**High-risk human papillomavirus in oral cavity squamous cell carcinoma**

HPV and oral cavity tumors

Vinayak Palve[1], Jamir Bagwan[1], Neeraja M Krishnan[1], Manisha Pareek[1], Udita Chandola[1], Amritha

Suresh[2], Gangotri Siddappa[2], Bonney L James[2], Vikram Kekatpure[3], Moni Abraham Kuriakose[2,3]

and Binay Panda[1,4*]

[1]Ganit Labs, Bio-IT Centre, Institute of Bioinformatics and Applied Biotechnology, Bangalore,

India

[2]Mazumdar Shaw Centre for Translational Cancer Research, Bangalore, India

[3]Mazumdar Shaw Medical Centre, Bangalore, India

[4]Strand Life Sciences, Bangalore, India

*corresponding author: binay@ganitlabs.in

**Conflict of interests**
None of the authors declare any conflicts of interest.

**Abstract**

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is a known risk factor for certain head and neck cancers. Tumors of head and neck region are heterogeneous in nature with different incidences, mortalities and prognosis for different subsites. Unlike oropharynx, where data favors inclusion of HPV status in disease management, role of HPV in oral cavity squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) is not well understood. The prevalence of HPV in OSCC, although considered lower than oropharynx, vary greatly based on the choice of HPV assay and patient geography. Additionally, data on HPV +ve OSCC is scarce and there is less agreement on HPV being a good prognostic factor in OSCC. Here with 153 OSCC patients, using multiple analytes and assays, we show that a high prevalence (33-58%) of HPV16/18 DNA did not correlate with an equally high prevalence of transcriptionally active viral genomes (E6/E7 RNA prevalence 15%) in tumors. Only 6% of the tumors showed the presence of both HPV DNA and HPV16/18 E6/E7 RNA and none with both p16 and HPV RNA. Most tumors with relatively high-copy HPV DNA and/or HPV E6/E7 mRMA, but not with HPV DNA alone (irrespective of copy number), were wild type for *TP53* and *CASP8* genes. In our study, p16 protein, HPV DNA and E6/E7 RNA, either alone or in combinations, did not correlate with patient survival. Using genome-wide methylation data, 9 HPV-associated genes stratified the HPV +ve from the HPV –ve tumor groups with high confidence ($p<0.008$) when relatively high-copy number of HPV DNA and/or HPV E6/E7 RNA were considered to define HPV positivity and not HPV DNA alone irrespective of their copy number ($p<0.2$). Taken together, we conclude that tests measuring HPV DNA alone without viral load and/or viral RNA may not be a true measures of HPV infection in oral cavity tumors and therefore are not informative.

**Keywords:** HPV, OSCC, HPV DNA, HPV RNA, copy number, survival, somatic mutations, methylation.

## Introduction

Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) is the sixth most common cancer worldwide with an incidence of 550,000 cases annually [1]. Oral cavity squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) constitute a majority of HNSCC including tumors of oral/anterior tongue and buccal mucosa [2]. The major known risk factors of OSCC are tobacco products, alcohol, and infection with human papillomavirus (HPV) [3]. Unlike oropharyngeal tumors, where the HPV incidence is reported to be very high, (upto 90%) [4,5], the incidence of HPV in OSCC varies widely (from none to 74%) depending on the detection methodology used and the geography of the patient cohort [6]. Additionally, unlike oropharngeal tumors [7-11], the role of HPV in disease prognosis and response to therapy in patients with OSCC is less equivocal. Among the high risk HPV types, infection with HPV16 or HPV18 has been epidemiologically linked with head and neck malignancies [12]. Presennce of HPV DNA is routinely used as a measure of HPV infection in tumors. However, there is a considerable variation in the sensitivity of DNA-based assays, which leads to differences in reporting HPV DNA prevalence among different cohorts. On the otherhand, the presence of HPV E6/E7 RNA and/or their associated protein products remain as gold standard tests defining HPV positivity.

Large-scale sequencing studies have demonstrated that the majority of HPV-negative tumors harbor mutations in *TP53* and *CASP8* and a large proportion of HPV-positive tumors in *PIK3CA* [13-15]. Additionally, past studies have identified specific mutations in potential drug targets like *FGFR2/3* and lack of *EGFR* abberations in HPV-positive patients [15] and the role of *CASP8* in HPV-negative cell line and patients [13,16]. Despite the wealth of information, which HPV tests are accurate and whether HPV plays an important factor in oral cavity tumor stratification and treatment remain to be answered.

In the present study, we addressed the following questions on HPV in a cohrt of 153 patients with oral cavity tumors. Does sensitivity matter in the detection of HPV DNA in tumors? Does

presence of tumor p16 and HPV DNA correlate with that of HPV E6/E7 RNA? Is high-copy HPV DNA a true refelction of HPV infection in oral cavity tumors? Are p16 protein, HPV DNA, HPV E6/E7 RNA, individually or together, linked with patient survival? And finally, do somatic mutations and gene methylation at 5-Cytosine residues distinguish the HPV +ve from the HPV –ve tumors?

**Materials and Methods**

*Patient cohort*

Informed consent was obtained voluntarily from each patient enrolled in the study. Ethical approval (NHH/MEC-CL/2014/197; NHH/MEC-CL-2014/224) was obtained from the Institutional Ethics Committees of the Mazumdar Shaw Medical Centre. Patients diagnosed and treated at the cancer clinic of the Mazumdar Shaw Medical Centre for oral cavity tumors were subjected to a screening procedure before being enrolled in the study. Only those tumors where the histological sections confirmed the presence of squamous cell carcinoma and with at least 70% tumor cells in the section were used in the current study. One hundred and fifty three patients underwent staging according to AJCC criteria, and curative intent treatment as per NCCN guideline involving surgery with or without post-operative adjuvant radiation or chemo-radiation at the Mazumdar Shaw Medical Centre were accrued for the study (Supplementary Table 1). Post-treatment surveillance was carried out by clinical and radiographic examinations as per the NCCN guidelines. All the tissues were frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen and stored at $-80^0$C until further use.

*Cell cultures*

Cell lines (UM-SCC47, from Dr. Thomas Carey, University of Michigan, USA [17]; Hep2, National Centre for Cell Science, Pune, India;  UPCI:SCC29B and UPCI:SCC040, from Dr. Susanne Gollin, University of Pittsburg, USA [18]) were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagles' Media (DMEM) supplemented with 10% FBS, 1X MEM non-essential amino acids

solution and 1X penicillin/streptomycin mixture (Gibco) and grown in incubators at $37^0C$ with 5%

$CO_2$.

