



CODEN [USA]: IAJ PBB

ISSN: 2349-7750

# INDO AMERICAN JOURNAL OF PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES

<http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3635861>
Available online at: <http://www.iajps.com>

Research Article

## A MULTICENTER STUDY ON THE PREVALENCE AND PREVENTION OF ORAL CANCER

<sup>1</sup>Mehak ali naqvi, <sup>2</sup>Zeresh Yaqoob, <sup>3</sup>Iqra naeem.<sup>1</sup>Dental section, Allied hospital Faisalabad. <sup>2</sup>Dental section, Allied hospital Faisalabad. <sup>3</sup>Dental section, Allied hospital Faisalabad.

Article Received: December 2019 Accepted: January 2020 Published: February 2020

**Abstract:****Background:** To find out the incidence of science and cellular features of mouth cancer patients.**Material and Method:** Oral cancer cases diagnosed from 2018 to 2019, their biopsy records of the participated institution were reviewed. Site of lesions and analytical data were collected. Mandible and maxilla, palate, buccal/labial mucosa, alveolar mucosa, floor of the mouth, lip, tongue, were the subdivision of the site of lesions. Seven categories of oral cancer are: Salivary gland tumors, epithelial tumors, Hematologic tumors, Bone tumors, Odontogenic tumors and mesenchymal tumors. SPSS SOFTWARE and descriptive statistics were used for analyzing data.**Results:** Of the 474,850 assumed cases, 6150 cases [1.29%] were diagnosed with oral cancer.  $58.36 \pm 15.76$  years was the mean age of the patients. A total of 4236 cases [68.80%] were diagnosed in males, whereas 1910 cases [31.06%] were diagnosed in females. The male to female ratio was 2.23:1. Alveolar mucosa, palate, gingiva, labial/buccal mucosa, are the sites of prepossession for oral cancer. In descending order of frequency the three most common oral cancer were Squamous cell carcinoma, non-Hodgkin lymphoma and mucoepidermoid carcinoma.**Conclusion:** As compared to other, the prevalence of oral cancer is not high as compared to other entities, when discovered late in the course of disease, oral cancer pose significant mortality and morbidity in the patients. Anatomical locations where oral cancer are frequently encountered, are highlighted by this study. In the high prevalence area, clinicians should pay an attention to not only teeth but oral mucosa. The chance of patients being cured and great reduction in the mortality and morbidity increases when there is early detections of precancerous lesions in the early stage. Difference between pediatric and elderly oral cancer patients as well as between Asian and non-Asian oral cancer patients are also showed by this study.**Key Words:** Prevalence, oral cancer, clinic-pathologic features and retrospective study.**Corresponding author:****Mehak ali naqvi,**

Dental section, Allied hospital Faisalabad

QR code



Please cite this article in press Mehak ali naqvi et al., A Multicenter Study On The Prevalence And Prevention Of Oral Cancer ., Indo Am. J. P. Sci, 2020; 07(02).

**INTRODUCTION:**

Sixth most common malignancy worldwide is oral cancer. Four hundred thousand patients (3.1% of the total cancer cases) were affiliated with cancer of lip and oral cavity in 2014. By the cancer of oral cavity and lip, two-hundred-thousand patients passed away. The principle factors for the development of oral cancer are tobacco and alcohol consumptions. Different other factors such as viral infections, malnutrition, low fruits and vegetable diets, genetic factors are also susceptible causes of oral cancer. Tobacco use and alcohol abuse which have synergistic effect are the most important risk factors for squamous cell carcinoma. According to international agency for research on cancer, cigarette smoke contains 80 carcinogens. In experimental animals, factors that have been demonstrated to cause cancer are, Tobacco specific N-nitrosamines specially 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone (NNK) and N'-nitrosonornicotine (NNN). Cytochromes P450 to DNA-reactive metabolites which induce methylation as well as pyridyloxobutylation of nucleobases in DNA and from DNA adducts are the metabolically activating factors for NNK. Major pathways that lead to the formation of DNA adducts are 2'- and 5'-  $\alpha$  hydroxylation pathways. Deleterious mutations in oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes can be induced by resulting DNA adducts, which could be considered as tumor initiation. Increased risk for oral cancer is associated with the use of betel quads containing areca nut and lime, in the Indian subcontinent, some parts of Southeast Asia and Taiwan. Independent risk factor for development of cancer in the dose dependent manner is alcohol consumption, as shown in the previous study. By alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) alcohol is first oxidized to acetaldehyde. According to International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC), acetaldehyde is considered as group 1 carcinogen. By aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH), acetaldehyde is further metabolized to acetate. Carcinogenesis by alcohol may be influenced by any defect in these enzymes (ADH and ALDH). Basal cell proliferation and generates free radical can be induced by alcohol, which have the deleterious effects on DNA. Further carcinogenesis may be promoted by alcohol associated impairment of the body's ability to breakdown and absorb nutrients.

