Copyright © 2022 University of Bucharest Printed in Romania. All rights reserved ISSN print: 1224-5984 ISSN online: 2248-3942 Rom Biotechnol Lett. 2022; 27(5): 3699-3712 doi: 10.25083/rbl/27.5/3699.3712



Received for publication, January 26, 2023 Accepted, January 31, 2023

Review

Epidemiology, diagnosis, symptoms and TNM classification of head and neck cancers

MARIAN CONSTANTIN^{1,2}

¹Institute of Biology Bucharest of Romanian Academy, 296 Splaiul Independenței, 060031 Bucharest, Romania

²Fellow of the Research Institute of the University of Bucharest, ICUB, Bucharest, Romania

Abstract

Head and neck cancers occur predominantly by transformation of squamous cells lining the mucous membranes of the upper aerodigestive tract and affect one of the most complex regions of the human body. Head and neck cancers are very common, with more than half a million new cases annually, and have a mortality rate of around 50%, and early diagnosis can improve treatment outcomes and increase the life expectancy of those affected. In this paper, we review the epidemiology, the main symptoms, the diagnostic methods, highlighting the few genetic markers identified so far, and the TNM classification of each type of upper aerodigestive cancer.

Keywords

head and neck cancer, epidemiology, diagnosis, symptoms, TNM classification

To cite this article: MARIAN CONSTANTIN. Epidemiology, diagnosis, symptoms and TNM classification of head and neck cancers. *Rom Biotechnol Lett.* 2022; 27(5): 3699-3712 DOI: 10.25083/rbl/27.5/3699.3712

*Corresponding author: Marian Constantin, Institute of Biology Bucharest of Romanian Academy, 296 Splaiul Independenței, 060031 Bucharest, Romania; Fellow of the Research Institute of the University of Bucharest, ICUB, Bucharest, Romania. E-mail: cvgmarian@gmail.com

Introduction

The head and neck region is very complex and comprises the organs and all the tissue structures of the upper airways (nasal cavity; oral cavity and its appendages, including the lips, oral floor, hard palate, palatine veil, tongue, gums and salivary glands; pharynx, with its three sectors: nasopharynx, oropharynx and laryngopharynx, or hypopharynx, with the tonsils and Eustachian tube communicating with the middle ear; larynx, with the vocal cords), where the cancers of the head and neck, cranial cavity, eyes, ears, their appendages, endocrine glands, cervical spine, all cranial and cervical musculature, and the blood vessels, nerves and integument covering them occur (*fig. 1*). In this context, head and neck cancers (ICD-10 code) define only tumours of the upper aerodigestive tract and include a wide variety of malignancies of epithelial origin (*Table 1*).

More than 90% of head and neck cancers originate in the squamous cells lining the mucous membranes of the upper aerodigestive tract and are some of the most common cancers, with more than half a million new cases annually. They also have a high mortality despite cytoreductive surgery, radiotherapy and chemotherapy (when necessary), as diagnosis occurs at advanced stages with involvement of regional lymph nodes. Early diagnosis of head and neck cancers can replace the need to combine surgical resection with radiotherapy with radiotherapy treatment alone, with reduced recovery time and fewer complications after surgery. Distant metastasis is rare and occurs in less than 10% of cases. Survivors of head and neck cancers carry the risk of death for the rest of their lives due to heart and respiratory problems and the development of second primary tumours, especially in smokers. Secondary primary tumours can affect any part of the aerodigestive tract and are developed by 3-5% of cases each year. Head and neck cancers are multistep processes, frequently triggered by mutations in a single gene produced

by carcinogens and leading to significant dysregulation of metabolic processes.

 Table 1. Major types of neoplasms of the head and neck

 region according to the 10th revision (ICD-10) of the

 International Statistical Classification of Diseases and

 Related Health Problems, 2019 [1,2].

ICD-10	Main site of neoplasy			
code				
C00	Malignant neoplasms of lip			
C01	Malignant neoplasm of base of tongue			
C02	Malignant neoplasm of other and unspecified part of			
	tongue			
C03	Malignant neoplasm of gum			
C04	Malignant neoplasm of floor of mouth			
C05	Malignant neoplasm of palate			
C06	Malignant neoplasm of other and unspecified parts of			
	mouth			
C07	Malignant neoplasm of parotid gland			
C08	Malignant neoplasm of other and unspecified major			
	salivary glands			
C09	Malignant neoplasm of tonsil			
C10	Malignant neoplasm of oropharynx			
C11	Malignant neoplasm of nasopharynx			
C12	Malignant neoplasm of piriform sinus			
C13	Malignant neoplasm of hypopharynx			
C14	Malignant neoplasm of other and ill-defined sites in			
	the lip, oral cavity and pharynx			
C30	Malignant neoplasm of nasal cavity and middle ear			
C31	Malignant neoplasm of accessory sinuses			
C32	Malignant neoplasm of larynx			
C76	Malignant neoplasm of other and ill-defined sites			

The main factor causing head and neck tumours is smoking (active and passive), followed by alcohol consumption, alone or in combination with smoking, viral infections such as HPV (human papillomavirus) and EBV (Epstein-Barr virus), chewing Areca nuts in the form of betel quid, other eating habits which can also introduce carcinogens into the

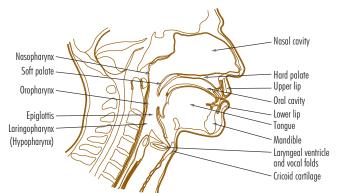


Figure. 1. Sagittal section through the head and neck region, showing the main anatomical landmarks used to define head and neck cancers.

body, as well as oral hygiene and the compounds with which people in various occupations come into contact [3–6]. From a molecular point of view, head and neck cancers are poorly known and characterized, although there are references on: (1) the positive correlation of N6-adenosine methylation and tumorigenesis of head and neck cancers [7]; (2) the relationship between increased expression of programmed death receptor 1 (PD1) and its ligand (PDL1) and increased size of head and neck tumors, suggesting the inclusion of these two molecules among tumor markers of laryngeal cancers and monoclonal antibodies in therapeutic regimens targeting laryngeal tumors [8]; (3) the possibility of using mi-RNAs (microRNAs - non-coding RNAs of about 22 nucleotides, involved in the post-translational regulation of gene expression) as biomarkers for head and neck cancers [9].

Epidemiology of head and neck cancers

Globally, the incidence of head and neck cancers ranks sixth, accounting for about 6% of all cancers (estimated 650,000 new cases annually) [3]. Thus, in 2020, the incidence of head and neck cancers was 699,840 cases in men (264,211 cases of lip and oral cavity cancers, 29,694 cases of salivary gland cancers, 79,045 cases of oropharyngeal cancers, 96,371 cases of nasopharyngeal cancers, 70,254 cases of laryngopharyngeal or hypopharyngeal cancers and 160, 265 cases of laryngeal cancers) and 232,091 cases in women (113,502 cases of lip and oral cavity cancers, 23,889 cases of salivary gland cancers, 19,367 cases of oropharyngeal cancers, 36,983 cases of nasopharyngeal cancers, 14,000 cases of laryngopharyngeal or hypopharyngeal cancers and 24,350 cases of laryngeal cancers). The mortality rate in people who develop head and neck cancers is very high, at around 350,000 annually. Thus, the total number of deaths in people with head and neck cancers in 2020 was 353,713 in men (125,022 cases of lip and oral cavity cancers, 13,353 cases of salivary gland cancers, 39,590 cases of oropharyngeal cancers, 58,094 cases of nasopharyngeal cancers, 32,303 cases of laryngopharyngeal or hypopharyngeal cancers and 85, 351 cases of laryngeal cancers) and 113,412, in women (52,735 cases of lip and oral cavity cancers, 9,425 cases of salivary gland cancers, 8,553 cases of oropharyngeal cancers, 21,914 cases of nasopharyngeal cancers, 6,296 cases of laryngopharyngeal or hypopharyngeal cancers and 14,489 cases of laryngeal cancers) [10]. The overall incidence of head and neck cancers shows an increasing trend in both developed and developing countries, with the Southeast Asia and Asia-Pacific regions showing an increasing number of oral cancers due to the habit of chewing Areca nuts (betel quid, a highly potent drug), whether or not associated with smoking, while in Europe and the USA,

