

1 **Anti-tumor effect of the mammalian target of rapamycin inhibitor**
2 **everolimus in oral squamous cell carcinoma**

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1 **Abstract**

2 Objectives: The mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) has recently emerged as a
3 promising target for therapeutic anti-cancer interventions in several human tumors. In
4 present study, we investigated the expression of mTOR, and subsequently examined its
5 relationship with clinicopathological factors and the anti-tumor effect of everolimus
6 (also known as RAD001) in oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC).

7 Material and Methods: The expression of phosphorylated mTOR (p-mTOR) was
8 immunohistochemically evaluated in specimens obtained from 70 OSCC patients who
9 underwent radical surgery. The relationships between the expression of p-mTOR and
10 clinicopathological factors and survival were determined. We also investigated the
11 effect of everolimus on the OSCC cell lines, SAS, HSC-2, HSC-3, HSC-4, OSC-20,
12 SCC25 and Ca9-22 by the MTT assay. We further evaluated whether mTOR contributed
13 to cell functions by blocking its activity with everolimus, and confirmed the direct target
14 by the Matrigel invasion assay, wound healing assay and Western blotting.

15 Results: p-mTOR was overexpressed in 37 tumors (52.8%), and correlated with the T
16 classification, N classification, and survival rate ($P<0.05$). The treatment with
17 everolimus significantly inhibited cell growth, and significantly reduced the expression
18 of p-mTOR, downstream signaling proteins, and hypoxic related proteins as well as
19 invasion and migration potentials ($P<0.05$).

20 Conclusions: The results of the present study suggest that everolimus may represent an
21 attractive approach for the future treatment of OSCC.

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1 **Introduction**

2 Oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) is the most common malignant tumor of the
3 head and neck region, and its incidence has recently been increasing [1]. The current
4 management and treatment of OSCC involves multimodal approaches comprising
5 surgery, chemotherapy, and radiotherapy [2]. Despite recent advances in early detection,
6 diagnosis, and treatment, the 5-year survival rate for patients with OSCC has remained
7 at 50% for the past 30 years [3]. Because of the high prevalence and mortality rates of
8 oral cancers, new treatment strategies are required.

9 The mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) is a 289-KDa serine/threonine kinase
10 belonging to the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)-related kinase family that regulates
11 cell growth, proliferation, and progression of the cell cycle [4]. mTOR is activated by
12 the phosphorylation of Ser2448 through the PI3K/AKT signaling pathway, and
13 completes these functions by activating p70 ribosomal S6 kinase (p70^{S6K}) and
14 phosphorylating the eukaryotic initiation factor 4E binding protein 1 (4E-BP1) [4, 5, 7].
15 Moreover, this pathway promotes the translation of hypoxia-inducible factor-1 α
16 (HIF-1 α) mRNA coding for pro-oncogenic proteins and regulates its expression and
17 activity [6, 7]. HIF-1 α is one of the main regulators of cellular adaptation to hypoxia and
18 is known to be stabilized and translocated to the nucleus under hypoxic conditions, and
19 induces the expression of the vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and other
20 tumor growth factors [6-9]. Furthermore, several studies have indicated that the
21 expression of HIF-1 α is associated with resistance to chemotherapy and radiotherapy
22 [10-12]. Therefore, a more detailed examination of this pathway should be performed in
23 OSCC.

24 Activated mTOR has been associated with poor prognosis in various cancers including
25 OSCC [13-16], and some researchers have indicated the effectiveness of mTOR

1 inhibitors in various cancers [16-20]. However, the anti-tumor effect of the mTOR
2 inhibitor in OSCC under hypoxic conditions remains unclear. Everolimus (RAD001) is
3 an orally bioavailable derivative of rapamycin and initially forms a complex with 12kDa
4 FK506-binding protein (FKBP-12). This complex then binds to the
5 FKBP-12-Rapamycin Binding (FRB) domain of mTOR, and inhibits the function of
6 mTOR [21]. Everolimus has been approved for the treatment of metastatic renal cell
7 carcinoma [22], progressive neuroendocrine tumors of the pancreatic origin (PNET)
8 [23], and advanced estrogen receptor (ER) positive, human epidermal growth factor
9 receptor-2 (HER2) negative breast cancer [24]. A phase 1 study of everolimus plus
10 weekly cisplatin in combination with intensity-modulated radiation therapy in head and
11 neck cancer has very recently been conducted [25]. However, this study mainly
12 evaluated pharyngeal and salivary gland cancers, with only a few cases of oral cancer
13 being included. As chemosensitivity is known to differ between pharyngeal cancer,
14 salivary gland cancer, and oral cancer, a further examination of only oral cancer is
15 needed.

16 In the present study, we selected patients who underwent radical surgery and examined
17 the relationship between activated mTOR and clinical outcomes, and the antitumor
18 activity of everolimus using OSCC cell lines.

19 **Materials and Methods**

20 *Patients*

21 Paraffin-embedded sections were obtained from the biopsy specimens of 70 patients
22 with OSCC who underwent radical surgery in our Department between January 2000
23 and December 2007. The tumor stage was classified according to the TNM
24 classification of the International Union Against Cancer [39]. The histological
25 differentiation of tumors was defined according to the WHO classification [40]. The

1 pattern of invasion was classified according to Bryne's classification [41].

2 *Immunohistochemical staining and evaluation*

3 Deparaffinized sections in xylene were soaked in 10 mmol/l citrate buffer (pH 6.0)
4 and placed in an autoclave at 121°C for 5 min for antigen retrieval. Endogenous
5 peroxidase was blocked by incubating sections with 0.3% H₂O₂ in methanol for 30 min.
6 Immunohistochemical staining was performed using the Envision system
7 (ENVISION+; DAKO, Glostrup, Denmark). The primary antibodies used were against
8 phosphorylated mTOR (p-mTOR) and proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA). The
9 sections were then washed in Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (PBS), followed by
10 incubation with the primary antibodies at 4°C overnight. The reaction products were
11 visualized by immersing the sections in diaminobenzidine (DAB) solution, and the
12 samples were counterstained with Meyer's hematoxylin and mounted. Results were
13 evaluated by calculating the total immunostaining score as the product of the
14 proportional score and intensity score. As described previously, the proportional scores
15 described the estimated fraction of positively-stained tumor cells (0, none; 1, <10%; 2,
16 10-50%; 3, 50- 80%; 4, >80%). The intensity score represented the estimated staining
17 intensity (0, no staining; 1, weak; 2, moderate; 3, strong). Total scores ranged from 0-12.
18 Positive sections were defined as those with a total score >4 [37]. Immunohistochemical
19 overexpression was defined as a total score greater than 4 because
20 immunohistochemical expression in samples showed a bimodal distribution with the
21 discriminating nadir at a total score value of 3 to 4.

