



P53 Gene Mutation Identified by Next Generation Sequencing in Poorly Differentiated Neuroendocrine Carcinoma of the Nasal Cavity

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Abstract

Neuroendocrine carcinomas (NECs) are epithelial neoplasms showing morphologic, immunophenotypic or ultrastructural evidence of neuroendocrine differentiation. The 2017 WHO Classification of Head and Neck Tumours classifies NECs into well, moderately and poorly differentiated NECs according to light microscopic features, mitotic rate and presence of tumour necrosis. In this study, we performed next generation sequencing (NGS) using a targeted 161 cancer gene panel on a poorly differentiated NEC of the nasal cavity. The tumour was composed of large cells arranged in poorly formed glands and solid nests. The mitotic count rate was 30/10 HPFs and p53 protein was strongly expressed in all tumour cells. NGS identified a missense mutation, c.764T > G (p.Ile255Ser) in the *TP53* gene with an allele frequency of 85%. This mutation results in an isoleucine to serine substitution and a non-functional protein. No other mutations were identified. These results suggest that *TP53* mutations may drive oncogenesis in poorly differentiated NECs of the head and neck.

Keywords Neuroendocrine carcinoma · *TP53* mutation · Next-generation sequencing · Head and neck · Nasal cavity

Introduction

Neuroendocrine carcinomas (NECs) are malignant epithelial neoplasms showing morphologic, immunophenotypic or ultrastructural evidence of neuroendocrine differentiation. The 2017 WHO Classification of Head and Neck Tumours classifies NECs into well, moderately and poorly differentiated according to microscopic features, mitotic rate and tumour necrosis [1]. Well differentiated NECs have < 2 mitotic figures per 10 high-powered fields (HPFs) and no necrosis; moderately differentiated NECs have ≥ 2 and ≤ 10 mitotic figures per 10 HPFs and/or necrosis; and poorly differentiated NECs have > 10 mitotic figures per 10 HPFs

with or without necrosis. The latter category includes small and large cell NECs, which are distinguished based on the cytologic features of the tumour cells. In general, well differentiated NECs are associated with good outcomes while poorly differentiated NECs are almost invariably associated with distant metastases and poor prognosis [2–11]. Moderately differentiated NECs are associated with highly variable clinical behavior, which suggests that this category may represent a heterogeneous group [6, 12].

Our understanding of the clinical and biologic characteristics of NECs of the head and neck may be limited by our reliance on histologic features for the classification of these neoplasms. Evidence from other organ systems suggests that well and poorly differentiated neuroendocrine neoplasms harbor unique molecular signatures and may in fact be distinct biological entities [13]. Few studies have assessed the genetic landscape of neuroendocrine carcinoma in the head and neck so it is unclear if the evidence from other sites applies to the head and neck. In this study, we performed next generation sequencing (NGS) using a targeted 161 gene panel on a poorly differentiated NEC from the nasal cavity in order to investigate possible molecular contributions..

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Materials and Methods

Molecular Analysis

DNA and RNA were extracted from formalin fixed paraffin embedded (FFPE) tissue from a tumor resection with cellularity > 30%. Tumor regions were isolated by macrodissection from 10 to 15 unstained sections, and DNA and RNA extracted using a co-isolation method on an automated extractor (Maxwell FFPE kit, Promega, Madison, WI). RNA was converted to cDNA prior to use in NGS. Molecular analysis was performed using 20 ng DNA and 40 ng cDNA with the OncoPrint™ Comprehensive Assay v3 (OCAv3; ThermoFisher, Waltham, MA) on the IonTorrent™ S5 XL platform (ThermoFisher). The OCAv3 panel includes regions of 161 driver genes, and parallel testing of DNA and RNA (cDNA), enables detection of single nucleotide variants (SNVs), small insertions and deletions, copy number variants (CNVs) and gene fusions in targeted gene regions. Analysis of molecular variants was performed using the Ion Reporter software, with filtering to remove variants below 5% variant allele frequency, low quality variants, known germline polymorphisms, and synonymous variants.

Case Report

The patient was 49-year-old female who presented with a 1-year history of nasal congestion, anosmia, 15-pound weight loss and intermittent epistaxis. The patient had a 30 pack-years history of smoking having quit 4 years before her initial presentation. There was no history of exposure to woodworking, leather or industrial solvents. Endoscopic examination showed a large left-sided nasal mass.