HPV infection (fig. 2). By 2030, the number of cases may increase by 30% annually [2]. The incidence of head and neck cancers is at least twice as high in men as in women, with the proportions varying by country. For example, according to https://gco.iarc.fr/today/, in Romania, where the incidence of head and neck cancers in both sexes is 19.0/100,000 inhabitants (ranking third in the world after Papua New Guinea with 26.7/100,000 and Bangladesh with 22.2/100,000), the incidence in men is 35.8/100,000 (the second highest after Papua New Guinea with 37.6/100,000), while in women it is much lower at 4.1/100,000. The gender gap tends to become smaller in some countries, such as Papua New Guinea, with a total incidence of 26.7/100,000 population (37.6/100,000 for men and 17.1/100,000 for women), India, with a total incidence of 17.0/100,000 population (26.3/100,000 for men and 7.0/100,000 for women) and the United Republic of Tanzania, with a total incidence of 4.4/100,000 for men and 4.4/100,000 for women. 6/100,000), France, with a total incidence of 16.2/100,000 (men 24.8/100,000 and women 8.5/100,000), United Kingdom, with a total incidence of 11.4/100,000 (men 16.2/100,000 and women 6.8/100,000), USA, with a total incidence of 10. 4/100,000 inhabitants (in men 15.8/100,000 and in women 5.4/100,000), Germany, with a total incidence of 10.3/100,000 inhabitants (in men 14.9/100,000 and in women 5.9/100.000), or Israel, with a total incidence of 5.1/100,000 inhabitants (in men 7.1/100,000 and in women 3. 4/100,000), or even close to balance in other countries, including Saudi Arabia, with a total incidence of 4.4/100,000 (in men, 5.1/100,000, and in women, 3.3/100,000), or the United Mexican States, with a total incidence of 2.7/100,000 (in men, 3.5/100,000, and in women, 2.0/100,000).

Main symptoms

Depending on location, head and neck cancers produce a plethora of symptoms. Thus, cancers occurring in the nasal cavity and nasopharynx may unilaterally obstruct the airways, reduce olfactory sensitivity, produce mucus, with or without the presence of blood, which may flow outwards or inwards towards the throat. Oral or oropharyngeal cancers may initially appear as single or multiple precancerous lesions or as persistent ulcerations due to viral or fungal infections (e.g. candida leukoplakia), repeated consumption of betel quid or other causes. They may progress to oral or oropharyngeal cancers synchronous (occurring simultaneously or up to 6 months after lesion formation) or metachronous (occurring more than 6 months after lesion formation), which may occupy less or more space in the oral cavity or oropharynx, affecting the digestive function of these organs. Laryngopharyngeal (hypopharyngeal) cancers can cause persistent sore throat, earache, painful swallowing and hoarseness. On the

MARIAN CONSTANTIN

other hand, pharyngeal cancers (of the nasopharynx, oropharynx and laryngopharynx) cause obstruction of the pharynx and frequently dysphagia and sore throat much delayed after onset, as well as painless damage to a cervical lymph node. Due to impaired vocal cord functionality, laryngeal cancers frequently produce hoarseness, while cancers of the epiglottis area cause difficulty swallowing. Head and neck cancers also produce many non-specific symptoms, such as enlargement of cervical lymph nodes, unilateral otalgia (ear pain) or wheezing, which can be mistaken for other conditions, delaying correct diagnosis. Persistent enlargement of cervical lymph nodes in people aged 30-50 years, non-smokers and non-smokers who do not consume excessive alcohol or betel quid, may be caused by the presence of small tonsillar tumours of viral (HPV) origin, which may be mistaken for benign conditions, delaying their correct diagnosis. Unilateral pain occurring in people over 30 years of age without signs of otitis may be caused by neoplasms of the pharynx. In people over 40 years of age who smoke heavily or drink alcohol excessively, the occurrence of wheezing may be caused by slow-growing laryngeal neoplasms, although these can be diagnosed as bronchial asthma [11,4].

Diagnosis of head and neck cancers

The appearance of one or more of the symptoms listed may be just one indication of the likelihood of developing head and neck cancer and a good reason to visit the doctor. Most of the time, these are not sufficient for an accurate diagnosis of head and neck cancer, but are the start of more detailed investigations, including direct visual assessment or endoscopy, biopsy, imaging explorations and detection of specific biomarkers. To begin with, the doctor will perform

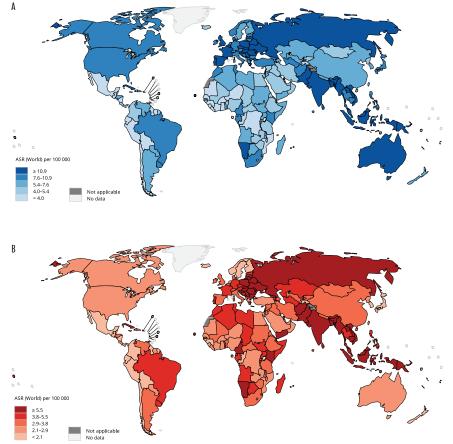


Figure. 2. World estimated age-standardized incidence rates in 2020, for head and neck (lip, oral cavity, larynx, hypopharynx, nasopharynx, salivary glands, and oropharynx) cancers, for both sexes of all ages. Maps are reprinted from International Agency for Research on Cancer, Cancer today – Data visualization tools for exploring the global cancer burden in 2020, Copyright 2022, available at http://gco.iarc.fr/today, and accessed in December 2022.

a visual assessment of accessible tissues to identify areas of macroscopically altered appearance. When these are not directly accessible, endoscopic examination of the suspicious area may be recommended. In endoscopy, an endoscope (a tube with a camera and a light at the tip) is used, which, in the case of upper aerodigestive tract explorations, is inserted through the nose or mouth. In the upper aerodigestive sphere, three common types of endoscopy are possible, nasopharyngoscopy, pharyngoscopy or laryngoscopy, which require local anesthesia, and the fourth type, panendoscopy, which requires general anesthesia [12].

After identifying the suspicious area, the physician will extract a tissue sample, necessary for microscopic or molecular examination (biopsy), which will allow him to correctly diagnose the altered area [13]. The biopsy is minimally invasive, surgical or aspiration. Thus, minimally invasive biopsy usually requires very small incisions (2-5 mm) and consists of sampling using a needle, directed by duplication with radiology imaging, ultrasound or CT. Recovery from the minimally invasive biopsy procedure occurs within 48 hours and results are released after two working days. Surgical biopsy is invasive, consists of making an incision to remove a tissue sample or tumour nodule, and may require local or general anesthesia. Because some tumours, such as appendiceal tumours, are discovered during or after appendectomies, by pathological examination, the incision is larger, deeper and leads to removal of the entire affected organ. In head and neck squamous cell carcinomas, surgical biopsies are much less extensive. Fine needle aspiration biopsy is the insertion of a very fine needle into areas of altered tissue, from which a small sample is taken to check for neoplastic cells. Generally, biopsy specimens are sent for pathological examination. This may be limited to staining of the sample, microscope slide staining and microscopic visualization for identification of transformed cells, or may include paraffin embedding for immunohistochemical examination [14].

