2* status is a marker of more aggressive disease with higher recurrence rate and frequent resistance to standard chemotherapeutic therapies, but at the same time can stratify patients to tailored therapy with Herceptin, a *HER-2* specific antibody [21,22].

Molecular and cellular biology are promising fields of study in HNSCC that continually lead to the discovery of novel biomarkers and potential therapeutic targets. In addition, advancements in head and neck cancer epidemiology, genetics, epigenetics, proteomics, RNA and microRNA, along with the rapid development of high throughput microarray technology and powerful bioinformatics that allow integration of complex data and molecular pathways, all help elucidate the complex picture of HNSCC tumorigenesis. The use of molecular biomarkers, multiple gene detection panels and targeted therapeutics are becoming a reality in everyday clinical practice. However, translational research studies need to continue as further insight into the molecular basis of head and neck cancer will yield advances in early screening and diagnosis, and ultimately hopefully translate into improved clinical outcomes. In the

following sections, we will review and discuss recent discoveries in HNSCC tumor biology, and their impact on potential molecular screening and diagnosis of head and neck cancer.

2. MOLECULAR PROGNOSTIC FACTORS

2.1 Human papillomavirus infection in head and neck cancer

Tobacco and alcohol consumption are two primary environmental risk factors associated with the development of HNSCC. In the last two decades new insight into head and neck cancer epidemiology recognized that infection with viral pathogens such as human papillomavirus (HPV) play an important causal role in the pathogenesis of a unique subset of oropharyngeal HNSCC, similar to the role HPV infection plays in cervical cancer [23-29]. Human papillomavirus is present in up to 60% of patients with oropharyngeal HNSCC and confers a favorable prognosis in terms of recurrence and mortality, and is a distinct established entity that can be reliably diagnosed.

Briefly, human papillomavirus is a ~7.9 kb, non-enveloped, double-stranded, circular DNA virus that has a specific tropism for squamous epithelium. There are 13 known high-risk HPV types that can transform cells that may lead to cancer, but only high-risk HPV subtypes 6, 16, 18, 31, 33 and 35 have been identified as playing a role in the development of oropharyngeal HNSCC [24,27,30-38]. Regardless of the study population, high-risk HPV16 accounts for the overwhelming majority (90–95%) of HPV-positive tumors [38]. The *E6* and *E7* oncoproteins contained within the viral genome are able to disrupt the function of *Rb* and *p53*, which are well known tumor suppressor genes, leading to development of a malignant phenotype [39].

Most of the HPV related tumors are primarily found within the lingual and palatine tonsils, otherwise known as the Waldeyer's tonsillar ring, and they distinguish themselves as a separate entity from other HPV negative HNSCC tumors [33]. HPV positive HNSCC patients are usually non-smokers and non-drinkers and present at a more advanced stage at initial diagnosis [24,31,40]. In a study restricted to patients with oropharyngeal cancers, nonsmokers were approximately 15-fold more likely to have a diagnosis of HPV positive HNSCC than smokers [41]. More recently, several clinical studies showed that HPV is an independent risk factor, and does not merely modify the risk of HNSCC associated with tobacco and alcohol exposure [42]. Patients with HPV positive HNSCC are approximately 5 years younger than HPV negative HNSCC patients with equal distribution among the sexes [30-32]. Risk factors for HPV related HNSCC include a high lifetime number of vaginal-sex partners of 26 or more as well as a high lifetime number of oral-sex partners of 6 or more, and seropositivity for HPV16 viral capsid protein antibodies carries a 15-fold increased risk for HNSCC [42].

HPV status of tumors also improves our ability to provide an accurate prognosis. HPV positive patients have a much higher response to therapy than non-HPV related HNSCC, which translates into much improved clinical prognosis and survival. In the majority of studies, patients with HPV positive tumors have as much as a 60–80% reduction in risk of dying from their cancer when compared with the HPV negative patient after controlling for other risk factors [24,41,43-46]. HPV positive patients also had a much higher response rate to radiation, chemotherapy and chemoradiation treatments, and a significantly higher 2-year overall survival (95% vs 62%) [40,41].

Through detailed epidemiological studies, the establishment of the causal relationship between HPV infection and oropharyngeal cancer has improved the ability to diagnose and locate disease even in occult primary tumors. Molecular detection of HPV in metastatic cervical lymph nodes is a highly effective strategy for localizing the site of tumor origin to the oropharynx [47]. Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and other molecular techniques were also used to evaluate the presence of HPV DNA in exfoliated oral mucosal

cells from patient surveillance salivary rinses. HPV-16 positivity in surveillance salivary rinses had a sensitivity and specificity for recurrence diagnosis of 50% and 100%, respectively. HPV 16 DNA could be detected in follow-up surveillance salivary rinses on average 3.5 months before the definitive clinical diagnosis of disease recurrence. HPV 16 positive surveillance salivary rinses were a marker for poor prognosis due to locoregional recurrence and distant metastasis, and patients were at high risk for recurrence [48]. HPV positivity is therefore a robust molecular biomarker for a subset of head and neck cancers that has potential to be used as a valuable surveillance molecular biomarker.

Oropharyngeal HNSCC is therefore a distinct subsite entity that can be reliably diagnosed using molecular techniques looking at HPV status; most robust molecular diagnostic and prognostic marker to date. In terms of screening, there is some controversy as there is no unanimously accepted specific antigen used for HPV detection, making comparison of clinical data and uniform clinical trial design difficult. The most widely applied detection methods are PCR based amplification of the HPV genome. However, these methods are extremely sensitive as they can detect even a few copies of DNA per sample, resulting in false-positive results. Moreover, HPV-DNA presence does not prove viral causation for the neoplastic transformation and may reflect only a transient infection, as most studies show only a fraction of HPV DNA positive tumors expressing viral proteins [49]. Hence HPV genome integration, transcription and detection of viral proteins to identify biologically active virus in tumors is key. Some studies use antibodies specific for the *L1* capsid proteins, while others propose the use of *E6* and *E7* oncoprotein specific antibodies to detect HPV [50]. The biological relevance of this is yet to be resolved, though detecting biologically active virus in tumors is the key for therapeutic clinical studies. Commercially available in situ hybridization assays for HPV DNA are for now the gold standard tests for clinical classification of an HPV positive tumor as described by Gillison [51].

Currently HPV is the most valid molecular diagnostic test for HNSCC and given the favorable response to therapy and improved prognosis, the current American Joint Committee on Cancer staging system for head and neck cancer may be modified to reflect these important differences. HPV testing is becoming a part of a molecular staging system for HNSCC. Possible future diagnostic tests that would likely have high specificity but low sensitivity for a diagnosis of HPV-associated HNSCC will include the detection of HPV16 DNA in plasma and saliva [48,52]. Other screening tests like fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) on papanicolaou smears obtained directly from tumors and HPV16 *E6* and *E7* seroreactivity are other tests currently being investigated.

In similar fashion, *Bcl-2* may be another biomarker that proves to be an important HNSCC prognostic marker. *Bcl-2* acts downstream from the HPV dysregulated *Rb* and *p53* pro-apoptotic pathway, by blocking *p73*, a tumor suppressor gene related to *p53* that shares many of its proapoptotic functions [53]. Recently, a study by Rocco *et al.* showed that tumors overexpressing *Bcl-2* have a 6-fold greater risk of treatment failure with cisplatin-based chemoradiation treatment. Immunohistochemical assessment of *Bcl-2* in pretreatment biopsies predicted response of oropharyngeal HNSCC to therapy, and could prove to be another independent prognostic marker besides HPV as there was no correlation between HPV infection and *Bcl-2* status [54]. More research is required to determine the potential interactions between HPV and *Bcl-2* status in predicting outcome in oropharyngeal HNSCC.

2.2 Epidermal growth factor receptor

The *epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)* is a widely studied oncogene in HNSCC. This receptor tyrosine kinase belongs to the *ErbB* family of cell surface receptors and has many downstream signaling targets associated with tumorigenesis. Once activated, the receptor can signal via multiple pathways such as *MAPK*, *Akt*, *ERK*, and *Jak/STAT*. These pathways are

related to cellular proliferation, apoptosis, invasion, angiogenesis, and metastasis [55-57]. In general, expression of *EGFR* is a normal finding in many tissues including the dermis, gastrointestinal tract and kidneys. However, dysfunction in the signaling of this receptor and its downstream targets commonly occurs in most epithelial cancers, but also in over 80% of HNSCC cases [56-58]. *EGFR* is a promising marker and prognosticator of disease, and the understanding of its molecular biology has led directly to biologically significant targeted therapies.

Initial studies found that *EGFR* was upregulated in HNSCC cell lines and in a high percentage of primary HNSCC tumors [59-61]. Furthermore, histopathologically normal mucosa adjacent to cancer had a high degree of overexpression, and upregulation of *EGFR* is an important step in the transition from dysplasia to HNSCC [62,63]. It seems that *EGFR* is an important step in tumorigenesis and a useful prognostic molecular marker since elevated levels of expression confers poor survival [64]. In 2005, the continuous hyperfractionated accelerated radiotherapy (CHART) head and neck cancer phase III clinical trial, demonstrated that overexpression of *EGFR* in pre-treatment biopsies is a robust biomarker for improved response to radiotherapy and could serve as a predictive marker for therapeutic response, encouraging further development of *EGFR* targeting combined with radiotherapy [65].