22 *Reagents and cell culture*

23 Everolimus was purchased from Selleck-chemicals (Houston, TX USA). It was
24 dissolved in DMSO and adjusted to the final concentration with culture medium. All 7
25 human OSCC cell lines, SAS, HSC-2, HSC-3, HSC-4, OSC-20, SCC25, and Ca9-22,

1 used in this study were cultured in a 1:1 mixture of Ham's F-12/DMEM supplemented
2 with 10% FBS (Trace Scientific, Melbourne, Australia). The cells were exposed to
3 normoxia or hypoxia in the presence or absence of different doses of everolimus. All
4 cells were maintained under humidified 5% CO₂ and 19% O₂ incubation at 37°C
5 (normoxic conditions). Hypoxic conditions (0.1% O₂) were achieved using
6 AneroPack-Kenki (Mitsubishi Gas Chemical) and were monitored using an oxygen
7 indicator.

8 *Cell proliferation assay*

9 Cells were seeded in 96-well plates at a concentration of 1.5×10^3 per well and
10 incubated for 24h. Cells were exposed to everolimus doses ranging from 0.001nmol/L
11 to 1000nmol/L. At the end of the treatment for 72h, cells were incubated with 0.5mg/ml
12 3-(4, 5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2, 5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT; Sigma-Aldrich).
13 Four hours later, the medium was replaced with 100µl dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO;
14 Sigma-Aldrich) and vortexed for 10 min. Absorbance was then recorded at 570nm using
15 a microplate auto reader (Multiskan FC, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc). Cell viability
16 (%) was calculated as a percentage of the absence of everolimus. The 50% of cell
17 growth inhibition (IC₅₀) values were appropriately derived from the results obtained
18 with the MTT assay.

19 *Invasion assay*

20 A Biocoat Matrigel invasion chamber containing an internal chamber with an 8-µm
21 porous membrane bottom coated with Matrigel (Becton Dickinson, Bedford, MA) was
22 used for the invasion assay. Six-well cell culture inserts and a six-well multiwall
23 companion plate were used for the experiment. The membranes were rehydrated with
24 warm serum-free medium for 2h. The internal chamber was filled with 1.25×10^5 cells
25 in medium containing 10% FBS as a chemoattractant. Cells were incubated for 72h

1 under normoxic conditions, non-invading cells were removed from the top of the wells
2 with a cotton swab, and cells that were transferred to the inverse surface of the
3 membrane were subjected to Diff-Quick staining. Cells were counted under a
4 microscope at 100 × magnification. Cells that passed through a control chamber without
5 Matrigel were counted for the control. All experiments were performed in triplicate, and
6 cell numbers were counted in at least 2 fields/well. The ratio of the cell count that
7 passed through the Matrigel chamber to the control cell count was defined as the
8 invasion index, and was expressed as a percentage.

9 *Wound-healing assay*

10 Cell migration was evaluated by a scratched wound-healing assay on plastic plate
11 wells. In brief, cells were grown to confluency and then wounded using a pipette tip.
12 Three wounds were made for each sample, and all were photographed at 0h and
13 subsequent time points. Cell migration was evaluated by measuring the width of the
14 wound at the same position.

15 *Western blot analysis*

16 Cells were harvested by trypsinization, washed, and precipitated by centrifugation.
17 The Mammalian Cell Extraction Kit (Biovison Research Products, Mountain View, CA)
18 was used to extract proteins. All subsequent manipulations were performed on ice. The
19 cells were incubated in Extraction Buffer Mix. Lysed cells were centrifuged at
20 15000rpm for 5min, and the resultant supernatant was used. The protein concentration
21 of each sample was measured with micro-BCA protein assay reagent (Pierce Chemical
22 Co., Rockford, IL). After the samples were denatured in SDS sample buffer, they were
23 heated at 70 °C for 10mins and then loaded onto a 4-12% NuPAGE NOVEX bis-Tris
24 polyacrylamide gel or 3-8% NuPAGE NOVEX Tris-Acetate polyacrylamide gel. After
25 electrophoresis, the separated proteins were transferred to iBlot polyvinylidene

1 difluoride membranes using the iBlot Dry Blotting System and signals were detected by
2 the Western Breeze Immunodetection Kit (life technologies, Tokyo, Japan). Antibodies
3 against mTOR, p-mTOR, p70^{S6K}, p-p70^{S6K}, 4E-BP1, p-4E-BP1 (Cell Signaling
4 Technology, Danvers, MA), HIF-1 α (Abcam, Tokyo, Japan) and VEGF-C (life
5 technologies, Tokyo, Japan) were used at 1:1000 dilution. Anti- β -actin (Santa Cruz
6 Biotech, CA) was used as a blotting control.

7 *Statistical analysis*

8 The relationships between the sample expression of target molecules and
9 clinicopathological features were assessed by Fischer's exact test. Continuous data were
10 given as means \pm standard deviation. Survival analysis was calculated using the
11 Kaplan-Meier method and compared using the log-rank test. A multiple regression study
12 was performed using Cox's proportional hazard analysis. Predictors that were not
13 associated with the disease-specific survival (DSS) rate were not included in the
14 multivariate analysis. Differences between groups were compared with the t-test. P
15 values less than 0.05 were considered significant.

16 **Results**

17 *Expression of p-mTOR in OSCC*

18 p-mTOR protein expression was absent or minimal in the cytoplasm of epithelial cells
19 in normal oral tissue. However, p-mTOR was overexpressed in 37 (52.8%) out of 70
20 OSCC samples. p-mTOR was mainly expressed in the cytoplasm of tumor cells, ranging
21 from low to strong intensities. p-mTOR expression was observed in tumor nests and the
22 invasive front, and was stronger in the invasive front (Fig. 1).

23 *Relationship between p-mTOR expression and clinicopathological factors and* 24 *survival.*

25 p-mTOR expression levels in OSCC specimens were examined as a function of

1 clinicopathological factors. The expression of p-mTOR was correlated with the tumor
2 stage and regional lymph node metastasis. However, no correlation was observed
3 between oral cancer cell invasion and p-mTOR expression (Table 1).

4 The 5-year DSS rates were determined according to p-mTOR expression and other
5 clinicopathological factors. Univariate analysis using the log-rank test and
6 Kaplan-Meier method revealed a correlation between p-mTOR expression and 5-year
7 DSS rates (Fig. 2, $P < 0.05$). Predictors that were associated with 5-year DSS rates in
8 univariate analysis were included in Cox's proportional hazard model, and this
9 multivariate analysis showed that p-mTOR expression was not a significant independent
10 predictor of 5-year DSS in OSCC (Table 2, $p = 0.397$).

11 *Relationship between mTOR activity and the PCNA labeling index*

12 PCNA expression levels were immunohistochemically examined in cancer cells to
13 determine the interaction between tumor cell proliferation and the function of mTOR.
14 PCNA expression was detected immunohistochemically in the nuclei of tumor cells.
15 The average PCNA labeling index (LI) was significantly higher in p-mTOR positive
16 cases (51.595%) than in p-mTOR negative cases (23.379%) ($P < 0.001$).