After receiving results confirming the presence of transformed cells in the suspicious area, detailed imaging exploration of the area of interest may be performed by computed tomography (CT) scan, MRI scan, PET scan or ultrasound. Computed tomography is the acquisition of a suite of images of the area of interest using a source of X-rays that passes through living tissue and capture the signals via a computer-connected device, where they appear as image files. By viewing the image sequences, doctors observe the three-dimensional extent of the tumour and its relationship to neighbouring structures. Nuclear magnetic resonance MRI scans use magnetic fields and radio waves to capture detailed image sequences of the head and neck region, which are then stored in a computer and provide information on the extent of the tumour and its relationship to neighbouring tissues. Both CT and MRI scans can use contrast agents, through which tissue structures are better highlighted. PET (positron emission tomography) scans use a radioactive tracer (dye) administered intravenously, which provides very detailed detail about the health and function of organs and tissues at the microscopic level, generating images that provide clues to the presence of tumour transformation before it becomes visible on other types of images [15,14]. In head and neck squamous cell carcinomas, a very useful tool for diagnosis, staging and assessment of response to treatment is positron emission tomography using 18F-fluorodeoxyglucose (FDG-PET). Applied to patients with cervical lymph node metastases and unidentified origin, this method can identify the primary tumour in 25-38.5% of cases [15,16].

Earlier studies of head and neck cancers in the early third millennium identified several chromosomal aberrations, such as amplification of the 11q13 region, and genetic aberrations, including in TP53 (Tumor Protein 53/Tumor Suppressor P53), EGFR (Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor), STAT3 (Signal Transducer And Activator Of Transcription 3), VEGFR (Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor Receptor), RB, including RB1 (RB Transcriptional Corepressor 1), RBL1 (RB Transcriptional Corepressor Like 1) and RBL2 (RB Transcriptional Corepressor Like 2), p16/INK4A/CDKN2AI (Cyclin Dependent Kinase Inhibitor 2A), CCND1 (Cyclin D1), XRCC1 (X-Ray Repair Cross Complementing 1) and XPD/ERCC2 (ERCC Excision Repair 2, TFIIH Core Complex Helicase Subunit), affecting the functionality of the proteins encoded by them and signal transduction through the signaling pathways in which they are included [17-21]. Since the introduction of modern sequencing techniques (next-generation sequencing, NGS), knowledge of genetic alterations in some subtypes of these tumours has been continuously enriched, with the signaling of mutations in PIK3CA (Phosphatidylinositol-4, 5-Bisphosphate 3-Kinase Catalytic Subunit Alpha), HRAS (HRas Proto-Oncogene, GTPase), PTEN (Phosphatase And Tensin Homolog), NOTCH1 (Notch Receptor 1) [22], OGG1 (Human 8-oxoguanine glycosylase 1, the enzyme responsible for excision 7, 8-dihydro-8-oxoguanine, a mutagenic by-product resulting from exposure to reactive oxygen species) [23], CHECK2 (Checkpoint Kinase 2), ATR (ATR Serine/Threonine Kinase), involved in the TP53 signaling pathway, which determines the fate of cells whose genetic material is altered, in HPV-negative smokers) [24], RAD51C (RAD51 Paralog C) [25], FAT1 (FAT Atypical Cadherin 1), AJUBA (Ajuba LIM Protein), both involved in the WNT signaling pathway; in addition, AJUBA undergoes EGFR-RAS-RAF-MEK-ERK-dependent phosphorylation and participates in the HIPPO signaling pathway and in the ATR-mediated response

MARIAN CONSTANTIN

to DNA damage), NSD1 (histone methyltransferase H3K36), TRAF3 (TNF Receptor Associated Factor 3), NFE2L2 (NFE2 Like BZIP Transcription Factor 2), CASP8 (Caspase 8, whose product is involved in the caspase pathway of apoptosis), KMT2D/MLL2 (Lysine Methyltransferase 2D, involved in chromatin remodeling), HLA-A/CMH-IA (Major Histocompatibility Complex, Class I, A, involved in immune surveillance, which becomes deficient when mutated), SCN9A (Sodium Voltage-Gated Channel Alpha Subunit 9), PTCH1 (Patched 1), MYC (MYC Proto-Oncogene, BHLH Transcription Factor) and PIK3R1 (Phosphoinositide-3-Kinase Regulatory Subunit 1). In addition to these, whole exome sequencing of oral squamous cell carcinomas from Taiwanese men also identified mutations in RASA1 (RAS P21 Protein Activator 1), CHUK (Component of Inhibitor of Nuclear Factor Kappa B Kinase Complex) and ELAVL1 (ELAV Like RNA Binding Protein 1) genes, the latter two affecting the function of tumor suppressor and oncogene suppressor genes [26]. Rarely, the genes ASXL1 (ASXL Transcriptional Regulator 1), encoding a transcription factor, and RPTN (Repetin), encoding an epithelial differentiation factor, are affected [27]. Of these, TP53, HRAS, EGFR and PIK3CA genes have important functions in cell survival and proliferation (wild-type TP53 controlling them negatively and the other three positively), CDKN2A and CCND1 in cell cycle control, NOTCH1 in cell differentiation, and FAT1 in cell invasiveness and adhesion. The most frequent somatic mutations occur in the TP53 gene, with 50-80% of cases (predominantly in introns 4 and 6), in the early stages of carcinogenesis, and in CDKN2A, with important roles in the development of head and neck tumours (inactivation of p53 protein, encoded by TP53, being of major importance in preventing apoptotic guidance of genetically defective cells, and inactivation of p16 protein, encoded by CDKN2A, blocks cell cycle progression from G1 to S phase by inhibiting cyclin D1), followed by FAT1, PIK3CA, NOTCH1, KMT2D/MLL2, NSD1, CASP8, AJUBA and NFE2L2 [27-29]. Early studies on genetic alterations in head and neck tumors showed that mutations in the TP53 gene are frequently reported in HPVnegative tumors and rarely in HPV-positive tumors, amid its inactivation by the viral protein E6 via ubiquitination [18-20,27].

Currently, there are a small number of biomarkers used for the diagnosis of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas, including HPV infection and specific molecular targets. Since HPV infection is present in approximately 90% of oral squamous cell carcinomas, the association between symptoms and HPV infection may lead to the diagnosis of these and oropharyngeal cancers [16]. For the assessment of the risk of malignancy of oral pre-malignant lesions, loss of heterozygosity for the 9p and 13p regions can be used as a molecular biomarker [30]. Candidate genes for use as biomarkers for head and neck cancers include *CDKN2A*, *ARF* (ADP Ribosylation Factor) (located in 9p21), *TP53* (located in 17p13), *PTEN* [31], *PD1* and *PDL1* [8], but these need to be validated. A 2019 study indicates the serum presence of three miRNAs (hsa-mir-383, hsa-mir-615 and hsa-mir-877) as an effective biomarker for the diagnosis of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas [32].

TNM classification of head and neck cancers

The TNM classification of head and neck cancers includes the same parameters considered in the general staging of tumours, T (presence of primary tumour), N (lymph node metastasis) and M (presence of metastases in distant regions).

Oral cancers

For the definition of the T-parameter, in oral cancers the largest size of these tumours and the depth of invasion (DOI) are taken into account, as deeper tumours increase the risk of ganglion metastasis and reduced survival, with an increase of 5 mm each advancing the category by one T stage. Assessment of primary tumour thickness is a criterion used in clinical staging and is performed by manual palpation by experienced surgeons, with primary tumours <5 mm considered thin, 5-10 mm thick and >10 mm very thick [33–35] (*Table 2*).

