

Excision of submandibular gland during neck dissection in case of Oral squamous cell carcinoma –Critical Review

¹Shaikh Amjad, PhD scholar, Dept of oral and maxillofacial Surgery, Datta Meghe Institute of Medical Sciences, Deemed to be University, Wardha, Maharashtra

²Rajiv M. Borle, Prof and Hon. Vice Chancellor, Datta Meghe Institute of Medical Sciences, Deemed to be University, Wardha, Maharashtra

³Nitin Bhola, Prof and Head, Dept of Oral and Maxillofacial surgery, Datta Meghe Institute of Medical Sciences, Deemed to be University, Wardha, Maharashtra

Corresponding Author: Shaikh Amjad, PhD scholar, Dept of oral and maxillofacial Surgery, Datta Meghe Institute of Medical Sciences, Deemed to be University, Wardha, Maharashtra.

Citation of this Article: Shaikh Amjad, Rajiv M. Borle, Nitin Bhola, “Excision of submandibular gland during neck dissection in case of Oral squamous cell carcinoma –Critical Review”, IJDSIR- February - 2020, Vol. – 3, Issue -1, P. No. 93 – 99.

Copyright: © 2020, Shaikh Amjad, et al. This is an open access journal and article distributed under the terms of the creative commons attribution noncommercial License. Which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

Type of Publication: Review Article

Conflicts of Interest: Nil

Introduction

Neck dissection has proved to be an essential and central procedure in the treatment of head and neck cancer. Paramount among the challenges and controversies facing the head and neck surgeon is the proper treatment of the neck i.e. Neck Dissection, in the cases of Head and Neck malignancy. Neck Dissection is a procedure that is designed to remove metastatic cancer involving the cervical lymph nodes. The first conceptual approach for removing nodal metastasis was made by Kocher;^[1] he described the removal of the lymph nodes located within the contents of the submandibular triangle for gaining access to carcinoma tongue. Radical neck dissection involving the en bloc removal of lymph nodes and surrounding soft tissue structures popularized by Crile^[2] and Martin^[3] was the dominant surgical procedure for

removing suspected or obvious metastasis to the cervical lymph nodes for much of the twentieth century.

Recent trends toward cosmetic and functional preservation have resulted in the development of more conservative treatment strategies. Treatment often involves surgical excision of the affected area followed by radiation therapy. Radiotherapy treatment of the head and neck has significant associated morbidity, out of which xerostomia is a common complication. Post radiotherapy xerostomia was first described by the French radiobiologist Jean Bergonie.^[4] Murdoch-Kinch et al.^[5] reported that submandibular gland salivary function decreases significantly after a mean dose of >40 Gy of radiation exposure. As the submandibular glands are responsible for a significant amount of the basal salivary flow.^[6]

Squamous cell carcinoma of the oral cavity is one of the most common tumors of the head and neck region.^[7] Current surgical treatment includes wide surgical excision of the primary lesion with appropriate neck dissection. Neck metastases are most frequently observed in levels I-II-III, but rarely in level-IV.^[8] The submandibular glands are located in level-1b where rich lymphatic tissues surround them. Lymphatic metastases are common to this area, especially in floor of mouth (FOM) and tongue cancers. According to Rouviere, there are 5 lymph node groups in this region: preglangular, prevascular, retrovascular, retroglangular and intracapsular.^[8] DiNardo added the "deep submandibular node" to this group.^[9] Among these, the perivascular nodes (comprising prevascular and retrovascular nodes) are the most important because they are the primary afferent draining nodes of the oral cavity. Perivascular node involvement in FOM and tongue cancers is seen in about 5-7% of cases.^[10]

Although tumor metastasis to the gland is uncommon, SMGs are frequently excised as a part of neck dissection because of their proximity to the primary lesion and afferent lymph nodes. However, the SMG is not a tissue without function; it secretes the majority of unstimulated saliva, especially during the night.^[11] Saliva has many functions such as lubrication, buffering, immune defence, tooth enamel remineralisation and aiding mastication. Excision of submandibular glands may lead to xerostomia, which causes serious discomfort and a variety of problems in the oral cavity. Preservation of at least one gland will prevent these complications^[12]; however, there is no consensus about the preservation of the submandibular glands in oral cavity tumours.^[13]

Refinements in Selective Neck Dissection Nomenclature

Although it is well appreciated that patients with oral tongue cancer have a high risk of nodal involvement even for those with small primary lesions without clinical evidence of positive nodes, the extent by which the risk remains high for each neck level is controversial. Skip metastases to level IV may be a potential problem, and many surgeons prefer to include this region when performing an elective selective neck dissection.^[14] However, the terminology to describe the neck dissection procedure for this situation is vague. Some prefer to apply the term *supraomohyoid neck dissection* because this is the standard elective procedure typically used for oral tongue cancer. But this is inaccurate because supraomohyoid neck dissection was intended to include only levels I through III. Others prefer to use the term *extended supraomohyoid neck dissection* or *anterolateral neck dissection*, which more accurately outlines the removal of levels I through IV. Unfortunately, acceptance of these additional terms adds complexity to the nomenclature system and runs the risk of adding confusion.^[15]