*Immunohistochemistry (IHC)*

For p16 immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining was carried out using primary antibody from

Biogenex, USA (cat: AM540-5M) and using the poly-HRP detection system (Cat: QD400-60KE,

BioGenex, Fremont, CA, USA) following manufacturers' instructions. Sections of cervical cancer

were used as the positive control.

*DNA extraction*

The genomic DNA from tumor tissues and cell lines were extracted using DNeasy Blood

and Tissue extraction kit using the spin column method with an intermediate RNase digestion

following manufacturer's instructions (Qiagen, USA). The DNA was quantified using Qubit 2.0

fluorometer (Invitrogen, USA) and stored at $-20^0C$ until further use. Total 300ng of genomic DNA

(unless specified otherwise) from tumors was used for the detection of HPV using PCR, qPCR and

digital droplet PCR (ddPCR) methods.

*Detection of HPV DNA with PCR*

PCR primers were designed to amplify either consensus or type-specific regions of the virus

(Figure 1A). Five sets of primers, including 4 HPV consensus (GP5-6; CP-I/II; MY09/11 and

PGMY09/11) and 1 type-specific (HPV16-L1) primers as described in the literature [19], in the

PCR assays. Additionally, we desinged two sets of new type-specific primers (HPV16-E6 and

HPV18-L1) to detect HPV DNA. The primer sequences and the amplification conditions used are

provided in Supplementary Table 2.

*Detection of HPV DNA with qPCR*

For qPCR, E6 and E7 regions from HPV16 and HPV18 respectively were cloned in pUC19 vector. The sequences for the recombinant plasmids were confirmed by Sanger sequencing. The qPCR was carried out using KAPA Probe Fast qPCR master mix Universal (2X) (cat: KK4701, KAPA Biosystems, USA). The primers and probes were designed (Supplementary Table 2) within the cloned regions of the HPV16 and HPV18 plasmids and standard quantitative PCR was performed. The standard curves were generated using serial dilutions (from 10 to 100,000 copies) of HPV16 and HPV18 cloned pUC19 plasmids. Genomic DNA from postive and negative control cell lines wers used as positive and negative controls for HPV18 and HPV16 respectively (Supplementary Figure 1). All amplification reactions were carried out in triplicates, using nuclease free water (cat: AM9932, Ambion, USA) as negative control. The analysis for each sample was done by using the absolute quantification using standard curve generated with serial dilutions of cloned plasmids. Tumors and cell lines samples were counted as positive for those having *Ct* values 3 times away from the standard deviation from the negative controls.

*Detection of HPV DNA using droplet digital PCR (ddPCR)*

Digital PCR was performed using the QX100 droplet digital PCR system (Bio-Rad, USA) using primers and probes as provided in Supplementary Table 2. The reaction mix consisted of 10 μl of 2× ddPCR Supermix without dUTP (cat: 1863024; Bio-Rad, USA), 450 nM of both forward and reverse primers of HPV16 and 250 nM probe and 300ng of genomic DNA in a final volume of 20 μl. The entire 20 μl reaction was loaded into a droplet cartridge, followed by 70 μl of droplet generation oil and droplets were generated using droplet generator. The droplets were transferred into a 96-well PCR plate (PCR96-FLT-C, Axygen, USA) and sealed using an aluminium foil. Further, the PCR amplification was carried out on in a thermal cycler (C1000, Bio-Rad, USA). After amplification, the plate was transferred to a Bio-Rad droplet reader. The droplets per well were measured and normalized in every reaction using the Quantasoft V.6 software (Bio-Rad, USA). All the samples were processed in triplicates. Tumors and cell lines samples were

counted as positive for those having droplet numbers 3 times away from the standard deviation

from the negative controls.

*HPV DNA copy number*

We deduced the HPV absolute copy number from the qPCR standard curves using cloned

HPV16/18 (Figure 2A,D). We considered a tumor or cell line to have relatively high-copy of HPV

DNA when the copy number for HPV16 and HPV18 DNA were more than $3.3 \times 10^2$ and $3.3 \times 10^3$

per microgram of tumor DNA respectively. In order to minimize the effect of tumor cellularity,

ploidy and heterogeneity, we expressed the HPV copy number as copies per microgram of tumor

DNA used in the reaction.

*Detection of HPV16/18 E6/ E7 RNA*

The total RNA was extracted from 25mg of tumor tissues using the RNeasy mini kit from

Qiagen (cat: 74104) following manufacturer's instructions. The residual DNA was digested on

column during extraction using RNase free DNase set from Qiagen (cat: 79254). Total 500ng of

RNA was subjected to cDNA synthesis using Takara's Prime Script first strand cDNA synthesis kit

(cat: 6110A). The qPCR was carried out using KAPA SYBR Fast qPCR master mix Universal (cat:

KK4601, KAPA Biosystems, USA). The GAPDH was amplified and used as internal control. The

primer sequences and the amplification conditions are provided in Supplementary Table 2. All

amplification reactions were carried out in triplicates, using nuclease free water (cat: AM9932,

Ambion, USA) as no template control and cDNA from UPCI:SCC29B and UPCI:SCC40 cell lines

as negative controls. Complementary DNA from cell lines UM-SCC47 and Hep2 were used as

positive controls for E6 and E7 amplifications respectively. Data was normalized using relative

quantification method ($2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$) [20]. Positive tumors were counted as ones that have *Ct* values 3

times from the standard deviation of the negative control.

*Integration status of HPV genome*

We performed HPV16E2 PCR [21,22] to determine whether HPV has integrated into tumor

genomes or remained as episomal DNA in tumors those were positive for HPV DNA and RNA.

Genomic DNA from the early passage of W12 cell line (gift from Prof. Sharmila Sengupta,

NIBMG, Kalyani, India) and p3796 pGEX-16E2 (wt) (Addgene plasmid # 24123) were used as

positive controls for E2 PCR. In addition, genomic DNA from UPCI;SCC29B and PCI:SCC040

cell lines were used as negative controls. The primer sequences and the amplification conditions are

provided in Supplementary Table 2. The PCR amplicons were resolved on 2% agarose gel and

visualized with a Gel Doc system (G-box, Syngene, UK). Tumors with no amplification were

considered to have HPV integrated into host genomes.

*Mutation analysis by Sanger sequencing*

The mutation data on tumors for *TP53*, *CASP8* and *RASA1* were retrieved from the

previously published data [16].

*Statistical Analysis*

The Chi square test was used to analyse significance of different clinical parameters of

patients. The relationship between tumor HPV status and survival in patients was examined by

Kaplan-Meier analysis and *Cox* proportional hazards regression with overall survival (OS) and

disease-free survival (DFS) with logrank test for determining significance ($p$ values <0.05).

