Methylation analysis of cancer-related genes in non-neoplastic cells from patients with oral squamous cell carcinoma

Melissa de Freitas Cordeiro-Silva · Zilda Fagundes Lima Oliveira · José Roberto Vasconcelos de Podestá · Sonia Alves Gouvea · Sandra Ventorin Von Zeidler · Júri Drumond Louro

Received: 23 November 2010/Accepted: 26 February 2011/Published online: 5 March 2011 © Springer Science+Business Media B.V. 2011

Abstract Early detection of Oral Squamous Cell Carcinoma (OSCC) is important to reduce mortality rates and to help provide successful cancer treatment. Hypermethylation of CpG islands is a common epigenetic mechanism that leads to gene silencing in tumors and could be a useful biomarker in OSCC. Abnormal DNA hypermethylation can occur very early in cancer development and may be induced by exposure to environmental carcinogens. We set out to investigate the methylation status of cancer-related genes in normal oral exfoliated cells from OSCC patients and healthy volunteers, as well as possible associations with alcohol/tobacco exposure or specific tumor characteristics. The methylation status of *CDKN2A* (cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2A or p16), SFN (stratifin or 14-3-3 σ), EDNRB (endothelin receptor B) and RUNX3 (runt-related transcript

factor-3) was evaluated by MSP (Methylation-Specific Polymerase Chain Reaction) analysis in non-neoplastic oral epithelial cells from OSCC patients (n=70) and cancerfree subjects (n=41). Hypermethylation was observed in CDKN2A, EDNRB and SFN genes, whereas no methylation was found in the RUNX3 gene. CDKN2A hypermethylation occurred only in the OSCC group (5.7%) while SFN and EDNRB hypermethylation occurred in both groups. There was no association between hypermethylation and smoking, drinking habits or specific tumor characteristics.

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{Keywords} & Oral \ squamous \ cell \ carcinoma \cdot Methylation \\ status \cdot Cancer-related \ genes \cdot Normal \ oral \ mucosa \\ \end{tabular}$

M. de Freitas Cordeiro-Silva · I. D. Louro (☒)
Núcleo de Genética Humana e Molecular, Departamento
de Ciências Biológicas, Centro de Ciências Humanas e Naturais,
Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo, Av. Marechal Campos,
1468. Maruípe, Vitória, ES 29040-090, Brazil
e-mail: iurilouro@yahoo.com

Z. F. L. Oliveira · J. R. V. de Podestá

Programa de Prevenção e Detecção Precoce do Câncer Bucal, Setor de Cirurgia de Cabeça e Pescoço, Hospital Santa Rita de Cássia, Av. Marechal Campos, 1579. Santos Dumont, Vitória, ES 29040-091, Brazil

S. A. Gouvea

Departamento de Ciências Fisiológicas, Centro de Ciências da Saúde, Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo, Av. Marechal Campos, 1468. Maruípe, Vitória, ES 29040-090, Brazil

S. V. Von Zeidler

Departamento de Patologia, Centro de Ciências da Saúde, Universidade Federal do Espírito Santo, Av. Marechal Campos, 1468. Maruípe, Vitória, ES 29040-090, Brazil

Introduction

Oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) is the most common type of oral cancer, accounting for over 90% of all mouth malignancies and 38% of head and neck tumors [1, 2]. Worldwide, OSCC is the eighth most common human cancer [3], with more than 300,000 new cases being diagnosed every year [4]. Oral carcinoma detection in early asymptomatic stages dramatically improves cure rates and quality of life by minimizing debilitating surgical treatments [5].

Oral squamous cell carcinoma arises from multiple genetic and epigenetic alterations, which are modulated by inherited predispositions and environmental influences [6]. Several risk factors have been associated with the development of oral cancer, most of them are related to diet, lifestyle and living habits. Because of the well known association between cancers of the oral cavity and tobacco smoking and/or alcohol consumption, it has been suggested that these risk factors could be potential inducers of



genetic/epigenetic alterations in oral mucosa cells, and that these alterations would accumulate in the normal-appearing mucosa of heavy smokers and heavy drinkers before any tumor lesion is detected [7–9].