The 1991 neck dissection classification system did not provide an accurate description of procedures in which the surgeon chooses to preserve certain sublevels. For example, the buccinator nodes may represent the primary echelon nodal basin for oral cavity cancers involving the buccal mucosal, hard palate, and upper alveolar ridge. These nodes are not included in the standard supraomohyoid neck dissection, and a better method is needed to define the inclusion of such structures.^[16] To not further confuse this issue, it was determined by the committee that exclusion of these "named" neck dissections would facilitate the standardization and referencing of these procedures. Therefore, further in this text, we will no longer refer to these "named" selective

neck dissections except in the description of specific levels.^[17]

Selective Neck Dissection (SND) for Oral Cavity Cancer

In the treatment of oral cavity cancer, the procedure of choice is SND (I-III). This refers to the removal of lymph nodes contained in the submental and submandibular triangles (level I), the upper jugular lymph nodes (level II), and the middle jugular lymph nodes (level III). The cutaneous branches of the cervical plexus and the posterior border of the SCM mark the posterior limit of the dissection. The inferior limit is the junction between the superior belly of the omohyoid muscle and the internal jugular vein. One of the justifications to eliminate naming of dissections for oral cavity cancer comes from the observations regarding invasive oral tongue carcinomas. In the case of oral tongue cancer, there is evidence indicating level IV is also at risk. Thus, some authorities recommend the selective neck dissection procedure for this subsite within the oral cavity to be SND (I-IV). For cancers involving the midline structures including the floor of mouth and ventral tongue, the lymph nodes on both sides of the neck are at risk and the procedure of choice is a bilateral SND (I-III).^[18]

Anneroth et al (1987)

They also use Jakobsson et al. system for application to squamous cell carcinoma in the tongue and floor of mouth. One of the parameters, “vascular invasion” was omitted. Statistical analysis revealed that the reproducibility of the system was good for all morphologic variables. Mean total malignancy, tumor population and tumor-host relationship scores showed statistically significant correlation with mean rating for all the different morphologic parameters with certain

specified exceptions. The clinical validity of this system was tested in a comprehensive study was tested in 89 patient of squamous cell carcinoma in the floor of mouth.

A statically significant correlation was found between mean total malignancy scores and clinical staging, frequency of recurrence, and death from first oral primary carcinoma.^[19]

Bryne’s (1989, 1992) (ITF) Invasive Tumor Front Grading System

Bryne M. (1998) presented a hypothesis suggesting that molecular and morphological characteristics at the invasive front area of various squamous cell carcinomas may reflect tumor prognosis better than other parts of the tumor. He further states that several molecular events of importance for tumor spread like gains and losses of adhesion molecules, secretion of proteolytic enzymes, increased cell proliferation and initiation of angiogenesis occur at the tumor host interface; consequently, they have developed a simple morphological malignancy grading system that restricts the evaluation to the deep invasive front of the tumor. Several studies have shown that this system is a significantly better predictor of prognosis. All studies performed so far show that invasive front grading is a valuable supplement to clinical staging, suggesting that it should be introduced into the clinic.^[20]

Current

The submandibular gland, which, unlike the parotid, does not contain lymph nodes, is rarely involved in early stage (stages I–II) oral cavity cancers. Any involvement would be by direct invasion; thus, the gland can be preserved in selective neck dissections in its absence.^[21] However, it is important to remove all the submandibular lymph nodes, which are the first echelon lymph nodes of oral cavity, when preserving the submandibular gland to avoid a neck recurrence. This is sometimes difficult to perform without

removal of the gland, especially when nodal disease is located medial to the mylohyoid muscle or subjacent to the jaw in the posterior aspect of the sub-mandibular triangle.^[22]

Projection

Among the OCSCC series, only one case of bilateral SMG involvement was seen.^[23] There was no bilateral SMG involvement in other study. It is not rational to excise both glands for an OCSCC. The authors other study strongly recommended preserving at least one SMG in light of this data. There is no data about the prognostic significance of SMG involvement in OCSCC. Clark investigated sublingual gland invasion in oral cavity cancers and did not find any differences in disease-specific survival (DSS), loco regional control or distant metastasis rates.^[24]