*Whole genome methylation and statistical data analyses*

Production of whole genome methylation data using Illumina Infinium Methylation450

BeadChip, chip scanning and the data pre-processing are described previously [23]. Three tumors in

HPV +ve group (relatively with high-copy HPV DNA and/or E6/E7 RNA) and 18 tumors in HPV -

ve group (HPV DNA –ve and HPV RNA –ve) were considered for further analysis. Differential

methylation for probes was estimated as $\Delta\beta$ values (Tumor$_\beta$ - Normal$_\beta$) resulting in values ranging

from -1 (hypo-methylation) to 1 (hyper-methylation). Using a supervised clustering approach,

differentially methylated probes that discriminated HPV +ve and HPV -ve patients samples were

identified. Hyper-methylated probes in the HPV +ve group that were hypo-methylated in the HPV -

ve group, and *vice versa*, along with other probes with Δβ values that differed by at least 0.5

between the two groups, with a sample frequency of at least 60% were considered further. Finally,

the list of genes consisting of average Δβ values across tumors for multiple probes (where present)

was drawn. Neighborhood interaction network for these genes was inferred using PCViz from

PathwayCommons (http://www.pathwaycommons.org/pcviz/#neighborhood/). The genes and their

interacting partners were mapped to the Viral Carcinogenesis pathway from KEGG (hsa05203), and

mapped genes were linked back to respective genes found using supervised clustering. For the

linked genes, an unpaired *t*-test was performed to determine the significance of difference between

the HPV +ve and HPV -ve tumor groups. The same was performed for the HPV-associated genes

between the DNA-based (irrespective of the DNA copy number) HPV +ve and HPV -ve tumor

groups.

**Results**

*p16 expression*

The tumors (n = 56) were first confirmed by H and E staining of the paraffin tissue sections

followed by the immunohistochemical staining with the surrogate marker p16. Supplementary

Figure 2 shows the representative p16 +ve and –ve staining in oral cavity tumor sections (OSCC)

along with the cervical tissue section (+ve control). Fifty one percent (28/55) of the oral cavity

tumors studied showed positive p16 staining (Table 1).

*Incidence of HPV DNA*

We used three different molecular techniques (PCR, quantitative PCR and digital PCR) to

detect HPV DNA in oral cavity tumors. We tested 5 sets of primers published in the literature and 2

newly designed ones in the amplification reactions (Figure 1A). The primers were either consensus

(GP5$^+$6$^+$, MY09/11, CPI-II and PGMY09/11) or type-specific (HPV16L1, HPV16E6 and

HPV18L1). We used genomic DNA from UMSCC-47 and Hep2 cell lines to detect HPV16 and HPV18 respectively at various dilutions to determine relative efficiency, sensitivity and accuracy of amplification (Figure 1B). Primers described in the literature (GP5$^+$6$^+$, MY09/11, CPI-II or PGMY09/11, HPV16L1) could only detect HPV DNA when 0.03ng or higher amount of genomic DNA from the cell line UMSCC-47/Hep2 was used (Figure 1B). However, the newly designed type specific primers (HPV16E6 and HPV18L1) were able to detect HPV DNA with as low as 0.0003ng and 0.003ng genomic DNA for HPV16 and HPV18 respectively (Figure 1B). In order to check the efficiency of the newly designed primers in relation to absolute copy numbers of HPV genome, we used serial diluted HPV cloned plasmids DNA. As shown in Supplementary Figure 3, efficient amplification with 100 copies of HPV genome or higher could be detected. Once we optimized the conditions and primers for all the amplification reactions, we performed PCR in oral cavity tumors ($n = 70$). In our cohort, 58% (41/70) of the tumors were HPV DNA +ve for any of the PCR (Table 1, Supplementary Figure 4). Figure 1C shows the efficiency of the consensus and type specific primers in a set of representative oral cavity tumors. Widely used primers from the literature (MY09/11, PGMY09/11, GP5$^+$6$^+$ and HPV16L1) yielded either least or moderate (CPI-II) sensitivity of detection while the newly designed HPV16E6 and HPV18L1 primers showed optimum sensitivity of detecton (Figure 1C). We observed inhibition of amplification reactions at high concentration of tumor genomic DNA with positive cell line spike-in experiment (Supplementary Figure 5) and therefore avoided in the reactions. Additionally, an increase in amplification cycles also did not aid in the detection of HPV DNA in PCR as shown in Supplementary Figure 6.

Next, we used quantitative PCR using Taqman chemistry to detect HPV DNA. We performed serial dilution using HPV16 E6 and HPV18 L1 cloned plasmids to obtain standard curves (Figure 2 A,D). We used increasing amount of genomic DNA from negative control cell lines to demonstrate specific amplification of HPV DNA (Supplementary Figure 1). Genomic DNA from HPV +ve and –ve cell lines were used to plot the baseline. Tumors were counted as HPV

DNA positive for those having *Ct* values 3 times away from the standard deviation from the

negative controls (Figure 2 B,E). Results from qPCR indicated that 33% (35/106) of tumors were

positive for HPV DNA (Table 1). Although, we found high incidence for HPV16 (30%; 32/106)

than HPV18 (18%; 19/106) type, the HPV18 positive tumors had very high copy numbers of viral

DNA as refelcted in their *Ct* values (Figure 2 C,F). The prevalence of HPV DNA in oral tongue

tumors was higher (44%) compared to that of buccal mucosa (4%).

Finally, we used one of the most sensitive methods, digital PCR, to detect HPV DNA.

Digital PCR is recently shown succefully to detect HPV DNA in oropharyngeal tumors in highly

specific manner [24]. We performed droplet digital PCR (ddPCR) with serially diluted plasmid

HPV16E6 clones to generate the standard curve (Figure 2G). The genomic DNA from positive-

(UM-SCC47) and negative control cell lines (Hep2) for HPV16 along with a no template control

(NTC) were used to plot the baseline (Figure 2H). Digital PCR results indicated that 43% (59/136)

of oral cavity tumors were positive for HPV16 DNA (Table 1). Moreover, HPV16 infection was

more prevalent in oral tongue tumors (55%) compared to buccal mucosal ones (17%) (Table 1).

*HPV E6 and E7 RNA expression*

The viral mRNA, E6 and E7 (for both HPV16 and HPV18), were measured by qPCR in oral

cavity tumors and from cell lines (UMSCC-47 and Hep2). Compared to the cell lines, tumors

showed very low levels of expression of E6 and E7 mRNA (Figure 3). Unlike HPV DNA, only

15% of the tumors showed expression of E6 and/or E7 RNA and 6% of the tumors showed the

presence of both HPV DNA (with all the 3 assays) and transcriptionally active HPV genomes

(Table 1). Similar to DNA, oral tongue tumors had higher number (17%) of HPV E6/E7 RNA

compared to the buccal mucosa (9%, Table 1). In our cohort, younger patients (≤40yrs age) were

significantly more HPV RNA +ve than the older patients when analyzed by *Chi*-square analysis (*p*

= 0.029).