Tumor suppressor gene transcriptional inactivation by CpG island hypermethylation within gene promoter regions could be the initial event for the development of some forms of cancer [10]. Previous studies have shown that the largest number of cancer transcriptional changes happen during the transition from normal mucosa to the premalignant state, suggesting that many of the molecular changes accumulated in oral cancer occur preferentially in the early stages [6, 11]. Thus, developing biomarkers for epigenetically altered cells can be a valuable tool in the evaluation of cancer risk and prognostic [10].

Hypermethylation of some tumor suppressor genes has been observed in OSCC normal adjacent mucosa [12], dysplastic tissue [13] and leukoplakia [14], therefore being considered as an early event in oral carcinogenesis. Moreover, previous studies have identified aberrant DNA methylation in matched body fluid samples, such as OSCC patient salivary rinses, proposing potential noninvasive biomarkers for early detection of OSCC [15, 16].

Methylation profiling has been previously shown to be effective in distinguishing normal from tumor tissues [17, 18]. Although some variability was found in these studies, it has become clear that a better characterization of tumor suppressor gene promoter methylation in cancer development and in response to common risk factors, such as alcohol and tobacco, can be useful as diagnostic, prognostic or therapeutic biomarkers.

We chose to investigate the promoter methylation status of four cancer-related genes (CDKN2A, EDNRB, RUNX3 and SFN) in normal appearing oral mucosa of OSCC patients and cancer-free/carcinogen-free controls. These genes have been previously reported as hypermethylated in OSCC and therefore were considered potential biomarkers for this cancer [17, 18]. Based on these data, we have determined the relationship between normal mucosa gene methylation status and OSCC presence, carcinogen exposure or tumor characteristics of malignancy.

Materials and methods

Patients

Cytobrush samples were collected from seventy untreated OSCC patients at the Santa Rita de Cassia Hospital, Espirito Santo, Brazil. The cancer-free group was composed by 41 individuals who had a negative cancer familial history, without exposure to risk factors (tobacco and

alcohol) and did not show pre-malignant or malignant oral lesions at the time of sample collection. All subjects provided signed informed consents approved by institutional review boards. This work was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Espirito Santo Federal University (CEP-UFES Protocol n° 120/2006).

Sample collection and DNA extraction

Samples consisted of exfoliated oral cells, collected by scraping the oral mucosa and tongue posterior edge for 10 s using a sterile cytological brush. Immediately after collection, the brush was rinsed in TE (10 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.6, 1 M EDTA) and samples were stored at 4–8°C. For DNA extraction, cells were treated by 1% SDS/proteinase K (0.5 mg/ml) at 48°C for 16 h. High molecular weight DNA was isolated by standard phenol/chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation.

Methylation-specific polymerase chain reaction (MSP)

Genomic DNA (270 ng) was subjected to bisulfite modification with the *methylSEQr*TM *Bisulfite Conversion Kit* (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). All primers used in this study have been previously described and were specific to methylated and unmethylated sequences [19–22]. DNA from the urothelial carcinoma derived T24 cell line was used as the methylation positive control for *CDKN2A* and *EDNRB* genes [23, 24] and DNA from the urothelial carcinoma derived 5,637 cell line was used as the methylation positive control for *RUNX3* and *SFN* genes [25, 26]. Normal lymphocyte DNA was used as unmethylated control for *CDNK2A*, *EDNRB* and *RUNX3* genes, and normal epithelial cell DNA was used for the *SFN* gene [22].

MSP was performed using specific primers for methylated and unmethylated sequences, in distinct 25 µl reactions, according to Platinum *Taq* DNA Polymerase enzyme manufacturer's recommendations (Invitrogen Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Amplified fragments were visualized by electrophoresis in 8% polyacrylamide gels and silver nitrate staining. Water blanks and unmodified DNA controls were used. Oligonucleotide sequences, annealing temperatures and MSP fragment sizes are shown in Table 1. Figure 1 shows a representative MSP acrylamide gel for all analyzed genes.

