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1 **Title:** The impact of clustering of oral symptoms in the pathogenesis of radiation caries:
2 A systematic review.

3
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19
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32 **Key words:** caries; cancer; radiotherapy; chemotherapy; xerostomia.

33
34 **Declaration of Interests:** The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

35 **Abstract**

36 Radiation-related caries (RRC) is a disease with a high potential for destruction of the
37 dentition, which impairs quality of life in head and neck cancer (HNC) patients who
38 undergo radiotherapy. In light of the recently described “clustering of oral symptoms
39 theory”, the present systematic review (PROSPERO CRD42019132709) aimed to
40 assess the Head and Neck (HN) and Gastrointestinal (GI) symptom clusters among
41 HNC patients and discusses how these indirect effects of cancer therapy have a pivotal
42 role in the pathophysiology of RRC. The search was performed at Pubmed, Scopus and
43 Embase and resulted in 11 studies that met the inclusion criteria. Data extraction was
44 performed regarding the presence of HN/GI symptom clusters among HNC patients.
45 The methodological data of the included studies was assessed using the MASTARI and
46 GRADE instruments. The most prevalent reported HN symptoms were dysphagia,
47 xerostomia and pain. Taste alterations and fatigue were also commonly reported by the
48 patients. Loss of appetite and weight loss was regularly reported by the studies, as well
49 as nausea and vomiting. The results of the present study suggest that HNC treatment
50 generates clusters of oral symptoms, leading to dietary changes, deficient oral hygiene,
51 enamel fragility and a highly cariogenic oral environment, which may impact the risk
52 for RRC. A better understanding of the clustering of oral symptoms could be of
53 considerable clinical significance for the oral health and quality of life of HNC patients.
54 Therefore, RRC contemporary protocols of prevention must take into account this
55 broader treatment scenario of cluster of oral side effects.

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68 **Introduction**

69 Radiation-related caries (RRC) is a chronic side effect of head and neck
70 radiotherapy (HNRT), and has a high potential for tooth destruction. Its causes are still
71 not fully understood and the ability of HNRT to cause direct radiogenic damage to the
72 dentition leading to RRC is a major topic for discussion in oral oncology [Lieshout &
73 Bots, 2014; Morais-Faria et al., 2014].

74 Recent publications have linked the elevated risk of the clinically aggressive
75 RRC in head and neck cancer (HNC) patients to the indirect effects of cancer therapies
76 [Santos-Silva et al., 2015; Sroussi et al., 2017], which were reinforced by increasing
77 evidence that “symptoms clusters” may have a pivotal role in several head and neck
78 chemoradiotherapy (CRT) toxicities [Xiao et al., 2013; Xiao et al., 2014]. The so-called
79 “clustering of oral symptoms” has been previously described and is composed of
80 concurrent mucositis, taste changes, oral infections, oral pain, trismus, hyposalivation,
81 altered saliva composition and shifts in the composition of the oral microbiota, which
82 lead to significant dietary changes, deficient oral hygiene and the development of a
83 highly cariogenic oral environment, working in synergy to increase the risk for RRC
84 development and progression [Ribeiro et al., 2013; Xiao et al, 2013; Xiao et al. 2014;
85 Santos-Silva, et al., 2015; Madrid et al., 2017; Gomes-Silva et al., 2017].

86 Therefore, the aim of this article is to present a systematic review of the recently
87 described “clustering of oral symptoms” [Xiao et al., 2013; Xiao et al., 2014] associated
88 with HNC treatment toxicities in an attempt to emphasize that RRC pathophysiology
89 may be inserted into a broader and multifactorial setting than has been previously
90 suggested.

91

92 **Material and Methods**

93 Study design

94 The present systematic review was conducted following the Guidelines of
95 Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis (PRISMA)
96 (Supplementary Table 1) [Moher et al., 2009] and was registered at the PROSPERO
97 platform CRD42019132709 (Palmier et al., 2019). The research question was: Is there a
98 specific clustering of oral symptoms associated with HNC treatment that could impact
99 the pathogenesis of radiation caries?

100 Studies that assessed the presence of treatment-related symptom clusters among
101 HNC patients were selected. The inclusion criteria followed the PICOS strategy:
102 Patients – HNC patients; Intervention – HNRT or CRT; Comparison – Head and neck
103 specific toxicities (HN) and gastrointestinal toxicities (GI); Outcomes – Presence and
104 cluster of symptoms from HNC treatment; Study design - clinical trials, descriptive and
105 observational studies.

106 Studies were excluded for one of the following reasons: (1) Non-HNC
107 symptoms; (2) Psychological/psychiatric disorders symptoms; (3) Respiratory system
108 symptoms (4) Cardiovascular symptoms, and (5) Other reasons such as studies
109 assessing molecular features of toxicities, studies assessing symptoms of other disorders
110 such as fibromyalgia, among others.

111 Electronic and systematic searches of scientific studies that assessed the
112 presence and cluster of symptoms from HNC treatment were conducted in April 2019
113 (Last update June 2019). English language restriction was applied, and there was no
114 restriction to publication year. Medline/PubMed
115 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed>), EMBASE (<https://www.embase.com/login>)
116 and Scopus (<https://www.scopus.com>) databases were screened. Related MeSH
117 (Medical subjects headings) as well as free-terms were combined on different search
118 strategies to find the articles. The process was repeated in each database to ensure that
119 any relevant result would not be missed during the identification phase. Two
120 combinations were performed at each database. Complete searching strategies are
121 presented in Supplementary Table 2. Additional searches were conducted by reading
122 reference lists from all selected studies to detect other potentially eligible reports that
123 could meet the inclusion criteria.

124

125 Study Selection and data collection

126 All titles were systematically organized in Microsoft Office Excel 2016
127 (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, Washington, USA). They were verified and counted
128 to exclude duplicated items. The articles were selected in two phases. In phase 1, 2
129 authors independently reviewed the titles and abstracts and selected those that
130 apparently met the inclusion criteria. In phase 2, the same authors read the full texts of
131 the selected articles at phase 1 and excluded those that did not meet the inclusion
132 criteria (Supplementary Table 3). Any disagreements in the first or second phases were

133 resolved by discussion and mutual agreement between the two authors. Studies were
134 classified into the following categories: duplicated, excluded by title, excluded by
135 abstract, excluded by methodology and included studies. In the end, reports assessed for
136 eligibility were downloaded from databases in full text version and they were read in
137 detail in PDF formatted files. Studies that omitted relevant methodological information
138 were also excluded from the current review.