When combining the results from all the assays (p16 IHC, HPV DNA and HPV RNA), we found 0-48% of the tumors were positive in various assay combinations with PCR + ddPCR yielding the highest (48%) and p16 IHC + RNA the lowest (0%) numbers (Table 1). We found that 22% (23/106) of the tumors had relatively high-copy of HPV DNA and/or HPV E6/E7 mRNA.

***Integration of HPV DNA in the host tumor genomes***

We performed HPV16 E2 PCR to understand what percent of HPV DNA is integrated into the host tumor genomes and found that HPV is episomal in 18 % (n = 40) of the oral cavity tumors and in the majority of cases, HPV DNA was integrated into the host genome (Table 1). We used a positive control (genomic DNA from W12 cell line) to demonstrate the accuracy of the E2 PCR (Supplementary Figure 7).

*Linking tumor attributes, somatic mutations and HPV with survival*

We performed Kaplan Meir survival analysis with various tumor attributes that revealed significant association between tumor differentiation (*p=0.03*) and clinical stage (*p=0.0003*) with survival (Supplementary Figure 8 A-D). None of the other tumor attributes showed significant association with survival (Supplementary Figure 8 E-J). Expression of p16 in oral cavity tumors did not stratify patients based on both overall and disease-free survival (Supplementary Figure 9 A,B). HPV DNA status alone in any of the DNA-based assays or in combination did not correlate with survival (Supplementary Figure 9 C-L), except when measured with ddPCR for overall survival (Supplementary Figure 9 I, *p*=0.03). We found no correlation between HPV E6/E7 mRNA and with both overall (*p*=0.7) and disease-free (*p=0.3*) survival (Supplementary Figure 9 M,N).

Furhter, we investigated whether somatic mutations in significantly mutated genes in OSCC have a role to play in HPV DNA +ve tumors and patient survival. We looked at 3 genes (*TP53*, *CASP8*, *RASA1*) shown to be significantly mutated in oral cavity tumors [13,16,25] and tested

whether the mutation in any of the genes, alone or in combination, with relatively high HPV DNA

copy and/or HPV E6/E7 mRNA is linked with survival. As shown in Figure 4A, we did not find any

significant association with this group of tumors with both overall- ($p = 0.45$) and disease-free ($p =$

0.68) survival. Ninty five percent of the HPV +ve tumors in the group were wild-type for *TP53*, and

*CASP1* gene and 85% of the HPV +ve tumors for *RASA1*. (Figure 4B). Somatic mutations in a

group with relatively high-copy of HPV DNA, either alone or in combinations, were not associated

with both overall and disease-free survival (Supplementary Figure 10 A-F).

*Linking methylation to HPV*

Supervised clustering of the first group of patients (a group defined as one with high-copy

number HPV DNA and/or E6/E7 RNA) resulted in a list of 60 genes, out of which 9 (*FERMT3*,

*GIT2*, *HK3*, *PRKCZ*, *ZCCHC8*, *IRF5*, *IFFO1*, *ARID3A*, *HOXA2*) were mapped to the HPV pathway

(Figure 4C). Methylation of those genes are involved in downstream control of the expression of

different target genes. For example, *ZCCHC8* methylation is linked with the expression of *RB1*,

*PRKCZ* methylation controls-state-change-of *DLG1*, methylation in *ARID3A*, *IRF5*, *IFFO1* and

*HOXA2* are linked with the expression of *TP53*, and *FERMT3*, *HK3* and *GIT2* genes control the

expression of AP1 *(JUN)* (Figure 4C). All the genes, except for *HOXA2*, were significantly

hypermethylated in the HPV +ve group of tumors compared to the HPV –ve group (Figure 4C). The

linked 4 genes, obtained from the 9 significantly methylated genes, were mapped to the pathways

involving HPV E6 and E7 proteins (Figure 4D). To test significance, we performed unpaired *t*-tests

between the two groups, group 1 that has relatively high-copy HPV DNA and/or HPV RNA and

group 2 that were negative for both HPV DNA and HPV RNA. All of the 8 hypermethylated genes

showed very significance ($p < 0.00001$) and for *HOXA2* that was hypomethylated the *p*-value was

0.007. However, when the patients were grouped based on HPV DNA positivity alone (irrespective

of their copy number), most of these 9 HPV-linked genes did not show significant association

(Supplementary Table 3).

**Discussion**

HPV plays an important role in the prognosis of patients with oropharyngeal tumors [26,27]. Unlike oropharynx, HPV incidence and its role in disease prognosis in oral cavity tumors is not well established. Past results on HPV DNA incidence in oral cavity tumors were widely variable (from very low to very high) depending on the assay sensitivity, analyte and patient cohort used [28]. The accuracy of the HPV tests employed is important and  HPV positivity need to be answered in order to make treatment decisions in patients with head and neck tumors confidently [29]. There are fewer studies that used multiple analytes (protein, DNA and RNA) and multiple molecular tests (IHC, PCR, qPCR and digital PCR) to establish HPV positivity in oral cavity tumors and that correlated HPV with tumor attributes (including somatic mutations and methylation) and survival. In the present study, we attempted to do this in 153 patients with oral cavity tumors.

While p16 expression, as measured by immunohistochemistry (IHC), is a commonly used proxy for HPV in HNSCC, its expression is not specific in HPV associated tumors [27]. Although, numerous studies correlated p16 expression with HPV [30-32], p16 IHC has shortcomings, especially when correlating its expression with patient survival. Limitations, such as, variation in staining intensities [33,34], nonspecific binding of antibodies and the lack of scoring and interpretive criteria used for p16 staining [35] make the method less reliable. Unlike some of the earlier studies [36,37], we could not find any correlation (either positive or negative) between p16 expression with both HPV DNA and survival (Supplementary Figure 9 A,B). Like previous reports [30,38], we found p16 expression not to be an effective surrogate marker for HPV detection in oral cavity tumors (there was no tumor that expressed both p16 and had detectable HPV RNA) (Table 1). A poor correlation between p16 IHC and HPV *in situ* hybridization (ISH) is reported in the past [39]. In our study, we did not perform HPV ISH, which could have provided additional information on p16 positivity and HPV prevalence.

Unlike antibody-based methods, nucleic acids-based methods detect HPV with high sensitivity and therefore used widely [40]. Meta-analysis of 5478 oral cavity tumors suggested the

overall HPV DNA prevalence to be 24.2% with 11% tumors being positive for both HPV DNA and

E6/E7 RNA [41]. India has one of the highest incidence rates of oral cavity cancers with a

significant difference in the trend of incidence between oropharyngeal and oral cavity cancer [42].