Follow-up studies showed that *EGFR* is also a potential therapeutic target for tyrosine kinase inhibitors as well as other anti-*EGFR* targeted molecules [65-67]. Cetuximab is one of the most well studied monoclonal antibodies directed against *EGFR*. A recently published Phase III clinical trial examined the effects of this drug in conjunction with radiotherapy in the treatment of locoregionally advanced HNSCC. This study demonstrated an overall survival benefit (49 vs. 29 months) and increased duration of locoregional control (24.4 vs. 14.9 months) in the cetuximab plus radiotherapy arm versus the arm receiving radiotherapy alone. This was the first randomized study showing a survival benefit with an *EGFR* targeting agent in locally advanced HNSCC [66,67].

EGFR continues to be an important area of ongoing research, especially focusing on tumor specific response to therapy and survival outcome, but also detection. The challenge for molecular diagnostics is that there is no uniform assay or definition for aberrant expression of *EGFR* making it difficult to standardize results and design future diagnostic studies.

2.3 Genetics and loss of heterozygosity

The previously formulated genetic progression model for HNSCC states that there is a relatively common pattern of DNA allelic loss during the progression from premalignant to malignant phenotype [68]. Using simple PCR-based molecular techniques, one can identify these losses of genetic material, represented by complete deletion, or loss, of one allele, otherwise known as loss of heterozygosity (LOH). Tumor suppressor genes (TSG) may be in the area of loss and thus would make the cell more susceptible to dysfunction of these genes, which could lead to cancer development, especially if the same gene already contains a deleterious mutation on the matching allele.

One of the most promising areas currently under investigation is the ability to analyze premalignant and tumor margin tissue for regions of LOH known to be associated with increased risk of progression to carcinoma. Several regions of chromosomal loss are commonly found in HNSCC. One of the earliest and most common of all genetic changes associated with HNSCC tumorigenesis is the loss of chromosome region 9p21–22 which occurs at a frequency of 70% [69]. Loss of chromosome region 3p also occurs but less frequently. Thirty percent of the earliest precancerous lesions also exhibited loss at either 9p21 or 3p [70]. Such studies indicate that LOH is a common event in both malignant and premalignant lesions that could carry significance in early diagnostics and tumor surveillance.

Patients with premalignant mucosal lesions demonstrating loss of chromosomes 9p21 and 3p14 more frequently progressed to HNSCC compared to patients without LOH at these loci [71]. Benign premalignant lesions that harbor these genetic losses had a 3.8-fold increased risk of progression to cancer. When additional chromosomal losses are acquired including 4q, 8p, 11q, or 17p, the risk increased 33-fold [72]. Another study looking at cumulative genetic loss and its relationship with progression to cancer screened premalignant lesions for LOH for several markers including 3p21, 8p21-23, 9p21, 13q14.2, 17p13.1, and 18q21.1 and showed that having LOH in two more of these regions carried a 73% probability of developing cancer within 5 years [73]. More recently, several smaller studies looking at tumor margins that are histologically normal have also shown that LOH of the field of cancerization frequently found in oral HNSCC may lead to cancer and that these transformed cells originated from the same clonal lineage [74,75].

Unfortunately, LOH screening panels are currently not available commercially. Large scale LOH testing, however, is in the developmental phase and being used in several screening and surveillance federally funded clinical trials for squamous cell carcinoma of the upper aerodigestive tract. In the future, it is clear that LOH testing will improve our ability to accurately diagnose and treat pre-microscopic disease, which is an important step towards decreasing the risk of recurrence and increasing overall survival in HNSCC patients.

3. MOLECULAR DETECTION STRATEGIES

3.1 Epigenetics

The field of epigenetics has greatly impacted our understanding of cancer biology. Epigenetics is defined as the stable inheritance of genetic information based on gene expression levels without changes in the genetic code. The heritable modifications of DNA occur through several pathways including alterations in DNA methylation and histone modification. These epigenetic alterations have been associated with cancer-specific gene expression differences in human malignancies, and are known to occur early in tumorigenesis [76].

Methylation of the 5' carbon of the cytosine ring within cytosine-guanine dinucleotides (CpGs) by the enzyme class DNA methyltransferases is a commonly found epigenetic modification frequently studied in humans. CpG methylation occurs in close proximity to the transcriptional start site, leading to block transcription and recruit histone modifiers. This ultimately results in tightly packed heterochromatin and gene silencing that is both species and tissue specific [77]. As a novel mechanism of gene regulation, epigenetic control of tumor suppressor genes (TSGs) was quickly proposed as a potentially important mechanism of carcinogenesis [78-80]. Hypermethylation of CpG gene promoter regions has been primarily considered as the mechanism of TSG inactivation, but more recently several studies re-emphasize the importance of early studies of hypomethylation in tumor development and its potential for unmasking expression of putative oncogenes [78,81-89].

Sodium bisulfite treatment of DNA, which converts non-methylated cytosines to uracil, and more recent development of new assays such as quantitative methylation-specific (QMSP) and quantitative unmethylation-specific PCR (QUMSP) have further advanced our ability to evaluate the methylation status of tissue samples [87,90-92]. With these advances, many different TSGs in various tumor types have been shown to be down-regulated by hypermethylation, and the utilization of comprehensive whole genome profiling approaches to promoter hypermethylation has identified novel putative TSGs silenced by promoter hypermethylation [93].

Dysregulation of DNA methylation and the associated gene expression changes in tumors and pre-malignant tissues makes DNA methylation profiling an attractive target for molecular

studies, and since it is heritable but reversible, it also has great potential for identifying novel therapeutic targets [81]. The potential for quick real-time and high throughput analysis of samples makes these new findings ideal for study as novel molecular biomarkers not only in primary tissues but other biologic fluids and compartments. Rigorous testing is necessary on separate validation cohorts to calculate the sensitivity and specificity of these potential biomarkers.

Studies of promoter methylation in primary tissues have uncovered many putative TSGs in HNSCC including *p16*, *lhx-6* (*DIME-6*), ATM, p15, TIMP-3, MGMT, RARB-2, DAP-K, E-cadherin, Cyclin A1, RASSF1A, CDKN2A, CDH1 and *DCC*. These genes are known to function in pathways that control cell cycle progression, apoptosis, cell to cell adhesion, DNA repair and tumor invasion [94-108]. With the continued advent of new molecular techniques and whole genome screening strategies using array-based DNA methylation profiling, the list of TSGs that are silenced through promoter hypermethylation continues to grow at a rapid pace. New technology that utilizes such an array-based platform for genome wide epigenetic profiling has already been put to use to study distinct patterns of DNA methylation in HNSCC. This holds promise for integration of epigenetic and expression array data and continued discovery and validation of gene targets [109]. Successful screening and surveillance strategies involve the collection of genomic material from patients using minimally invasive approaches. This makes both oral rinses and serum analysis attractive options for patients with HSNCC. It is widely accepted that oral rinses harbor either naked DNA or shed cells that might harbor cancer DNA that could be used for detection or surveillance of HNSCC. The use of serum and salivary rinse DNA analysis has already been shown in limited cohorts with a small number of genes to successfully identify differential promoter hypermethylation patterns and can potentially predict the likelihood of developing metastatic disease [11,12,110-113]. Therefore, both salivary rinses and serum provide good mediums for collecting genomic content as a means of diagnosis and surveillance.

On a more global scale, unique hypermethylation profile panels give us the molecular ability to differentiate cancer from normal, but also to define certain specific cancer types [114,115]. Using these principles and the screening strategies mentioned above, an extended panel of promoter hypermethylation markers has demonstrated an improved ability to detect epigenetic changes associated with HNSCC in salivary rinses and serum. Using different combinations of these genes allows for improved detection of HNSCC by QMSP in both salivary rinses and serum compared with single markers, which holds promise for development of screening and diagnostics panels in HNSCC [116].

Evidence also supports a role for hypomethylation in tumor development, and global genomic hypomethylation has been reported in almost all solid tumors, including HNSCC [81-83,88]. A meta-analysis based on several different types of solid human tumors, showed an overall correlation between global hypomethylation and advanced tumor stage [83]. To date, only sporadic examples of promoter hypomethylation associated with unmasked expression of putative oncogenes have been reported, including *R-Ras* and *MAGE-A1* and *A3* in gastric cancer [85,86], the *Hox11* proto-oncogene in leukemia [89], *BCL-2* gene hypomethylation and high-level expression in B-cell chronic lymphocytic lymphomas [84], and rare activation of two *RAS* family members in colon cancer and small cell lung cancer [78]. These observations demonstrate that proto-oncogenes with tissue-specific expression may be inappropriately re-expressed in cancers via epigenetic alteration, including demethylation. A recent report uncovered aberrant activation of candidate proto-oncogenes via promoter demethylation in HNSCC as well as lung cancer [87]. Upregulation of these genes was shown to carry biological significance in tumor development and are yet another group of potential novel biomarkers that could hold promise for molecular detection and aid in the diagnosis of HNSCC.