139 The process for methodological data collection involved two investigators
140 (AFGV and NRP). Data were independently extracted by each investigator and then
141 compared; any disagreements were solved by discussion between the two investigators.
142 Methodological data extracted from selected studies were related to first author name,
143 year, country and journal of publication, type of study, number of patients, tumour
144 topography, stage of disease, cancer treatment, mean radiation dose, type of
145 radiotherapy, chemotherapy medications, chemotherapy cycles, treatment-related
146 toxicities, time of assessment, HN specific symptoms, GI and general symptoms,
147 toxicities assessment criteria and criteria for inclusion of toxicities in the Results
148 section. The presence of the reported symptoms per included manuscript was assessed.

149

150 Risk of bias within studies

151 Methodologically, the authors appraised all included studies according to a
152 checklist based in Meta-Analysis of Statistics Assessment and Review Instrument
153 (MAStARI) [The Joanna Briggs Institute, 2014]. The reviewers (AFGV and NRP)
154 independently answered nine questions for descriptive studies and eight questions for
155 Cross-sectional studies as Y for “yes,” N for “no,” U for “unclear,” and NA for “not
156 applicable” (Supplementary Table 4).

157 After that, the risk of bias was categorized as high when the study reached up to
158 49% of a “yes” score, moderate when the study reached 50–69% of a “yes” score, and
159 low when the study reached more than 70% of a “yes” score. Disagreements were
160 solved by discussion between the two authors.

161

162 Risk of Bias Across Studies

163 Quality of evidence and grading of recommendation was assessed by the
164 Grading of Recommendation, Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE)
165 instrument. The assessment was based on radiation-related symptoms clusters evaluated

166 by different study designs. The criteria included the number of studies, study design,
167 risk of bias, inconsistency, indirectness, imprecision, and other considerations such as
168 publication bias and confounding factors. Impact, certainty and importance were graded
169 based on the assessed criteria and the quality of evidence was characterized as high,
170 moderate, low, or very low for each outcome. The GRADE was assessed using tools
171 from the following website <http://gradepro.org>.

172

173 Data analysis

174 Primary outcome was to assess the presence of HN specific symptoms cluster.
175 Secondary outcome was to assess the presence of GI symptoms cluster. Tertiary
176 outcome was to assess the possible impact of symptoms cluster in the pathogenesis of
177 RRC. There was homogeneity in the research purpose among the studies but a great
178 variability in time of assessment of toxicities and criteria used for the assessment of
179 treatment-related toxicities. A detailed qualitative synthesis of the results was performed
180 considering the presence of patient-reported symptoms among the included studies.

181

182 Results

183 Study selection and characteristics

184 A flow diagram summarizing the selection process is shown in Figure 1. A total
185 of 4,611 studies were identified through the search strategies on three databases
186 (PubMed, Embase and Scopus). After the first review process, 1,682 studies were
187 excluded due to inter-database duplication. One study was added from the search on the
188 reference list of the included studies. The total of 2,919 studies were excluded because
189 they did not meet the inclusion criteria, resulting in 11 studies being eligible for the
190 review. **Table 1** shows the main methodological aspects from the 11 included studies.

191 Seven studies (63.6%) assessed patients with heterogeneous HN topographies
192 [Murphy et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2013; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Kirka and Kutluturkan,
193 2016; Barnhart et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018], two studies
194 (18.2%) assessed patients with oropharynx/larynx tumours [Haisfield-Wolfe et al.,
195 2012; Eraj et al., 2017] and two studies (18.2%) assessed patients with nasopharynx
196 tumours [Xiao et al., 2017; McDowell et al., 2018]. Eight studies (72.2%) reported
197 clarified information on patients' stage of disease, from which six (54.5%) assessed

198 patients with clinical stage of disease I to IV [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Rosenthal et
199 al., 2014; Kirka and Kutluturkan, 2016; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al., 2017; McDowell et
200 al., 2018] and two (18.2%) assessed patients with advanced clinical stage of disease
201 III/IV [Xiao et al., 2013; Chiang et al., 2018].

202 Information on treatment modalities were also retrieved from the included
203 studies: seven studies (63.6%) assessed patients treated with either RT or CRT protocols
204 [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al., 2017;
205 Barnhart et al., 2018; McDowell et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018], two studies (18.2%)
206 assessed patients submitted to RT [Kirka and Kutluturkan, 2016; Chiang et al., 2018]
207 and two studies (18.2%) assessed patients submitted to CRT protocols [Murphy et al.,
208 2010; Xiao et al., 2013]. Four studies (36.3%) reported the use of the Intensity
209 Modulated Radiation Therapy (IMRT) technique for radiation delivery [Rosenthal et al.,
210 2014; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al., 2017; McDowell et al., 2018], one study (7.1%)
211 reported the use of IMRT and the 3D Conformational Radiotherapy (3DRT) [Barnhart
212 et al., 2018] and one study (7.1%) compared the outcomes of the Accelerated
213 Fractionation Radiotherapy (AFR) and Standard Fractionation Radiotherapy (SFR)
214 [Xiao et al., 2013]. For the studies that assessed CRT protocols as treatment modality,
215 cisplatin was the main medication used [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2013;
216 Rosenthal et al., 2014; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al., 2017; McDowell et al., 2018].

217 Considering the treatment-related toxicity assessment, five studies (45.4%)
218 assessed patients both during RT and after RT completion [Murphy et al., 2010;
219 Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2013; Kirka and Kutluturkan, 2016; Barnhart
220 et al., 2018], three studies (27.3%) assessed patients after the conclusion of RT [Eraj et
221 al., 2017; McDowell et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018] and three studies (27.3%) assessed
222 patients during the course of RT [Rosenthal et al., 2014; Xiao et al., 2017; Chiang et al.,
223 2018]. For the classification of the observed toxicities, five studies (45.4%) used the M.
224 D. Anderson Symptom Inventory [Rosenthal et al., 2014; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al.,
225 2017; McDowell et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018], two studies (28.2%) used The
226 Memorial Symptom Assessment Scale [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Kirka and
227 Kutluturkan, 2016], one (9.1%) used the NCI Common Toxicity Criteria (CTC) 2.0
228 [Xiao et al., 2013], one (9.1%) used the Vanderbilt Head and Neck Symptom Survey
229 [Murphy et al., 2010], one (9.1%) used the Vanderbilt Head and Neck Symptom

230 Survey version 2.0 [Ridner et al., 2018] and one (7.1%) characterized the toxicities as
231 present or absent [Barnhart et al., 2018]

232 Results of the risk of bias assessment are shown in Figure 2. Six studies (54.5%)
233 were classified as moderate risk of bias [Murphy et al., 2010; Haisfield-Wolfe et al.,
234 2012; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Kirca and Kutluturkan, 2016; Barnhart et al., 2018; Ridner
235 et al., 2018] and five studies (45.4%) were classified as low risk of bias [Xiao et al.,
236 2013; Eraj et al., 2017; Xiao et al., 2017; McDowell et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018].