17 *Inhibition of mTOR by everolimus suppressed cell growth in OSCC cell lines.*

18 We evaluated the sensitivity of everolimus in the 7 different OSCC cell lines using
19 the MTT assay. Everolimus significantly inhibited cell proliferation in a dose-dependent
20 manner in all cell lines tested (Fig. 3A, $P < 0.05$). SAS was the most sensitive cell line,
21 followed by HSC-2 (IC_{50} , 3.65, 7.38nM, respectively). We selected the most sensitive
22 cell line, SAS and analyzed the expression levels of the phosphorylated and
23 non-phosphorylated forms of mTOR, p70^{S6K}, and 4E-BP1 by western blotting. The
24 results obtained showed that the phosphorylation of p-mTOR, p70^{S6K}, and p-4E-BP1
25 was inhibited in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 3B).

1 *Effect of everolimus on the migration and invasion of SAS cells*

2 Cell migration and invasion are the basic characteristics of tumor growth and
3 metastasis. We performed wound healing and Matrigel invasion assays on SAS cells to
4 examine the effects of everolimus on the migration and invasion potential of cells. The
5 evaluation of cell migration in the control condition, 1nM of everolimus, 10nM of
6 everolimus, and 100nM of everolimus revealed that healing rate at 12h after wounding
7 was significantly decreased (Fig. 4A, P<0.05). The evaluation of invasion potential also
8 revealed a significant decrease in the invasion index (Fig. 4B, P<0.05). These results
9 indicated that everolimus suppressed the mobility of SAS cells *in vitro*.

10 *Effect of everolimus under hypoxic conditions*

11 We analyzed the effect of everolimus on the HIF-1 pathway to clarify the
12 chemoresistance under hypoxic conditions. A comparison of the effects of the control
13 condition, 1nM of everolimus, 10nM of everolimus, and 100nM of everolimus on the
14 expression of HIF-1 α and VEGF-C revealed a dose-dependent decrease in expression
15 levels (Fig. 5). These results indicate that everolimus may be effective both normoxic
16 and hypoxic conditions.

17 **Discussion**

18 The goal of this study was to assess the relationship between activated mTOR and
19 clinical outcomes, and the antitumor activity of everolimus using OSCC cell lines. We
20 here demonstrated that p-mTOR was overexpressed in 52.8% of OSCC. Monteiro et al.
21 [13] reported the strong expression of p-mTOR in 63.9% of head and neck carcinomas,
22 while Clark et al. [26] reported its expression in 81.9%, and Brown et al. [27] reported
23 its expression in 93%. Hirashima et al. [14] also confirmed the expression of p-mTOR
24 in 49.7% of esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. Our expression data are equal or
25 lower than previously reported values. This may have been due to differences in the

1 anatomical locations of the tumors, methods used to evaluate mTOR phosphorylation,
2 or cut-off values for p-mTOR positivity. Regarding the clinicopathological features and
3 survival, the results of the present study are consistent with previous findings in which a
4 close relationship was observed between elevated p-mTOR levels and poorer survival
5 rates [13-16, 26, 27]. PCNA has been considered to be a potent cell proliferation maker
6 and its clinical significance has been established in OSCC [28]. Our results suggest that
7 mTOR expression levels could be a prognostic factor in OSCC patients.

8 In this context, we examined the antitumor activity of the mTOR inhibitor everolimus
9 in OSCC cell lines under normoxic and hypoxic conditions. We showed here that
10 mTOR inhibitor everolimus inhibited at the level of cell proliferation and protein
11 expression of mTOR and its downstream signaling in a dose-dependent manner in
12 OSCC. The discrepancy in IC_{50} values could be due to differences in the cell systems
13 examined. Similar results have been reported for breast cancer, renal cell carcinoma,
14 pancreatic neuroendocrine tumor, medullary thyroid carcinoma, gastric cancer, and
15 ovarian clear cell adenocarcinoma [17, 32-36]. These findings suggest that everolimus
16 as a single agent may have potent anti-tumor efficacy against OSCC cells.

17 Tumor invasion and metastasis in various cancers including OSCC are known to be
18 regulated by various genetic instabilities [6, 7]. Previous studies demonstrated that the
19 *de novo* overexpression of mTOR and downstream factors increased the invasion and
20 migration potentials, whereas the inhibition of mTOR signaling by mTOR inhibitors
21 decreased the invasion and migration potentials of esophageal squamous cell carcinoma
22 [7, 32]. The immunohistochemical staining of p-mTOR in the present study revealed
23 strong positivity in the invasive front of tumors. However, p-mTOR expression was not
24 significantly correlated with an invasion pattern; therefore, we examined invasion and
25 migration potentials in OSCC cell lines. We showed that everolimus inhibited invasion

1 and migration potentials in a dose-dependent manner, which was consistent with the
2 findings of a recent study.

3 HIF-1 α is significantly activated by hypoxia, and transactivates many genes,
4 including VEGF, involved in tumor development [6, 7]. Recent studies reported that
5 HIF-1 α may be involved in chemoradioresistance. Moreover, the HIF-1 α /VEGF
6 pathway has been correlated with highly aggressive disease and poor prognosis in some
7 cancers [29-31, 36]. We also previously demonstrated that the mTOR/HIF-1 α /VEGF
8 pathway was associated with clinical outcomes [37]. VEGF-C was shown to induce
9 lymphangiogenesis and the formation of lymph node metastasis [29, 38]. We showed
10 here that everolimus inhibited the expression of HIF-1 α and VEGF-C under both
11 normoxic and hypoxic conditions in a dose-dependent manner. Indeed, HIF-1 α was
12 efficaciously inhibited under hypoxic condition. These results indicated that the
13 knockdown of HIF-1 α expression may elevate sensitivity to various drugs under both
14 normoxic and hypoxic conditions, and that everolimus could be useful for inhibiting
15 tumor progression and metastasis.

16 In summary, mTOR activation was observed in half of the OSCC tumors examined,
17 which suggested that mTOR could be a promising target for the anti-tumor effect of
18 everolimus under both normoxic and hypoxic conditions. Although further experimental
19 studies are needed to confirm these results, the results of the current study suggest a
20 potential treatment strategy for OSCC patients.

21

22 **Conflicts of interest statement**

23 None declared.

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21

22 **Figure legends**

23 Figure 1. Representative immunohistochemical staining for p-mTOR. Negative
24 staining of p-mTOR is shown in the normal oral epithelium (A). Moderate p-mTOR
25 cytoplasmic expression (staining index of 8) was observed in squamous cell carcinoma

1 with a Bryne's score of 2 (B). Strong p-mTOR cytoplasmic expression (staining index
2 of 12) was observed in squamous cell carcinoma with a Bryne's score of 3 (C).

3
4 Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier survival curve of 5-year disease-specific survival (DSS) rates.
5 The 5-year DSS rates of p-mTOR positive patients were significantly shorter than those
6 of p-mTOR negative patients ($P < 0.05$).