3.2 Proteomics

Proteomics has emerged as one of the new avenues of research in cancer biology, and the impact in HNSCC remains to be seen. Proteomics involves the high-throughput global analysis of proteins within biologic samples. These assays have been applied in studying HNSCC samples and have shown promising results. A number of tumor-associated proteins were frequently found to be significantly altered in their expression levels in HNSCC tissues, compared with their paired normal mucosa, including *stratifin*, *stathmin*, *heat shock protein 27*, and *superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD2)* [117-120]. The patterns detected and the particular proteins identified, from tissue and serum, can be used to characterize the tumors, as well as provide insights into the mechanisms involved in carcinogenesis [14,15,121]. In one study, supervised prediction analysis revealed excellent classification of healthy mucosa and tumor samples, with 94.5% and 92.9% samples correctly classified, respectively. Such proteomic profiling in conjunction with protein identification greatly outperformed histopathological diagnosis, and a significant association between aberrant protein profiles and tumor recurrence was found [119]. Elevated *SOD2* levels were also recently associated with lymph node metastasis in HNSCC and may provide predictive values for diagnosis of metastasis [122]. Serum analysis by protein profiles also proves to be robust in molecular detection of HNSCC with peak sensitivity and specificity of 83% and 100%, respectively [14,15,121].

There are some drawbacks and limitations to using proteomics to analyze valuable and limited clinical specimens. Often there are only subtle changes present in cancer that could be key in cancer signaling processes. Unfortunately, current protein detection is insensitive in detecting these subtle changes in oncoprotein expression and activation, and the process itself requires large numbers of cells from tumor specimens for analysis. The ability to detect specific proteins and their activation is likely to be highly useful in the development of new targeted therapeutics, as well as in monitoring their effectiveness and results. The field of proteomics continues to evolve and new technology is now available which has the potential to enable researchers to complete highly specific analysis of proteins from these limited or low-yield clinical samples. Fan *et al.* recently reported on development of a nanofluidic proteomic immunoassay to quantify total and low-abundance protein isoforms in nanoliter volumes, which promises to revolutionize the field of proteomics and potentially bring it one step closer for clinical diagnostic use [123].

There is much more that needs to be done in terms of the bioinformatic analysis of these assays and in the proper identification of the exact protein signatures. Once there is a better understanding of the data produced by proteomic studies, and the data is correlated with DNA and RNA expression profiles and other known genetic alterations, there is potential for development of a broader array of serum analyses whereby the diagnosis, response to therapy, and recurrence might be detected by a simple blood test. Active research investigation needs to continue in this area as the implications of specific results could have profound clinical and diagnostic implications.

3.3 RNA and MicroRNA

Similar to DNA and protein-based detection strategies, RNA, including microRNA (miRNA), may also be used for identification of altered gene expression patterns in cancer. Cancer-related nucleic acids can be isolated and detected in blood, urine, cerebrospinal fluid and saliva utilizing reverse transcription-PCR detection strategies, and have been used as biomarkers for cancer diagnosis [124-127]. As is true in high throughput analysis of DNA and protein samples, there is growing availability of powerful and cost-efficient microarray technologies that enable mass screening of messenger RNA (mRNA) and miRNA profiles.

Microarray analysis uncovered a large panel of human mRNA signatures that exist in saliva and suggested that salivary transcriptome analysis could be useful in diagnostics and surveillance of oral head and neck cancer patients [125]. Further work demonstrated that differentially expressed mRNA transcripts between cancer and normal patient salivary samples could be identified and used as potential biomarkers for cancer detection. Analysis showed that close to 1700 genes exhibited significantly different expression level in saliva between cancer patients and controls. Several salivary mRNA biomarkers for oral HNSCC were identified including *DUSP1*, *H3F3A*, *OAZ1*, *S100P*, *SAT*, *IL8* and *IL1B*. Aberrantly expressed mRNA transcripts exhibited at least a 3.5 fold elevation in cancer patients, and the combination of the biomarker panel yielded a sensitivity and specificity of 91% in distinguishing oral HNSCC from the controls [128].

With the discovery of miRNA molecules in *Caenorhabditis elegans* in 1993, a novel method of gene expression regulation was revealed. MicroRNA molecules are small ~22 nucleotide, non-coding RNA molecules that have been shown to regulate post-transcriptional gene expression by relatively nonspecific binding to the 3'-untranslated region of mRNA [129, 130]. These miRNAs are thought to be involved in a host of cellular processes including differentiation, apoptosis, and proliferation. MicroRNA have recently been an area of interest for a variety of human diseases including cancer. The expression profiles have been established for many different cancers and seem to be unique to each cancer [131]. Interestingly, it has been demonstrated that miRNAs with putative tumor suppressor function may also undergo epigenetic silencing in cancer [132,133].

MiRNAs play a large regulatory role and are a powerful tool in studying perturbations in gene expression. MiRNA arrays are now also being performed on HNSCC, but the interpretation of the results is still in its preliminary stages [134]. Nonetheless, there is increasing evidence of aberrant expression of miRNAs in HNSCC. When evaluating the expression pattern of 156 mature miRNAs in HNSCC of the oral cavity, *miR-133a* and *miR-133b* were significantly reduced in tumor specimens when compared with paired normal epithelial samples, resulting in activation of a potential oncogene *pyruvate kinase type M2* [135]. A more recent study identified several miRNA alterations in primary HNSCC tissue samples that correlated with cell line studies showing biological significance [136]. These miRNA perturbations are being applied in the development of clinical biomarkers for HNSCC disease [137]. Avissar *et al.* used miRNA microarrays and separate validation to reliably confirm 4 differentially expressed miRNAs in HNSCC tissues. Using miRNA expression ratios, they found that the *miRNA-221/miRNA-375* seems to be predictive of HNSCC with a sensitivity and specificity of 92% and 93%, respectively. It is important to note that miRNA profiles of cell lines can differ greatly from primary tissue as cell lines potentially develop variant miRNA signatures during the culturing process [138]. Hence it is critical that miRNA biomarker discoveries are performed in primary human tissue.

The interactions of the miRNAs can be difficult to predict, and each one may have several hundred to more than a thousand putative targets due to their relatively nonspecific binding to target mRNA. However, there is no question that they play a large role in the regulation of gene expression, and could potentially be utilized as molecular biomarkers in tissue as well as body fluids such as serum and saliva. This is an active area of investigation in many different cancer models, including head and neck cancer. Further study is necessary to look at miRNA use in diagnostic tests, prognostic significance or even as possible therapeutic targets.

4. CONCLUSION

Despite significant advances in clinical practice and treatment, the clinical outcomes in head and neck cancer only moderately improved. Early detection and novel robust screening

strategies are needed to improve survival and morbidity associated with this disease. Continued support for basic science and translational research is necessary for the identification and characterization of novel biomarkers in head and neck cancer as they may provide sensitive targets for molecular screening tests that ultimately will power molecular diagnostics and surveillance. The field of molecular biology has been growing exponentially, especially when it comes to understanding the increasing complexity of head and neck cancer. Several robust molecular markers of the disease have been found and are being actively validated; most notably HPV infection and *EGFR* status. These are the leading candidates for developing novel diagnostic and therapeutic strategies for HNSCC specifically. Further advancements in the molecular biologic understanding of HNSCC have significant potential for screening, diagnosis, prognosis, surveillance and treatment selection of patients with this disease. The ultimate goal of understanding the molecular biology of HNSCC is to try and apply this information to everyday clinical practice, similarly to the current utility of HPV and *EGFR*, in an effort to improve patient outcomes with the use of molecular markers for robust screening, prognostic assessment, treatment response and diagnostics, collectively referred to as theragnostics.

5. EXPERT OPINION

Steady development of new technology and novel techniques aimed at elucidating additional aberrant molecular alterations characteristic of HNSCC, including the advent of high throughput assays and the development of more sophisticated bioinformatics tools, help elucidate the complex tumorigenesis of HNSCC. With novel genome-wide molecular assays, the ability to detect these abnormalities has improved, and led to the discovery of many molecular biomarkers in HNSCC that can be used for molecular detection and diagnosis.