A computed tomography scan of the head and neck revealed a 5.3 × 3.0 × 2.5 cm mass occupying the posterior nasal cavity and sphenoid-ethmoidal recess with extension to the olfactory grooves and nasopharynx (Fig. 1a, b). Imaging of the chest and abdomen did not reveal any evidence of distant metastases. The patient underwent debulking of the nasal mass for a tissue diagnosis at an outside institution. Post-biopsy imaging demonstrated residual tumor in the posterior nasal cavity and cribriform plate. The patient underwent neoadjuvant chemoradiation with two cycles of high-dose cisplatin and a radiation dose of 50 Gy followed by planned surgical resection. The tumor demonstrated a modest response to neoadjuvant therapy (Fig. 1c, d) and underwent endoscopic endonasal resection of the residual tumor with negative margins.

Microscopically the tumor cells were arranged in poorly formed glands and solid nests (Fig. 2a). The

glands contained pale luminal mucin but no intracytoplasmic mucin. The tumor was composed of large cells with ample cytoplasm, finely dispersed chromatin and inconspicuous nucleoli (Fig. 2b). The background demonstrated necrotic debris and hemorrhage. The mitotic rate was 30/10 highpower fields and abnormal forms were easily identified. Patchy involvement of surface epithelium by tumor cells was also identified. No residual tumor was identified on follow-up imaging (Fig. 1e, f) and at the time of this report, the patient has been disease free for 14 months.

Immunohistochemical stains showed that the tumor cells were diffusely positive for pan-keratin AE1/AE3 (Fig. 3a), CK18, CK19, and synaptophysin (Fig. 3b). There was focal expression of chromogranin (Fig. 3c), CD56 (Fig. 3d), p63, and CD117. No staining was noted for CK7, CK20, CK5/6, CD5, CDX2, S100, glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) or CD30. A stain for *p53* showed diffuse and strong nuclear expression (Fig. 3e). The proliferative index as measured by Ki-67 was approximately 70% (Fig. 3f). A PAS stain did not reveal any intracytoplasmic mucin. A diagnosis of poorly differentiated NEC was made.

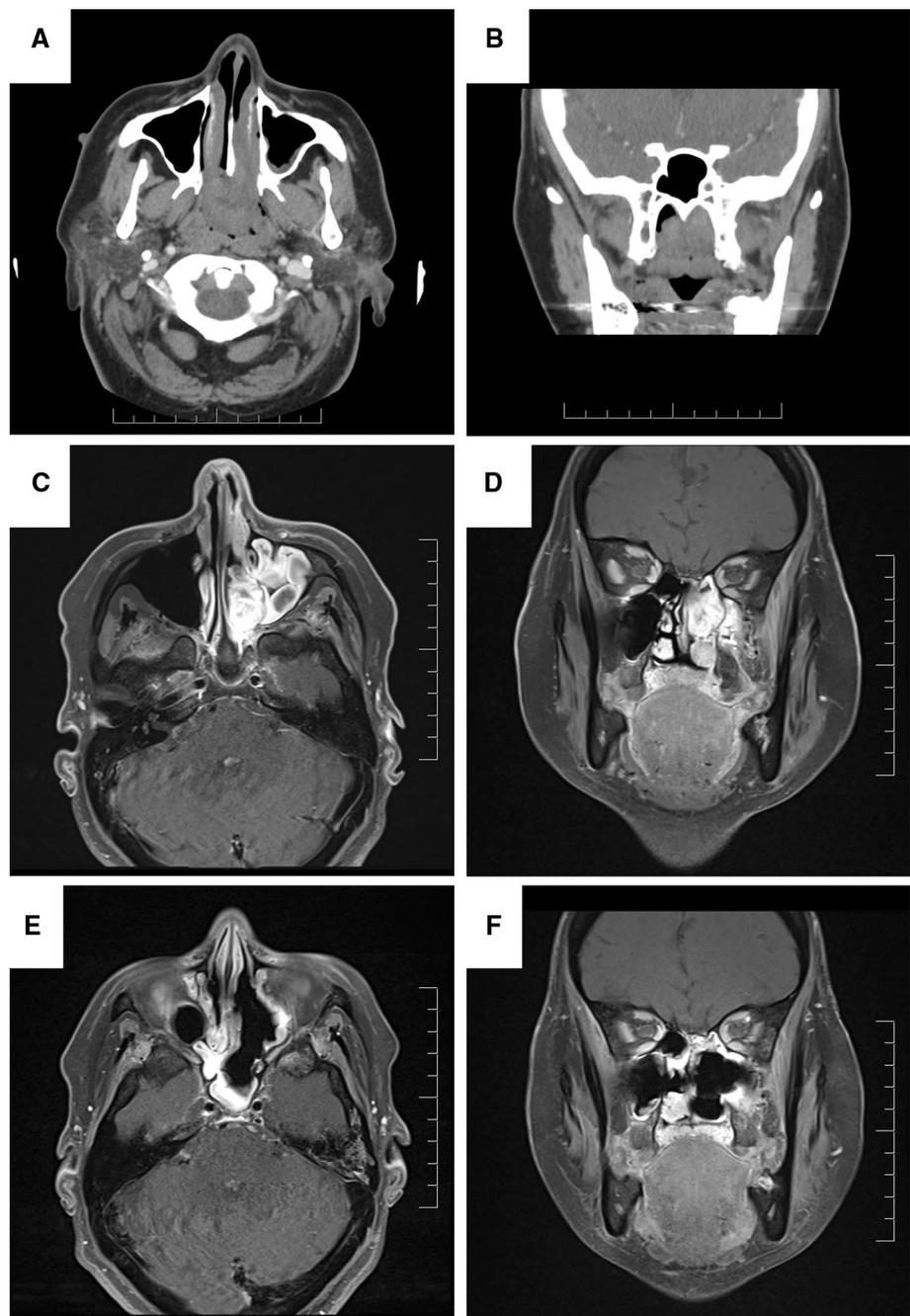
Next generation sequencing performed on representative sections from the tumor identified a TP53 mutation, c.764T > G (p.Ile255Ser; I255S) with a variant allele frequency of 85% (Fig. 4). The mutation results in an isoleucine to serine substitution and a non-functional protein. The I255S mutation is found in exon 7 of TP53, within the DNA binding domain encoded by exons 5–8 [14].