DNA sequencing

To validate the assay methylation specificity, PCR products were purified using ExoSAP-IT PCR Clean-up Kit (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden) and

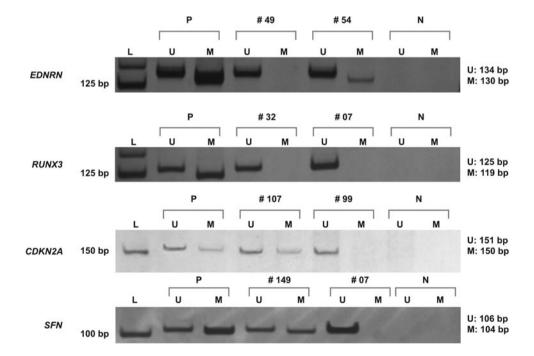


Table 1 Oligonucleotide sequences, annealing temperatures, and fragment sizes for MSP analysis

Gene	Primer 5'–3'	Position of interrogated CpGs ^a		Fragment size (bp)	Ref.
CDKN2A					
Methylated allele	F: TTA TTA GAG GGT GGG GCG GAT CGC	149, 154, 156, 265, 269, 271, 276, 282	63	150	[19]
	R: GAC CCC GAA CCG CGA CCG TAA				
Unmethylated allele	F: TTA TTA GAG GGT GGG GTG GAT TGT		58	151	
	R: CAA CCC CAA ACC ACA ACC ATA A				
EDNRB					
Methylated allele	F: CGAAGAGGTTGCGGGCGGTATTAGCG	116, 127, 131, 140, 225, 232, 236	62	130	[20]
	R: TACTCCAAAAACGTCCGATAACCG				
Unmethylated allele	F: TGGTGAAGAGGTTGTGGGTGGTATTAGTG			134	
	R: ACCTACTCCAAAAACATCCAATAACCA				
RUNX3					
Methylated allele	F: TATTCGTTAGGGTTCGTTCGT	144, 151, 235, 239, 249	61	119	[21]
	R: AAACAACCACGAAAAACGAC				
Unmethylated allele	F: AAGTGGGAAAGTAGAAGTGGTG			125	
	R: CCAAACAAACTACAAACAACCA				
SFN					
Methylated allele	F: TGGTAGTTTTTATGAAAGGCGTC	153, 156, 219, 228	61	104	[22]
	R: CCTCTAACCGCCCACCACG				
Unmethylated allele	F: ATGGTAGTTTTTATGAAAGGTGTT		56	106	
	R: CCCTCTAACCACCACCACA				

MSP methylation-specific polymerase chain reaction, AT annealing temperature, bp base pair, F forward primer, R reverse primer

Fig. 1 Representative MSP acrylamide gel. EDNRB, RUNX3, CDKN2A and SFN genes promoter methylation assay. U unmethylated control; M methylated control; P positive control; N negative control. L size ladder. # Patient case number



sequenced using the BigDye® Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Capillary electrophoresis was performed in the ABI

Prism[®] 310 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Results were blasted in the MethBLAST site (http://medgen.ugent.be/methBLAST/).



^a Position in relation to transcription start site

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed by the chi-square test or Fisher's exact test (P < 0.05) using the GRAPHPAD PRISM V5 statistical software. Age comparison was performed using the nonparametric Mann–Whitney test.

Results

Population description

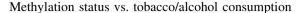
Of the seventy OSCC patients, 53 (75%) were smokers, 17 (25%) were nonsmokers, 44 (63%) were drinkers, 26 (37%) were non-drinkers and 40 (57%) were smokers and drinkers simultaneously. Subjects age ranged from 24 to 87 years (mean = 59 years, 53 males and 17 females). The cancer-free group was formed by 41 volunteers (31 females and 10 males). The mean age of the control group was 47 years old. Age and gender of OSCC cases were significantly different from controls (P < 0.05).