The goal of any robust molecular detection and diagnostic strategy is to identify pre-malignant and malignant tumors early, but also to be able to use available biomarkers to prognosticate and risk stratify patients, as well as predict therapeutic response to conventional treatments and treatment failures. Most of the molecular diagnostic strategies and risk stratification in HNSCC are concentrated on HPV and *EGFR* status of tumor tissues, while LOH and other genetic aberrations are proving important in the analysis and prognosis of pre-malignant lesions as is being studied in several ongoing clinical trials. HPV positivity in HNSCC confers a favorable prognosis in terms of radiation sensitivity, recurrence and overall mortality. Notably, HPV is a reliable biomarker that can be used to help diagnose HNSCC, but more importantly it can be used to risk stratify patients and help direct treatment plans based on the disease behavior and prognosis [23-29,40]. Currently, this is the most valid and robust molecular diagnostic and prognostic biomarker to date for HNSCC. Similarly, *EGFR* is also a promising marker and prognosticator of disease, and the understanding of its molecular biology has led directly to biologically significant targeted therapies with tyrosine kinase inhibitors and Cetuximab, though problems associated with these molecular therapies and their mechanism of action need to continue to be studied. Upregulation of *EGFR* is an important step in the transition from dysplasia to HNSCC [62,63], and its overexpression in pre-treatment biopsies can be a robust biomarker for improved response to various therapeutic modalities [64-67]. LOH is a common event in both premalignant and malignant lesions that could carry significance in early diagnostics and tumor surveillance. Patients with benign premalignant lesions that harbored HNSCC specific genetic losses and LOH had a significantly increased risk of developing cancer [72,73]. All of these are proving to be powerful molecular biomarkers based on tissue analysis, with great predictive power in terms of tumor behavior and treatment outcomes and we will see them used increasingly in clinical practice worldwide.

Similarly to tissue analysis, the use of molecular markers in body fluids has been explored in many tumor models, including HNSCC, with the intent to improve screening accuracy and

cost-effectiveness of diagnostic testing. Body fluids are therefore invaluable resources as they act as a surrogate test vessel that harbors biological markers that originate from primary tissue sources. Samples are easily prepared for high-throughput testing, while collection is minimally invasive for patients and requires only limited resources and staff training. Epigenetic DNA alterations and the real-time PCR methodology utilized for analysis allows for an objective, robust, and rapid assessment of these changes. This technology holds great promise with regards to molecular diagnosis using body fluid samples. Sputum from lung cancer patients can detect aberrant promoter methylation in patients with squamous cell lung carcinoma up to 3 years before clinical diagnosis [10], and prospectively, a panel of hypermethylated genes is able to identify high-risk patients [139]. Similarly in HNSCC, the ability to group previously identified hypermethylated gene targets into detection panels has greatly improved the ability to detect and screen for epigenetic changes in both serum and salivary rinses [116]. Specificity reached as high as 97.1% but was unfortunately usually associated with low sensitivity, limiting its use in population-based screening, although several identified panels with high sensitivity but low specificity show promise for surveillance in a high-risk population.

Analysis of protein, RNA, and miRNA aberrations in tumors has also contributed to a growing list of potential HNSCC biomarkers, which have been used in multiple molecular detection panels performed on sample microchip technology. This also holds great promise for high-throughput real-time sample analysis for development of molecular diagnostic tests in body fluids; pending validation and testing. Proteomic profiling in conjunction with protein identification are already being verified in various biological fluids from HNSCC patients and are proving superior to histopathologic evaluation [119], and are reaching sensitivity and specificity levels up to 83% and 100%, respectively [14,15,121].

The increasing availability of microarray technology that enables mass screening of mRNA has uncovered a salivary transcriptome that is potentially both sensitive and specific for oral HNSCC, reaching a sensitivity and specificity of 91% [128]. Although these findings are based on a small sample size they continue to hold promise for the role of mRNA profiling in diagnostics as is true for miRNA. With increasing evidence of aberrant expression of miRNA in HNSCC, results from preliminary panel based arrays on tissue show sensitivity and specificity of up to 92% and 93%, respectively [138]. Active research investigation needs to continue in the molecular detection of body fluid as the implications of specific results could have great clinical implications in the realm of diagnostics, especially because of the minimally invasive nature of body fluid collection and its availability.

Many of these advances have lead to an increasing number of translational studies in the diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment of head and neck cancer. The end result is that molecular biomarkers, gene detection panels and targeted therapeutics are becoming a reality for the care of patients with HNSCC. This cannot be over emphasized as the statistics show only modest improvement in survival of patients with HNSCC over the last 30 years, despite aggressive multidisciplinary team treatment, including preoperative or postoperative chemotherapy and/or radiotherapy combined with surgical resection and reconstruction options. To further improve patient outcomes, more robust molecular biomarkers and the therapeutic agents that might result from them are necessary, especially if they improve early detection and diagnosis of lesions.

Detection of molecular biomarkers could be one of the integrative genomic tools that will help us to make this a reality in HNSCC. Currently, HPV and *EGFR* are the leading candidates for developing valid clinical diagnostic strategies for HNSCC. Several other screening panels composed of a variety of biomarkers and applied not only to primary tissue but also other biological fluids and genetic reservoirs such as salivary rinses as well as serum and plasma, have successfully shown great potential for molecular diagnostic use in HNSCC detection. The

clinical investigation of these applications is still just in its infancy, and with great promises comes the responsibility to carefully and rigorously test the validity of these findings. With continued advances in technologies that are both improving sensitivity and specificity while at the same time drastically cutting down the time it takes for real-time molecular sample analysis, studies need to be tailored to expand the scope of validation in order to be able to generalize the test results to real life clinical scenarios. Testing of the known as well as novel molecular biomarkers needs to be undertaken in a separate but more heterogeneous and generalized population cohort with adequate power to truly test the validity of the findings, as is being done with HPV and *EGFR*. These can be independent retrospective, case-control and prospective study validations using carefully selected and matched large population-based cohorts, but need to be reserved for our most robust biomarkers that have been previously well characterized and optimized on multiple separate cohorts of convenience. Only then will we know the true potential of these biological markers as tools in molecular diagnosis of HNSCC and the full potential of the clinical applications of the results.

Acknowledgments

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT Dr. Califano is supported by the National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research and the National Cancer Institute SPORE (5P50CA096784-05). Dr. Mydlarz and Dr. Hennessey are supported, in part, by the NIH training Grant No. T32DC000027.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Papers of special note have been highlighted as either of interest (•) or of considerable interest (••) to readers.

1. Jemal A, Siegel R, Ward E, Murray T, Xu J, Smigal C, et al. Cancer statistics, 2006. *CA Cancer J Clin* Mar-Apr;2006 56(2):106–30. [PubMed: 16514137]
2. Jemal A, Thomas A, Murray T, Thun M. Cancer statistics, 2002. *CA Cancer J Clin* Jan-Feb;2002 52(1):23–47. [PubMed: 11814064]
3. Carvalho AL, Nishimoto IN, Califano JA, Kowalski LP. Trends in incidence and prognosis for head and neck cancer in the United States: a site-specific analysis of the SEER database. *Int J Cancer* May 1;2005 114(5):806–16. [PubMed: 15609302]
4. (NCI) NCI. Oral Cancer Screening (PDQ®). 2009.
5. El-Naggar AK, Mao L, Staerckel G, Coombes MM, Tucker SL, Luna MA, et al. Genetic heterogeneity in saliva from patients with oral squamous carcinomas: implications in molecular diagnosis and screening. *J Mol Diagn* Nov;2001 3(4):164–70. [PubMed: 11687600]
6. Hoque MO, Begum S, Topaloglu O, Jeronimo C, Mambo E, Westra WH, et al. Quantitative detection of promoter hypermethylation of multiple genes in the tumor, urine, and serum DNA of patients with renal cancer. *Cancer Res* Aug 1;2004 64(15):5511–7. [PubMed: 15289362]
7. Hu S, Ewertz M, Tufano RP, Brait M, Carvalho AL, Liu D, et al. Detection of serum deoxyribonucleic acid methylation markers: a novel diagnostic tool for thyroid cancer. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* Jan; 2006 91(1):98–104. [PubMed: 16263813]
8. Lee A, Kim Y, Han K, Kang CS, Jeon HM, Shim SI. Detection of Tumor Markers Including Carcinoembryonic Antigen, APC, and Cyclin D2 in Fine-Needle Aspiration Fluid of Breast. *Arch Pathol Lab Med* Nov;2004 128(11):1251–6.
9. Nunes DN, Kowalski LP, Simpson AJ. Detection of oral and oropharyngeal cancer by microsatellite analysis in mouth washes and lesion brushings. *Oral Oncol* Nov;2000 36(6):525–8. [PubMed: 11036246]
10. Palmisano WA, Divine KK, Saccomanno G, Gilliland FD, Baylin SB, Herman JG, et al. Predicting lung cancer by detecting aberrant promoter methylation in sputum. *Cancer Res* Nov 1;2000 60(21): 5954–8. [PubMed: 11085511]
11. Rosas SL, Koch W, da Costa Carvalho MG, Wu L, Califano J, Westra W, et al. Promoter hypermethylation patterns of p16, O6-methylguanine-DNA-methyltransferase, and death-associated