7
8 Figure 3. Effect of everolimus on cell proliferation and mTOR signaling in OSCC cell
9 lines. Seven OSCC cell lines were exposed to doses of everolimus ranging from
10 0.001nM to 1000nM. The percentage cell viability (%) and dose of the drug that
11 inhibited cell growth by 50% (IC_{50}) were calculated (A). SAS cells were exposed to
12 everolimus at the indicated concentrations and subsequently assessed for protein
13 expression and phosphorylation by western blotting (B).

14
15 Figure 4. Effect of everolimus on invasion and migration potentials in the SAS cell line.
16 Invasion in SAS cells (left) and the percentage of invaded cells (right) were determined,
17 as described in the Materials and Methods (A). The graph shows a significant decrease
18 in the invasion index of SAS cells (58.87%, 35.28%, 19.06%, and 16.68%, respectively.
19 $p < 0.05$). The wound healing process was photographed 0, 3, 6, and 12 h after wounding
20 (left), and healing rates were determined, as described in the Materials and Methods (B).
21 The graph shows a significant decrease in the wound healing rate in SAS cells (83.33%,
22 68%, 51.84%, and 44.09%, respectively. $p < 0.05$).

23
24 Figure 5. Effect of everolimus on the expression of HIF-1 α and VEGF-C in the SAS cell
25 line. Western blot analysis of HIF-1 α and VEGF-C protein expression in SAS cells

1 exposed to normoxic and hypoxic conditions for 24h in the presence or absence of
2 everolimus at the indicated concentrations.

3

4 Table 1. Relationship between the overexpression of p-mTOR and clinicopathological
5 features and survival.

6

7 Table 2. Multivariate analysis (Cox regression) of DSS rates in OSCC.

8

9

Fig 1. Representative immunohistochemical staining for p-mTOR.

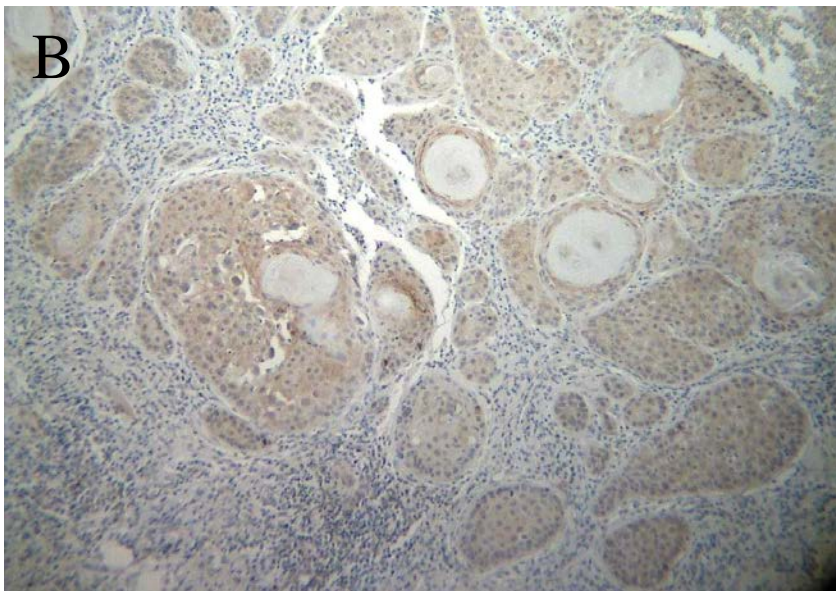
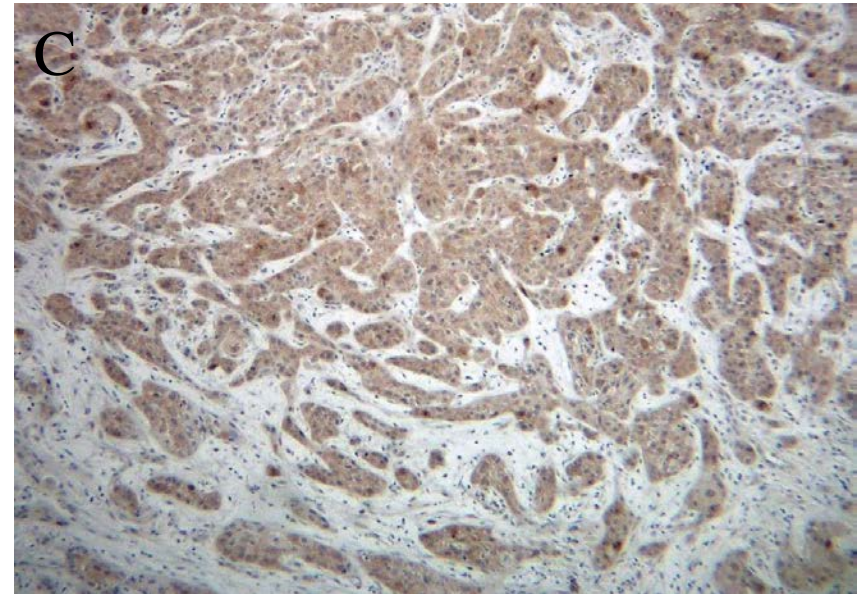
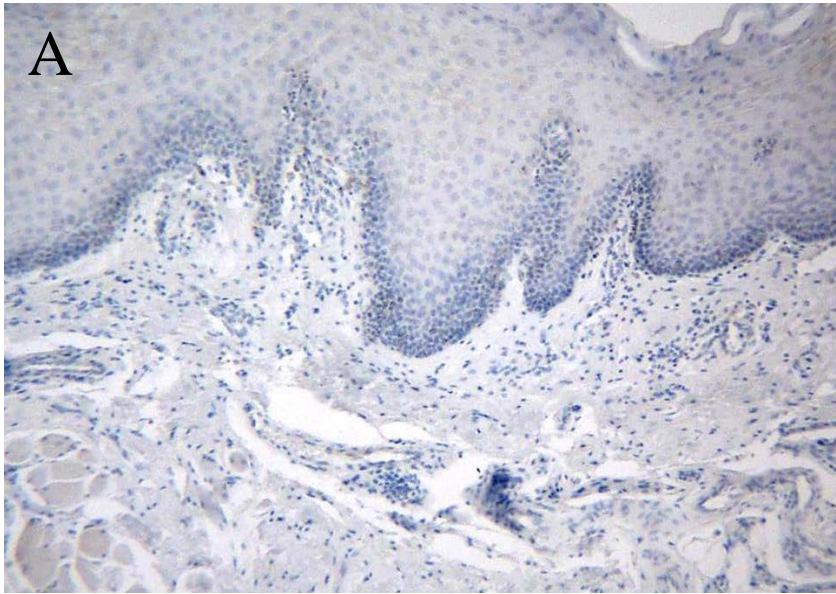


Fig 2. Kaplan-Meier survival curve of the 5-year disease-specific survival (DSS) rates.