 Table 2. T staging of oral cancers, according to AJCC

 Staging Manual [38]

T Category	T Criteria		
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed		
Tis	Carcinoma in situ		
T1	Primary tumor ≤ 2 cm, DOI ≤ 5 mm		
T2	Primary tumor ≤ 2 cm, DOI > 5 mm and ≤ 10		
	mm or tumor > 2 cm and ≤ 4 cm, DOI ≤ 10 mm		
Т3	Primary tumor > 2 cm and ≤ 4 cm, DOI > 10		
	mm or tumor > 4 cm, $DOI \le 10 \text{ mm}$		
T4	Moderately/very advanced local disease		
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease, with		
	primary tumor > 4 cm, DOI > 10 mm or tumor		
	invading adjacent structures only		
T4b	Very advanced local disease, with primary		
	tumor invading masticator space, pterygoid		
	plates, or skull base and/or encasing the internal		
	carotid artery		

In addition to lymph node involvement, the definition of N-parameter categories also includes extra-nodal extension of lymph node metastases (ENE), as this greatly influences the prognosis of head and neck cancers, with the exception of HPV-positive tumours. Thus, correct identification, supported with radiological evidence, of the presence of extra-nodal exenteration (ENE+), advances the N category to N3b, and inconclusive cases are categorized ENE-[35-37] (*Table 3*).

Table 3. N staging of oral cancers, according to AJCC Staging Manual [38]

N Category	N Criteria			
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed			
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis			
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node, $\leq 3 \text{ cm} \text{ ENE}(-)$			
	\leq 3 cm, ENE(-)			
N2	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral node > 3 cm			
	and \leq 6 cm, ENE(-); or metastases in multiple			
	ipsilateral lymph nodes, ≤ 6 cm, ENE(-); or in			
	bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes, ≤ 6 cm,			
	ENE(-)			
N2a	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral node > 3 cm and			
	$\leq 6 \text{ cm}, \text{ENE}(-)$			
N2b	Metastases in multiple ipsilateral nodes ≤ 6 cm,			
	ENE(-)			
N2c	Metastases in bilateral or contralateral lymph			
	nodes ≤ 6 cm, ENE(-)			
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node > 6 cm, ENE(-); or			
	metastasis in any node(s) and clinically overt			
	ENE(+)			
N3a	Metastasis in a lymph node > 6 cm, ENE(-)			
N3b	Metastasis in any node(s) and clinically overt			
	ENE(+)			

Oropharyngeal and laryngopharyngeal/ hypopharyngeal cancers

In the TNM classification of oropharyngeal cancers, the presence or absence of HPV infection is taken into account due to the different biological behavior of the two types of cancers, with HPV-positive tumours offering better diagnosis and survival rates compared to HPV-negative ones [39]. For this reason, the T classification system has some peculiarities for each of the two tumour types, with the same categories maintained overall. Thus, for HPV-positive tumours the Tis category has been excluded, the T0 category is used only for HPV-positive metastatic lymph nodes, where the primary lymph node is considered the primary tumour, and the T4b category is eliminated (Table 4). For HPV-negative tumours, the T-system comprises a wider range of categories (Table 4), also found in laryngopharyngeal/hypopharyngeal carcinomas, with some particularities regarding the criteria (Table 5). The N classification of oropharyngeal cancers also takes into account the presence or absence of HPV. Thus, for HPV-positive oropharyngeal cancers, the transformation of at least one ipsilateral lymph node less than 6 cm in size is considered N1, contralateral or bilateral lymph nodes less than 6 cm in size are considered N2, and nodes larger than 6 cm are included in the N3 category [40,35] (Table 6). The N system for laryngopharyngeal/hypopharyngeal carcinomas is complex and includes the same categories as for oral carcinomas, similarly, the presence of extra-nodal extension (ENE+), advancing the N category to clinically N3b (*Table 7*).

 Table 4. T staging of oropharyngeal cancers, according to AJCC Staging Manual [38]

	HPV-positive oropharyngeal tumors			
T Category	T Criteria			
Т0	No primary identified			
T1	Primary tumor ≤ 2 cm			
T2	Primary tumor $> 2 \text{ cm}$ and $\le 4 \text{ cm}$			
Т3	Primary tumor > 4 cm or extended to lingual			
	surface of epiglottis			
T4	Moderately advanced local disease, with primary			
	tumor invading the larynx, extrinsic muscle of tongue,			
	medial pterygoid, hard palate, or mandible or beyond			
HPV-negative oropharyngeal tumors				
T Category	ry T Criteria			
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed			
Tis	Carcinoma in situ			
T1	Primary tumor $\leq 2 \text{ cm}$			
T2	Primary tumor > 2 cm and ≤ 4 cm			
T3	Primary tumor > 4 cm or extended to lingual			
	surface of epiglottis			
T4	Moderately advanced and very advanced local			
	disease			
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease, with primary			
	tumor invading the larynx, extrinsic muscle of			
	tongue, medial pterygoid, hard palate, or mandible			
T4b	Very advanced local disease, with primary tumor			
	invading lateral pterygoid muscle, pterygoid			
	plates, lateral nasopharynx, or skull base or			
	encasing carotid artery			

Table 5. T staging of laringopharyngeal/hypopharyngeal cancers, according to AJCC Staging Manual [38]

T Category	T Criteria			
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed			
Tis	Carcinoma in situ			
T1	Primary tumor limited to one subsite of			
	hypopharynx and/or ≤ 2 cm			
T2	Primary tumor invades more than one subsite of			
	hypopharynx or an adjacent site, or > 2 cm and			
	\leq 4 cm without fixation of hemilarynx			
T3	Primary tumor > 4 cm or with fixation of			
	hemilarynx or extension to esophageal mucosa			
T4	Moderately advanced and very advanced local			
	disease			
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease, primary			
	tumor invading thyroid/cricoid cartilage, hyoid			
	bone, thyroid gland, esophageal muscle or central			
	compartment soft tissue			
T4b	Very advanced local disease, primary tumor			
	invading prevertebral fascia, encasing carotid			
	artery, or involving mediastinal structures			
	· · · ·			

N Category	N Criteria	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed	
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis	
N1	One or more ipsilateral lymph nodes, none	
	> 6 cm	
N2	Contralateral or bilateral lymph nodes, none	
	> 6 cm	
N3	Lymph node(s) > 6 cm	

 Table 6. N staging of oropharyngeal cancers, according to
 AJCC Staging Manual [38]

Table 7. N staging of laringopharyngeal/hypopharyngeal cancers, according to AJCC Staging Manual [38]

N Category	N Criteria			
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed			
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis			
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node			
	\leq 3 cm, ENE(-)			
N2	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral node > 3 cm and			
	\leq 6 cm, and ENE(-); or metastases in multiple			
	ipsilateral lymph nodes ≤ 6 cm, and ENE(-); or			
	in bilateral or contralateral lymph nodes ≤ 6 cm,			
	and ENE(-)			
N2a	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral node > 3 cm			
	\leq 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N2b	Metastases in multiple ipsilateral nodes \leq 6 cm,			
	and ENE(-)			
N2c	Metastases in bilateral or contralateral lymph			
	nodes, ≤ 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node > 6 cm, and ENE(-);			
	or metastasis in any node(s) and clinically overt			
	ENE(+)			
N3a	Metastasis in a lymph node > 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N3b	Metastasis in any node(s) and clinically overt			
	ENE(+)			

Nasopharyngeal cancers

The TNM classification of nasopharyngeal cancers takes into account the presence of EBV infection, parapharyngeal structures involvement, lymphatic spread in the retropharyngeal and cervical lymph nodes, which is present from an early age and occurs in an orderly pattern, from close to close, without gaps, from the upper to the lower throat [41,42]. Metastatic lymph node hyperplasia to more than 6 cm or extension below the cricoid cartilage provides the worst prognosis. Because nasopharyngeal carcinomas are at increased risk of distant metastasis to the lung, bone, liver or distant lymph nodes, their TNM classification also includes category M, with a value of 0 for no distant metastasis and 1 for the presence of distant metastasis [38] (*Tables 8–9*).