- protein kinase in tumors and saliva of head and neck cancer patients. *Cancer Res* Feb 1;2001 61(3): 939–42. [PubMed: 11221887]
12. Sanchez-Cespedes M, Esteller M, Wu L, Nawroz-Danish H, Yoo GH, Koch WM, et al. Gene promoter hypermethylation in tumors and serum of head and neck cancer patients. *Cancer Res* Feb 15;2000 60(4):892–5. [PubMed: 10706101] Comprehensive look at promoter methylation changes found in head and neck cancer
 13. Usadel H, Brabender J, Danenberg KD, Jeronimo C, Harden S, Engles J, et al. Quantitative adenomatous polyposis coli promoter methylation analysis in tumor tissue, serum, and plasma DNA of patients with lung cancer. *Cancer Res* Jan 15;2002 62(2):371–5. [PubMed: 11809682]
 14. Wadsworth JT, Somers KD, Cazares LH, Malik G, Adam BL, Stack BC Jr. et al. Serum protein profiles to identify head and neck cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* Mar 1;2004 10(5):1625–32. [PubMed: 15014013]
 15. Wadsworth JT, Somers KD, Stack BC Jr. Cazares L, Malik G, Adam BL, et al. Identification of patients with head and neck cancer using serum protein profiles. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* Jan;2004 130(1):98–104. [PubMed: 14732777]
 16. Wong IH, Zhang J, Lai PB, Lau WY, Lo YM. Quantitative analysis of tumor-derived methylated p16INK4a sequences in plasma, serum, and blood cells of hepatocellular carcinoma patients. *Clin Cancer Res* Mar;2003 9(3):1047–52. [PubMed: 12631605]
 17. Franceschi E, Tosoni A, Pozzati E, Brandes AA. Association between response to primary treatments and MGMT status in glioblastoma. *Expert Rev Anticancer Ther* Nov;2008 8(11):1781–6. [PubMed: 18983238]
 18. Carlson RW, Allred DC, Anderson BO, Burstein HJ, Carter WB, Edge SB, et al. Breast cancer. Clinical practice guidelines in oncology. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw* Feb;2009 7(2):122–92. [PubMed: 19200416]
 19. Harichand-Herd S, Zelnak A, O'Regan R. Endocrine therapy for the treatment of postmenopausal women with breast cancer. *Expert Rev Anticancer Ther* Feb;2009 9(2):187–98. [PubMed: 19192957]
 20. Osborne CK, Yochmowitz MG, Knight WA 3rd, McGuire WL. The value of estrogen and progesterone receptors in the treatment of breast cancer. *Cancer* Dec 15;1980 46(12 Suppl):2884–8. [PubMed: 7448733]
 21. Slamon DJ, Clark GM, Wong SG, Levin WJ, Ullrich A, McGuire WL. Human breast cancer: correlation of relapse and survival with amplification of the HER-2/neu oncogene. *Science* Jan 9;1987 235(4785):177–82. [PubMed: 3798106]
 22. Slamon DJ, Godolphin W, Jones LA, Holt JA, Wong SG, Keith DE, et al. Studies of the HER-2/neu proto-oncogene in human breast and ovarian cancer. *Science* May 12;1989 244(4905):707–12. [PubMed: 2470152]
 23. Andl T, Kahn T, Pfuhl A, Nicola T, Erber R, Conradt C, et al. Etiological involvement of oncogenic human papillomavirus in tonsillar squamous cell carcinomas lacking retinoblastoma cell cycle control. *Cancer Res* Jan 1;1998 58(1):5–13. [PubMed: 9426048]
 24. Gillison ML, Koch WM, Capone RB, Spafford M, Westra WH, Wu L, et al. Evidence for a causal association between human papillomavirus and a subset of head and neck cancers. *J Natl Cancer Inst* May 3;2000 92(9):709–20. [PubMed: 10793107] This is one of the most detailed clinical series and analysis of the link between HPV infection and oropharyngeal head and neck cancers
 25. Hafkamp HC, Speel EJ, Haesevoets A, Bot FJ, Dinjens WN, Ramaekers FC, et al. A subset of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas exhibits integration of HPV 16/18 DNA and overexpression of p16INK4A and p53 in the absence of mutations in p53 exons 5-8. *Int J Cancer* Nov 10;2003 107(3): 394–400. [PubMed: 14506739]
 26. Mork J, Lie AK, Glatte E, Hallmans G, Jellum E, Koskela P, et al. Human papillomavirus infection as a risk factor for squamous-cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *N Engl J Med* Apr 12;2001 344(15):1125–31. [PubMed: 11297703]
 27. Schwartz SM, Daling JR, Doody DR, Wipf GC, Carter JJ, Madeleine MM, et al. Oral cancer risk in relation to sexual history and evidence of human papillomavirus infection. *J Natl Cancer Inst* Nov 4;1998 90(21):1626–36. [PubMed: 9811312]

28. van Houten VM, Snijders PJ, van den Brekel MW, Kummer JA, Meijer CJ, van Leeuwen B, et al. Biological evidence that human papillomaviruses are etiologically involved in a subgroup of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. *Int J Cancer* Jul 15;2001 93(2):232–5. [PubMed: 11410871]
29. Wiest T, Schwarz E, Enders C, Flechtenmacher C, Bosch FX. Involvement of intact HPV16 E6/E7 gene expression in head and neck cancers with unaltered p53 status and perturbed pRb cell cycle control. *Oncogene* Feb 28;2002 21(10):1510–7. [PubMed: 11896579]
- 30•. Brandsma JL, Abramson AL. Association of papillomavirus with cancers of the head and neck. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* May;1989 115(5):621–5. [PubMed: 2539843] One of the first reports on the association between HPV infection and head and neck cancer
31. Fouret P, Monceaux G, Temam S, Lacourreye L, St Guily JL. Human papillomavirus in head and neck squamous cell carcinomas in nonsmokers. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* May;1997 123(5):513–6. [PubMed: 9158399]
- 32•. Haraf DJ, Nodzinski E, Brachman D, Mick R, Montag A, Graves D, et al. Human papilloma virus and p53 in head and neck cancer: clinical correlates and survival. *Clin Cancer Res* Apr;1996 2(4): 755–62. [PubMed: 9816227] Comprehensive look at HPV infection and its effects on the p53 pathway and clinical significance
33. Paz IB, Cook N, Odom-Maryon T, Xie Y, Wilczynski SP. Human papillomavirus (HPV) in head and neck cancer. An association of HPV 16 with squamous cell carcinoma of Waldeyer's tonsillar ring. *Cancer* Feb 1;1997 79(3):595–604. [PubMed: 9028373]
34. Ringstrom E, Peters E, Hasegawa M, Posner M, Liu M, Kelsey KT. Human papillomavirus type 16 and squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *Clin Cancer Res* Oct;2002 8(10):3187–92. [PubMed: 12374687]
35. Ritchie JM, Smith EM, Summersgill KF, Hoffman HT, Wang D, Klussmann JP, et al. Human papillomavirus infection as a prognostic factor in carcinomas of the oral cavity and oropharynx. *Int J Cancer* Apr 10;2003 104(3):336–44. [PubMed: 12569557]
36. zur Hausen H. Papillomavirus infections—a major cause of human cancers. *Biochim Biophys Acta* Oct 9;1996 1288(2):F55–78. [PubMed: 8876633]
37. Furniss CS, McClean MD, Smith JF, Bryan J, Applebaum KM, Nelson HH, et al. Human papillomavirus 6 seropositivity is associated with risk of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, independent of tobacco and alcohol use. *Ann Oncol* Mar;2009 20(3):534–41. [PubMed: 19087986]
38. Kreimer AR, Clifford GM, Boyle P, Franceschi S. Human papillomavirus types in head and neck squamous cell carcinomas worldwide: a systematic review. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* Feb; 2005 14(2):467–75. [PubMed: 15734974]
39. Werness BA, Levine AJ, Howley PM. Association of human papillomavirus types 16 and 18 E6 proteins with p53. *Science* Apr 6;1990 248(4951):76–9. [PubMed: 2157286]
- 40•. Fakhry C, Gillison ML. Clinical implications of human papillomavirus in head and neck cancers. *J Clin Oncol* Jun 10;2006 24(17):2606–11. [PubMed: 16763272] This is a detailed update on HPV infection in head and neck cancer based on a large case series with analysis of clinicopathological characteristics
- 41•. Lindel K, Beer KT, Laissue J, Greiner RH, Aebbersold DM. Human papillomavirus positive squamous cell carcinoma of the oropharynx: a radiosensitive subgroup of head and neck carcinoma. *Cancer* Aug 15;2001 92(4):805–13. [PubMed: 11550151] One of the first reports showing an improved response to radiotherapy in HPV related cancer
- 42•. D'Souza G, Kreimer AR, Viscidi R, Pawlita M, Fakhry C, Koch WM, et al. Case-control study of human papillomavirus and oropharyngeal cancer. *N Engl J Med* May 10;2007 356(19):1944–56. [PubMed: 17494927] This is a detailed study on HPV infection in head and neck cancer based on a large case series with analysis of clinicopathological characteristics
43. Li W, Thompson CH, O'Brien CJ, McNeil EB, Scolyer RA, Cossart YE, et al. Human papillomavirus positivity predicts favourable outcome for squamous carcinoma of the tonsil. *Int J Cancer* Sep 10;2003 106(4):553–8. [PubMed: 12845651]
44. Mellin H, Friesland S, Lewensohn R, Dalanian T, Munck-Wikland E. Human papillomavirus (HPV) DNA in tonsillar cancer: clinical correlates, risk of relapse, and survival. *Int J Cancer* May 20;2000 89(3):300–4. [PubMed: 10861508]