Previously, PCR coupled with MassArray is shown to provide high sensitity of detection with low

amount of input genomic DNA [5]. From our results, we found 38% and 13%  of the tumors to be

positive and negative in all 3 DNA-based assays (PCR, qPCR and ddPCR) respectively. Overall,

the prevalence (33-58%) of HPV DNA was dependent on the type of assay used with PCR yielding

the highest prevalence over the more sensitive methods like qPCR and ddPCR assays (Table 2A).

This was possibily due to the use of consensus primers in PCR but not in qPCR and ddPCR, in

addition to the type-specific ones, resulting in the detection of non-HPV16/18 subtyps. As expected,

digital PCR, being the most-sensitive method out of the three DNA-based assays, resulted in more

number of tumors being HPV16-DNA positive resulting in the detection of very low copy viral

genomes in tumor samples. We wanted to test whether the presence of HPV DNA alone reflects a

biological role of HPV in tumors. Based on several levels of evidence as noted below, we conclude

that the presence of low copy HPV DNA alone may not be a reflection of functionally active HPV.

First, in the tumors positive in HPV DNA, we found only a fraction (15%) with HPV E6/E7 RNA.

Second, only 6% of tumors were positive for both the presence of HPV genome and E6/E7 RNA.

Third, almost all the tumors with relatively high-copy HPV genome and/or HPV RNA had wild

type *TP53* and *CASP8* genes, which was not the case with tumors with the low-copy HPV DNA.

Both *TP53* and *CASP8* are known to be wild-type primarily in HPV positive tumors [13] and in our

study too we found this corresponds to the tumors with high-copy HPV genome and/or

transcriptionally active genome only (Table 2B) . From all of the evidence above, we believe that

the presence of HPV DNA in the tumor tissues might have been a result of highly sensitive assays

used in our study and might suggest either the presence of passenger HPV genomes coming from

adjacent normal cells, as earlier reported [43,44] and/or be a reflection of inactive or passenger

virus in oral cavity tumors. Although very few (n=3), we can not explain why some tumors in our

study with HPV E6/E7 RNA did not show the presence of HPV DNA. It is possible that the

genomic DNA for those tumors were degraded and therefore, could not serve as ideal templates for DNA-based assays. An additional factor could be the presence of inhibitors for DNA-based assays in those tumors. Although HPV RNA is considered to be gold standard analyte to test for HPV in tumors, RNA is a difficult analyte to handle and is more labile than DNA. Additionally, studying RNA in archival samples may pose additional set of challenges.

We did not find any significant correlation between p16, HPV-DNA and/or HPV RNA and disease outcome (Supplementary Figure 9). Even the tumors with relatively high-copy HPV genomes and/or E6/E7 RNA did not support the role of HPV in patient survival (Figure 4A). There are several interesting aspects to our results that need further studies and analysis. First, like cervical tumors [41] but unlike oropharyngeal tumors [13 14 15 16], we did not find HPV to be a predictor of survival. It is possible that HPV has a different mechanism of action in oral cavity tumors. An indirect support to linking high HPV genome copy number with HPV positivity in our study comes from the fact that we did not find significance in HPV-linked genes stratifying HPV +ve from HPV –ve group when HPV DNA irrespective of their copy number is taken into account in defining the HPV positivity (Figure 4C-D). It is possible that the presence of high-copy HPV genome in those tumors does not correlate with the presence of biologically active virus. Further studies may help answer this question. Till we have a good answer on high-copy number HPV DNA, HPV RNA may be the best analyte to test for HPV positivity in oral cavity tumors.

**Acknoweledgements**

Research presented in this article is funded by Department of Electronics and Information Technology, Government of India (Ref No:18(4)/2010-E-Infra., 31-03-2010) and Department of IT, BT and ST, Government of Karnataka, India (Ref No:3451-00-090-2-22). We thank Mr. Osama Mansour of BioRad, India in helping us with ddPCR.

**Author contributions**

VP and BP designed the study, performed data analysis amd wrote the manuscript. VP carried out all the molecular assays and cell culture experiments; JB, UC and MP assisted in conducting molecular assays; NMK performed methylation data analysis; AS, GS and BLJ conducted p16 IHC studies, GS assisted in cell culture and maintenance of cell lines; AS, VK and MAK collected patient samples, collected follow up information and provided clinical attributes. BP provided the overall study supervision.

**Abbreviations**

HPV, human papillomavirus; HNSCC, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma; OSCC, oral cavity squamous cell carcinoma; IHC, immunohistochemistry; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; qPCR, quantitative polymerase chain reaction; ddPCR, droplet digital polymerase chain reaction

**References**

1.      Torre LA, Bray F, Siegel RL, *et al*. Global cancer statistics, 2012. *CA: a cancer journal for clinicians* 2015; **65**: 87-108.

2.      Bhat SP, Bhat VS, Permi H, *et al*. Oral and oropharyngeal malignancy: A clinicopathological study. *Internet Journal of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine* 2015; **1**.

3.      Mishra A, Meherotra R. Head and neck cancer: global burden and regional trends in India. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev* 2014; **15**: 537-550.

4.      Nasman A, Attner P, Hammarstedt L, *et al*. Incidence of human papillomavirus (HPV) positive tonsillar carcinoma in Stockholm, Sweden: an epidemic of viral-induced carcinoma? *Int J Cancer* 2009; **125**: 362-366.

5.      Walline HM, Komarck C, McHugh JB, *et al*. High-risk human papillomavirus detection in oropharyngeal, nasopharyngeal, and oral cavity cancers: comparison of multiple methods. *JAMA Otolaryngology–Head & Neck Surgery* 2013; **139**: 1320-1327.

6.      Isayeva T, Li Y, Maswahu D, *et al*. Human papillomavirus in non-oropharyngeal head and neck cancers: a systematic literature review. *Head Neck Pathol* 2012; **6 Suppl 1**: S104-120.

7.      Ang KK, Harris J, Wheeler R, *et al*. Human papillomavirus and survival of patients with oropharyngeal cancer. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2010; **363**: 24-35.

8.    Fakhry C, Westra WH, Li S, *et al*. Improved survival of patients with human papillomavirus-positive head and neck squamous cell carcinoma in a prospective clinical trial. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute* 2008; **100**: 261-269.

9.    Fakhry C, Zhang Q, Nguyen-Tan PF, *et al*. Human papillomavirus and overall survival after progression of oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma. *Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology* 2014; **32**: 3365-3373.

10.    Lassen P, Eriksen JG, Hamilton-Dutoit S, *et al*. Effect of HPV-associated p16INK4A expression on response to radiotherapy and survival in squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology* 2009; **27**: 1992-1998.