Human papilloma virus has recently received special attention, apart from tobacco use and alcohol abuse. Etiological agent for the development of subset of squamous cell carcinoma, is Human papilloma virus. Proportion of HPV- positive oropharyngeal cancer was 55% in North America, 51% in Japan, 44% in Australia, 33% in Northern and Western Europe, 36% in Eastern Europe, 16% in southern Europe and 12% in rest of the world.

Prevalence of oral cancer in different regions of the world or even within the same countries from the minorities or sub-populations, has wide variation. To report the prevalence as well as clinicopathologic features of the oral cancer patients from different parts of Asia and Canada and to compare them with patients from other parts of the world was the main aim of this research.

Less expensive treatment, less morbidity and a greater probability of surviving can be achieved when the cancer is identified early. Furthermore cancer is more likely to respond to effective treatment when it is identified at an early stage. Three steps of early diagnosis that must be integrated in a timely manner:

1. Awareness and accessing care
2. Diagnosis, staging and clinical evaluation
3. Easy access to treatment.

Curative treatment may no longer be an option, in absence of early diagnosis. Educational programs and cancer awareness aids in helping adult learners or secondary school students to reduce the risk of cancer. By engaging students with its age appropriate, interactive and informative material, the program makes cancer less frightening. UN organisations within the UN interagency task force collaborate with WHO and IARC on the prevention and control of noncommunicable disease and partners to:

1. Research are conducted on the causes of human cancer and the mechanism on carcinogenesis.
2. Cancer burden is monitored.
3. Political commitment of cancer prevention and control is increased.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS:**

The oral cancer cases diagnosed from 2018 to 2019 were reviewed by biopsy records of the Department of Oral Pathology, Chulalongkorn University, Gangneung-Wonju national university and Kyungpook National university, Department of Oral biology and diagnostic sciences, Chiangmai University, Department of oral Diagnosis, Khonkean university, Department of Stomatology, Prince of Songkla University, Department of oral and Maxillofacial Pathology, Tehran university of Medical sciences, Department of Pathology and laboratory medicine, Western university and department of oral pathology and oral diagnosis, School of Dentistry, National Taiwan university. Sites of lesion and demographic data were also collected. Subdivision of Sites of lesion were: Lip, Tongue, floor of the mouth, alveolar mucosa, palate, gingiva, buccal mucosa, maxilla and mandible. Subdivision of oral cancer into 7 categories was: Salivary gland tumors, Hematologic tumors, Bone tumors, Mesenchymal tumors,



most common site was alveolar mucosa followed by floor of the mouth and lip respectively.

Epithelial tumor category consist of Salivary gland tumor category ( 410 cases ,6.67%), Mesenchymal tumor category( 74 cases,1.20%), others category(58 cases, 0.94%) ,hematologic tumor category(272 cases ,4.45%), bone tumor category (77 cases, 1.28%) from most of the oral cancer (5235 cases,85.08%) respectively (Table 2, Table 2 continue) and odontogenic tumor category(21 cases,0.34%). According to ranking, the most common oral cancer category in all countries is epithelial tumor category, while almost in all countries except Canada, Salivary gland tumor is ranked second and in most countries except Canada, third most common category was hematologic tumor category. Hematologic tumor category followed by salivary gland tumor category was second most common oral cancer in Canada .Squamous cell carcinoma which constituted 95.09% of all epithelial tumor and 80.06% of all oral cancer cases was the most common oral cancer. Lymphoma which accounted for 86.92% of the hematologic tumors and 3.88% of all oral cancer cases was second most prevalent oral cancer. Mucoepidermoid carcinoma which constituted 46.26% of all salivary gland tumors and 3.03% of all oral cancer cases was third most prevalent oral cancer cases. The most common tumor constituting 40.28% of the cases in this group, followed by mucoepidermoid carcinoma (16.43%) and