Methylation status of OSCC patients vs. cancer-free controls

Methylation patterns were not significantly different between non-neoplastic oral cells from OSCC patients and from healthy control individuals. Nonetheless, the *CDKN2A* gene showed a hypermethylation pattern in mucosa of OSCC patients (5.7%), whereas no hypermethylation was found in cancer-free controls. In contrast, *SNF* gene methylation pattern was lower in non-adjacent, non-neoplastic cells of OSCC patients (54.3%) when compared to OSCC-free controls (73.2%). Methylation analysis results are shown in Table 2. Random results were selected and validated by sequencing. A statistically significant relationship between methylation status and age was not found in this study.

Methylation status vs. tumor characteristics

The following tumor characteristics were analyzed: tumor stage (0, I, II, III and IV), histological grade (low, moderate and high differentiation grade and undifferentiated), anatomical site (upper/lower lip, lateral/ventral/base tongue, mouth floor, buccal mucosa, hard/soft palate, retromolar area, superior/inferior alveolar ridge). No statistically significant relationship between stage, anatomical site or histological grade variables and DNA methylation patterns was found.



No statistically significant relationship was found between gene methylation status and tobacco smoking/alcohol intake.

Discussion

Cancer initiation and progression are accompanied by changes in DNA methylation, which can be used as potential biomarkers for cancer diagnostic, prognostic or treatment [27, 28]. Various studies indicate that abnormal DNA methylation may occur early in cancer development, including OSCC, contributing to cancer initiation [10, 29]. Hypermethylation favors cancer progression by silencing tumor suppressor genes or DNA repair genes [10, 30].

In addition, DNA methylation is influenced by age [31–33], dietary intake [34, 35] and environmental factors [33, 36–38]. Analysis of healthy control individuals is important in the characterization of promoter methylation variation according to age, and in response to common environmental exposures such as alcohol and tobacco smoking [33, 39].

In this study we have analyzed the methylation status of four cancer-related genes in non-neoplastic oral cells from OSCC patients and OSCC-free controls that were not exposed to tobacco smoking or alcohol consumption. Our aim was to investigate whether normal cells from oral cancer patients would be more committed to epigenetic

Table 2 Univariate analysis of gene methylation status in OSCC patients vs. normal controls

Gene/methylation status	OSCC oral mucosa DNA (%)	Normal control DNA (%)	P value
CDKN2A gene			
Negative	66 (94.3)	41 (100)	
Positive	4 (5.7)	0	0.2946
EDNRB gene			
Negative	55 (78.6)	31 (75.6)	
Positive	15 (21.4)	10 (24.4)	0.8148
RUNX3 gene			
Negative	70 (100)	41 (100)	
Positive	0	0	_
SFN gene			
Negative	32 (45.7)	11 (26.8)	
Positive	38 (54.3)	30 (73.2)	0.0688
≥2 methylated gen	es		
Negative	59 (84.3)	32 (78)	
Positive	11 (15.7)	9 (22)	0.4491



early events than similar cells from individuals without oral neoplasia, and if such changes would be associated with exposure to alcohol, tobacco or specific tumor characteristics. Our findings demonstrate a remarkable difference between the CDKN2A methylation pattern in nonneoplastic cells from OSCC patients (5.7%) and cancer-free controls (0%). Despite not been statistically significant, our data show an increased rate of CDKN2A methylation in normal mucosa of OSCC patients. CDKN2A encodes the cell cycle regulatory protein p16 (INK4A) which binds cyclin-dependent kinases and inhibits their activities, resulting in hypophosphorylation of the retinoblastoma protein (pRb), an inhibitor of cell cycle progression. CDKN2A promoter methylation has been widely investigated and reported in the literature, varying from 31 to 67% [12, 13]. In addition, CDKN2A gene methylation was also found in dysplastic tissue (33%) [13], leukoplakia (44%) [14] and tumor adjacent normal cells (27–50%) [12, 40], reasons because it has been previously described as an early change in oral carcinogenesis. Although some studies have reported a high methylation frequency of normal tissue surrounding tumors, there is a lack of information regarding tumor-distant cells. In this study, 5.7% of OSCC patients showed CDKN2A methylation in non-neoplastic cells distant from the tumor site, whereas oral cancer free controls showed 0% methylation in such cells.