11.    Rischin D, Young RJ, Fisher R, *et al*. Prognostic significance of p16INK4A and human papillomavirus in patients with oropharyngeal cancer treated on TROG 02.02 phase III trial. *Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology* 2010; **28**: 4142-4148.

12.    Huang C-G, Lee L-A, Tsao K-C, *et al*. Human papillomavirus 16/18 E7 viral loads predict distant metastasis in oral cavity squamous cell carcinoma. *Journal of Clinical Virology* 2014; **61**: 230-236.

13.    Cancer Genome Atlas N. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. *Nature* 2015; **517**: 576-582.

14.    Lechner M, Frampton GM, Fenton T, *et al*. Targeted next-generation sequencing of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma identifies novel genetic alterations in HPV+ and HPV- tumors. *Genome Med* 2013; **5**: 49.

15.    Seiwert TY, Zuo Z, Keck MK, *et al*. Integrative and comparative genomic analysis of HPV-positive and HPV-negative head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. *Clin Cancer Res* 2015; **21**: 632-641.

16.    Krishnan N, Gupta S, Palve V, *et al*. Integrated analysis of oral tongue squamous cell carcinoma identifies key variants and pathways linked to risk habits, HPV, clinical parameters and tumor recurrence. *F1000Res* 2015; **4**: 1215.

17.    Brenner JC, Graham MP, Kumar B, *et al*. Genotyping of 73 UM-SCC head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cell lines. *Head & neck* 2010; **32**: 417-426.

18.    Martin CL, Reshmi SC, Ried T, *et al*. Chromosomal imbalances in oral squamous cell carcinoma:

examination of 31 cell lines and review of the literature. *Oral oncology* 2008; **44**: 369-382.

19.    Romero-Pastrana F. Detection and typing of human papilloma virus by multiplex PCR with type-

specific primers. *ISRN microbiology* 2012; **2012**.

20.    Schmittgen TD, Livak KJ. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative CT method. *Nature*

*protocols* 2008; **3**: 1101-1108.

21.    Bhattacharjee B, Sengupta S. CpG methylation of HPV 16 LCR at E2 binding site proximal to P97 is

associated with cervical cancer in presence of intact E2. *Virology* 2006; **354**: 280-285.

22.    Gallo G, Bibbo M, Bagella L, *et al*. Study of viral integration of HPV-16 in young patients with

LSIL. *J Clin Pathol* 2003; **56**: 532-536.

23.    Krishnan NM, Dhas K, Nair J, *et al*. A Minimal DNA Methylation Signature in Oral Tongue

Squamous Cell Carcinoma Links Altered Methylation with Tumor Attributes. *Mol Cancer Res* 2016;

**14**: 805-819.

24.    Biron VL, Kostiuk M, Isaac A, *et al*. Detection of human papillomavirus type 16 in oropharyngeal

squamous cell carcinoma using droplet digital polymerase chain reaction. *Cancer* 2016; **122**: 1544-

1551.

25.    India Project Team of the International Cancer Genome C. Mutational landscape of gingivo-buccal

oral squamous cell carcinoma reveals new recurrently-mutated genes and molecular subgroups.

*Nature communications* 2013; **4**: 2873.

26.    Maxwell JH, Grandis JR, Ferris RL. HPV-Associated Head and Neck Cancer: Unique Features of

Epidemiology and Clinical Management. *Annu Rev Med* 2016; **67**: 91-101.

27.    Vokes EE, Agrawal N, Seiwert TY. HPV-Associated Head and Neck Cancer. *Journal of the*

*National Cancer Institute* 2015; **107**: djv344.

28.    Bruni L, Barrionuevo-Rosas L, Serrano B, *et al*. Human papillomavirus and related diseases report.

*L'Hospitalet de Llobregat: ICO Information Centre on HPV and Cancer* 2014.

29.    Seiwert T. Accurate HPV testing: a requirement for precision medicine for head and neck cancer.

*Annals of oncology : official journal of the European Society for Medical Oncology / ESMO* 2013;

**24**: 2711-2713.

30.   Chung CH, Zhang Q, Kong CS, *et al*. p16 protein expression and human papillomavirus status as
prognostic biomarkers of nonoropharyngeal head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Journal of*
*Clinical Oncology* 2014: JCO. 2013.2054. 5228.

31.   Stephen JK, Divine G, Chen KM, *et al*. Significance of p16 in site-specific HPV positive and HPV
negative head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancer and clinical oncology* 2013; **2**: 51.

32.   Gröbe A, Hanken H, Kluwe L, *et al*. Immunohistochemical analysis of p16 expression, HPV
infection and its prognostic utility in oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Journal of Oral Pathology &*
*Medicine* 2013; **42**: 676-681.

33.   Larsen CG, Gyldenløve M, Jensen D, *et al*. Correlation between human papillomavirus and p16
overexpression in oropharyngeal tumours: a systematic review. *British journal of cancer* 2014; **110**:
1587-1594.

34.   Seiwert TY. Ties That Bind: p16 As a Prognostic Biomarker and the Need for High-Accuracy
Human Papillomavirus Testing. *Journal of Clinical Oncology* 2014: JCO. 2014.2057. 9268.

35.   El-Naggar AK, Westra WH. p16 expression as a surrogate marker for HPV-related oropharyngeal
carcinoma: A guide for interpretative relevance and consistency. *Head & neck* 2012; **34**: 459-461.

36.   Alexander RE, Hu Y, Kum JB, *et al*. p16 expression is not associated with human papillomavirus in
urinary bladder squamous cell carcinoma. *Modern Pathology* 2012; **25**: 1526-1533.

37.   Auw-Haedrich C, Martin G, Spelsberg H, *et al*. Expression of p16 in conjunctival intraepithelial
neoplasia does not correlate with HPV-infection. *The open ophthalmology journal* 2008; **2**: 48.

38.   Lingen MW, Xiao W, Schmitt A, *et al*. Low etiologic fraction for high-risk human papillomavirus in
oral cavity squamous cell carcinomas. *Oral Oncol* 2013; **49**: 1-8.

39.   Chung CH, Zhang Q, Kong CS, *et al*. p16 protein expression and human papillomavirus status as
prognostic biomarkers of nonoropharyngeal head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Journal of*
*clinical oncology : official journal of the American Society of Clinical Oncology* 2014; **32**: 3930-
3938.

40.   Gibson JS. Nucleic acid-based assays for the detection of high-risk human papillomavirus: A
technical review. *Cancer cytopathology* 2014; **122**: 639-645.

41.   Ndiaye C, Mena M, Alemany L, *et al*. HPV DNA, E6/E7 mRNA, and p16INK4a detection in head
and neck cancers: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Oncol* 2014; **15**: 1319-1331.