lymphoma (14.94%) respectively in pediatric patient was squamous cell carcinoma. The most universal tumor constituting 80.78% of the cases in the group, followed by verrucous carcinoma (5.43%) and lymphoma (5.28%) respectively in elder patient was squamous cell carcinoma. The most common oral cancer in both Asian (80.24%) and Non-Asian (73.47%) was squamous cell carcinoma. Verrucous carcinoma(3.38%) followed by lymphoma(3.35%), mucoepidermoid carcinoma (2.88%) and adenoid cystic carcinoma(1.86%) respectively was second most common oral cancer in Asian patients, while lymphoma(6.91%) followed by mucoepidermoid carcinoma (3.77%), verrucous carcinoma (3.67%) and adenoid cystic carcinoma(2.18%) respectively was second most universal oral cancer in Non-Asian patients. For both Asian and Non-Asian patient's items constituting the top five most universal oral cancer were exactly the same, but with different ranking .Metastatic tumors to the oral cavity which constituted 0.95% of the oral cancer were 59 cases. Patients mean age,  $\pm$ SD was  $61.32 \pm 16.34$  years. Ratio of Male-to-Female was 1.53:2. The mandible followed by gingiva were the sites of predilection for metastatic tumors. Primary sites for the metastatic tumors to the oral cavity in the present study were lung, thyroid gland, breast, kidney liver, colon, pancreas, bile duct but thyroid gland and the lung were the most common ones.

**Table 2: Histopathologic diagnosis of oral cancer patients.**

TUMORS	Canada	Iran	South Korea	Taiwan	Thailand	Total Number (percent of all cancer cases)
<b>Epithelial tumors</b>	<b>769</b>	<b>145</b>	<b>344</b>	<b>2942</b>	<b>1035</b>	<b>5235(85.08%)</b>
Squamous cell carcinoma	712	130	329	2789	963	4923(80.06%)
Verrucous carcinoma	36	5	8	124	37	210(3.42%)
Metastatic carcinoma	12	2	4	17	22	57(0.93%)
Undifferentiated carcinoma	7	7	1	5	5	25(0.38%)
Others	2	1	2	7	7	19(0.28%)
<b>Salivary gland tumors</b>	<b>94</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>157</b>	<b>410(6.67%)</b>
Mucoepidermoid carcinoma	34	6	21	39	81	181(3.00%)
Adenoid cystic carcinoma	20	4	17	26	47	114(1.89%)
Polymorphous low-grade adenocarcinoma	19	1	3	6	7	36(0.56%)
Adenocarcinoma NOS	7	1	5	8	12	33(0.53%)
Carcinoma ex pleomorphic adenoma	1	3	2	1	4	11(0.17%)
Others	13	2	2	12	6	35(0.56%)
<b>Hematologic tumors</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>116</b>	<b>272(4.45%)</b>
Lymphoma	65	2	23	46	103	239(3.92%)
Myeloma	6	1	0	6	10	23(0.46%)
Leukemia	1	0	0	2	2	5(0.08%)
Myeloid sarcoma	1	1	0	2	1	3(0.08%)
<b>Bone tumors</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>77(1.28%)</b>
Osteosarcoma	2	2	10	11	28	53(0.95%)
Chondrosarcoma	1	2	3	1	7	14(0.23%)
Ewing's sarcoma	2	1	1	1	5	10(0.15%)

**Table 2 continue**  
**Histopathologic diagnosis of oral cancer patients**

Tumors	Canada	Iran	South Korea	Taiwan	Thailand	Total number(percent of all cancer cases)
<b>Mesenchymal tumors</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>74(1.20%)</b>
Fibrosarcoma	3	1	3	3	5	15(0.25%)
Spindle cell sarcoma	1	3	2	0	3	9(0.15%)
Kaposi's sarcoma	0	0	1	2	3	6(0.12%)
Post-radiation sarcoma	0	0	0	3	0	3(0.03%)
Leiomyosarcoma	0	0	0	6	4	10(0.08%)
Malignant fibrous histiocytoma	0	0	5	3	0	8(0.13%)
Rhabdomyosarcoma	0	0	2	0	3	5(0.08%)
Others	1	0	2	4	4	11(0.20%)
<b>Odontogenic tumors</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>21(0.34%)</b>
Clear cell odontogenic carcinoma	0	0	0	0	6	<b>6(0.10%)</b>
Ameloblastic carcinoma						
Primary intraosseous carcinoma	1	1	0	0	1	<b>3(0.05%)</b>
Odontogenic ghost cell carcinoma	0	0	1	1	2	<b>4(0.06%)</b>
Ameloblastic fibrosarcoma						
	1	0	0	0	1	<b>2(0.03%)</b>
	0	1	0	0	2	<b>3(0.05%)</b>
	0	1	0	0	1	<b>1(0.02%)</b>
<b>Others</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>58(0.94%)</b>
Melanoma	4	4	13	6	10	37(0.60%)
Others	2	4	1	6	8	21(0.32%)