237 Since meta-analysis was not feasible due to the heterogeneity across studies, the
238 quality of evidence was reported in a narrative summary of findings of GRADE and
239 based on study design of included papers (**Supplementary Table 5**). The nine
240 descriptive studies provided weaker scientific evidence and had heterogeneous
241 methodologies, resulting in a serious level of inconsistency. Also, moderate risk of bias
242 in most studies downgraded it to a serious rate, leading to a low quality of evidence.
243 The second outcome included only two studies and had fewer patients; however, they
244 represented stronger level of evidence (cross-sectional), had minor inconsistency across
245 them and had low risk of bias, leading to a moderate quality of evidence. Based on these
246 results, further research may have an important impact on the estimate of these effects.

247

248 Synthesis of Results

249 From the selected studies, all 11 (100%) reported the symptoms of difficult
250 swallowing/dysphagia, dry mouth/xerostomia and pain [Murphy et al., 2010; Haisfield-
251 Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2013; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Kirca and Kutluturkan,
252 2016; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; McDowell et al., 2018;
253 Chiang et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018], eight studies (72.7%) reported taste alterations
254 [Murphy et al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2013; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Kirca and Kutluturkan,
255 2016; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018],
256 seven studies (63.6%) reported fatigue [Xiao et al., 2013; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Kirca
257 and Kutluturkan, 2016; Xiao et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; McDowell et al., 2018;
258 Chiang et al., 2018], five studies (45.4%) reported sore mouth [Murphy et al., 2010;
259 Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Kirca and Kutluturkan, 2016; Xiao
260 et al., 2017], six studies (54.5%) reported problems with the presence of mucous on the
261 mouth/throat [Murphy et al., 2010; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al.,
262 2017; McDowell et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018], four studies (36.3%) reported

263 chewing problems [Rosenthal et al., 2014; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al., 2017;
264 McDowell et al., 2018], three studies (27.3%) reported teeth/gum problems - dental
265 caries [Barnhart et al., 2018 McDowell et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018], three (27.3%)
266 with radiodermatitis [Haisfiel-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2013; Xiao et al., 2017],
267 two studies (18.2%) reported problems related to oral mucositis [Xiao et al., 2013;
268 Ridner et al., 2018], , two studies (18.2%) reported trismus [Barnhart et al., 2018;
269 Ridner et al., 2018] and finally, one study (9.1%) reported smell alterations [Ridner et
270 al., 2018]. Results of the distribution of HN specific symptoms among the studies are
271 shown in Supplementary Figure 1.

272 Results of the analysis of the presence of GI symptoms are shown in
273 Supplementary Figure 2. Eight studies (72.7%) reported loss of appetite [Murphy et al.,
274 2010; Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Kirca and Kutluturkan, 2016;
275 Xiao et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018], five
276 studies (45.4%) reported weight loss [Murphy et al., 2010;; Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012;
277 Xiao et al., 2013; Kirca and Kutluturkan, 2016; Ridner et al., 2018], four studies
278 (36.3%) reported nausea and vomiting [Xiao et al., 2013; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Xiao et
279 al., 2017; Chiang et al., 2018] and one study (9.1%) reported dehydration [Xiao et al.,
280 2013].

281 The high heterogeneity in reporting the results observed in the included studies
282 made it impossible to assess frequency and prevalence of treatment-related toxicities
283 among HN cancer patients. Nevertheless, four studies (36.3%) reported frequency
284 values for HN and GI symptoms (Figures 3 and 4) [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et
285 al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018]. Swallowing problems/dysphagia
286 were reported by three studies with a mean frequency of 97.7% for 243 patients
287 [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018]. Dry
288 mouth/Xerostomia was reported by all studies with a mean frequency of 94.75% for 343
289 patients [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; Chiang et
290 al., 2018]. Pain was reported by three studies with a mean frequency of 91.3% for 151
291 patients [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2017; Chiang et al., 2018]. Taste
292 alterations were reported by three studies with a mean frequency of 89.6% for 243
293 patients [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018]. Fatigue
294 was reported by three studies with a mean frequency of 92.2% for 322 patients [Xiao et
295 al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018]. Mucous was reported by one study

296 with a frequency of 99.2% for 130 patients [Xiao et al., 2017]. Sore mouth was reported
297 by two studies with a mean frequency of 83.5% for 151 patients [Haisfield-Wolfe et al.,
298 2012; Xiao et al., 2017]. Chewing problems were reported by one study with a
299 frequency of 98.5% for 130 patients [Xiao et al., 2017]. Teeth/gum problems - dental
300 caries were reported by two studies with a mean frequency of 48.8% for 222 patients
301 [Xiao et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018]. Radiodermatitis was reported by two studies
302 with a mean frequency of 73.9% for 151 patients [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et
303 al., 2017]. Trismus was reported by one study with a frequency of 14.1% for 92 patients
304 [Barnhart et al., 2018]. Four studies reported lack of appetite with a mean frequency of
305 90.9% for 343 patients [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2017; Barnhart et al.,
306 2018; Chiang et al., 2018]. One study reported weight loss with a frequency of 91% for
307 21 patients [Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012]. Two studies reported nausea and vomiting
308 with a mean frequency of 87.8% and 74.3%, respectively, for 230 patients [Xiao et al.,
309 2017; Chiang et al., 2018]. No studies reported frequency values for OM, smell
310 alterations and dehydration. Detailed information of reported results from included
311 studies are available in Supplementary Table 6.

312

313 Symptom clusters in patients with head and neck cancer

314 Results from the present systematic review described several clusters of
315 symptoms following HNC treatment, which include specific HN conditions, such as dry
316 mouth, dysphagia, pain, taste disturbances, fatigue, oral mucositis, radiodermatitis, and
317 GI manifestations, such as nausea, vomiting, and dehydration [Murphy et al., 2010;
318 Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2013; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Kirca and
319 Kutluturkan, 2016; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; McDowell
320 et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018]. These clustering of oral symptoms
321 using contemporary concepts brought new ideas for the analysis of RRC pathogenesis
322 and the impact of dietary changes, deficient oral hygiene, and the highly cariogenic oral
323 environment on the dentition of HNC survivors (**Figure 5**).