42. Chaturvedi AK, Anderson WF, Lortet-Tieulent J, *et al*. Worldwide trends in incidence rates for oral

cavity and oropharyngeal cancers. *Journal of clinical oncology : official journal of the American*

*Society of Clinical Oncology* 2013; **31**: 4550-4559.

43. Terai M, Hashimoto K, Yoda K, *et al*. High prevalence of human papillomaviruses in the normal

oral cavity of adults. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 1999; **14**: 201-205.

44. Gillison ML, Broutian T, Pickard RK, *et al*. Prevalence of oral HPV infection in the United States,

2009-2010. *JAMA* 2012; **307**: 693-703.

**Table 1:** Summary of HPV prevalence by all assays. DNA PCR was performed with consensus or HPV16/18 type-specific primers; DNA qPCR with Taqman assays for HPV16/18; DNA ddPCR with HPV16 primers; RNA qPCR with SYBR based assay to detect HPV16/18 E6/E7 mRNA. The primer and probe sequences along with the amplification conditions are provided in Supplementary Table 2.

| Analyte/Assay | Detection Method | HPV Positivity (%) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Oral tongue | Buccal mucosa | Oral cavity (both subsites) |
| Protein | Immunohistochemistry | 51% (28/55) | NA | 51% (28/55) |
| | | | | |
| DNA | PCR | 59% (39/66) | 50% (2/4) | 58% (41/70) |
| | qPCR | 44% (34/78) | 4% (1/28) | 33% (35/106) |
| | ddPCR | 55% (52/95) | 17% (7/41) | 43% (59/136) |
| | | | | |
| RNA | qPCR | 17% (05/30) | 9% (1/11) | 15% (06/41) |
| | | | | |
| Combinations | PCR + qPCR | 38% (23/60) | | |
| | PCR + ddPCR | 48%(29/60) | | |
| | qPCR + ddPCR | 27% (27/99) | | |
| | PCR +qPCR + ddPCR (all 3 methods, 3/3 method) | 38% (20/53) | | |
| | p16 + 3/3 Methods | 19% (7/36) | | |
| | p16 + RNA | 0% (0/16) | | |
| | RNA + 3/3 methods | 6% (1/17) | | |
| | | | | |
| Final HPV positivity | Relative high-copy HPV DNA and/or HPV E6/E7 RNA positive | 22% (23/106) | | |
| | | | | |
| Integrated/episomal | HPV16E6 PCR followed with E2-PCR | 18% (7/38) | 0% (0/2) | 18% (07/40) |

540
541

**A**

| Sample Code | Protein | | DNA | | | | RNA | Integration Status |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | p16 IHC | PCR | qPCR | ddPCR | +ve in 3/3 | DNA high-copy | E6/E7 RNA | E2 PCR |
| BM1 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM10 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM11 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM12 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM13 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM14 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM15 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM16 | - | - | - | ● | - | - | - | - |
| BM17 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM18 | - | - | ○ | ● | - | N | - | - |
| BM19 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM2 | - | - | - | ● | - | - | - | - |
| BM20 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM21 | - | - | ○ | ● | - | N | - | - |
| BM22 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM23 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM24 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM25 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM26 | - | - | ○ | ● | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM27 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM28 | - | - | - | ● | - | - | - | - |
| BM29 | - | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | - | - |
| BM3 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM30 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM31 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM32 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM33 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM34 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM35 | - | ● | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | - | ○ |
| BM36 | - | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | - | - |
| BM37 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM38 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM39 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM4 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM40 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| BM41 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM5 | - | ● | ● | ○ | ○ | Y | - | ○ |
| BM6 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ● | - |
| BM7 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| BM8 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| BM9 | - | - | ○ | ● | - | N | ○ | - |
| OT10 | ● | ● | ○ | ● | ○ | N | - | ○ |
| OT100 | - | ● | ○ | ● | ○ | N | ○ | ○ |
| OT101 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ● | - |
| OT102 | - | - | - | ● | - | - | - | - |
| OT103 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT104 | - | - | - | ● | - | - | - | - |
| OT105 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT106 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| OT107 | - | - | - | ● | - | - | - | - |
| OT108 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT109 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT11 | ● | ● | - | ○ | - | - | ○ | ○ |
| OT110 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ● | - |
| OT111 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT112 | - | ● | ○ | ● | ○ | N | - | ○ |
| OT113 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT114 | ● | ● | ● | ● | ● | Y | - | - |
| OT115 | ○ | ● | - | - | - | - | - | ○ |
| OT116 | - | - | ○ | ● | - | N | - | - |
| OT12 | ● | ● | - | - | - | - | - | ○ |
| OT13 | ○ | ● | - | - | - | - | - | ○ |
| OT14 | ○ | ● | ● | ● | ● | Y | ○ | ● |
| OT15 | ○ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| OT16 | ○ | ● | ● | ● | ● | L | - | - |
| OT17 | ○ | ● | ● | - | - | L | ● | ○ |
| OT18 | ○ | ● | ○ | - | - | N | - | ○ |
| OT19 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | - | - |
| OT2 | ● | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | - | - |
| OT20 | ○ | ● | ● | ○ | ○ | L | - | ○ |
| OT21 | - | ○ | ○ | - | - | N | ○ | - |
| OT22 | - | ○ | ○ | - | - | - | - | - |
| OT23 | ○ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| OT24 | ● | ● | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | ○ | ○ |
| OT25 | ● | ● | - | ● | - | - | ○ | ● |
| OT26 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | - | - |
| OT27 | - | ○ | ○ | ○ | - | - | ○ | - |
| OT28 | ○ | ○ | ○ | - | - | N | - | - |
| OT29 | ● | ○ | ○ | ● | ○ | N | - | ○ |
| OT3 | ● | ● | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | ○ | ○ |
| OT30 | ● | ● | ● | ● | ● | L | - | ● |
| OT31 | ● | ○ | ● | ● | ○ | - | - | - |
| OT32 | ○ | ○ | ● | ● | ○ | Y | - | - |
| OT33 | ○ | ○ | ● | ○ | ○ | L | ○ | - |
| OT34 | ● | ○ | - | ● | - | - | - | - |
| OT35 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| OT36 | - | ○ | ● | - | - | Y | - | - |
| OT37 | - | ○ | ○ | - | - | N | - | - |
| OT38 | ○ | ○ | ● | ● | ○ | L | - | - |