45. Schwartz SR, Yueh B, McDougall JK, Daling JR, Schwartz SM. Human papillomavirus infection and survival in oral squamous cell cancer: a population-based study. *Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* Jul;2001 125(1):1–9. [PubMed: 11458206]
46. Weinberger PM, Yu Z, Haffty BG, Kowalski D, Harigopal M, Brandsma J, et al. Molecular classification identifies a subset of human papillomavirus--associated oropharyngeal cancers with favorable prognosis. *J Clin Oncol* Feb 10;2006 24(5):736–47. [PubMed: 16401683]
47. Begum S, Gillison ML, Ansari-Lari MA, Shah K, Westra WH. Detection of human papillomavirus in cervical lymph nodes: a highly effective strategy for localizing site of tumor origin. *Clin Cancer Res* Dec 15;2003 9(17):6469–75. [PubMed: 14695150]
48. Chuang AY, Chuang TC, Chang S, Zhou S, Begum S, Westra WH, et al. Presence of HPV DNA in convalescent salivary rinses is an adverse prognostic marker in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Oral Oncol* Oct;2008 44(10):915–9. [PubMed: 18329326]
49. Smeets SJ, Hesselink AT, Speel EJ, Haesevoets A, Snijders PJ, Pawlita M, et al. A novel algorithm for reliable detection of human papillomavirus in paraffin embedded head and neck cancer specimen. *Int J Cancer* Dec 1;2007 121(11):2465–72. [PubMed: 17680565]
50. Zumbach K, Hoffmann M, Kahn T, Bosch F, Gottschlich S, Gorogh T, et al. Antibodies against oncoproteins E6 and E7 of human papillomavirus types 16 and 18 in patients with head-and-neck squamous-cell carcinoma. *Int J Cancer* Mar 15;2000 85(6):815–8. [PubMed: 10709102]
51. Gillison ML. Human papillomavirus and prognosis of oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma: implications for clinical research in head and neck cancers. *J Clin Oncol* Dec 20;2006 24(36):5623–5. [PubMed: 17179099]
52. Capone RB, Pai SI, Koch WM, Gillison ML, Danish HN, Westra WH, et al. Detection and quantitation of human papillomavirus (HPV) DNA in the sera of patients with HPV-associated head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res* Nov;2000 6(11):4171–5. [PubMed: 11106228]
53. Rocco JW, Leong CO, Kuperwasser N, DeYoung MP, Ellisen LW. p63 mediates survival in squamous cell carcinoma by suppression of p73-dependent apoptosis. *Cancer Cell* Jan;2006 9(1):45–56. [PubMed: 16413471]
54. Michaud WA, Nichols AC, Mroz EA, Faquin WC, Clark JR, Begum S, et al. Bcl-2 blocks cisplatin-induced apoptosis and predicts poor outcome following chemoradiation treatment in advanced oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res* Mar 1;2009 15(5):1645–54. [PubMed: 19240170]
- 55• Hynes NE, Lane HA. ERBB receptors and cancer: the complexity of targeted inhibitors. *Nat Rev Cancer* May;2005 5(5):341–54. [PubMed: 15864276] A comprehensive overview of EGFR and its importance and significance in cancer
- 56• Kalyankrishna S, Grandis JR. Epidermal growth factor receptor biology in head and neck cancer. *J Clin Oncol* Jun 10;2006 24(17):2666–72. [PubMed: 16763281] A comprehensive overview of EGFR and its importance and significance in head and neck cancer
57. Rogers SJ, Harrington KJ, Rhys-Evans P, P OC, Eccles SA. Biological significance of cerbB family oncogenes in head and neck cancer. *Cancer Metastasis Rev* Jan;2005 24(1):47–69. [PubMed: 15785872]
58. Ang KK, Berkey BA, Tu X, Zhang HZ, Katz R, Hammond EH, et al. Impact of epidermal growth factor receptor expression on survival and pattern of relapse in patients with advanced head and neck carcinoma. *Cancer Res* Dec 15;2002 62(24):7350–6. [PubMed: 12499279]
59. Ishitoya J, Toriyama M, Oguchi N, Kitamura K, Ohshima M, Asano K, et al. Gene amplification and overexpression of EGF receptor in squamous cell carcinomas of the head and neck. *Br J Cancer* Apr; 1989 59(4):559–62. [PubMed: 2713242]
60. Kearsley JH, Furlong KL, Cooke RA, Waters MJ. An immunohistochemical assessment of cellular proliferation markers in head and neck squamous cell cancers. *Br J Cancer* Jun;1990 61(6):821–7. [PubMed: 2372483]
61. Maxwell SA, Sacks PG, Gutterman JU, Gallick GE. Epidermal growth factor receptor protein-tyrosine kinase activity in human cell lines established from squamous carcinomas of the head and neck. *Cancer Res* Mar 1;1989 49(5):1130–7. [PubMed: 2783883]
- 62• Grandis JR, Tweardy DJ. Elevated levels of transforming growth factor alpha and epidermal growth factor receptor messenger RNA are early markers of carcinogenesis in head and neck cancer. *Cancer*

- Res Aug 1;1993 53(15):3579–84. [PubMed: 8339264] This is one of the first reports of EGFR as a potential marker for head and neck cancer
63. Shin DM, Ro JY, Hong WK, Hittelman WN. Dysregulation of epidermal growth factor receptor expression in premalignant lesions during head and neck tumorigenesis. *Cancer Res* Jun 15;1994 54(12):3153–9. [PubMed: 8205534]
 64. Grandis, J Rubin; Melhem, MF.; Gooding, WE.; Day, R.; Holst, VA.; Wagener, MM., et al. Levels of TGF-alpha and EGFR protein in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma and patient survival. *J Natl Cancer Inst* Jun 3;1998 90(11):824–32. [PubMed: 9625170] This is one of the first reports of EGFR status associated with patient survival
 65. Bentzen SM, Atasoy BM, Daley FM, Dische S, Richman PI, Saunders MI, et al. Epidermal growth factor receptor expression in pretreatment biopsies from head and neck squamous cell carcinoma as a predictive factor for a benefit from accelerated radiation therapy in a randomized controlled trial. *J Clin Oncol* Aug 20;2005 23(24):5560–7. [PubMed: 16110017] This is one of the first comprehensive clinical studies showing EGFR as a potential marker of treatment response
 66. Bonner JA, Harari PM, Giralt J, Azarnia N, Shin DM, Cohen RB, et al. Radiotherapy plus cetuximab for squamous-cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *N Engl J Med* Feb 9;2006 354(6):567–78. [PubMed: 16467544] This is a comprehensive clinical study showing a benefit of anti-EGFR targeted therapy in head and neck cancer
 67. Karamouzis MV, Grandis JR, Argiris A. Therapies directed against epidermal growth factor receptor in aerodigestive carcinomas. *Jama* Jul 4;2007 298(1):70–82. [PubMed: 17609492] This is detailed overview of the importance of EGFR targeting therapy
 68. Califano J, van der Riet P, Westra W, Nawroz H, Clayman G, Piantadosi S, et al. Genetic progression model for head and neck cancer: implications for field cancerization. *Cancer Res* Jun 1;1996 56(11):2488–92. [PubMed: 8653682]
 69. van der Riet P, Nawroz H, Hruban RH, Corio R, Tokino K, Koch W, et al. Frequent loss of chromosome 9p21-22 early in head and neck cancer progression. *Cancer Res* Mar 1;1994 54(5):1156–8. [PubMed: 8118798]
 70. Nawroz H, Koch W, Anker P, Stroun M, Sidransky D. Microsatellite alterations in serum DNA of head and neck cancer patients. *Nat Med* Sep;1996 2(9):1035–7. [PubMed: 8782464] This is one of the first reports to show identification of LOH from serum of head and neck cancer patients
 71. Mao L, Lee JS, Fan YH, Ro JY, Batsakis JG, Lippman S, et al. Frequent microsatellite alterations at chromosomes 9p21 and 3p14 in oral premalignant lesions and their value in cancer risk assessment. *Nat Med* Jun;1996 2(6):682–5. [PubMed: 8640560] This is one of the first reports showing LOH as a potential early marker of head and neck cancer
 72. Rosin MP, Cheng X, Poh C, Lam WL, Huang Y, Lovas J, et al. Use of allelic loss to predict malignant risk for low-grade oral epithelial dysplasia. *Clin Cancer Res* Feb;2000 6(2):357–62. [PubMed: 10690511]
 73. Partridge M, Emilion G, Pateromichelakis S, A'Hern R, Phillips E, Langdon J. Allelic imbalance at chromosomal loci implicated in the pathogenesis of oral precancer, cumulative loss and its relationship with progression to cancer. *Oral Oncol* Mar;1998 34(2):77–83. [PubMed: 9682768]
 74. Tabor MP, Brakenhoff RH, Ruijter-Schippers HJ, Kummer JA, Leemans CR, Braakhuis BJ. Genetically altered fields as origin of locally recurrent head and neck cancer: a retrospective study. *Clin Cancer Res* Jun 1;2004 10(11):3607–13. [PubMed: 15173066]
 75. Tabor MP, Brakenhoff RH, van Houten VM, Kummer JA, Snel MH, Snijders PJ, et al. Persistence of genetically altered fields in head and neck cancer patients: biological and clinical implications. *Clin Cancer Res* Jun;2001 7(6):1523–32. [PubMed: 11410486]
 76. Esteller M, Herman JG. Cancer as an epigenetic disease: DNA methylation and chromatin alterations in human tumours. *J Pathol* Jan;2002 196(1):1–7. [PubMed: 11748635] Comprehensive overview of the epigenetic changes in human cancers
 77. Herman JG, Baylin SB. Gene silencing in cancer in association with promoter hypermethylation. *N Engl J Med* Nov 20;2003 349(21):2042–54. [PubMed: 14627790] Comprehensive study showing the link between promoter hypermethylation and gene expression in cancer
 78. Feinberg AP, Vogelstein B. Hypomethylation of ras oncogenes in primary human cancers. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* Feb 28;1983 111(1):47–54. [PubMed: 6187346]