Discussion

In this study, a *TP53* gene mutation I255S was identified using NSG in a poorly differentiated NEC of the nasal cavity. Our data is consistent with two previous reports, which each identified a *TP53* gene mutation in NECs arising from the maxillary sinus and parotid gland, respectively, using polymerase chain amplification [10, 15]. Our report is different, however, in that, NGS is able to sequence hundreds of known cancer associated genes simultaneously, and this allowed us to more fully profile the genetic landscape of this NEC. Somewhat surprisingly, we found that out of the 161 targeted gene regions analyzed, the *TP53* I255S was the only variant of potential clinical relevance after filtering to remove known polymorphisms and synonymous variants (see “Materials and Methods”). This result suggests that *TP53* gene mutations may play a significant role in the oncogenesis and progression of NECs in the head and neck.

The *TP53* gene is prototypical tumor suppressor and the most frequently mutated gene in human cancer [16]. Mutations in *TP53* cause dysregulation in a variety of cellular processes including cell cycle arrest, apoptosis, senescence,

Fig. 1 Representative preoperative (**a** and **b**), post radiation (**c** and **d**), and post debulking resection images (**e** and **f**). Axial (**a**) and coronal (**b**) CT images showing the tumour in the posterior aspect of the left inferior turbinate and pterygopalatine fossa region with extension to the nasopharynx prior to biopsy and debulking. Axial (**c**) and coronal (**d**) magnetic resonance images with contrast of the same tumour after treatment with pre-debulking radiotherapy showing regrowth of the tumour in the posterior ethmoid region. Axial (**e**) and coronal (**f**) magnetic resonance images taken 6 months after surgical resection of the tumour showing no residual or recurrent disease and healing left nasal cavity



DNA repair, and metabolism [17]. The *TP53* gene contains 12 exons but the majority of clinically relevant mutations occur in exons 4 through 9. These exons are known to encode for amino acids that form the central DNA binding core domain [18]. Common mutations in this region result in a protein that is unable to bind DNA thereby preventing transcription of p53-regulated genes. The *TP53* I255S mutation in this report results from a T to G missense mutation located on exon 7. According to the catalogue of somatic mutations in cancer (COSMIC), this point mutation has been previously described in 14 occurrences in a variety

of cancers arising from the lung, endometrium, esophagus, breast, bone, brain, oral cavity, and bladder [19]. The I255S mutation has also been reported in ten occurrences as a somatic mutation in the IARC *TP53* database (two occurrences thyroid, two mouth, and one each in corpus uteri, bladder, brain, ovary, breast, lung). Because the p53 protein functions as a tetramer, the presence of a non-functional protein effectively inhibits the activity of the remaining wild-type proteins [20]. The lack of p53 activity results in increased protein production through disinhibition of a negative-feedback loop. Ultimately, the protein accumulates