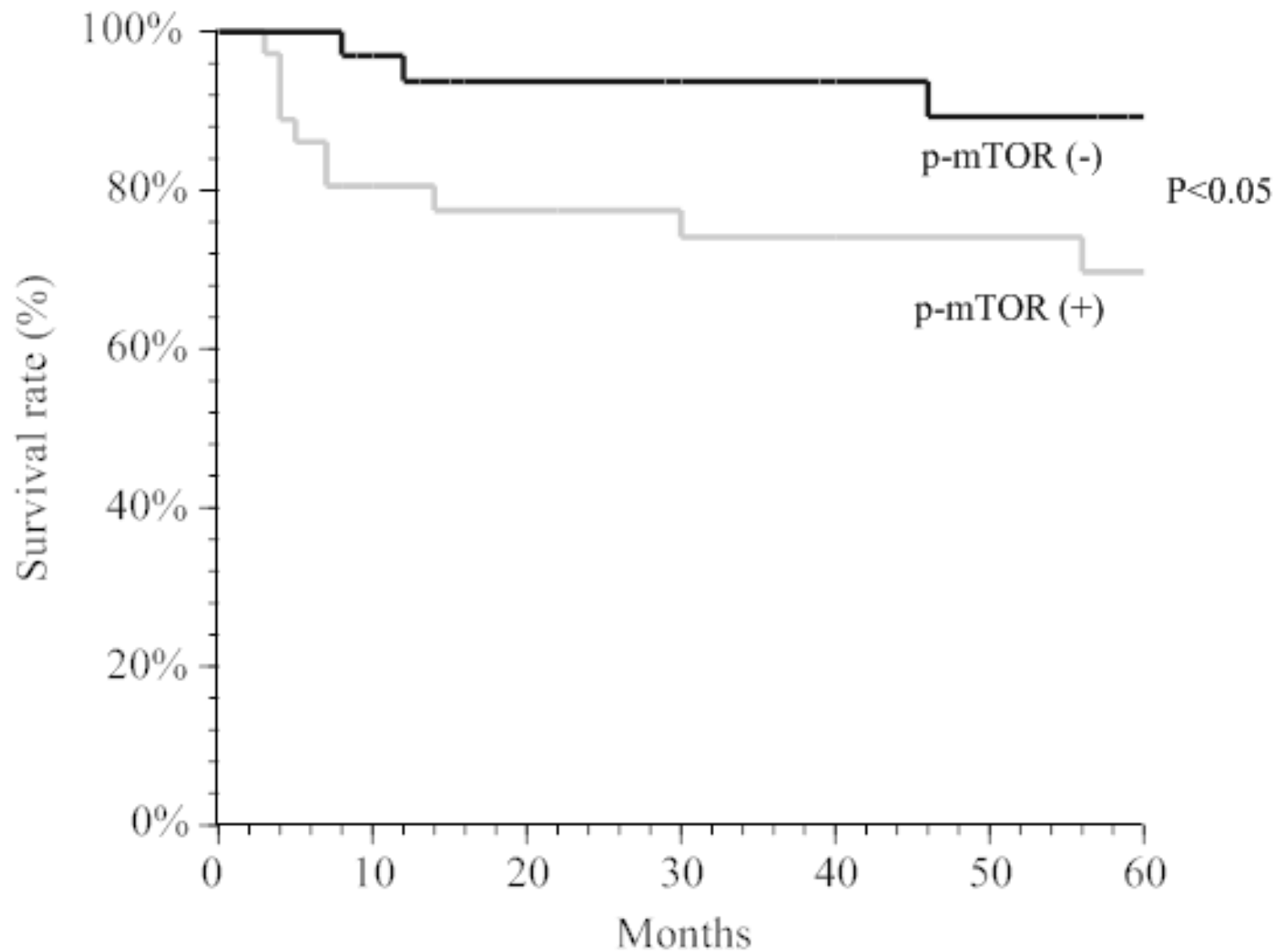


Fig 3. Effect of everolimus on cell proliferation and mTOR signaling in OSCC cell lines.

A

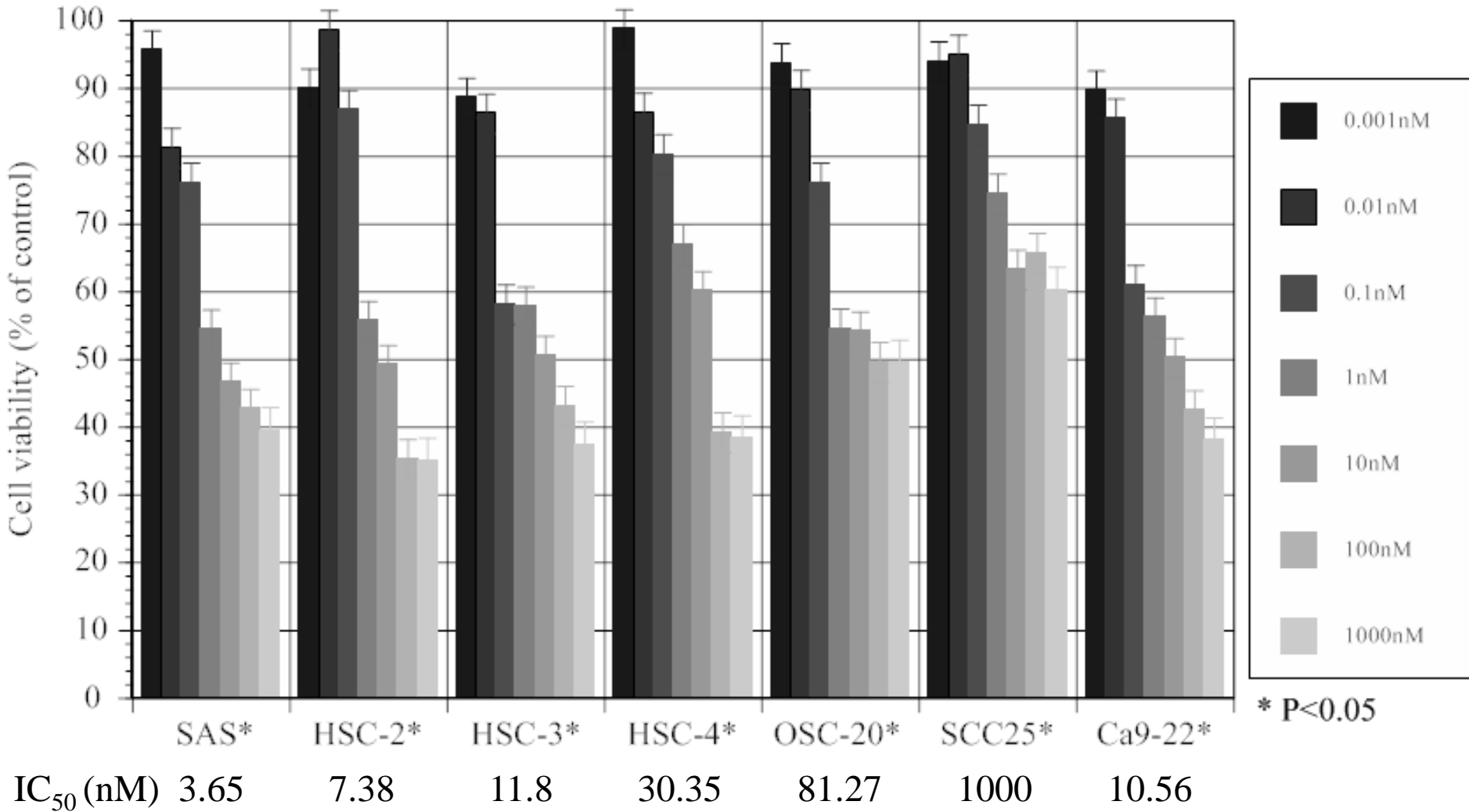


Fig 3. Effect of everolimus on cell proliferation and mTOR signaling in OSCC cell lines.