Decisions regarding the excision of SMGs must be entirely based on the proximity of the primary tumour to the gland.^[25] As seen in other study, in early stages and except for FOM tumours, involvement of the SMG in oral cavity tumours is very rare.^[26] Because the gland has a unique structure and because its capsule displays resistance against tumour invasion, oncologically, it is enough to dissect only the capsule of the gland with the surrounding lymph nodes. It is better to strive to preserve the glands unless there are adherent pathologic lymph nodes or very close metastatic or primary tumors.^[27] Instead of preoperative planned gland resection, the decision to excise the SMG must be determined during the operation with the help of inspection and frozen sections. One must take into account that xerostomia is a very important complication that may decrease the quality of life and lead to cessation of treatment. Surgeons should try to modify and develop techniques to protect SMGs in the treatment of oral cavity tumours. More research is warranted to investigate the effects of SMG preservation on survival and loco regional control of disease.^[28]

Future

Improved understanding of the biology of metastatic spread of head and neck cancer has allowed modifications in the surgical management of cervical lymph nodes to reduce morbidity without compromising regional control or survival. Concurrent with this growth in surgical options, we advocate, preservation of submandibular glands can be a good technique for reducing future complications in a patient undergoing Neck Dissection wherever feasible. Therefore, if there is no need to expose large oral cavity tumors through the submandibular triangle, or when there is no direct extension of the primary and/or regional lymph nodes into the submandibular gland, it may be safe to preserve the submandibular gland and although regular follow up is required so as to comment on the oncological safety of the procedure. This observation can be adopted as a routine step to help patient in better rehabilitation and preventing xerostomia related complications when giving radiation therapy in future.^[29]

Future research direction

Advances in the management of submandibular gland carcinoma studies stress the need towards molecular targeted therapy of the unusual subpopulation of tumorigenic cancer cells which could arrest the recurrence and metastasis of the tumor. In this direction, the cancer stem cell research needs to be further explored in the submandibular gland carcinoma.^[30]

Recently a non-invasive, academic prototype chair side cancer diagnostic kit (GC America Inc.) has been devised by Wong DT for the early detection of carcinoma.^[31] Newer field like Proteomics helps in the analysis of the salivary proteins which is extensively used in identification of a specific protein biomarker in saliva for diseases including oral cancer, periodontal disease and mammary gland carcinoma. Using Point-of-care salivary

diagnostic screening tests kit. It is possible to detect viruses in viral infectious diseases such as human papillomavirus (HPV), HCV and HIV.^[32]

Further advancements are now being focused at “Omic technologies”, which include genomics, proteomics, transcriptomics, and metabolomics have already set their mark in life science research studies.^[33] These emerging technologies have shown to offer highly sensitive, specific, quick and affordable diagnostic test kits in future. In cancer therapeutics, Nano particles, such as, semiconductor quantum dots, biodegradable micelles, iron oxide nano-crystals^[34], are linked with bio targeting ligands, to aim at specific sites in malignant tumors, helpful in cancer therapeutics. Endothelin-1 is one of the probable salivary biomarkers for oral cancer has been reported for early cancer detection. Salivaomics, the future of saliva-based techniques for early diagnosis of dental diseases, is promising. However, further long-term studies are needed before these newer methods are adapted to routine clinical practice.^[35]

References

1. Kocher T. Ueber radicalheilung des krebse. Dtsch Z Chir. 1880;13:134.
2. Crile G. Excision of cancer of the head and neck. JAMA. 1906;47:1780–1786.
3. Martin H, Del Valle B, Ehrlich H et al. Neck dissection. Cancer 1951;4:441–499.
4. Bergonie J. Sur quelques formes de reactions precoces apres des irradiations. Arch Elect Med. 1911;19:241–245.
5. Murdoch-Kinch CA, Kim HM, Vineberg KA et al. Dose effect relationships for the submandibular salivary glands and implications for their sparing by intensity modulated radiotherapy. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys. 2008;72:373–382.
6. Jacob RF, Weber RS, King GE. Whole salivary flow rates following submandibular gland resection. Head Neck 1996;18:242–247.
7. Jemal A, Siegel R, Xu J, et al. Cancer statistics, 2010. CA Cancer J Clin 2010;60:277–300.
8. Rouviere H, Tobies MJ. Trans: Anatomy of the human lymphatic system. Ann Arbor, MI: Edwards Brothers; 1938; 86-8.
9. DiNardo LJ. Lymphatics of the submandibular space: an anatomic, clinical, and pathologic study with applications to floor-of-mouth carcinoma. Laryngoscope 1998;108:206-14.
10. Lim YC, Kim JW, Koh YW, et al. Perivascular-submandibular lymph node metastasis in squamous cell carcinoma of the tongue and floor of mouth. Eur J Surg Oncol 2004;30:692-8.
11. Jacob RF, Weber RS, King GE. Whole salivary flow rates following submandibular gland resection. Head Neck. 1996;18:242-7.
12. Jha N, Seikaly H, McGaw T, et al. Submandibular salivary gland transfer prevents radiation-induced xerostomia. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 2000;46:7-11.
13. Dünne AA, Folz BJ, Kuropkat C, et al. Extent of surgical intervention in case of N0 neck in head and neck cancer patients: an analysis of data collection of 39 hospitals. Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol 2004;261:295-303.
14. Som PM, Curtin HD, Mancuso AA. An imaging-based classification for the cervical nodes designed as an adjunct to recent clinically based nodal classifications. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 1999; 125:388-396.
15. Robbins KT. Integrating radiologic criteria into the classification of cervical lymph node disease. Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 1999;125:385-387.