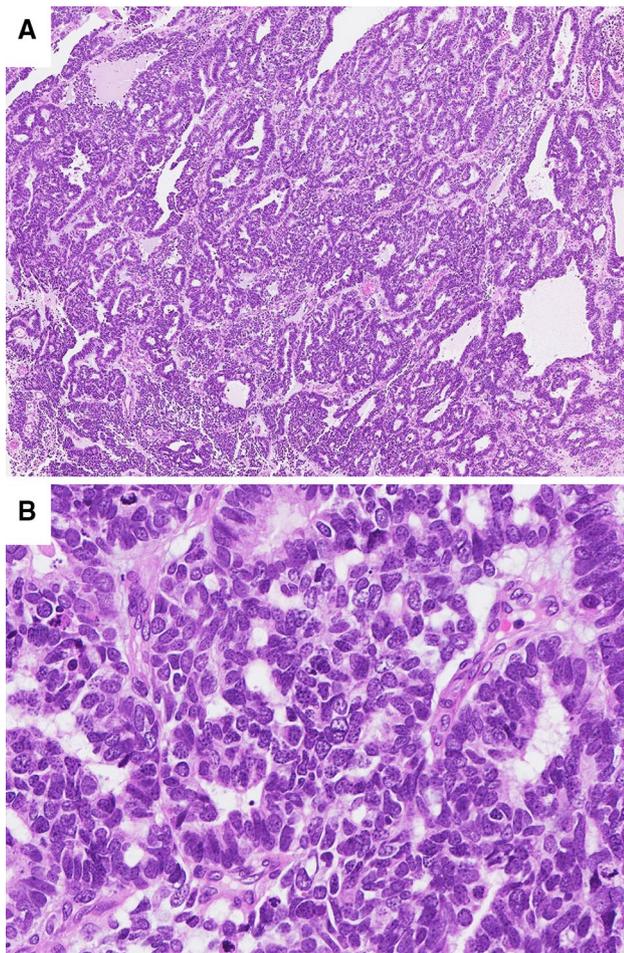


Fig. 2 Representative images of a poorly differentiated neuroendocrine carcinoma. **a** The tumour was composed of cells arranged in poorly formed glands and nests. Some of the glands contained pale mucin. **b** The tumour was composed large cells with ample cytoplasm, finely dispersed chromatin, and inconspicuous nucleoli

in the nucleus where it can be visualized by standard immunohistochemical methods.