B

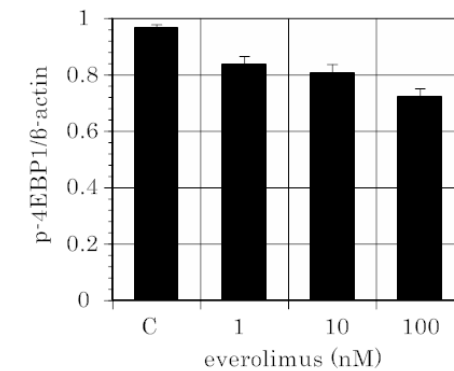
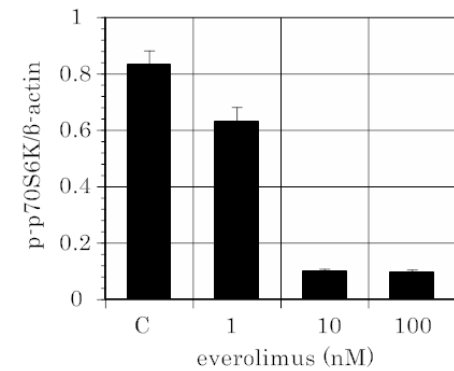
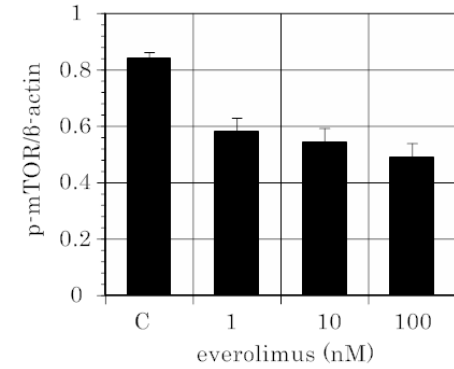
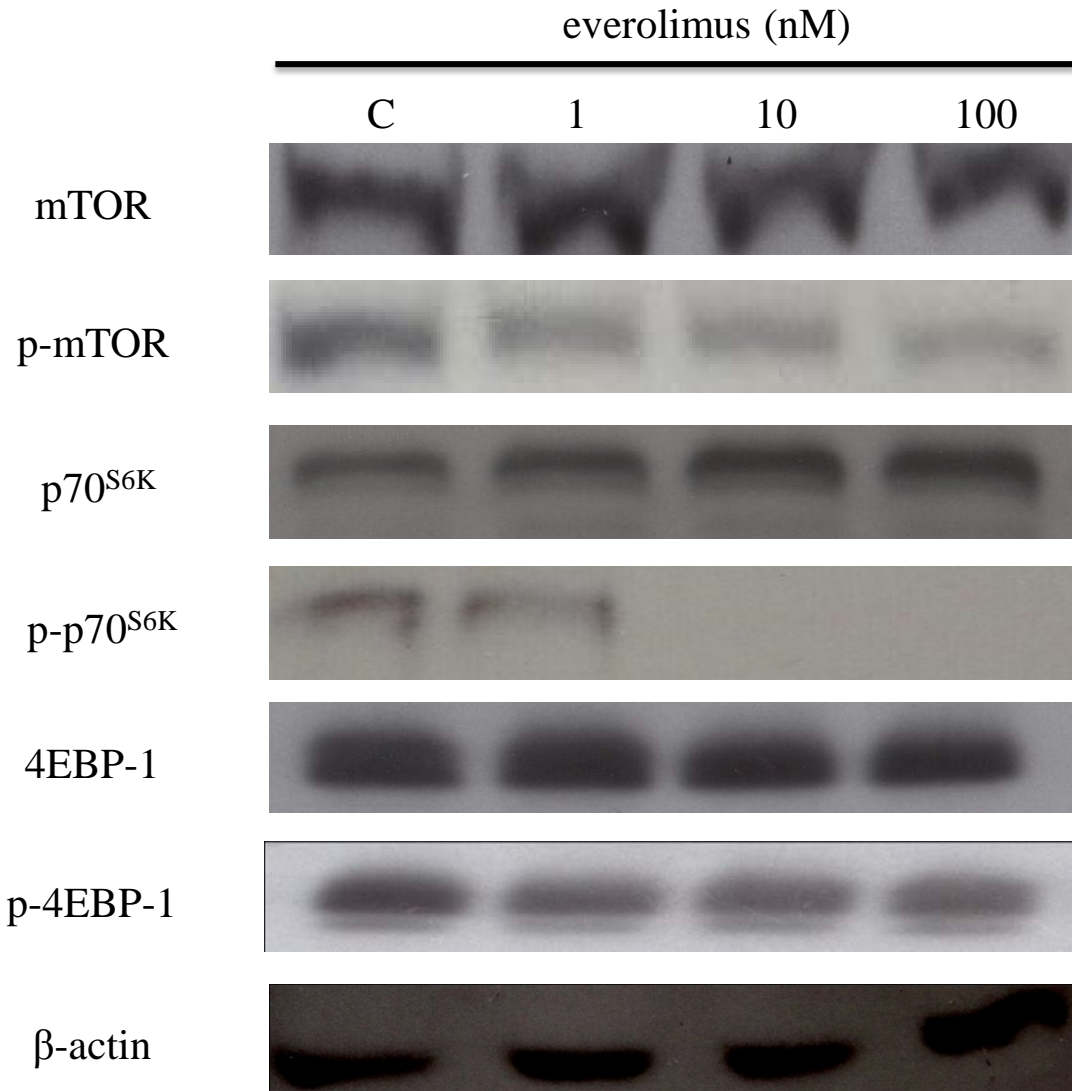


Fig 4. Effect of everolimus on invasion and migration potential in SAS cell line.