324

325 Discussion

326 HNRT is known to cause several acute and chronic toxicities to the oral cavity.
327 Within the first 3 weeks, patients undergoing HNRT experience a series of symptoms
328 that burden, evolve and overlap. They often develop oral mucositis (OM), radiation

329 dermatitis, edema, dysgeusia and a shift in the oral microbiota composition [Murphy et
330 al., 2010; Xiao et al., 2013; Chiang et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018]. Additionally, these
331 patients may develop associated pain, copious mucous production, hyposalivation,
332 xerostomia, and acute tissue swelling, which contribute to acute dysphagia [Murphy et
333 al., 2010; Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2013; Xiao et al., 2017; Eraj et al.,
334 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; McDowell et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018; Ridner et al.,
335 2018]. Late effects include skin and salivary gland fibrosis, lymphedema and damage to
336 neural structures, hyposalivation, trismus, dysphagia, RRC and osteoradionecrosis
337 [Kielbassa et al., 2006; Eraj et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; McDowell et al., 2018].
338 Adverse effects of cancer treatment represent profound and long-lasting alterations on
339 function and diminished quality of life, which is composed of a complex network of
340 inter-related factors that include functional, biological, psychological and social
341 components [Murphy et al., 2007; Murphy and Gilbert, 2009; Vanderbilt et al., 2018].

342 The symptoms experienced by HNC patients are broad in scope and encompass
343 both local and systemic symptoms. Furthermore, instead of occurring in isolation,
344 results observed in the present systematic review indicate that they occur in clusters,
345 exacerbating the overall symptom experience. ‘Symptom clusters’ are defined as groups
346 of at least two or three concurrent symptoms that are synergistically interrelated
347 [Murphy et al., 2007; Xiao et al., 2013; Dong et al, 2014]. Two main distinct and stable
348 clusters were described for HNC patients, identified through factor modelling among 10
349 identified treatment-related symptoms: HN specific symptoms cluster (encompassing
350 mucositis; radiodermatitis; pain; dysphagia; taste disturbances; dry mouth and fatigue)
351 and GI cluster (nausea, vomiting and dehydration) [Aguiar et al, 2009; Silva et al.,
352 2009; Murphy et al., 2010; Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2013; Xiao et al.,
353 2017; Eraj et al., 2017; Barnhart et al., 2018; McDowell et al., 2018; Chiang et al.,
354 2018; Ridner et al., 2018]. These clustered symptoms may be associated with the
355 development of a highly cariogenic oral environment and the lack of proper oral
356 hygiene leading to onset and development of RRC [Cohen et al., 2016].

357 Dysphagia is defined as difficulty in swallowing and can be an acute or late
358 result of HNRT. Acute dysphagia is associated with mucosa and soft tissue damage
359 within the treatment field particularly because of OM, radiation dermatitis, and edema
360 of the soft tissues. Pain, hyposalivation associated with thickened and more viscous
361 mucous production, and tissue swelling contribute to acute dysphagia. Late dysphagia is

362 the result of tissue fibrosis and stiffness due to the ongoing inflammatory cytokine
363 cascade effects, as well as to lymphedema and radiation-induced damage to neural
364 structures. Patients suffer aspiration, choking, and may consciously or unconsciously
365 alter the type and consistency of food that they eat, resulting in nutritional deficiencies
366 and an oral environment favourable for RRC onset and progression [Murphy et al.,
367 2007; Nevens et al., 2017; Santa Cruz et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018].

368 Dry mouth, or xerostomia, observed in HNC patients is caused by
369 hyposalivation due to radiogenic effects on salivary glands. It has a rapid onset and it is
370 the most common persistent oral side effect for patients receiving HNRT [Sciubba and
371 Goldenberg, 2006]. Saliva becomes scant and thicker causing difficulties in speaking;
372 and induces taste alteration, as well as distress in chewing and swallowing. This
373 scenario has an influence on dietary alterations, leading to the intake of softer and more
374 carbohydrate-rich food [Aguiar et al., 2009]. Besides the quantitative effects, qualitative
375 changes to saliva also occur unleashing an imbalance in its ionic composition. In this
376 way, its buffering and tooth remineralization capacity are reduced, leading to loss of the
377 demineralization/remineralization equilibrium and facilitating the more rapid loss of
378 minerals from dentin and enamel following RT [Marsh, 2003; Murphy and Gilbert,
379 2000; Barnhart et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018].

380 In addition, an imbalance in both salivary organic components (glycoproteins
381 and proteins) and in adaptive and innate immunity occurs following HNRT, altering the
382 establishment and selection of the oral microbiota present on oral hard and soft tissues.
383 Also, the frequent sugar and carbohydrate-rich food intake creates regular conditions of
384 low pH within the dental biofilm and selects for acidogenic and aciduric bacteria such
385 as mutans streptococci and lactobacilli, predisposing the enamel – which is known for
386 being highly porous and permeable after HNC treatment [Madrid et al., 2017] – to the
387 rapid onset and progression of RRC. In other words, a real “ecological catastrophe”
388 occurs in the oral cavity of cancer patients following HNRT, due to the disruption of the
389 natural balance that normally exists in the mouth between the microbiota and the host,
390 and which drives dysbiotic changes in the composition of the biofilm, thereby creating a
391 favourable environment for RRC [Marsh, 2003].

392 Pain is a ubiquitous problem faced by all HNC patients both due to the tumour
393 before therapy begins and up to 76% of patients suffer severe pain related to acute
394 therapy toxicities such as OM and radiodermatitis, despite the use of opioids [Murphy et

395 al, 2007]. After treatment completion, they experience pain when doing several basic
396 physical functions due to fibrosis, muscular loss, neck dissection and neural
397 impairment. Pain significantly impacts on function, with high percentages of patients
398 reporting difficulties in swallowing, eating, drinking, talking, sleeping and maintaining
399 basic self-day-care such as oral hygiene [Murphy and Gilbert, 2000; Xiao et al., 2017;
400 Ridner et al., 2018; Chiang et al., 2018; Vanderbilt et al., 2018].

401 All HNC patients undergoing cancer therapy experience taste disturbances. It is
402 caused by a multitude of other toxicities including OM, deficient oral hygiene, a shift in
403 their oral microbiota, taste buds and oral neural structure impairment, medications or
404 chemotherapies intake and especially salivary flow decrease [Sciubba and Goldenberg,
405 2006; Murphy et al. 2007; Barnhart et al., 2018; Ridner et al., 2018]. It importantly
406 impairs a patient's quality of life, leading to decreased food intake and a switch to
407 sweeter foods (the most maintained flavour, reported by the patients). Unfortunately,
408 intake of carbohydrate-rich foods and sweeter foods provide a highly cariogenic
409 environment and fosters RRC development and rapidly progression [Aguiar et al.,
410 2009].