| Sample Code | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| OT39 | • | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| OT4 | ○ | ○ | ○ | • | ○ | N | - | • |
| OT40 | • | ○ | - | • | - | N | ○ | - |
| OT41 | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | - | - |
| OT42 | ○ | • | • | • | • | L | ○ | ○ |
| OT43 | • | • | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | ○ | ○ |
| OT44 | • | • | • | • | • | L | ○ | ○ |
| OT45 | - | ○ | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT46 | - | • | • | • | • | L | - | • |
| OT48 | ○ | • | • | • | • | L | - | - |
| OT5 | • | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| OT50 | - | ○ | ○ | • | ○ | N | - | - |
| OT51 | • | ○ | • | - | - | L | - | - |
| OT52 | ○ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| OT53 | • | • | ○ | ○ | ○ | N | - | ○ |
| OT54 | • | • | • | • | • | L | - | ○ |
| OT55 | • | - | ○ | • | - | N | ○ | ○ |
| OT56 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT57 | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| OT58 | - | - | • | ○ | - | Y | - | - |
| OT59 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT6 | • | ○ | • | ○ | ○ | - | - | - |
| OT60 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| OT61 | ○ | • | • | • | • | Y | • | ○ |
| OT62 | - | • | ○ | • | ○ | N | ○ | ○ |
| OT63 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT64 | - | • | • | • | • | L | ○ | ○ |
| OT65 | ○ | • | • | • | • | Y | - | • |
| OT66 | - | - | ○ | • | - | N | - | - |
| OT67 | ○ | • | • | • | • | Y | ○ | ○ |
| OT68 | - | - | • | • | - | Y | - | - |
| OT69 | • | • | • | • | • | Y | - | - |
| OT7 | • | • | ○ | • | ○ | N | - | - |
| OT70 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | ○ |
| OT71 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT72 | - | - | ○ | • | - | N | • | - |
| OT73 | - | - | - | • | - | - | - | - |
| OT74 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT75 | - | • | • | • | • | Y | ○ | ○ |
| OT76 | - | • | • | • | • | Y | - | • |
| OT77 | • | • | • | • | • | L | ○ | ○ |
| OT78 | ○ | ○ | ○ | • | ○ | N | ○ | - |
| OT79 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT80 | - | ○ | • | • | ○ | Y | ○ | - |
| OT81 | • | • | • | • | • | Y | - | - |
| OT82 | ○ | • | • | • | • | Y | - | ○ |
| OT83 | ○ | • | ○ | • | ○ | N | - | - |
| OT84 | ○ | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT85 | - | • | ○ | • | ○ | N | - | ○ |
| OT86 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT87 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | ○ | - |
| OT88 | - | ○ | • | • | ○ | Y | ○ | ○ |
| OT89 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT9 | • | • | ○ | • | ○ | N | - | - |
| OT90 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT91 | ○ | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT92 | - | ○ | • | • | ○ | L | - | - |
| OT93 | - | - | - | • | - | - | - | - |
| OT94 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT95 | - | • | • | • | • | Y | - | - |
| OT96 | - | - | - | ○ | - | - | - | - |
| OT97 | - | - | ○ | ○ | - | N | - | - |
| OT98 | - | - | - | • | - | - | - | - |
| OT99 | - | ○ | ○ | - | - | N | - | - |

**B**

| Sample Code | DNA | RNA | Somatic mutation | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | High-copy | E6/E7 RNA | TP53 | CASP8 | RASA1 |
| BM5 | Y | - | NA | NA | NA |
| BM6 | N | • | NA | NA | NA |
| OT101 | N | • | M | NA | WT |
| OT110 | N | • | WT | M | WT |
| OT114 | Y | - | WT | WT | WT |
| OT14 | Y | ○ | WT | WT | WT |
| OT17 | L | • | WT | WT | WT |
| OT32 | Y | - | WT | M | WT |
| OT36 | Y | - | WT | WT | M |
| OT58 | Y | - | NA | NA | NA |
| OT61 | Y | • | WT | WT | WT |
| OT65 | Y | - | WT | WT | WT |
| OT67 | Y | ○ | WT | WT | WT |
| OT68 | Y | - | WT | WT | WT |
| OT69 | Y | - | WT | WT | WT |
| OT72 | N | • | WT | WT | WT |
| OT75 | Y | ○ | WT | WT | WT |
| OT76 | Y | - | WT | M | WT |
| OT80 | Y | ○ | WT | WT | WT |
| OT81 | Y | - | WT | WT | WT |
| OT82 | Y | - | NA | WT | NA |
| OT88 | Y | ○ | WT | WT | WT |
| OT95 | Y | - | WT | WT | WT |

547
548

**Figure legends.**

Figure 1A: Primer and probes locations used in the study to detect HPV DNA and HPV E6/E7 RNA.

Figure 2: HPV qPCR (A-F) and digital PCR (G-I). Standard curves were obtained using cloned HPV16/18 plasmids (A,D,G), positive and negative cell line DNA (B,E,H) were used to count DNA in tumors (C,F,I).

Figure 3: HPV16/18 E6/E7 mRNA expression using qPCR.

Figure 4: Kaplan Meier survival plots linking tumors with high-copy HPV DNA and/or HPV RNA status (A), somatic mutations in 3 frequently mutated genes in tumors (B), clustering of nine methylated genes stratifying HPV positive from negative group of tumors (C) and HPV-associated pathways (D) in HPV positive tumors.

**Supplementary Figures and Tables legends:**

Supplementary Table 1: Clinical details of patients (n = 153) used in the study.

Supplementary Table 2: Primer and probe sequences along with amplicon size and the conditions of amplification reactions used for nucleic acid based detection.

Supplementary Table 3: Significance ($p$ values) from unpaired $t$-tests between HPV positive and negative tumors in two groups based on HPV DNA copy number.

Supplementary Figure 1: Genomic DNA from cell lines were used as controls for HPV16 (A,B) and HPV18 (C,D) PCR.

Supplementary Figure 2: Representative images for p16 immunohistochemical staining (IHC) in – ve OSCC, +ve OSCC and cervical cancer (+ve control) samples.

Supplementary Figure 3: Amplification efficiency as measured by serially diluted HPV16/18 cloned plasmids.

Supplementary Figure 4: PCR gel images with OSCC tumor DNA.

Supplementary Figure 5: Inhibition of amplification reactions at high concentration of tumor

genomic DNA with spike-in experiment.

Supplementary Figure 6: The effect of amplification cycle on PCR.

Supplementary Figure 7: HPV E2PCR to test viral integration into host genomes.

Supplementary Figure 8: KM survival analysis plots with tumor attributes. Tumor differentiation

(A), stage (B-D), habits (E-H), age (I), and nodal status (J).

Supplementary Figure 9: KM survival analysis plots with p16 (A,B), HPV DNA- PCR (C,D), qPCR

(E-H), ddPCR(I,J), positive in 3/3 DNA-based method (K,L), and E6/E7 mRNA (M,N).

Supplementary Figure 10: KM survival analysis plots in various somatic mutational backgrounds

(A-F).