Drinking and smoking habits were expected to induce widespread field change in the upper aero-digestive tract [41–43], and some studies have demonstrated a synergistic effect between alcohol and tobacco [44]. Moreover, the presence of CDKN2A methylation in oral cavity cells from smokers without clinical evidence of oral cancer has been demonstrated [15, 36, 43, 45], suggesting that smoking increases epigenetic changes in normal cells. Nonetheless, in our study, CDKN2A hypermethylation was not associated with smoking or drinking habits, either separately or concurrently, corroborating other studies who found a low CDKN2A methylation rate in normal cells from the resection margin of smoker patients with OSCC or oral dysplasia [46, 47]. In addition, CDKN2A methylation status was not altered by tumor histological grade or anatomical site. An overall methylation trend has been associated with age in normal human prostate and colon tissues for several genes [32, 48], suggesting that the aging process may influence methylation changes, which could account for some of the methylation found in our study.

RUNX3 gene hypermethylation was absent in both sample groups. Runt-related transcription factor 3 (RUNX3) is a tumor suppressor gene that appears to be an important component of the transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β)-induced tumor suppression pathway. The lack RUNX3 gene expression stimulates cell proliferation and suppression of apoptosis in epithelial cells [49]. RUNX3 reduced

expression was observed in various cancers and was frequently caused by CpG island hypermethylation [50–56]. Gao et al. [56] determined the RUNX3 methylation status in OSCC tumor adjacent tissue and mucosa from healthy volunteers. Whereas no methylation was found in the latter group, a high rate was found in OSCC (70%) and intermediate rates were reported in tumor adjacent normal cells (53.3%). The absence of *RUNX3* methylation in normal mucosa distant from tumor reveals that abnormal RUNX3 hypermethylation is not a widespread event in the oral cavity prior to or contributing with cancer initiation, therefore it should not be used as a marker for early oral cancer detection. It has been previously reported in bladder cancer that RUNX3 methylation is increased as a function of age at diagnosis and smoking history [57]. Unlike bladder cancer, RUNX3 methylation was not found in normal oral cells of individuals exposed to tobacco or alcohol, neither an age association was detected.

Interestingly, hypermethylation was observed in both samples groups for *EDNRB* and *SFN* genes, but was not associated with alcohol or tobacco use, age or gender. *EDNRB* encodes the endothelin B receptor that mediates vasoconstriction. Although its role in carcinogenesis is still largely unknown, *EDNRB* has been reported to be silenced in some cancers through CpG island methylation [16, 58] and was considered as a potential molecular marker for patients at risk of developing precancerous lesions and oral cancer [16]. Nonetheless, our results suggest that *EDNRB* methylation is not an effective biomarker for early diagnosis of OSCC.

SFN is a major G2/M checkpoint control gene and its inactivation in various cancers has been shown to occur mostly by epigenetic mechanisms instead of gene mutation. Gasco et al. [59] reported a SFN methylation frequency of 34.8% in OSCC lesions, 50% in oral dysplasias and no methylation was found in normal tissue. Bhawal et al. [60] reported a methylation rate of 13% in OSCC but not in adjacent non-malignant cells and normal gingival tissues. Our results showed a hypermethylation pattern in 54.3% of non-adjacent, non-neoplastic cells of OSCC patients and 73.2% in OSCC-free controls. Despite not been statistically significant, P value was borderline significant (P = 0.068) indicating that a lower SFN methylation rate is found in OSCC patients. Because SFN methylation has been reported in normal lymphocytes [61] these findings may indicate that lymphocytes could be less prevalent in predisposed mucosa. Moreover, SFN hypermethylation was not associated with tobacco or alcohol consumption.

Due to the fact that aberrant DNA methylation of cancerrelated genes has been associated with cancer initiation and progression, as well as with carcinogen exposure, we have set out to investigate a possible role of *CDKN2A*, *EDNRB*, *RUNX3* and *SFN* in unaffected mucosa of OSCC patients, in



an attempt to identify useful biomarkers for non-invasive early cancer detection or prognosis. We have shown that these genes are not epigenetically silenced in normal mucosa of carcinogen-exposed individuals, and do not correlate with tumor features of malignancy. Nonetheless, we have found that *CDKN2A* promoter methylation occurs only in the normal mucosa of OSCC patients, when compared with oral cancer-free controls. Therefore, *CDKN2A* methylation could be useful as a non-invasive assay for early detection of OSCC, suggesting that further studies are needed to fully characterize its potential as a biomarker.