16. Shah J, Strong E, Spiro R, Vikram B. Surgical grand rounds: neck dissection— current status and future possibilities. *Clin Bull.* 1981;11:25-33.
17. Robbins KT. Indications for selective neck dissection: when, how, and why. *Oncology.* 2000;14:1455-1469.
18. Byers RM, Weber RS, Andrews T, McGill D, Kare R, Wolf P. Frequency and therapeutic implications of “skip metastases” in the neck from squamous carcinoma of the oral tongue. *Head Neck.* 1997;19:14-19.
19. Anneroth G, Batsakis J, Luna M. Review of literature and recommended system of malignancy grading in oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Scand J Dent Res* 1984; 92:229-49.
20. Bryne M, Stromme H, Lilleng R, Stene T, Bang G, Dabelsteen E, Bryne M. New malignancy grading is a better prognostic indicator than Broder’s grading in oral squamous cell carcinoma. *J Oral Pathol Med.* 1989; 18: 432-7.
21. Okoturo EM, Trivedi NP, Kekatpure V, et al. A retrospective evaluation of submandibular gland involvement in oral cavity cancers: a case for gland preservation. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg.* 2012; 41:1383–1386.
22. Coskun HH, Medina JE, Robbins KT, et al. Current philosophy in the surgical management of neck metastases for head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Head Neck.* 2015;37(6):915–926.
23. Chen TC, Lo WC, Ko JY, et al. Rare involvement of submandibular gland by oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Head Neck.* 2009;31:877-81.
24. Clark JR, Franklin JH, Naranjo N, et al. Sublingual gland resection in squamous cell carcinoma of the floor of mouth: Is it necessary? *Laryngoscope* 2006;116:382-6.
25. Barzan L, Antonio J, Santini S, et al. Submandibular approach and use of the harmonic instrument in lateral oral cavity and oropharyngeal oncologic surgery. *Acta Otorhinolaryngol Ital.* 2010;30:277-80.
26. Manola M, Aversa C, Mosillo L, et al. Status of level II lymph nodes of the neck in squamous cell carcinoma of the oral tongue in patients who underwent modified radical neck dissection and lymph node sentinel biopsy. *Acta Otorhinolaryngol Ital* 2011;31:130-4.
27. Moretti A, Vitullo F, Augurio A, et al. Surgical management of lip cancer. *Acta Otorhinolaryngol Ital* 2011;31:5-10.
28. Takes RP, Robbins KT, Woolgar JA, et al. Questionable necessity to remove the submandibular gland in neck dissection. *Head Neck* 2011;33:743-5.
29. Agarwal G, Prakash S, Nagpure, Sushil S. Chavan. Questionable Necessity for Removing Submandibular Gland in Neck Dissection in Squamous Cell Carcinoma of Oral Cavity. *Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 2016;68(3):314–316.
30. Tang YL, Fan YL, Jiang J, Li KD, Zheng M, Chen W, Ma XR, Geng N, Chen QM, Chen Y, Liang XH. C-kit induces epithelial-mesenchymal transition and contributes to salivary adenoid cystic cancer progression. *Oncotarget* 2014; 5: 1491-1501.
31. Horgon RP, Kenny LC, SAC review: Omic technologies: genomics, transcriptomics, Proteomics and metabolomics. *TOG* 2011; 13: 189-195.
32. Corstjens PL, Abrams WR, Malamud D. Detecting viruses by using salivary diagnostics. *J Am Dent Assoc* 2012; 143: 12S-18S.
33. Milano A, Longo F, Basile M, Iaffaioli RV, Caponigro F. Recent advances in the treatment of salivary gland cancers: emphasis on molecular targeted therapy. *Oral Oncol* 2007; 43: 729-734.

34. Sreeja C, Shahela T, Aesha S, Satish MK. Taxonomy of salivary gland neoplasm. *J Clin Diagn Res* 2014; 8: 291-293.
35. Slomiany BL, Slomiany A. Suppression by Ghrelin of Porphyromonas gingivalis-Induced Constitutive Nitric Oxide Synthase S-Nitrosylation and Apoptosis in Salivary Gland Acinar Cells. *J Signal Transduct* 2010; 2010: 643-647.