411 Fatigue is another well-documented side-effect observed in patients undergoing
412 radiation therapy. The lack of appetite, mainly due to the presence of chemosensory
413 dysfunctions such as taste and smell dysfunctions, can result in patients general
414 deconditioning which may lead to profound weight loss, with a decrease in lean and fat
415 body mass, and individuals experiencing weakness and fatigue [Murphy et al., 2010;
416 Haisfield-Wolfe et al., 2012; Xiao et al., 2013; Kirca and Kutluturkan, 2016; Ridner et
417 al., 2018]. This occurs due to chemotherapy and radiation metabolic changes; impaired
418 food intake caused by pain, tumour-related factors dysphagia, socio-economic
419 difficulties impairing the purchase of nutritional supplements and even depression
420 [Murphy et al., 2007; Murphy et al. 2009]. All of these events compound a complex
421 network leading to a decrease in physical functioning and loss of the ability to conduct
422 daily activities such as proper oral hygiene, further propitiating RRC.

423 HNC patients that undergo radiotherapy will develop OM, especially when
424 radiation treatment is associated with concurrent chemotherapy. The site of OM
425 development depends on the tumour site, size and treatment planning, but in any case it
426 produces mucosal pain and swelling, leading to bleeding, difficulty in speaking;
427 sleeping; mouth opening; dysphagia and anorexia. In addition, it leads to dietary

428 adaptations with a switch to softer and carbohydrate-rich foods, with their intake at an
429 increased frequency. This fact, associated with an impaired or absent oral hygiene,
430 produces an environment conducive to RRC onset [Murphy and Gilbert, 2000; Aguiar
431 et al., 2009; Xiao et al., 2013; Ridner et al., 2018].

432 Radiodermatitis causes wounds, pain and a burning sensation on the skin
433 included in the treatment field. The radiogenic soft tissue damage may also affect the
434 local lymphatic structures and muscles, being associated in the long-term with
435 lymphedema, cutaneous and muscular fibrosis and consequent trismus. In this way,
436 besides the swallowing difficulties, patients present distress on opening the mouth and
437 must change their dietary habits to softer and more cariogenic food, which combined
438 with the additional impairment of proper oral hygiene due to pain and trismus, increases
439 their risk of RRC [Murphy and Gilbert, 2009; Nevens et al., 2017; Santa Cruz et al.,
440 2018; Ridner et al., 2018].

441 Systemic symptoms cluster associated with HNC treatment toxicities were
442 described by Xiao et al, in 2013, as a stable identified GI cluster involving nausea,
443 vomiting and dehydration, often induced by CT or CRT. We go further and suggest that
444 this “GI cluster” may have a significant impact on RCC pathophysiology, especially due
445 to recurrent vomiting, which may result in dehydration and intensifies hyposalivation,
446 lowering the protective salivary effects against caries. In addition, vomiting may
447 produce a lower oral pH, leading to elevated risk of enamel and dentin dissolution. All
448 of the side effects associated with nausea create an additional obstacle for proper oral
449 hygiene in HNC patients, and represent a favourable environment for the onset and
450 development of RRC.

451 Lastly, it is relevant to mention that most of the oral cancer patients are poorly
452 educated, low-income individuals, with minimal oral hygiene and level of dental
453 awareness. Many of these patients had never undergone dental treatment and previous
454 studies have demonstrated that nearly all the HNC patients examined just before HNRT
455 need extensive dental care due to advanced periodontal disease, residual roots, and
456 caries (**Figure 6**) (Jham et al., 2008). These complex psychosocial and behavioural
457 features of HNC patients create a poor oral health scenario even before HNRT (Jham et
458 al., 2008), which might be considered another pillar to the development and rapidly
459 progression of RRC.

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461

462 **Strengths and Limitations**

463 Main strengths of this systematic review were rigorous searching and assessment
464 methods and homogeneity in study objectives. Nonetheless, we found limitations such
465 as heterogeneity of studies that met inclusion criteria regarding the methodology and
466 criteria for toxicity assessment and report of observed results.

467

468 **Conclusions**

469 This review is the first to explore symptom clusters in HNC patients and their
470 possible impact on RRC development and progression. HNC patients seldom present
471 with a single oral symptom; thus the understanding and managing of the specific
472 conditions of the HN and GI manifestations symptoms clusters may be paramount for
473 the preservation of cancer survivor's quality of life. Remarkably, there is evidence that
474 the observed HN and GI symptom clusters may indirectly contribute to RRC onset and
475 progression. This scenario composes a much more complex panorama than what has
476 been previously suggested in terms of RRC pathogenesis, and should be considered
477 pivotal for RRC progression. Therefore, contemporary protocols of RRC prevention and
478 treatment must take into account this broader HNRT-associated clustering of toxicities
479 scenario.

480

481 **Statement of Ethics**

482 The authors have no ethical conflicts to disclose.

483

484 **Disclosure Statement**

485 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

486

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Author Contributions

Adrielle Ferreira Gouvêa Vasconcellos, Natália Rangel Palmier and Alan Roger Santos-Silva performed the systematic review methodology process and wrote the manuscript in consultation with Adriana Franco Paes Leme and Philip Marsh. Ana Gabriela Costa Normando and Mario Fernando de Goes performed risk of bias analysis within and across studies (GRADE). Thaís Bianca Brandão, Marcio Ajudarte Lopes, and Ana Carolina Prado Ribeiro designed the study. Karina Morais Faria, Wagner Gomes-Silva and Aljomar José Vechiato Filho drafted the manuscript and designed the figures. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

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659 radiotherapy. *Clin Oral Investig.* 2008; 12(1): 19-24.

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669 **Legends**

670 **Table 1.** Main methodological data extracted from the included studies about the
671 presence of radiation-related symptoms clusters.

672 NI - Not informed; CRT - Chemoradiotherapy; HNC - Head and Neck Cancer; RT -
673 Radiotherapy; IMRT - Intensity modulated radiotherapy; Gy - Grays; AFR -
674 Accelerated fractionation radiotherapy; SFR - Standard fractionation radiotherapy; NA -
675 Not applied.

676 **Figure 1.** Flow diagram that summarizes selection process (PRISMA format).