 Table 8. T staging of nasopharyngeal cancers, according to

 AJCC Staging Manual [38]

T Category	T Criteria			
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed			
Т0	No tumor identified, but EBV-positive cervical			
	node(s) involvement			
Tis	Tumor in situ			
T1	Tumor confined to nasopharynx, or extension			
	to oropharynx and/or nasal cavity with no			
	parapharyngeal involvement			
T2	Tumor extended to parapharyngeal space, and/or			
	to adjacent soft tissue (including medial pterygoid,			
	lateral pterygoid, prevertebral muscles)			
T3	Tumor with infiltration of bony structures			
	at skull base, cervical vertebra, pterygoid			
	structures, and/or paranasal sinuses			
T4	Tumor with intracranial extension, involvement of			
	cranial nerves, hypopharynx, orbit, parotid gland,			
	and/or extensive soft tissue infiltration beyond the			
	lateral surface of the lateral pterygoid muscle			

 Table 9. N staging of nasopharyngeal cancers, according to

 AJCC Staging Manual [38]

N Category	N Criteria	
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed	
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis	
N1	Unilateral metastasis in cervical lymph node(s)	
	and/or unilateral or bilateral metastasis in	
	retropharyngeal lymph node(s) ≤6 cm, above	
	the caudal border of cricoid cartilage	
N2	Bilateral metastasis in cervical lymph node(s) ≤ 6	
	cm, above the caudal border of cricoid cartilage	
N3	Unilateral or bilateral metastasis in cervical	
	lymph node(s) > 6 cm, and/or extension below	
	the caudal border of cricoid cartilage	

Cancers of the nasal cavity and maxillary sinuses

Nasal cavity and maxillary sinus cancers have a differentiated course depending on the area of the maxillary sinus involved, with cancers extending into the antero-inferior portion of the maxillary sinus (infrastructure) having a favorable prognosis and those extending into the posterosuperior portion of the maxillary sinus (superstructure) having a poor prognosis, as they invade early on the critical structures at the base of the skull, including the orbit, pterygoid processes and infratemporal fossa. In terms of T staging, nasal cavity and maxillary sinus cancers are subdivided into maxillary sinus cancers and nasal cavity and ethmoid sinus cancers (Table 10). Nasal cavity and maxillary sinus cancers typically do not involve the regional lymph nodes, this occurs through the extension of maxillary sinus cancers, and the extra-nodal extension of metastases passes the tumour directly to stage N3 (Table 11). When present (M1), distant metastasis occurs in the lungs and rarely in the bones [38].

Epidemiology, diagnosis, symptoms and TNM classification of head and neck cancers

	Maxillary sinus		Nasal cavity and ethmoid sinus
T Category	T Criteria	T Category	T Criteria
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed	TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed
Tis	Carcinoma in situ	Tis	Carcinoma in situ
T1	Tumor limited to maxillary sinus mucosa with no	T1	Tumor restricted to any one subsite, with or without
	erosion or destruction of bone		bony invasion
T2	Tumor causing bone erosion or destruction	T2	Tumor invading two subsites in a single region
	including extension into the hard palate and/or		or extending to involve an adjacent region within
	middle nasal meatus, except extension to posterior		the nasoethmoidal complex, with or without bony
	wall of maxillary sinus and pterygoid plates		invasion
Т3	Tumor invades any of the following: bone of the	T3	Tumor extends to invade the medial wall or floor of
	posterior wall of maxillary sinus, subcutaneous		the orbit, maxillary sinus, palate, or cribriform plate
	tissues, floor or medial wall of orbit, pterygoid		
	fossa, ethmoid sinuses		
T4	Moderately advanced or very advanced local disease	T4	Moderately advanced or very advanced local disease
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease, primary	T4a	Moderately advanced local disease, primary tumor
	tumor invading anterior orbital contents, skin		invading any of the following: anterior orbital contents,
	of cheek, pterygoid plates, infratemporal fossa,		skin of nose or cheek, minimal extension to anterior
	cribriform plate, sphenoid or frontal sinuses		cranial fossa, pterygoid plates, sphenoid or frontal sinuses
T4b	Very advanced local disease, primary tumor	T4b	Very advanced local disease, primary tumor
	invading any of the following: orbital apex, dura,		invading any of the following: orbital apex, dura,
	brain, middle cranial fossa, cranial nerves other		brain, middle cranial fossa, cranial nerves other than
	than maxillary division of trigeminal nerve (V2),		(V2), nasopharynx, or clivus
	nasopharynx, or clivus		· /· · · ·

Table 10. T staging of maxillary sinus, and nasal cavity and ethmoid sinus cancers, according to AJCC Staging Manual [38]

 Table 11. N staging of maxillary sinus, and nasal cavity and

 ethmoid sinus cancers, according to AJCC Staging Manual [38]

N Category	N Criteria			
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed			
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis			
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node			
	\leq 3 cm, and ENE(-)			
N2	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral node > 3 cm and ≤ 6			
	cm, and ENE(-); or metastases in multiple ipsilateral			
	lymph nodes, ≤ 6 cm, and ENE(-); or in bilateral or			
	contralateral lymph nodes ≤ 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N2a	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral node > 3 cm and			
	\leq 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N2b	Metastases in multiple ipsilateral nodes ≤6 cm,			
	and ENE(-)			
N2c	Metastases in bilateral or contralateral lymph			
	nodes \leq 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node > 6 cm, and ENE(-);			
	or metastasis in any node(s) with clinically overt			
	ENE(+)			
N3a	Metastasis in a lymph node > 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N3b	Metastasis in any node(s) with clinically overt			
	ENE (ENEc)			

Laryngeal cancers

Laryngeal cancers can occur in the supraglottic region, in the glottis or under the glottis. T-staging of supraglottic carcinomas takes into account the involvement of surrounding regions and vocal cord mobility, extension into the paralaryngeal fat in the preepiglottic space or erosion of the inner cortex of the thyroid cartilage advancing tumours to stage T3, whereas erosion of the outer cortex of the thyroid cartilage classifies tumours as T4a. T-staging of glottis tumours takes into account the impairment of vocal cord mobility, and T-staging of subglottic space tumours takes into account their extension to the vocal cords with impaired mobility, or disease progression to the cricoid or thyroid cartilages, in which case the tumours are stage T4 (*Table 12*). Lymph node metastasis and hyperplasia are criteria used for N classification of laryngeal tumours. Extra-nodal extension of metastases directly moves the tumor to stage N3 [38] (*Table 13*).

Anatomical staging of head and neck cancers

Based on the association of TNM criteria, anatomical stages of head and neck tumours are defined, which indicate the size of the primary tumour and the extent of metastasis. Thus, low T parameters (Cis or T1–3) associated with N0, N1 or N2 and with M0 indicate early and middle stages in the development of neoplasia (Stage 0, I or II), and T4 generally characterises Stage IV, in which the disease is advanced. This stage is divided into stages IVA, in which the disease is moderately advanced and has local or regional spread, IVB, in which the disease is very advanced with local or regional spread, and IVC, in which the disease to a distant site (*Tables 14–16*). Anatomical staging is a diagnostic and prognostic criterion for head and neck cancers [38].