### CONCLUSIONS:

Oral cancer poses significant mortality and morbidity in the patients when discovered late in the course of the disease although prevalence of oral cancer is not high as compared to other items. Anatomical location is highlighted where oral cancers are frequently encountered in this study. Clinicians should pay attention to not only teeth but oral mucosa especially in the high prevalence area as well since early detection of precancerous lesions or cancers in early stage thr chance of patient being cured and greatly reduce mortality and morbidity. Some difference between pediatric and elderly oral cancer patients as well as between Asian and non asain oral cancer patients is shown in this study. Through an integrated approach the World Health Organization passed the resolution for cancer prevention and control and to achieve the targets specified in the global action plan to reduce

premature mortality of cancers for sustainable development.

### REFERENCES:

1. Warnakulasuriya S. Causes of oral cancer – An appraisal of controversies. Br Dent J. 2009;207:471–5. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
2. Ferlay J, Soerjomataram I, Dikshit R, Eser S, Mathers C, Rebelo M. Cancer incidence and mortality worldwide: sources, methods and major patterns in GLOBOCAN 2012. Int J Cancer. 2018;136:E359–86. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]
3. Mehanna H, Paleri V, West CM, Nutting C. Head and neck cancer-part1: epidemiology, presentation, and preservation. Clin Otolaryngol. 2011;36:65–8. [PubMed] [Google Scholar]



4. Perry BJ, Zammit AP, Lewandowski AW, Bashford JJ, Dragovic AS, Perry EJ. Sites of origin of oral cavity cancer in nonsmokers vs smokers: possible evidence of dental trauma carcinogenesis and its importance compared with human papillomavirus. *JAMA Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2018;141:5–11. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
5. Pelucchi C, Gallus S, Garavello W, Bosetti C, La Vecchia C. Cancer risk associated with alcohol and tobacco use: focus on upper aero-digestive tract and liver. *Alcohol Res Health.* 2006;29:193–8. [[PMC free article](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
6. Marttila E, Uittamo J, Rusanen P, Lindqvist C, Salaspuro M, Rautemaa R. Acetaldehyde production and microbial colonization in oral squamous cell carcinoma and oral lichenoid disease. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol.* 2013;116:61–8. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
7. Feller L, Chandran R, Khammissa RA, Meyerov R, Lemmer J. Alcohol and oral squamous cell carcinoma. *SADJ.* 2013;68:176–80. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
8. Pfeifer GP, Denissenko MF, Olivier M, Tretyakova N, Hecht SS, Hainaut P. Tobacco smoke carcinogens, DNA damage and p53 mutations in smoking-associated cancers. *Oncogene.* 2002;21:7435–51. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
9. Xue J, Yang S, Seng S. Mechanisms of Cancer Induction by Tobacco-Specific NNK and NNN. *Cancers (Basel)* 2014;6:1138–56. [[PMC free article](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
10. Hecht SS. DNA adduct formation from tobacco-specific N-nitrosamines. *Mutat Res.* 1999;424:127–42. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
11. Goldstein BY, Chang SC, Hashibe M, La Vecchia C, Zhang ZF. Alcohol consumption and cancers of the oral cavity and pharynx from 1988 to 2009: an update. *Eur J Cancer Prev.* 2010;19:431–65. [[PMC free article](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
12. Scully C. Oral cancer aetiopathogenesis; past, present and future aspects. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal.* 2011;16:e306–11. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
13. D' Souza G, Kreimer AR, Viscidi R, Pawlita M, Fakhry C, Koch WM. Case-control study of human papillomavirus and oropharyngeal cancer. *N Engl J Med.* 2007;356:1944–56. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
14. Chaturvedi AK, Engels EA, Anderson WF, Gillison ML. Incidence trends for human papillomavirus-related and -unrelated oral squamous cell carcinomas in the United States. *J Clin Oncol.* 2008;26:612–9. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
15. Gillison ML, Castellsagué X, Chaturvedi A, Goodman MT, Snijders P, Tommasino M. Eurogin Roadmap: comparative epidemiology of HPV infection and associated cancers of the head and neck and cervix. *Int J Cancer.* 2014;134:497–507. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
16. Do LG, Spencer AJ, Dost F, Farah CS. Oral mucosal lesions: Findings from the Australian National Survey of Adult Oral Health. *Aust Dent J.* 2014;59:114–20. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
17. Dhanuthai K, Rojanawatsirivej S, Subarnbhesaj A, Thosaporn W, Kintarak S. A multicenter study of oral malignant tumors from Thailand. *J Oral Maxillofac Pathol.* 2019;20:462–6. [[PMC free article](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
18. BenNasir E, El Mistiri M, McGowan R, Katz RV. Oral cancer in Libya and development of regional oral cancer registries: A review. *Saudi Dent J.* 2018;27:171–9. [[PMC free article](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
19. Subhashraj K, Orafi M, Nair KV, El-Gehani R, Elarbi M. Primary malignant tumors of orofacial region at Benghazi, Libya: A 17 years review. *Cancer Epidemiol.* 2009;33:332–6. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
20. Anis R, Gaballah K. Oral cancer in the UAE: A multicenter, retrospective study. *Libyan J Med.* 2013;8:21782. [[PMC free article](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
21. Ajayi OF, Adeyemo WL, Ladeinde AL, Ogunlewe MO, Effiom OA, Omitola OG. Primary malignant neoplasms of orofacial origin: A retrospective review of 256 cases in a Nigerian tertiary hospital. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg.* 2007;36:403–8. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
22. Chidzonga MM. Oral malignant neoplasia: A survey of 428 cases in two Zimbabwean hospitals. *Oral Oncol.* 2006;42:177–83. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
23. Sargeran K, Murtomaa H, Safavi SM, Vehkalahti M, Teronen O. Malignant oral tumors in Iran: Ten-year analysis on patient and tumor characteristics of 1042 patients in Tehran. *J Craniofac Surg.* 2006;17:1230–3. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
24. Khan AR, Anwar N, Manan AH, Narayan KA. Case series analysis of oral cancer and their risk factors. *Malaysia Dent J.* 2008;29:46–50. [[Google Scholar](#)]
25. Rawashdeh MA, Matalaka I. Malignant oral tumors in Jordanians, 1991-2001. A descriptive epidemiological study. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg.* 2004;33:183–8. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
26. Ariyoshi Y, Shimahara M, Omura K, Yamamoto E, Mizuki H, Chiba H. Epidemiological study of malignant tumors in the oral and