677 **Figure 2.** Risk of bias in included studies about the symptoms cluster among
678 Head and Neck Cancer patients.

679 a: MASTARI critical appraisal tools for Descriptive/Case series

680 b: Joanna Briggs Institute Critical Appraisal Checklist for Analytical Cross Sectional
681 Studies

682 **Figure 3.** Frequency (%) of Head and Neck specific symptoms reported
683 included studies.

684 **Figure 4.** Frequency (%) of Gastrointestinal symptoms reported included
685 studies.

686 **Figure 5:** Flow chart presenting the interactions between the head and neck and
687 the gastrointestinal symptoms clusters in RRC pathogenesis. Green: head and neck
688 specific symptoms cluster. Blue: gastrointestinal symptoms cluster.

689 **Figure 6:** Oral health status in two head and neck cancer patients examined
690 before radiotherapy resembling radiation-related caries patients. a. Note the poor oral
691 hygiene, extensive carious lesions, brown-blackish colour pigmentation due to smoking
692 habit and extensive teeth loss. b. Presence of extensive periodontal disease, teeth loss,
693 several caries and multiple residual roots – one of them (in the lower right mandibular
694 area) presenting sign of apical periodontitis.

695 **Supplementary Table 1:** PRISMA Checklist

696 **Supplementary Table 2.** Search strategy in the databases.

697 **Supplementary Table 3.** Phase 2 excluded manuscripts and reasons for
698 exclusion

699 **Supplementary Table 4.** Risk of bias assessed by Meta-Analysis of Statistics
700 Assessment and Review Instrument (MAStARI)¹ critical appraisal tools. Risk of bias
701 was categorized as High when the study reaches up to 49% score “yes”, Moderate when
702 the study reached 50% to 69% score “yes”, and Low when the study reached more than
703 70% score “yes”.

704 MAStARI critical appraisal tools for Descriptive/Case series. *Y=Yes, N=No,
705 U=Unclear, M=Moderate, H=High, L=Low. ¹Meta Analysis of Statistics Assessment
706 and Review Instrument (MAStARI). Joanna Briggs Institute Reviewers Manual.
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709 Studies

710 *Y=Yes, N=No, U=Unclear, M=Moderate, H=High, L=Low.

711 ¹Meta Analysis of Statistics Assessment and Review Instrument (MAStARI). Joanna Briggs Institute
712 Reviewers Manual. Australia: The Joanna Briggs Institute, 2014

713

714 **Supplementary Table 5: Question:** Is there a specific clustering of oral
715 symptoms associated with HNC treatment that could impact the pathogenesis of radiation
716 caries?

717 Explanations

718 a. Most studies were categorized as having a moderate risk of bias.

719 b. Symptoms were measured, analyzed and reported heterogeneously across studies.

720

721 **Supplementary Table 6.** Results reported from the included studies, total
722 number of assessed patients and criteria for assessment and results report
723 NI: Not informed; X: Not assessed. *Vanderbilt: Vanderbilt Head and Neck Symptom
724 Survey; **CTC: NCI Common Toxicity Criteria (CTC) 2.0; ***MDASI: M. D.
725 Anderson Symptom Inventory; ****MSAS: Memorial Symptom Assessment Scale.
726 Except from the 4 studies that reported frequency values as percentage numbers, all
727 other included studies reported mean values of response to Questionnaire-based
728 assessment.

729

730 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Distribution of Head and Neck specific symptoms
731 among the included studies.

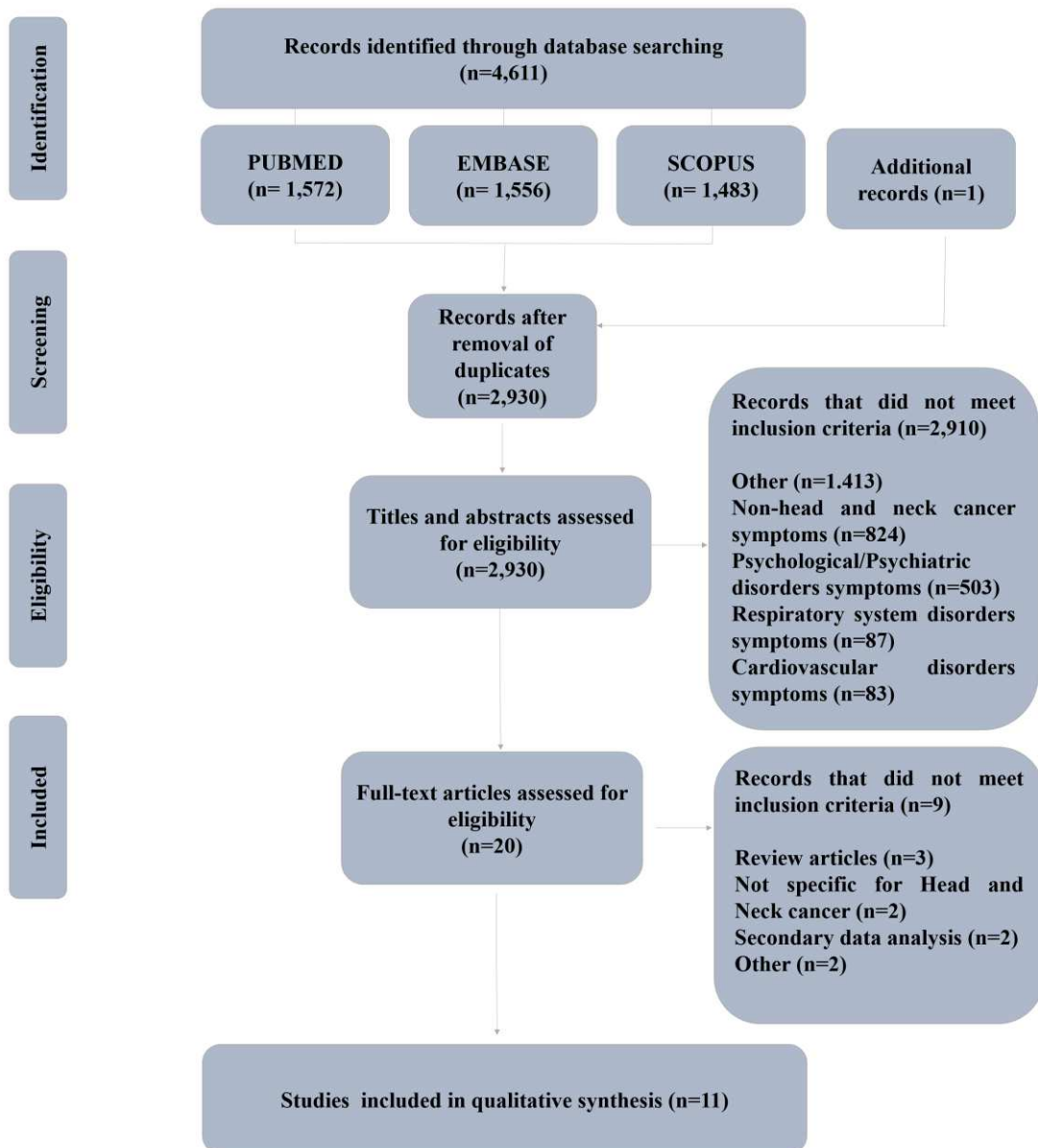
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733 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Distribution of Gastrointestinal symptoms among the
734 included studies.