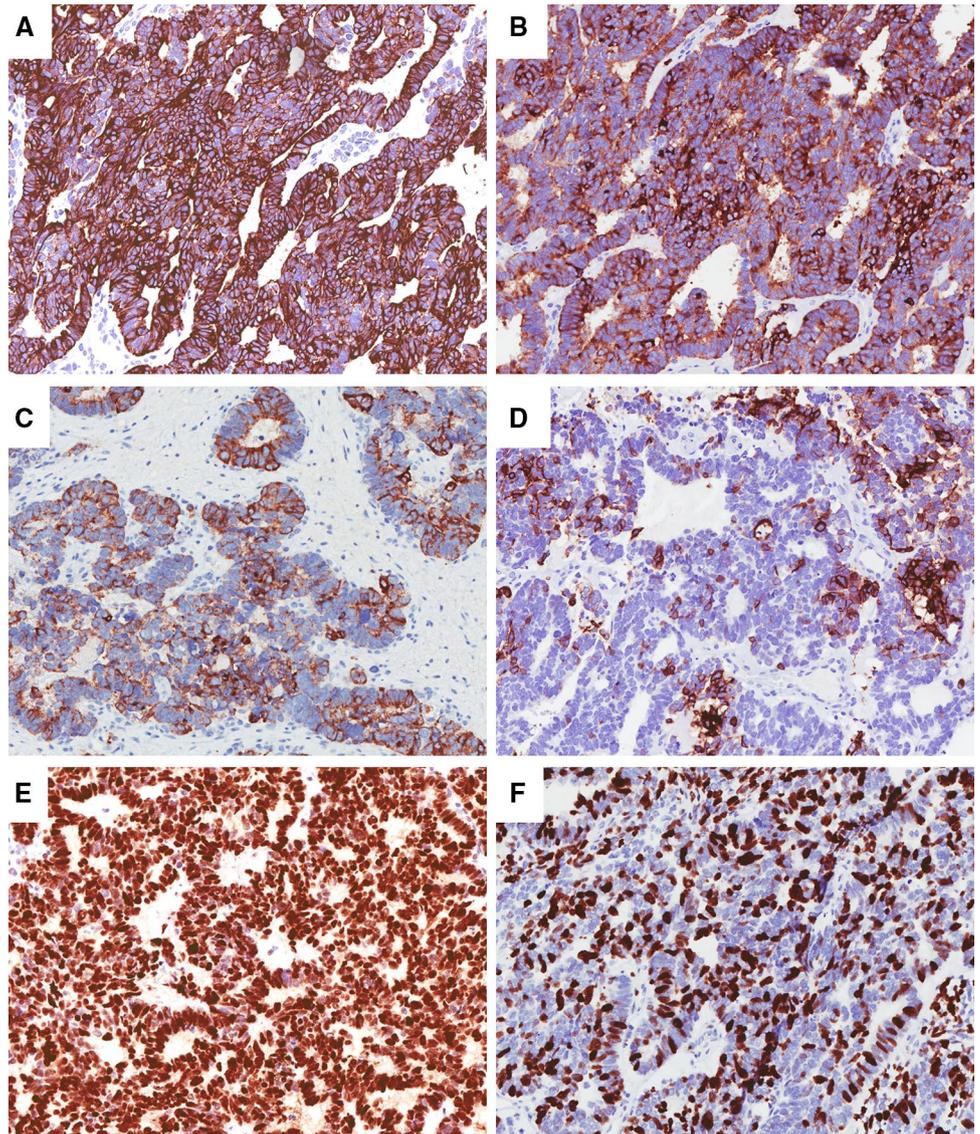
A growing body of evidence suggests that mutations in *TP53* are a hallmark of poorly differentiated neuroendocrine neoplasms independent of site of origin. As early as 1996, Brambilla and colleagues used immunohistochemistry to show that *TP53* was overexpressed in neuroendocrine tumours in the lung [21]. Subsequent studies have shown that the *TP53* gene is consistently mutated in both small and large cell NECs of pulmonary origin [22–24]. In the gastrointestinal tract, *TP53* gene mutations have been described in NECs arising from the colorectum and pancreas [25, 26]. More recently, *TP53* gene mutations have been described in small cell NEC of the prostate [27, 28]. There have been only two previous studies to describe a

TP53 gene mutation in neuroendocrine carcinoma of the head and neck [10, 15]. Franchi and colleagues described a mixed large cell NEC and squamous cell carcinoma of the maxillary sinus and used PCR to show that only the neuroendocrine component harbored a mutation in *TP53* [15]. Similarly, Nagao and colleagues used PCR to identify a *TP53* mutation in a poorly differentiated neuroendocrine carcinoma of the parotid gland [10].

The near ubiquity of *TP53* mutations in poorly differentiated NECs is consistent with the concept that loss of p53 protein expression is an early event and a driver of oncogenesis in this tumour type. Indeed, in patients with small cell NECs of the lung, the same *TP53* mutations have been detected in tumour cells and the adjacent morphologically normal bronchial epithelium [29]. Moreover, in lung, pancreatic, and prostate models of small cell NECs, knocking down the expression of p53 protein has been shown to induce the development of tumours that look and behave like their clinical counterpart [27, 30, 31]. These results are consistent with the notion that p53 acts as a ‘defender’ of genomic integrity and that loss of functional p53 results in genomic instability and the accumulation of other driver mutations which drive tumour progression. Functional p53, however, also acts directly to activate pathways that limit cell growth and the early loss of p53 protein would help explain the hyperproliferative state that both defines and characterizes high-grade NECs [32].