	Supraglottis	Glottis	Subglottis	
F Category	T Criteria	T Criteria	T Criteria	
TX	Primary tumor cannot be assessed	Primary tumor cannot be assessed	Primary tumor cannot be assessed	
Tis	Carcinoma in situ	Carcinoma in situ	Carcinoma in situ	
T1	Tumor limited to one subsite of	Tumor limited to the vocal cord(s)	Tumor limited to the subglottis	
	supraglottis with normal vocal cord	(may involve anterior or posterior		
	mobility	commissure) with normal mobility		
T1a		Tumor limited to one vocal cord		
T1b		Tumor involves both vocal cords		
T2	Tumor invades mucosa of more than	Tumor extends to supraglottis and/or	Tumor extends to vocal cord(s) with	
	one adjacent subsite of supraglottis or	subglottis, and/or with impaired vocal	normal or impaired mobility	
	glottis or region outside the supraglottis	cord mobility		
	(e.g., mucosa of base of tongue,			
	vallecula, medial wall of pyriform			
	sinus) without fixation of the larynx			
Т3	Tumor limited to larynx with vocal	Tumor limited to the larynx with	Tumor limited to larynx with vocal	
	cord fixation and/or invades any	vocal cord fixation and/or invasion of	cord fixation and/or invasion of	
	of the following: postcricoid area,	paraglottic space and/or inner cortex of	paraglottic space and/or inner cortex of	
	preepiglottic space, paraglottic space,	the thyroid cartilage	the thyroid cartilage	
	and/or inner cortex of thyroid cartilage			
T4	Moderately advanced or very advanced	Moderately advanced or very advanced	Moderately advanced or very advance	
T4a	Moderately advanced local disease	Moderately advanced local disease	Moderately advanced local disease	
	Tumor invades through the outer	Tumor invades through the outer cortex of	Tumor invades cricoid or thyroid	
	cortex of the thyroid cartilage and/or	the thyroid cartilage and/or invades tissues	cartilage and/or invades tissues beyond	
	invades tissues beyond the larynx (e.g.,	beyond the larynx (e.g., trachea, cricoid	the larynx (e.g., trachea, soft tissues of	
	trachea, soft tissues of neck including	cartilage, soft tissues of neck including	neck including deep extrinsic muscles	
	deep extrinsic muscle of the tongue,	deep extrinsic muscle of the tongue, strap	of the tongue, strap muscles, thyroid,	
	strap muscles, thyroid, or esophagus)	muscles, thyroid, or esophagus)	or esophagus)	
T4b	Very advanced local disease	Very advanced local disease Tumor	Very advanced local disease Tumor	
	Tumor invades prevertebral space,	invades prevertebral space, encases	invades prevertebral space, encases	
	encases carotid artery, or invades	carotid artery, or invades mediastinal	carotid artery, or invades mediastinal	
	mediastinal structures	structures	structures	

Table 12. T staging of larynx cancers, according to AJCC Staging Manual [38]

 Table 13. N staging of larynx cancers, according to AJCC

 Staging Manual [38]

N Category	N Criteria			
NX	Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed			
N0	No regional lymph node metastasis			
N1	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral lymph node ≤ 3			
	cm, and ENE(-)			
N2	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral node, > 3 cm and			
	\leq 6 cm, and ENE(-); or metastases in multiple			
	ipsilateral lymph nodes \leq 6 cm, and ENE(-); or			
	metastasis in bilateral or contralateral lymph			
	nodes \leq 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N2a	Metastasis in a single ipsilateral node > 3 cm and			
	\leq 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N2b	Metastases in multiple ipsilateral nodes < 6 cm,			
	and ENE(-)			
N2c	Metastases in bilateral or contralateral lymph			
	nodes \leq 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N3	Metastasis in a lymph node > 6 cm, and ENE(-);			
	or metastasis in any lymph node(s) with clinically			
	overt ENE(+)			
N3a	Metastasis in a lymph node > 6 cm, and ENE(-)			
N3b	Metastasis in any lymph node(s) with clinically			
	overt ENE(+)			

Table 14. Anatomical staging of nasopharyngeal
cancers [38]

Stage 0	Cis (Tis)	N0	M0
Stage I	T1	N0	M0
Stage II	T1	N1	M0
	T2	N0	M0
	T2	N1	M0
Stage III	T1	N2	M0
	Т2	N2	M0
	Т3	N0	M0
	Т3	N1	M0
	Т3	N2	M0
Stage IVA	T4	N0	M0
	T4	N1	M0
	T4	N2	M0
Stage IVB	Any T	N3	M0
Stage IVC	Any T	Any N	M1

hypopharyngeal cancers [38]				
Stage 0	Cis (Tis)	N0	M0	
Stage I	T1	N0	M0	
Stage II	T2	N0	M0	
Stage III	T3	N0	M0	
	T1	N1	M0	
	T2	N1	M0	
	T3	N1	M0	
Stage IVA	T4a	N0	M0	
	T4a	N1	M0	
	T1	N2	M0	
	T2	N2	M0	
	T3	N2	M0	
	T4a	N2	M0	
Stage IVB	T4b	Any N	M0	
	Any T	N3	M0	
Stage IVC	Any T	Any N	M1	

Table 15. Anatomical staging of oropharyngeal/	
hypopharyngeal cancers [38]	

Stage 0	Cis (Tis)	N0	M0
Stage I	T1	N0	M0
Stage II	T2	N0	M0
Stage III	Т3	N0	M0
	T1	N1	M0
	T2	N0	M0
	Т3	N1	M0
Stage IVA	T4a	N0	M0
	T4a	N1	M0
	T1	N2	M0
	T2	N2	M0
	Т3	N2	M0
	T4a	N2	M0
Stage IVB	T4b	Any N	M0
	Any T	N3	M0
Stage IVC	Any T	Any N	M1

Conclusions

More than 90% of head and neck cancers originate from squamous cells (squamous cell cancers of the head and neck), ranking 6th among all malignancies affecting the human body (with 931931 cases estimated in 2020 worldwide, followed by breast, with 2261419 cases in 2020, lung, with 2206771 cases in 2020, colon and rectum, with 1931590 cases in 2020, prostate, with 1414259 cases in 2020, and stomach, with 1089103 cases in 2020 [43,44]), invades, to some extent, neighbouring structures (thyroid and even tracheal cartilages, internal carotid artery, thyroid gland, eyeballs and bony structures, including orbits, jaw, infratemporal fossa, pterygoid processes, base of skull, mandible and cervical spine), metastasizes in a low proportion (about 10%) and has high mortality rate. Risk factors for head and neck cancers include smoking (active and passive), alcohol consumption, especially in combination with smoking, viral infections with HPV (human papillomavirus) and EBV (Epstein-Barr virus), chewing Areca nuts (betel quid), poor oral hygiene and other dietary or behavioral habits.

Symptoms of head and neck cancers are numerous and include obstruction of the upper airways, reduced olfactory sensitivity, mucus or blood production, ulceration of the oral cavity, sore throat, especially when swallowing, or earache, hoarseness, hyperplasia of the cervical lymph nodes and others.

The occurrence of some of these symptoms may indicate the likelihood of neoplasia in the upper aerodigestive sphere, which may be refuted or confirmed by specific investigations, including direct visual assessment, endoscopy, biopsy, imaging investigations and detection of specific biomarkers. Although affecting a relatively large number of genes, head and neck cancers have a small number of specific biomarkers, candidates include *CDKN2A*, *ARF*, *TP53*, *PTEN*, *PD1*, *PDL1* or a group of three miRNAs (hsa-mir-383, hsa-mir-615 and hsa-mir-877).