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737 Figure 1.

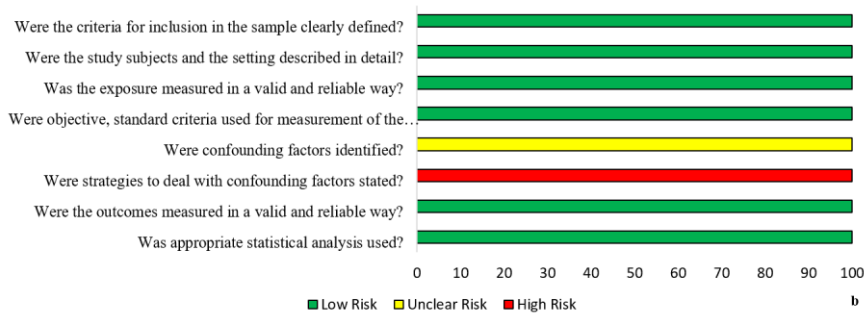
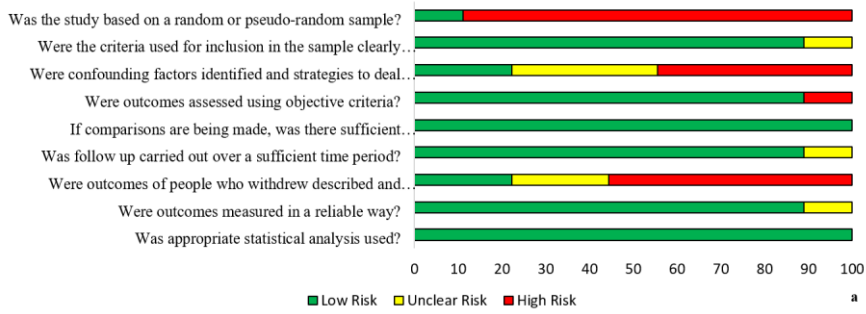


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740 Figure 2.

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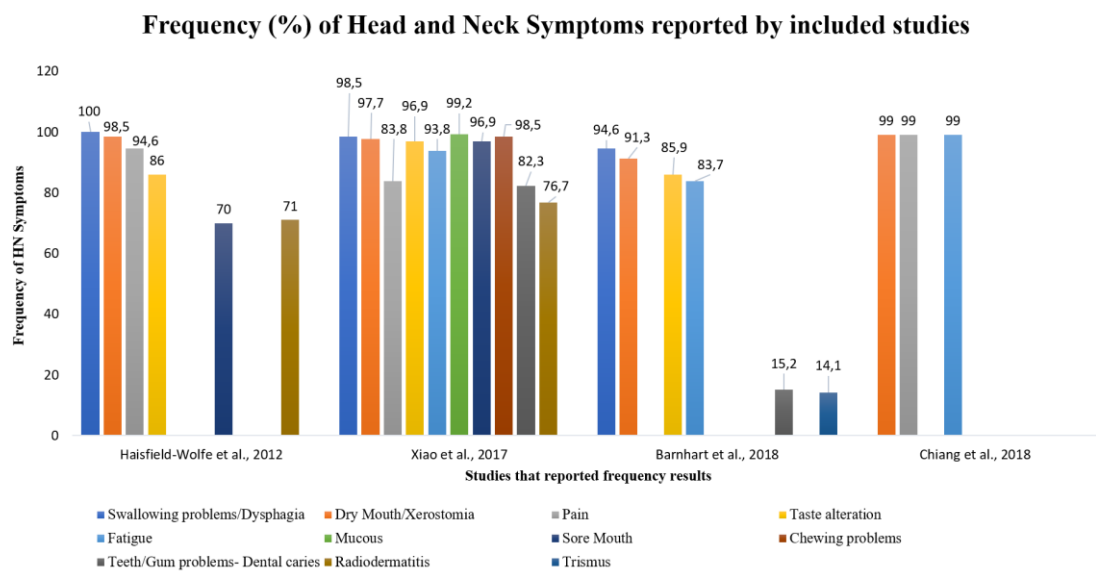


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745 Figure 3.



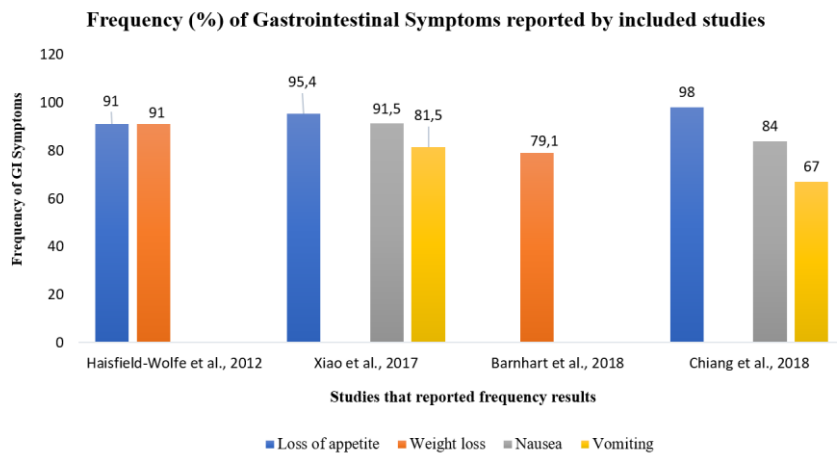
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749 Figure 4.