Acknowledgments This study was supported by grants from FACITEC/ES and *Fibria*[®]. We would like to thank PRPPG-UFES for donating *methylSEQr*TM *Bisulfite Conversion Kits*. MFCS was sponsored by a CAPES scholarship.

References

- Silverman S Jr (2001) Demographics and occurrence of oral and pharyngeal cancers: the outcomes, the trends, the challenge. J Am Dent Assoc 132:7–11
- Stewart BW, Kleihues P (2003) World cancer report. International Agency for Research on Cancer, Lyon
- Tsantoulis PK, Kastrinakis NG, Tourvas AD et al (2007)
 Advances in the biology of oral cancer. Oral Oncol 43:523–534
- Parkin DM, Laara E, Muir CS (1988) Estimates of the worldwide frequency of sixteen major cancers in 1980. Int J Cancer 41:184–197
- Durazzo MD, Araujo CEN, Brandão Neto JS et al (2005) Clinical and epidemiological features of oral cancer in a medical school teaching hospital from 1994 to 2002: increasing incidence in women, predominance of advanced local disease, and low incidence of neck metastases. Clinics 60(4):293–298
- Califano J, van der Riet P, Westra W et al (1996) Genetic progression model for head and neck cancer: implications for field cancerization. Cancer Res 56:2488–2492
- Slaughter DP, Southwick HW, Smejkal W (1953) Field cancerization in oral stratified squamous epithelium; clinical implications of multicentric origin. Cancer 6:963–968
- Spitz MR (1994) Epidemiology and risk factors for head and neck cancer. Semin Oncol 21:281–288
- Morse DE, Katz RV, Pendrys DG (1996) Smoking and drinking in relation to oral epithelial dysplasia. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 5:769–777
- 10. Feinberg AP, Ohlsson R, Henikoff S (2006) The epigenetic progenitor origin of human cancer. Nat Rev Genet 7:21–33
- Ha PK, Benoit NE, Yochem R et al (2003) A transcriptional progression model for head and neck cancer. Clin Cancer Res 9(8):3058–3064
- Kulkarni V, Saranath D (2004) Concurrent hypermethylation of multiple regulatory genes in chewing tobacco associated oral squamous cell carcinomas and adjacent normal tissues. Oral Oncol 40:145–153
- Maruya S, Issa JP, Weber RS et al (2004) Differential methylation status of tumor-associated genes in head and neck squamous carcinoma: incidence and potential implications. Clin Cancer Res 10:3825–3830
- López M, Aguirre JM, Cuevas N et al (2003) Gene promoter hypermethylation in oral rinses of leukoplakia patients—a diagnostic and/or prognostic tool? Eur J Cancer 39:2306–2309