- 79• • Feinberg AP, Vogelstein B. Hypomethylation distinguishes genes of some human cancers from their normal counterparts. *Nature* Jan 6;1983 301(5895):89–92. [PubMed: 6185846] This is one of the first reports looking at the importance of promoter hypomethylation and its utility as a potential biomarker for cancer
- 80• • Bird AP. DNA methylation--how important in gene control? *Nature* Feb 9-15;1984 307(5951):503–4. [PubMed: 6320010] This is one of the first reports looking at the importance of promoter hypermethylation and its control of TSGs
81. Das PM, Singal R. DNA methylation and cancer. *J Clin Oncol* Nov 15;2004 22(22):4632–42. [PubMed: 15542813]
82. Dunn BK. Hypomethylation: one side of a larger picture. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* Mar;2003 983:28–42. [PubMed: 12724210]
83. Ehrlich M. DNA methylation in cancer: too much, but also too little. *Oncogene* Aug 12;2002 21(35):5400–13. [PubMed: 12154403]
84. Hanada M, Delia D, Aiello A, Stadtmauer E, Reed JC. bcl-2 gene hypomethylation and high-level expression in B-cell chronic lymphocytic leukemia. *Blood* Sep 15;1993 82(6):1820–8. [PubMed: 8104532]
85. Honda T, Tamura G, Waki T, Kawata S, Terashima M, Nishizuka S, et al. Demethylation of MAGE promoters during gastric cancer progression. *Br J Cancer* Feb 23;2004 90(4):838–43. [PubMed: 14970862]
86. Nishigaki M, Aoyagi K, Danjoh I, Fukaya M, Yanagihara K, Sakamoto H, et al. Discovery of aberrant expression of R-RAS by cancer-linked DNA hypomethylation in gastric cancer using microarrays. *Cancer Res* Mar 15;2005 65(6):2115–24. [PubMed: 15781621]
87. Smith IM, Glazer CA, Mithani SK, Ochs MF, Sun W, Bhan S, et al. Coordinated activation of candidate proto-oncogenes and cancer testes antigens via promoter demethylation in head and neck cancer and lung cancer. *PLoS ONE* 2009;4(3):e4961. [PubMed: 19305507]
88. Smith IM, Mydlarz WK, Mithani SK, Califano JA. DNA global hypomethylation in squamous cell head and neck cancer associated with smoking, alcohol consumption and stage. *Int J Cancer* Oct 15;2007 121(8):1724–8. [PubMed: 17582607]
89. Watt PM, Kumar R, Kees UR. Promoter demethylation accompanies reactivation of the HOX11 proto-oncogene in leukemia. *Genes Chromosomes Cancer* Dec;2000 29(4):371–7. [PubMed: 11066085]
90. Frommer M, McDonald LE, Millar DS, Collis CM, Watt F, Grigg GW, et al. A genomic sequencing protocol that yields a positive display of 5-methylcytosine residues in individual DNA strands. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* Mar 1;1992 89(5):1827–31. [PubMed: 1542678]
- 91• • Herman JG, Graff JR, Myohanen S, Nelkin BD, Baylin SB. Methylation-specific PCR: a novel PCR assay for methylation status of CpG islands. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* Sep 3;1996 93(18):9821–6. [PubMed: 8790415] This is the original report on the PCR technique that is the basis for QMSP and screening for methylation related markers in cancer
92. Lo YM, Wong IH, Zhang J, Tein MS, Ng MH, Hjelm NM. Quantitative analysis of aberrant p16 methylation using real-time quantitative methylation-specific polymerase chain reaction. *Cancer Res* Aug 15;1999 59(16):3899–903. [PubMed: 10463578]
93. Yamashita K, Upadhyay S, Osada M, Hoque MO, Xiao Y, Mori M, et al. Pharmacologic unmasking of epigenetically silenced tumor suppressor genes in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancer Cell* Dec;2002 2(6):485–95. [PubMed: 12498717]
94. Ai L, Vo QN, Zuo C, Li L, Ling W, Suen JY, et al. Ataxia-telangiectasia-mutated (ATM) gene in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma: promoter hypermethylation with clinical correlation in 100 cases. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* Jan;2004 13(1):150–6. [PubMed: 14744748]
95. Chang HW, Ling GS, Wei WI, Yuen AP. Smoking and drinking can induce p15 methylation in the upper aerodigestive tract of healthy individuals and patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancer* Jul 1;2004 101(1):125–32. [PubMed: 15221997]
96. Dong SM, Sun DI, Benoit NE, Kuzmin I, Lerman MI, Sidransky D. Epigenetic inactivation of RASSF1A in head and neck cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* Sep 1;2003 9(10 Pt 1):3635–40. [PubMed: 14506151]

97. El-Naggar AK, Lai S, Clayman G, Lee JK, Luna MA, Goepfert H, et al. Methylation, a major mechanism of p16/CDKN2 gene inactivation in head and neck squamous carcinoma. *Am J Pathol* Dec;1997 151(6):1767–74. [PubMed: 9403727]
98. Estecio MR, Youssef EM, Rahal P, Fukuyama EE, Gois-Filho JF, Maniglia JV, et al. LHX6 is a sensitive methylation marker in head and neck carcinomas. *Oncogene* Aug 17;2006 25(36):5018–26. [PubMed: 16732332]
99. Esteller M, Hamilton SR, Burger PC, Baylin SB, Herman JG. Inactivation of the DNA repair gene O6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase by promoter hypermethylation is a common event in primary human neoplasia. *Cancer Res* Feb 15;1999 59(4):793–7. [PubMed: 10029064]
100. • Ha PK, Califano JA. Promoter methylation and inactivation of tumour-suppressor genes in oral squamous-cell carcinoma. *Lancet Oncol* Jan;2006 7(1):77–82. [PubMed: 16389187] This is a comprehensive overview of methylation related changes in head and neck cancer
101. Hasegawa M, Nelson HH, Peters E, Ringstrom E, Posner M, Kelsey KT. Patterns of gene promoter methylation in squamous cell cancer of the head and neck. *Oncogene* Jun 20;2002 21(27):4231–6. [PubMed: 12082610]
102. Maruya S, Issa JP, Weber RS, Rosenthal DI, Haviland JC, Lotan R, et al. Differential methylation status of tumor-associated genes in head and neck squamous carcinoma: incidence and potential implications. *Clin Cancer Res* Jun 1;2004 10(11):3825–30. [PubMed: 15173091]
103. Merlo A, Herman JG, Mao L, Lee DJ, Gabrielson E, Burger PC, et al. 5' CpG island methylation is associated with transcriptional silencing of the tumour suppressor p16/CDKN2/MTS1 in human cancers. *Nat Med* Jul;1995 1(7):686–92. [PubMed: 7585152]
104. Nayak CS, Carvalho AL, Jeronimo C, Henrique R, Kim MM, Hoque MO, et al. Positive correlation of tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase-3 and death-associated protein kinase hypermethylation in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Laryngoscope* Aug;2007 117(8):1376–80. [PubMed: 17592394]
105. Ogi K, Toyota M, Ohe-Toyota M, Tanaka N, Noguchi M, Sonoda T, et al. Aberrant methylation of multiple genes and clinicopathological features in oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res* Oct;2002 8(10):3164–71. [PubMed: 12374684]
106. Reed AL, Califano J, Cairns P, Westra WH, Jones RM, Koch W, et al. High frequency of p16 (CDKN2/MTS-1/INK4A) inactivation in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancer Res* Aug 15;1996 56(16):3630–3. [PubMed: 8705996]
107. Shaw RJ, Liloglou T, Rogers SN, Brown JS, Vaughan ED, Lowe D, et al. Promoter methylation of P16, RARbeta, E-cadherin, cyclin A1 and cytoglobin in oral cancer: quantitative evaluation using pyrosequencing. *Br J Cancer* Feb 27;2006 94(4):561–8. [PubMed: 16449996]
108. Youssef EM, Lotan D, Issa JP, Wakasa K, Fan YH, Mao L, et al. Hypermethylation of the retinoic acid receptor-beta(2) gene in head and neck carcinogenesis. *Clin Cancer Res* Mar 1;2004 10(5):1733–42. [PubMed: 15014026]
109. Marsit CJ, Christensen BC, Houseman EA, Karagas MR, Wrensch MR, Yeh RF, et al. Epigenetic profiling reveals etiologically distinct patterns of DNA methylation in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Carcinogenesis* Mar;2009 30(3):416–22. [PubMed: 19126652]
110. Chang HW, Chan A, Kwong DL, Wei WI, Sham JS, Yuen AP. Evaluation of hypermethylated tumor suppressor genes as tumor markers in mouth and throat rinsing fluid, nasopharyngeal swab and peripheral blood of nasopharyngeal carcinoma patient. *Int J Cancer* Jul 20;2003 105(6):851–5. [PubMed: 12767073]
111. Hamana K, Uzawa K, Ogawara K, Shiiba M, Bukawa H, Yokoe H, et al. Monitoring of circulating tumour-associated DNA as a prognostic tool for oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Br J Cancer* Jun 20;2005 92(12):2181–4. [PubMed: 15928666]
112. Lopez M, Aguirre JM, Cuevas N, Anzola M, Videgain J, Aguirregaviria J, et al. Gene promoter hypermethylation in oral rinses of leukoplakia patients--a diagnostic and/or prognostic tool? *Eur J Cancer* Nov;2003 39(16):2306–9. [PubMed: 14556921]
113. Nakahara Y, Shintani S, Mihara M, Hino S, Hamakawa H. Detection of p16 promoter methylation in the serum of oral cancer patients. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg* Apr;2006 35(4):362–5. [PubMed: 16298513]