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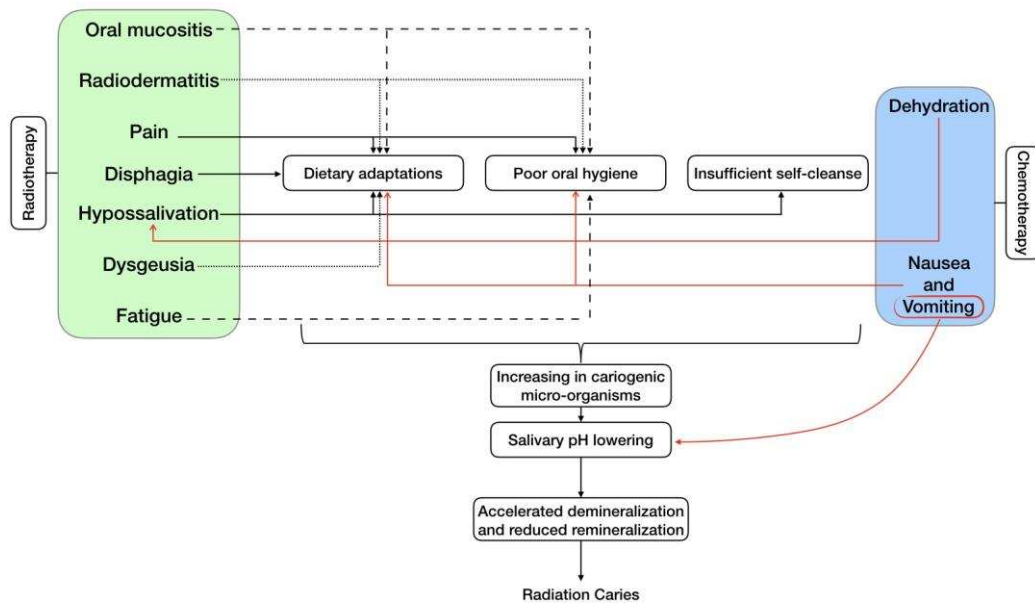
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755 Figure 5.

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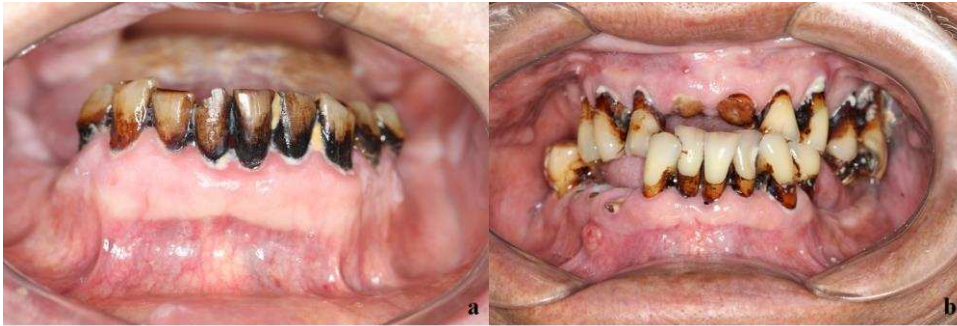
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760 Figure 6.

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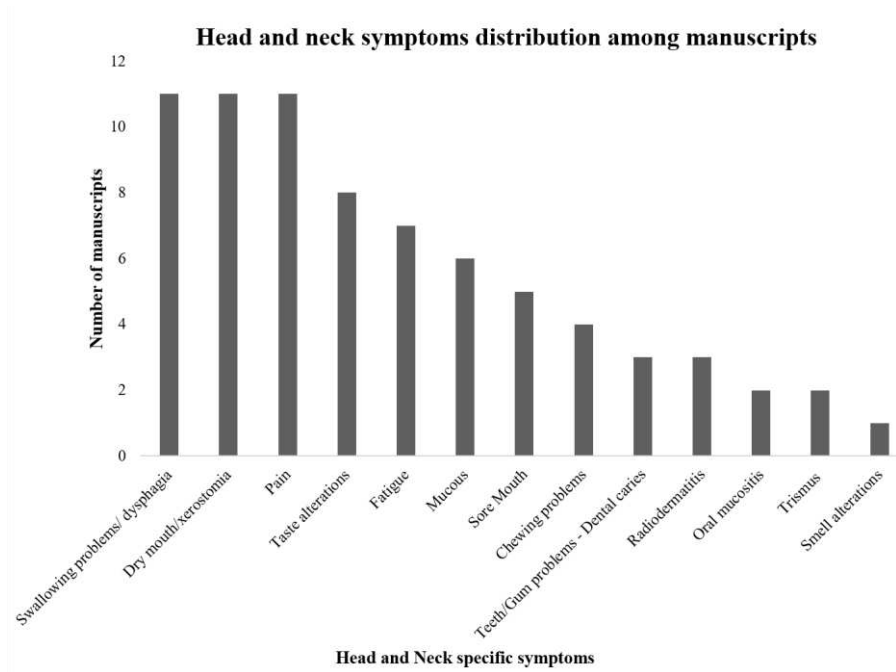
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766 Supplementary Figure 1.

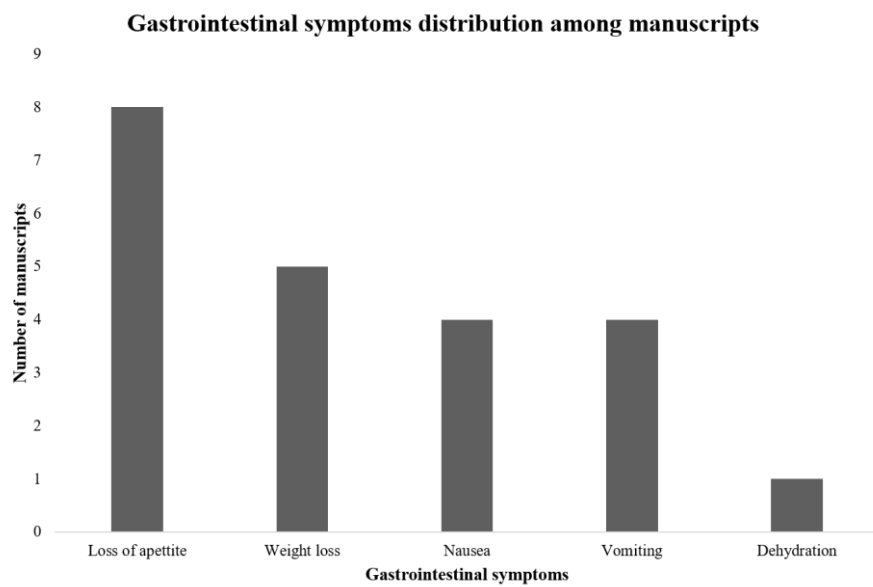


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770 Supplementary Figure 2.



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