A

everolimus (nM)

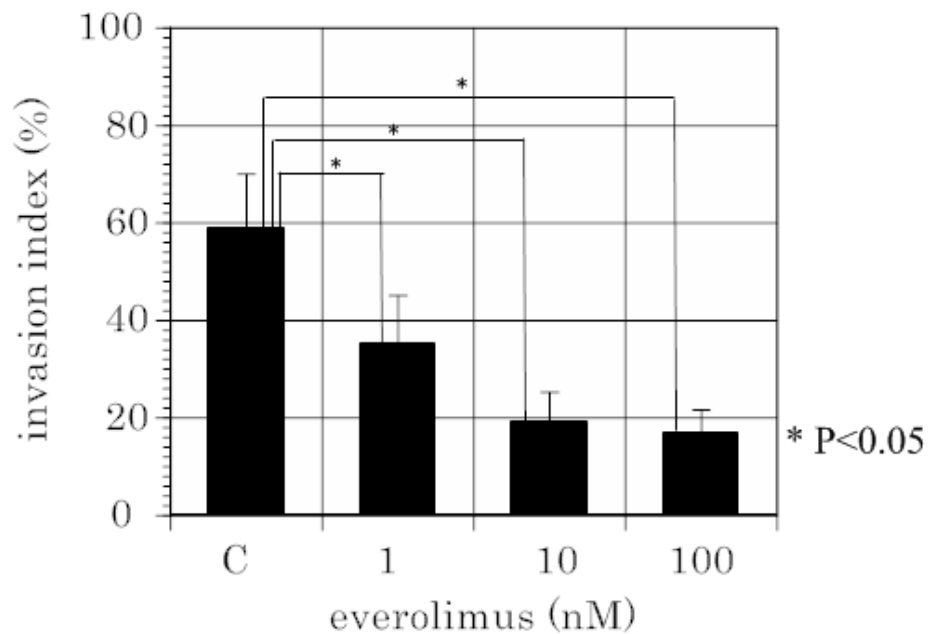
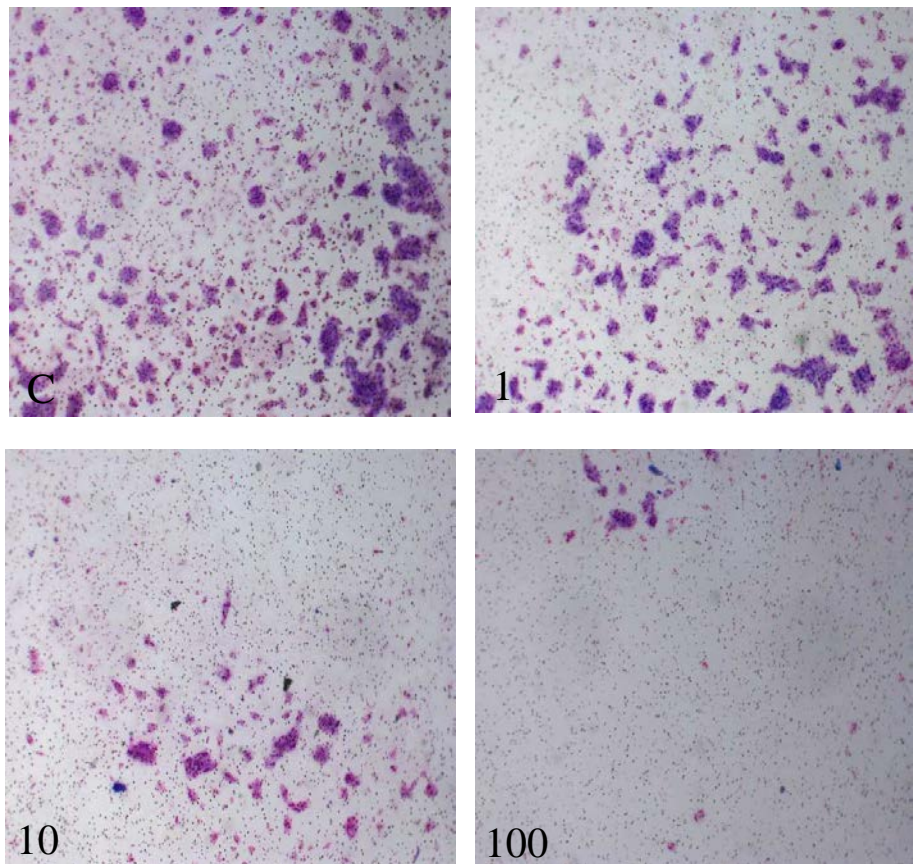


Fig 4. Effect of everolimus on invasion and migration potential in SAS cell line.

B

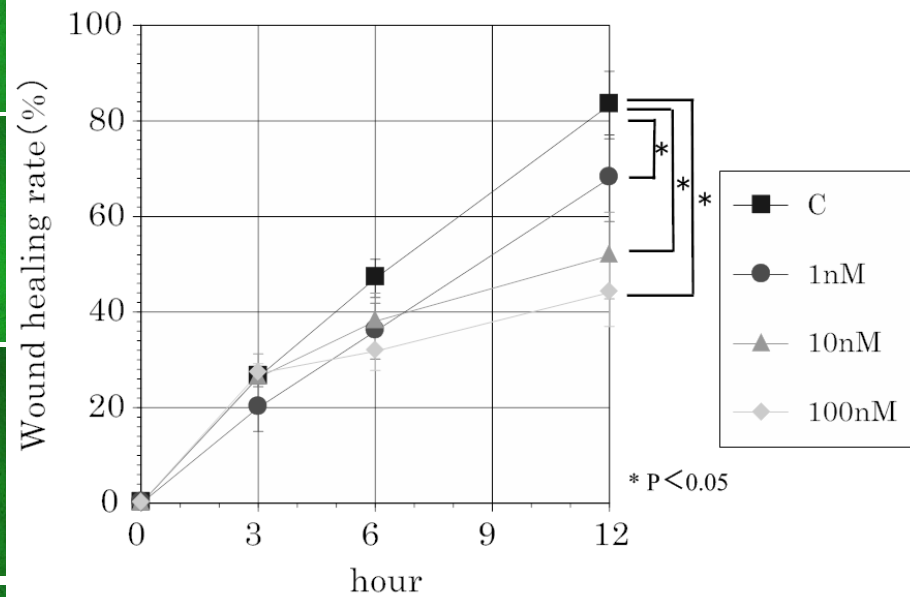
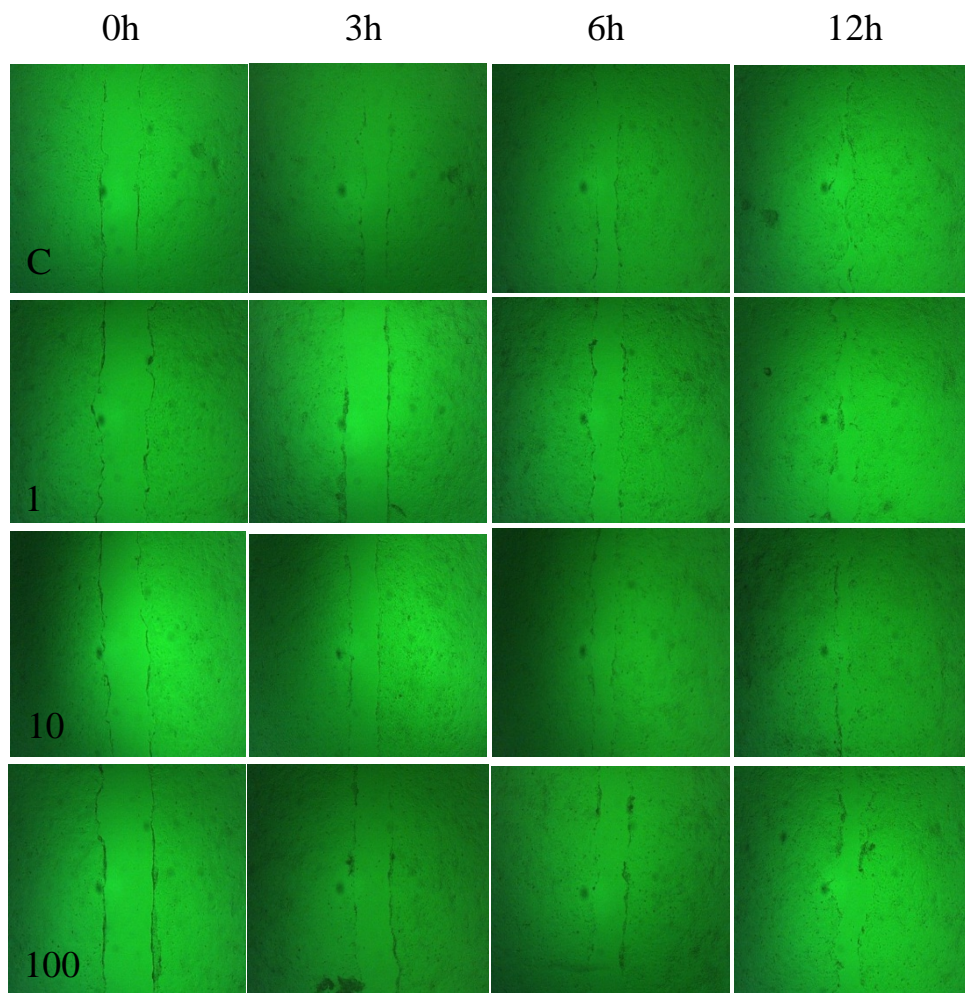