114. Costello JF, Fruhwald MC, Smiraglia DJ, Rush LJ, Robertson GP, Gao X, et al. Aberrant CpG-island methylation has non-random and tumour-type-specific patterns. *Nat Genet* Feb;2000 24(2): 132–8. [PubMed: 10655057]
115. Esteller M, Corn PG, Baylin SB, Herman JG. A gene hypermethylation profile of human cancer. *Cancer Res* Apr 315;2001 61(8):3225–9. [PubMed: 11309270]
- 116•. Carvalho AL, Jeronimo C, Kim MM, Henrique R, Zhang Z, Hoque MO, et al. Evaluation of promoter hypermethylation detection in body fluids as a screening/diagnosis tool for head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res* Jan 1;2008 14(1):97–107. [PubMed: 18172258] This is a report on one of the most comprehensive methylation specific detection panels for head and neck cancer showing potential for future diagnostics
117. He QY, Chen J, Kung HF, Yuen AP, Chiu JF. Identification of tumor-associated proteins in oral tongue squamous cell carcinoma by proteomics. *Proteomics* Jan;2004 4(1):271–8. [PubMed: 14730689]
118. Koike H, Uzawa K, Nakashima D, Shimada K, Kato Y, Higo M, et al. Identification of differentially expressed proteins in oral squamous cell carcinoma using a global proteomic approach. *Int J Oncol* Jul;2005 27(1):59–67. [PubMed: 15942644]
- 119•. Roesch-Ely M, Nees M, Karsai S, Ruess A, Bogumil R, Warnken U, et al. Proteomic analysis reveals successive aberrations in protein expression from healthy mucosa to invasive head and neck cancer. *Oncogene* Jan 4;2007 26(1):54–64. [PubMed: 16819514] This is a detailed report on some of the protein alterations that arise in head and neck cancer
120. Sewell DA, Yuan CX, Robertson E. Proteomic signatures in laryngeal squamous cell carcinoma. *ORL J Otorhinolaryngol Relat Spec* 2007;69(2):77–84. [PubMed: 17127822]
- 121•. Gourin CG, Xia ZS, Han Y, French AM, O'Rourke AK, Terris DJ, et al. Serum protein profile analysis in patients with head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* Apr;2006 132(4):390–7. [PubMed: 16618908] This report shows that proteomic analysis of body fluids has potential utility in head and neck cancer diagnostics
122. Ye H, Wang A, Lee BS, Yu T, Sheng S, Peng T, et al. Proteomic based identification of manganese superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD2) as a metastasis marker for oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancer Genomics Proteomics* Mar-Apr;2008 5(2):85–94. [PubMed: 18460737]
123. Fan AC, Deb-Basu D, Orban MW, Gotlib JR, Natkunam Y, O'Neill R, et al. Nanofluidic proteomic assay for serial analysis of oncoprotein activation in clinical specimens. *Nat Med* May;2009 15(5): 566–71. [PubMed: 19363496]
124. Anker P, Mulcahy H, Chen XQ, Stroun M. Detection of circulating tumour DNA in the blood (plasma/serum) of cancer patients. *Cancer Metastasis Rev* 1999;18(1):65–73. [PubMed: 10505546]
125. Li Y, Zhou X, St John MA, Wong DT. RNA profiling of cell-free saliva using microarray technology. *J Dent Res* Mar;2004 83(3):199–203. [PubMed: 14981119]
126. Rieger-Christ KM, Mourtzinos A, Lee PJ, Zaghera RM, Cain J, Silverman M, et al. Identification of fibroblast growth factor receptor 3 mutations in urine sediment DNA samples complements cytology in bladder tumor detection. *Cancer* Aug 15;2003 98(4):737–44. [PubMed: 12910517]
127. Wong LJ, Lueth M, Li XN, Lau CC, Vogel H. Detection of mitochondrial DNA mutations in the tumor and cerebrospinal fluid of medulloblastoma patients. *Cancer Res* Jul 15;2003 63(14):3866–71. [PubMed: 12873974]
128. Li Y, St John MA, Zhou X, Kim Y, Sinha U, Jordan RC, et al. Salivary transcriptome diagnostics for oral cancer detection. *Clin Cancer Res* Dec 15;2004 10(24):8442–50. [PubMed: 15623624]
129. Lee RC, Feinbaum RL, Ambros V. The *C. elegans* heterochronic gene *lin-4* encodes small RNAs with antisense complementarity to *lin-14*. *Cell* Dec 3;1993 75(5):843–54. [PubMed: 8252621]
130. Scaria V, Hariharan M, Pillai B, Maiti S, Brahmachari SK. Host-virus genome interactions: macro roles for microRNAs. *Cell Microbiol* Dec;2007 9(12):2784–94. [PubMed: 17944962]
- 131•. Calin GA, Croce CM. MicroRNA signatures in human cancers. *Nat Rev Cancer* Nov;2006 6(11): 857–66. [PubMed: 17060945] This is a comprehensive overview of microRNA changes in cancer
132. Lujambio A, Ropero S, Ballestar E, Fraga MF, Cerrato C, Setien F, et al. Genetic unmasking of an epigenetically silenced microRNA in human cancer cells. *Cancer Res* Feb 15;2007 67(4):1424–9. [PubMed: 17308079]

133. Saito Y, Liang G, Egger G, Friedman JM, Chuang JC, Coetzee GA, et al. Specific activation of microRNA-127 with downregulation of the proto-oncogene BCL6 by chromatin-modifying drugs in human cancer cells. *Cancer Cell Jun*;2006 9(6):435–43. [PubMed: 16766263]
134. Tran N, McLean T, Zhang X, Zhao CJ, Thomson JM, O'Brien C, et al. MicroRNA expression profiles in head and neck cancer cell lines. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun Jun 22*;2007 358(1): 12–7. [PubMed: 17475218]
135. Wong TS, Liu XB, Ho A Chung-Wai, Yuen A Po-Wing, Ng R Wai-Man, Wei W Ignace. Identification of pyruvate kinase type M2 as potential oncoprotein in squamous cell carcinoma of tongue through microRNA profiling. *Int J Cancer Jul 15*;2008 123(2):251–7. [PubMed: 18464261]
136. Chang SS, Jiang WW, Smith I, Poeta LM, Begum S, Glazer C, et al. MicroRNA alterations in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Int J Cancer Dec 15*;2008 123(12):2791–7. [PubMed: 18798260]
137. Liu X, Chen Z, Yu J, Xia J, Zhou X. MicroRNA Profiling and Head and Neck Cancer. *Comp Funct Genomics*. 2009
- 138*. Avissar M, Christensen BC, Kelsey KT, Marsit CJ. MicroRNA expression ratio is predictive of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res Apr 15*;2009 15(8):2850–5. [PubMed: 19351747] This is a detailed report on a microRNA panel that is sensitive and specific for head and neck cancer
139. Belinsky SA, Liechty KC, Gentry FD, Wolf HJ, Rogers J, Vu K, et al. Promoter hypermethylation of multiple genes in sputum precedes lung cancer incidence in a high-risk cohort. *Cancer Res Mar 15*;2006 66(6):3338–44. [PubMed: 16540689]