For TNM staging of head and neck cancers, categories T and N are relevant, the latter also taking into account the extra-nodal extension of lymph node metastases, while category M is only relevant for staging nasopharyngeal cancers and those arising in the nasal cavity and maxillary sinuses, in which cases distant metastases mainly target the lungs and bones. These categories are used to define anatomical stages of head and neck cancers with diagnostic and prognostic value for overall survival.

Conflict of interest. The author has no conflict of interest to declare.

References

- International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems 10th Revision, Version:2019 [cited 2022 Dec 30]. Available from: https://icd.who.int/browse10/2019/en#/C00-C14
- Gormley, M., Creaney, G., Schache, A. et al. Reviewing the epidemiology of head and neck cancer: definitions, trends and risk factors. Br Dent J 233, 780–786 (2022). doi: 10.1038/s41415-022-5166-x
- Argiris A, Karamouzis MV, Raben D, Ferris RL. Head and neck cancer. Lancet. 2008 May 17;371(9625):1695-709. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(08)60728-X. PMID: 18486742; PMCID: PMC7720415
- Mehanna H, Paleri V, West CM, Nutting C. Head and neck cancer--Part 1: Epidemiology, presentation, and prevention. BMJ. 2010 Sep 20;341:c4684. doi: 10.1136/bmj.c4684. PMID: 20855405

MARIAN CONSTANTIN

- Alfouzan AF. Radiation therapy in head and neck cancer. Saudi Med J. 2021 Mar;42(3):247-254. doi: 10.15537/smj.2021.42.3.20210660. PMID: 33632902; PMCID: PMC7989258
- Szyfter K. Genetics and Molecular Biology of Head and Neck Cancer. Biomolecules. 2021 Aug 31;11(9):1293. doi: 10.3390/biom11091293. PMID: 34572506; PM-CID: PMC8469154
- Romanowska K, Rawłuszko-Wieczorek AA, Marczak Ł, Kosińska A, Suchorska WM, Golusiński W. The m6A RNA Modification Quantity and mRNA Expression Level of RNA Methylation-Related Genes in Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma Cell Lines and Patients. Biomolecules. 2021 Jun 18;11(6):908. doi: 10.3390/biom11060908. PMID: 34207099; PMCID: PMC8235215
- Kowalski A, Malinowska K, Olszewski J, Zielińska-Bliźniewska H. Expression of Programmed Death Receptor 1 (PD-1) Gene and Its Ligand (PD-L1) in Patients with Laryngeal Cancer. Biomolecules. 2021 Jul 1;11(7):970. doi: 10.3390/biom11070970. PMID: 34356594; PMCID: PMC8301886
- Kabzinski J, Maczynska M, Majsterek I. MicroRNA as a Novel Biomarker in the Diagnosis of Head and Neck Cancer. Biomolecules. 2021 Jun 5;11(6):844. doi: 10.3390/biom11060844. PMID: 34198889; PM-CID: PMC8228566
- Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, Laversanne M, Soerjomataram I, Jemal A, Bray F. Global Cancer Statistics 2020: GLOBOCAN Estimates of Incidence and Mortality Worldwide for 36 Cancers in 185 Countries. CA Cancer J Clin. 2021 May;71(3):209-249. doi: 10.3322/ caac.21660. Epub 2021 Feb 4. PMID: 33538338
- Gerson SJ. Oral cancer. Crit Rev Oral Biol Med. 1990;1(3):153-66. doi: 10.1177/10454411900010030101. PMID: 2129624
- Head and Neck Cancer Diagnosis [cited 2023 Ian 20]. Available from: https://www.mskcc.org/cancer-care/ types/head-neck/diagnosis
- Overview of Head and Neck Tumors, in MSD Manual. Professional Version [cited 2023 Ian 20]. Available from: https://www.msdmanuals.com/professional/ear,nose,-and-throat-disorders/tumors-of-the-head-andneck/overview-of-head-and-neck-tumors
- Head and Neck Cancer Diagnosis [cited 2023 Ian 20]. Available from: https://cancer.dartmouth.edu/headneck/diagnosis
- Haider SP, Burtness B, Yarbrough WG, Payabvash S. Applications of radiomics in precision diagnosis, prognostication and treatment planning of head and neck

squamous cell carcinomas. Cancers Head Neck. 2020 May 4;5:6. doi: 10.1186/s41199-020-00053-7. PMID: 32391171; PMCID: PMC7197186

- Economopoulou P, de Bree R, Kotsantis I, Psyrri A. Diagnostic Tumor Markers in Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma (HNSCC) in the Clinical Setting. Front Oncol. 2019 Aug 29;9:827. doi: 10.3389/fonc.2019.00827. PMID: 31555588; PMCID: PMC6727245
- Ramachandran S, Ramadas K, Hariharan R, Rejnish Kumar R, Radhakrishna Pillai M. Single nucleotide polymorphisms of DNA repair genes XRCC1 and XPD and its molecular mapping in Indian oral cancer. Oral Oncol. 2006 Apr;42(4):350-62. doi: 10.1016/j. oraloncology.2005.08.010. Epub 2005 Dec 1. PMID: 16324877
- Smeets SJ, Braakhuis BJM, Ylstra B, et al. TP53 mutations are associated with a particular pattern of genomic imbalances in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. Cell Oncol 2007;29:160
- Klein JD, Grandis JR. The molecular pathogenesis of head and neck cancer. Cancer Biol Ther. 2010 Jan;9(1):1-7. doi: 10.4161/cbt.9.1.10905. Epub 2010 Jan 9. PMID: 20038820; PMCID: PMC3138532
- Leemans CR, Braakhuis BJ, Brakenhoff RH. The molecular biology of head and neck cancer. Nat Rev Cancer. 2011 Jan;11(1):9-22. doi: 10.1038/nrc2982. Epub 2010 Dec 16. PMID: 21160525
- 21. Stransky N, Egloff AM, Tward AD, Kostic AD, Cibulskis K, Sivachenko A, Kryukov GV, Lawrence MS, Sougnez C, McKenna A, Shefler E, Ramos AH, Stojanov P, Carter SL, Voet D, Cortés ML, Auclair D, Berger MF, Saksena G, Guiducci C, Onofrio RC, Parkin M, Romkes M, Weissfeld JL, Seethala RR, Wang L, Rangel-Escareño C, Fernandez-Lopez JC, Hidalgo-Miranda A, Melendez-Zajgla J, Winckler W, Ardlie K, Gabriel SB, Meyerson M, Lander ES, Getz G, Golub TR, Garraway LA, Grandis JR. The mutational landscape of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. Science. 2011 Aug 26;333(6046):1157-60. doi: 10.1126/ science.1208130. Epub 2011 Jul 28. PMID: 21798893; PMCID: PMC3415217
- Loyo M, Li RJ, Bettegowda C, Pickering CR, Frederick MJ, Myers JN, Agrawal N. Lessons learned from next-generation sequencing in head and neck cancer. Head Neck. 2013 Mar;35(3):454-63. doi: 10.1002/ hed.23100. Epub 2012 Aug 21. PMID: 22907887; PM-CID: PMC3715072
- Mahjabeen I, Masood N, Baig RM, Sabir M, Inayat U, Malik FA, Kayani MA. Novel mutations of OGG1

base excision repair pathway gene in laryngeal cancer patients. Fam Cancer. 2012 Dec;11(4):587-93. doi: 10.1007/s10689-012-9554-2. PMID: 22829015