- maxillofacial region: Survey of member institutions of the Japanese Society of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgeons, 2002. *Int J Clin Oncol*. 2008;13:220–8. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
27. Singh MP, Kumar V, Agarwal A, Kumar R, Bhatt MLB, Misra S. Clinico-epidemiological study of oral squamous cell carcinoma: A tertiary care centre study in North India. *J Oral Biol Craniofac Res*. 2019;6:31–4. [[PMC free article](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
  28. Shenoi R, Devrukhkar V, Chaudhuri, Sharma B K, Sapre S B, Chikhale A. Demographic and clinical profile of oral squamous cell carcinoma patients: A retrospective study. *Indian J Cancer*. 2012;49:21–6. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
  29. Howell RE, Wright BA, Dewar R. Trends in the incidence of oral cancer in Nova Scotia from 1983 to 1997. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*. 2003;95:205–12. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
  30. Brandizzi D, Gandolfo M, Velazco ML, Cabrini RL, Lanfranchi HE. Clinical features and evolution of oral cancer: A study of 274 cases in Buenos Aires, Argentina. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal*. 2008;13:E544–8. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
  31. Fierro-Garibay C, Almendros-Marques N, Berini-Aytes L, Gay-Escoda C. Prevalence of biopsied oral lesions in a department of oral surgery. *J Clin Exp Dent*. 2011;3:e73–7. [[Google Scholar](#)]
  32. Bhattacharjee A, Chakraborty A, Purkaystha P. Prevalence of head and neck cancers in the north east-an institutional study. *Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2006;58:15–9. [[PMC free article](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
  33. Kruaysawat W, Aekplakorn W, Chapman RS. Survival time and prognostic factors of oral cancer in Ubon Ratchathani Cancer Center. *J Med Assoc Thai*. 2010;93:278–84. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
  34. Maleki D, Ghojzadeh M, Mahmoudi SS, Mahmoudi SM, Pournaghi-Azar F, Torab A. Epidemiology of Oral Cancer in Iran: a Systematic Review. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev*. 2018;16:5427–32. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
  35. Johnson NW. Orofacial neoplasms: Global epidemiology, risk factors and recommendations for research. *Int Dent J*. 1991;41:365–75. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]
  36. Sugerman PB, Savage NW. Oral cancer in Australia: 1983-1996. *Aust Dent J*. 2002;47:45–56. [[PubMed](#)] [[Google Scholar](#)]