The current WHO classification of head and neck neuroendocrine carcinoma was modeled after the system used for pulmonary NECs in that it relies primarily on the appearance of the tumor and mitotic rate of the tumour to establish a diagnosis and grade [33]. This classification system suggests that all three grades exist on a continuum, which is reflected in the mitotic rate. Recent genetic studies, however, suggest instead that neuroendocrine neoplasms are best dichotomized into “well differentiated” and “poorly differentiated” malignancies based on unique molecular alterations. Well differentiated neuroendocrine tumors in the lung and gastrointestinal tract (carcinoid and atypical carcinoid) display lower somatic mutation rates (< 1 per million base pairs) and frequently demonstrate inactivation of genes affecting histone methylation (*MEN1*) by multiple mechanisms and SWI/SNF complex subunit mutations [34–38]. In contrast, “poorly differentiated” neoplasms display a high rate of somatic mutations and the vast majority harbor mutations in both *RB* and *TP53* [22]. Our results provide additional evidence that *TP53* mutations may play a central role in the development and progression of poorly differentiated NECs in the head and neck.

Fig. 3 Representative immunohistochemical stains. **a** Pan-keratin AE1/AE3. **b** Synaptophysin. **c** Chromogranin. **d** CD56. **e** p53. **f** Ki-67



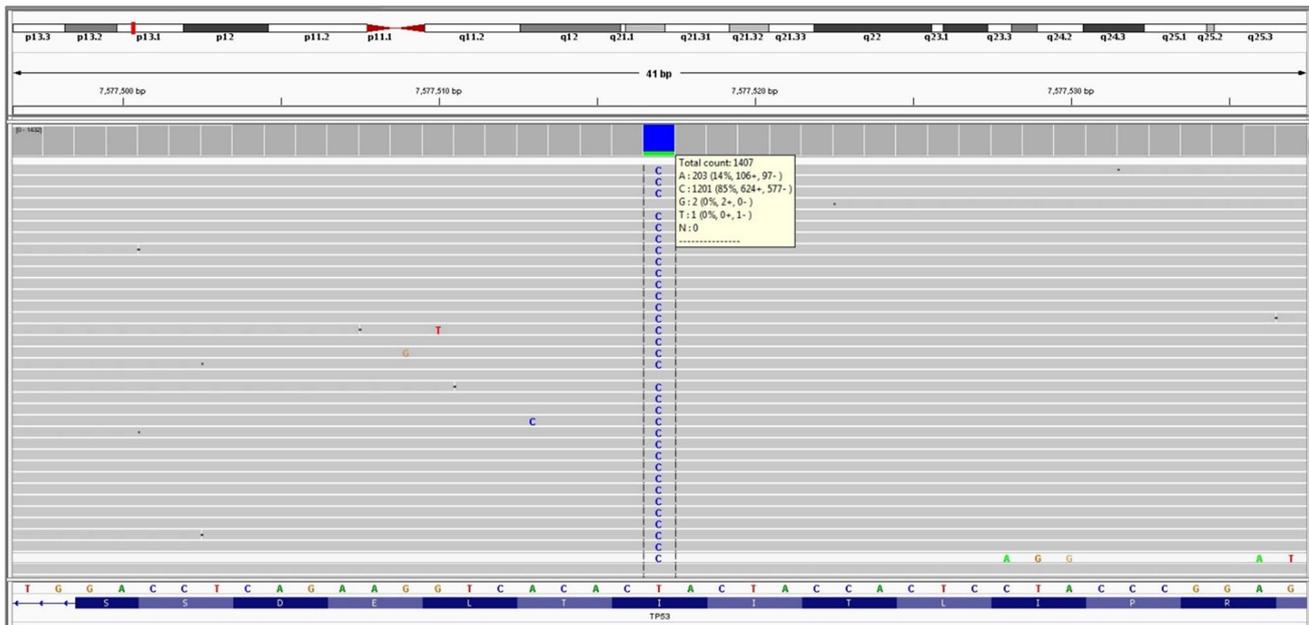


Fig. 4 View of a subset of next generation sequencing (NGS) reads aligned to the reference genome (human hg19 reference) at the site of the TP53 c.764T>G (p.Ile255Ser) variant using integrated genome viewer (IGV) software. The read count details are shown in the yellow

box, with the total reads at the c.764 position of 1407 reads, of which 203 (14%) of reads contain the reference A allele and 1201 (85%) contain the variant C allele

Compliance with Ethical Standards

Conflict of interest All authors declare that no conflict of interest exists related to this work.

Informed Consent Informed consent was obtained from the individual included in the study.

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