- Laborde RR, Wang VW, Smith TM, Olson NE, Olsen SM, García JJ, Olsen KD, Moore EJ, Kasperbauer JL, Tombers NM, Smith DI. Transcriptional profiling by sequencing of oropharyngeal cancer. Mayo Clin Proc. 2012 Mar;87(3):226-32. doi: 10.1016/j. mayocp.2011.10.008. PMID: 22386177; PMCID: PMC3538409
- 25. Scheckenbach K, Baldus SE, Balz V, Freund M, Pakropa P, Sproll C, Schäfer KL, Wagenmann M, Schipper J, Hanenberg H. RAD51C--a new human cancer susceptibility gene for sporadic squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck (HNSCC). Oral Oncol. 2014 Mar;50(3):196-9. doi: 10.1016/j. oraloncology.2013.11.007. Epub 2013 Dec 6. PMID: 24315737; PMCID: PMC4230275
- 26. Su SC, Lin CW, Liu YF, Fan WL, Chen MK, Yu CP, Yang WE, Su CW, Chuang CY, Li WH, Chung WH, Yang SF. Exome Sequencing of Oral Squamous Cell Carcinoma Reveals Molecular Subgroups and Novel Therapeutic Opportunities. Theranostics. 2017 Feb 26;7(5):1088-1099. doi: 10.7150/thno.18551. PMID: 28435450; PMCID: PMC5399578
- Farah CS. Molecular landscape of head and neck cancer and implications for therapy. Ann Transl Med. 2021 May;9(10):915. doi: 10.21037/atm-20-6264. PMID: 34164549; PMCID: PMC8184465
- Cancer Genome Atlas Network. Comprehensive genomic characterization of head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. Nature. 2015 Jan 29;517(7536):576-82. doi: 10.1038/nature14129. PMID: 25631445; PMCID: PMC4311405
- Cho J, Johnson DE, Grandis JR. Therapeutic Implications of the Genetic Landscape of Head and Neck Cancer. Semin Radiat Oncol. 2018 Jan;28(1):2-11. doi: 10.1016/j.semradonc.2017.08.005. PMID: 29173752; PMCID: PMC6293987
- Rosin MP, Cheng X, Poh C, Lam WL, Huang Y, Lovas J, Berean K, Epstein JB, Priddy R, Le ND, Zhang L. Use of allelic loss to predict malignant risk for lowgrade oral epithelial dysplasia. Clin Cancer Res. 2000 Feb;6(2):357-62. PMID: 10690511
- Johnson DE, Burtness B, Leemans CR, Lui VWY, Bauman JE, Grandis JR. Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. Nat Rev Dis Primers. 2020 Nov 26;6(1):92. doi: 10.1038/s41572-020-00224-3. PMID: 33243986; PMCID: PMC7944998

- 32. Liu C, Yu Z, Huang S, Zhao Q, Sun Z, Fletcher C, Jiang Y, Zhang D. Combined identification of three miRNAs in serum as effective diagnostic biomarkers for HNSCC. EBioMedicine. 2019 Dec;50:135-143. doi: 10.1016/j.ebiom.2019.11.016. Epub 2019 Nov 26. PMID: 31780396; PMCID: PMC6921333
- Shah JP. Staging for Head and Neck Cancer: Purpose, Process and Progress. Indian J Surg Oncol. 2018 Mar;9(1):116-120. doi: 10.1007/s13193-018-0723-0. Epub 2018 Feb 5. PMID: 29563750; PMCID: PMC5856705
- Shah JP., Montero PH. New AJCC/UICC staging system for head and neck, and thyroid cancer. Revista Médica Clínica Las Condes. 2018; 29(4):397-404.doi: 10.1016/j.rmclc.2018.07.002
- 35. Zanoni DK, Patel SG, Shah JP. Changes in the 8th Edition of the American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) Staging of Head and Neck Cancer: Rationale and Implications. Curr Oncol Rep. 2019 Apr 17;21(6):52. doi: 10.1007/s11912-019-0799-x. PMID: 30997577; PMCID: PMC6528815
- 36. International Consortium for Outcome Research (ICOR) in Head and Neck Cancer; Ebrahimi A, Gil Z, Amit M, Yen TC, Liao CT, Chaturvedi P, Agarwal JP, Kowalski LP, Kreppel M, Cernea CR, Brandao J, Bachar G, Bolzoni Villaret A, Fliss D, Fridman E, Robbins KT, Shah JP, Patel SG, Clark JR. Primary tumor staging for oral cancer and a proposed modification incorporating depth of invasion: an international multicenter retrospective study. JAMA Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2014 Dec;140(12):1138-48. doi: 10.1001/ jamaoto.2014.1548. PMID: 25075712
- 37. Wreesmann VB, Katabi N, Palmer FL, Montero PH, Migliacci JC, Gönen M, Carlson D, Ganly I, Shah JP, Ghossein R, Patel SG. Influence of extracapsular nodal spread extent on prognosis of oral squamous cell carcinoma. Head Neck. 2016 Apr;38 Suppl 1(Suppl 1):E1192-9. doi: 10.1002/hed.24190. Epub 2015 Oct 30. PMID: 26514096; PMCID: PMC4996672
- 38. Amin MB, Greene FL, Edge SB, Compton CC, Gershenwald JE, Brookland RK, Meyer L, Gress DM, Byrd DR, Winchester DP. The Eighth Edition AJCC Cancer Staging Manual: Continuing to build a bridge from a population-based to a more "personalized" approach to cancer staging. CA Cancer J Clin. 2017 Mar;67(2):93-99. doi: 10.3322/caac.21388. Epub 2017 Jan 17. PMID: 28094848
- Ang KK, Sturgis EM. Human papillomavirus as a marker of the natural history and response to therapy of head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. Seminars

in Radiation Oncology. 2012 Apr;22(2):128-142. DOI: 10.1016/j.semradonc.2011.12.004. PMID: 22385920

- 40. O'Sullivan B, Huang SH, Su J, Garden AS, Sturgis EM, Dahlstrom K, Lee N, Riaz N, Pei X, Koyfman SA, Adelstein D, Burkey BB, Friborg J, Kristensen CA, Gothelf AB, Hoebers F, Kremer B, Speel EJ, Bowles DW, Raben D, Karam SD, Yu E, Xu W. Development and validation of a staging system for HPV-related oropharyngeal cancer by the International Collaboration on Oropharyngeal cancer Network for Staging (ICON-S): a multicentre cohort study. Lancet Oncol. 2016 Apr;17(4):440-451. doi: 10.1016/S1470-2045-(15)00560-4. Epub 2016 Feb 27. PMID: 26936027
- 41. Ng WT, Lee AW, Kan WK, Chan J, Pang ES, Yau TK, Lau KY. N-staging by magnetic resonance imaging for patients with nasopharyngeal carcinoma: pattern of nodal involvement by radiological levels. Ra-

diother Oncol. 2007 Jan;82(1):70-5. doi: 10.1016/j. radonc.2006.11.010. Epub 2006 Dec 12. PMID: 17166610

- Ho FC, Tham IW, Earnest A, Lee KM, Lu JJ. Patterns of regional lymph node metastasis of nasopharyngeal carcinoma: a meta-analysis of clinical evidence. BMC Cancer. 2012 Mar 21;12:98. doi: 10.1186/1471-2407-12-98. PMID: 22433671; PMCID: PMC3353248
- 43. International Agency for Research on Cancer, Cancer today – Data visualization tools for exploring the global cancer burden in 2020, Copyright 2022, available at http://gco.iarc.fr/today, and accessed in January 2023
- Hotnog CM, Mihaila M, Puiu L, Botezatu A, Roman V, Popescu ID, Bostan M, Brasoveanu LI. Modulation of the interplay between p53, ICAM-1 and VEGF in drugtreated LoVo colon cancer cells. Rom Biotechnol Lett. 2019;24(2): 261-270. doi: 10.25083/rbl/24.2/261.270