- 15. Rosas SL, Koch W, Carvalho MGC et al (2001) Promoter hypermethylation patterns of p 16, 06_ Methylguanine-DNAmethyltransferase, and death-associated protein kinase in tumors and saliva of head and neck cancer patients. Cancer Res 61:939–942
- 16. Pattani KM, Zhang Z, Demokan S et al (2010) Endothelin receptor type B gene promoter hypermethylation in salivary rinses is independently associated with risk of oral cavity cancer and premalignancy. Cancer Prev Res (Phila) 3(9):1093–1103
- Christensen BC, Houseman EA, Godleski JJ et al (2009) Epigenetic profiles distinguish pleural mesothelioma from normal pleura and predict lung asbestos burden and clinical outcome. Cancer Res 69:227–234
- Marsit CJ, Christensen BC, Houseman EA et al (2009) Epigenetic profiling reveals etiologically distinct patterns of DNA methylation in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. Carcinogenesis 30:416–422
- Herman JG, Graff JR, Myöhänen S et al (1996) Methylationspecific PCR: a novel PCR assay for methylation status of CpG islands. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 93(18):9821–9826
- Jerónimo C, Henrique R, Campos PF et al (2003) Endothelin B receptor gene hypermethylation in prostate adenocarcinoma. J Clin Pathol 56(1):52–55
- Kim TY, Lee HJ, Hwang KS et al (2004) Methylation of RUNX3 in various types of human cancers and premalignant stages of gastric carcinoma. Lab Invest 84(4):479–484
- 22. Ferguson AT, Evron E, Umbricht CB et al (2000) High frequency of hypermethylation at the 14–3- 3σ locus leads to gene silencing in breast cancer. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 97:6049–6054
- Bender CM, Pao MM, Jones PA (1998) Inhibition of DNA methylation by 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine suppresses the growth of human tumor cell lines. Cancer Res 58(1):95–101
- Pao MM, Tsutsumi M, Liang G et al (2001) The endothelin receptor B (EDNRB) promoter displays heterogeneous, site specific methylation patterns in normal and tumor cells. Hum Mol Genet 10(9):903–910
- Kim WJ, Kim EJ, Jeong P et al (2005) RUNX3 inactivation by point mutations and aberrant DNA methylation in bladder tumors. Cancer Res 65(20):9347–9354
- 26. Negraes PD, Favaro FP, Camargo JL et al (2008) DNA methylation patterns in bladder cancer and washing cell sediments: a perspective for tumor recurrence detection. BMC Cancer 8:238
- Jones PA, Laird PW (1999) Cancer epigenetics comes of age. Nat Genet 21:163–167
- 28. Sidransky D (2002) Emerging molecular markers of cancer. Nat Rev Cancer 2:210–219
- Ha PK, Califano JA (2006) Promoter methylation and inactivation of tumour-suppressor genes in oral squamous-cell carcinoma. Lancet Oncol 7:77–82
- Sharma S, Kelly TK, Jones PA (2010) Epigenetics in cancer. Carcinogenesis 31(1):27–36
- 31. Bornman DM, Mathew S, Alsruhe J et al (2001) Methylation of the E-cadherin gene in bladder neoplasia and in normal urothelial epithelium from elderly individuals. Am J Pathol 159(3):831–835
- Kwabi-Addo B, Chung W, Shen L et al (2007) Age-related DNA methylation changes in normal human prostate tissues. Clin Cancer Res 13:3796–3802
- Christensen BC, Houseman EA, Marsit CJ et al (2009) Aging and environmental exposures alter tissue-specific DNA methylation dependent upon CpG island context. PLoS Genet 5:e1000602
- Feil R (2006) Environmental and nutritional effects on the epigenetic regulation of genes. Mutat Res 600:46–57
- 35. Waterland RA (2006) Assessing the effects of high methionine intake on DNA methylation. J Nutr 136:1706S-1710S
- von Zeidler SV, Miracca EC, Nagai MA et al (2004) Hypermethylation of the p16 gene in normal oral mucosa of smokers. Int J Mol Med 14(5):807–811



- Bollati V, Baccarelli A, Hou L et al (2007) Changes in DNA methylation patterns in subjects exposed to lowdose benzene. Cancer Res 67:876–880
- Miremadi A, Oestergaard MZ, Pharoah PD et al (2007) Cancer genetics of epigenetic genes. Hum Mol Genet 16(Spec No1): R28–R49
- Nakajima T, Enomoto S, Ushijima T (2008) DNA methylation: a marker for carcinogen exposure and cancer risk. Environ Health Prev Med 13:8–15
- Kato K, Hara A, Kuno T et al (2006) Aberrant promoter hypermethylation of p16 and MGMT genes in oral squamous cell carcinomas and the surrounding normal mucosa. J Cancer Res Clin Oncol 132:735–743
- 41. El Naggar AK, Hurr K, Batsakis JG et al (1995) Sequential loss of heterozygosity at microsatellite motifs in preinvasive and invasive head and neck squamous carcinoma. Cancer Res 55: 2656–2659
- Scully C, Field JK, Tanzawa H (2000) Genetic aberrations in oral or head and neck squamous cell carcinoma: clinico-pathological applications. Oral Oncol 36:404