Fig 5. Effects of everolimus on HIF-1 α and VEGF-C expressions in SAS cell line.

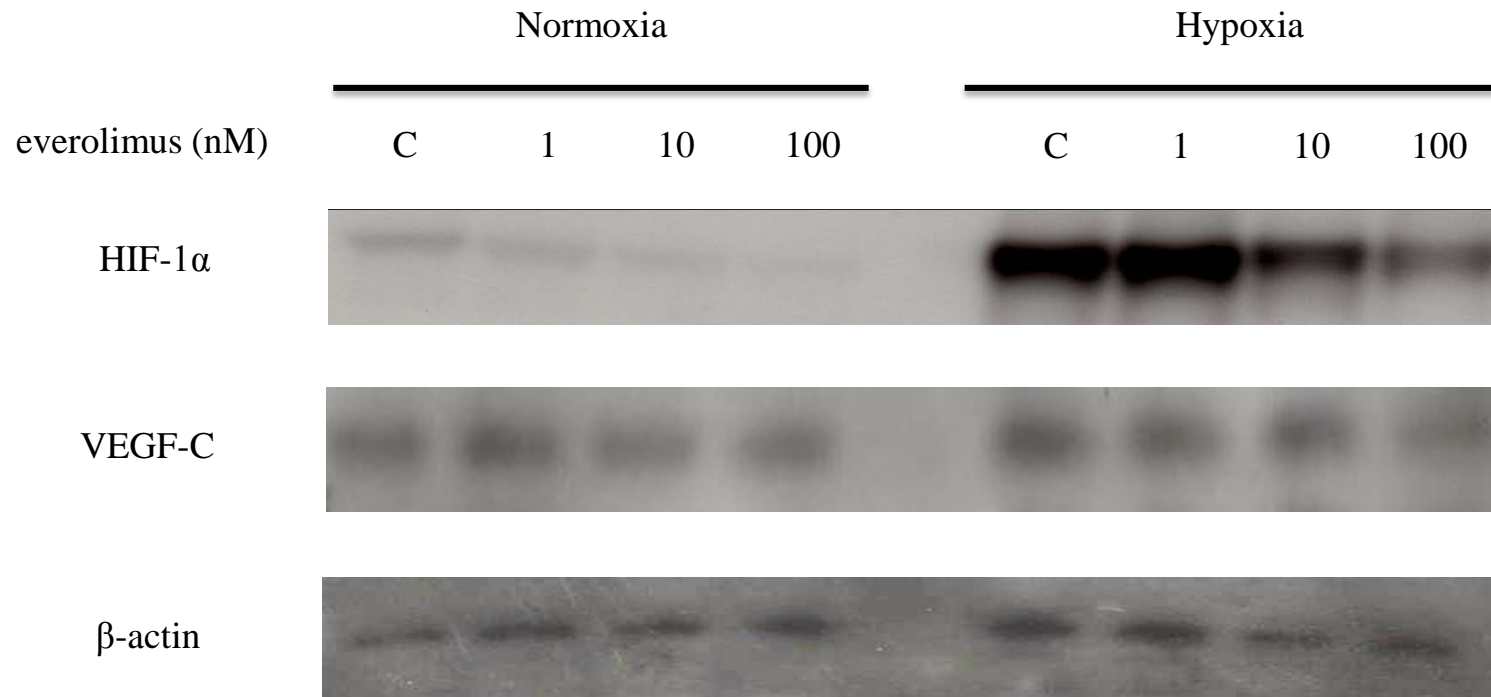


Table 1: Relationship between the overexpression of p-mTOR and clinicopathological features and survival.

		p-mTOR		<i>P</i> -value	5-year DSS (%)	<i>P</i> -value
		–	+			
Normal epithelium		10	0	<0.001		
SCC		33	37			
Gender	Male	21	20	0.472	73.7%	0.301
	Female	12	17		82.7%	
Age	67 \geq	11	15	0.623	83.5%	0.439
	67<	22	22		76.2%	
T classification	T1+T2	29	22	<0.05	86.2%	0.02
	T3+T4	4	15		60.9%	
N classification	N0	30	25	<0.05	87.3%	<0.001
	N1+N2	3	12		48.6%	
Differentiation	well	31	33	0.676	80.8%	0.303
	moderate. poor.	2	4		66.7%	
Pattern of invasion	Grades 1/2	26	24	0.289	89.6%	<0.001
	Grades 3/4	7	13		52.9%	

Table 2: Multivariate analysis (Cox regression) of DSS rates in OSCC.

Parameter	Hazard ratio	95% CI	<i>P</i> value
T classification (T1 +T2 versus T3 + T4)	1.6271	0.4464-5.93	0.461
N classification (N0 versus N1 + N2)	2.7115	0.6774-10.85	0.158
Pattern of invasion (Grades 1/2 versus Grades 3/4)	6.7596	1.9943-22.91	0.002
p-mTOR overexpression (negative versus positive)	1.9025	0.43-8.42	0.397