 –413
- 43. Zochbauer-Muller S, Lam S, Toyooka S et al (2003) Aberrant methylation of multiple genes in the upper aerodigestive tract epithelium of heavy smokers. Int J Cancer 107:612–616
- 44. Franceschi S, Barzan L, Talamini R (1997) Screening for cancer of the head and neck: if not now, when? Oral Oncol 33(5): 313–316
- 45. Bhutani M, Pathak AK, Fan YH et al (2008) Oral epithelium as a surrogate tissue for assessing smoking-induced molecular alterations in the lungs. Cancer Prev Res (Phila) 1(1):39–44
- Shaw RJ, Liloglou T, Rogers SN et al (2006) Promoter methylation of P16, RARb, E-cadherin, cyclin A1 and cytoglobin in oral cancer: quantitative evaluation using pyrosequencing. Br J Cancer 94:561–568
- 47. Hall GL, Shaw RJ, Field EA et al (2008) p16 Promoter methylation is a potential predictor of malignant transformation in oral epithelial dysplasia. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 17(8): 2174–2179
- Shen L, Kondo Y, Rosner GL et al (2005) MGMT promoter methylation and field defect in sporadic colorectal cancer. J Natl Cancer Inst 97:1330–1338
- Li QL, Ito K, Sakakura C et al (2002) Causal relationship between the loss of RUNX3 expression and gastric cancer. Cell 109:113–124

- Kim TY, Lee HJ, Hwang KS et al (2004) Methylation of RUNX3 in various types of human cancers and premalignant stages of gastric carcinoma. Lab Invest 84:479–484
- Ku JL, Kang SB, Shin YK et al (2004) Promoter hypermethylation downregulates *RUNX3* gene expression in colorectal cancer cell lines. Oncogene 23:6736–6742
- 52. Ito K, Liu Q, Salto-Tellez M et al (2005) *RUNX3*, a novel tumor suppressor, is frequently inactivated in gastric cancer by protein mislocalization. Cancer Res 65:7743–7750
- Kim WJ, Kim EJ, Jeong P et al (2005) RUNX3 inactivation by point mutations and aberrant DNA methylation in bladder tumors. Cancer Res 65:9347–9354
- 54. Mor T, Nomoto S, Koshikawa K et al (2005) Decreased expression and frequent allelic inactivation of the *RUNX3* gene at 1p36 in human hepatocellular carcinoma. Liver Int 25:380–388
- 55. Yanada M, Yaoi T, Shimada J et al (2005) Frequent hemizygous deletion at 1p36 and hypermethylation downregulate *RUNX3* expression in human lung cancer cell lines. Oncol Rep 14:817–822
- Gao F, Huang C, Lin M et al (2009) Frequent inactivation of RUNX3 by promoter hypermethylation and protein mislocalization in oral squamous cell carcinomas. J Cancer Res Clin Oncol 135(5):739–747
- Wolff EM, Liang G, Cortez CC et al (2008) RUNX3 methylation reveals that bladder tumors are older in patients with a history of smoking. Cancer Res 68(15):6208–6214
- Nelson JB, Lee WH, Nguyen SH et al (1997) Methylation of the 5' CpG island of the endothelin B receptor gene is common in human prostate cancer. Cancer Res 57:35–37
- 59. Gasco M, Bell AK, Heath V et al (2002) Epigenetic inactivation of 14–3-3 δ in oral carcinoma: association with p16(INK4a) silencing and human papillomavirus negativity. Cancer Res 62(7):2072–2076
- Bhawal UK, Tsukinoki K, Sasahira T et al (2007) Methylation and intratumoural heterogeneity of 14–3-3 sigma in oral cancer. Oncol Rep 18(4):817–824
- 61. Bhatia K, Siraj AK, Hussain A et al (2003) The tumor suppressor gene 14–3- 3σ is commonly methylated in normal and malignant lymphoid cells. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev 12:165–169

