



## Oral potentially malignant disorders: nomenclature and classification.

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## Oral potentially malignant disorders: nomenclature and classification

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12 fibrosis, lichen planus  
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14 **Running title:** Nomenclature of OPMD  
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18 **Abstract**

19 Oral potentially malignant disorders (OPMDs) are associated with an increased risk of  
20 occurrence of cancers of the lip or oral cavity. This paper presents an updated report on the  
21 nomenclature and the classification of OPMDs, based predominantly on their clinical features,  
22 following discussions by an expert group at a workshop held by the World Health Organisation  
23 (WHO) Collaborating Centre for Oral Cancer in the UK. The first workshop held in London in  
24 2005 considered a wide spectrum of disorders under the term 'potentially malignant disorders  
25 of the oral mucosa' (PMD) (now referred to as oral potentially malignant disorders: OPMD)  
26 including leukoplakia, erythroplakia, proliferative verrucous leukoplakia, oral lichen planus,  
27 oral submucous fibrosis, palatal lesions in reverse smokers, lupus erythematosus,  
28 epidermolysis bullosa and dyskeratosis congenita. Any new evidence published in the  
29 intervening period was considered to make essential changes to the 2007 classification. In the  
30 current update, most entities were retained with minor changes to their definition. There is  
31 sufficient evidence for an increased risk of oral cancer among patients diagnosed with "oral  
32 lichenoid lesions" and among those diagnosed with oral manifestations of chronic graft-versus-  
33 host disease. These have now been added to the list of OPMDs. There is, to date, insufficient  
34 evidence concerning the malignant potential of chronic hyperplastic candidosis and of oral  
35 exophytic verrucous hyperplasia to consider these conditions as OPMDs. Furthermore, due to  
36 lack of clear evidence of an OPMD in epidermolysis bullosa this was moved to the category  
37 with limited evidence. We recommend the establishment of a global research consortium to  
38 further study the natural history of OPMDs based on the classification and nomenclature  
39 proposed here. This will require multi-centre longitudinal studies with uniform diagnostic  
40 criteria to improve the identification and cancer risk stratification of patients with OPMDs, link  
41 them to evidence-based interventions, with a goal to facilitate the prevention and management  
42 of lip and oral cavity cancer.  
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## 1. INTRODUCTION

In March 2020, the WHO Collaborating Centre for Oral Cancer in the UK convened a workshop attended by invited experts to discuss the advances in knowledge and recent changes in the understanding of oral potentially malignant disorders (OPMDs). OPMDs are a significant group of mucosal disorders that may precede the diagnosis of oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) (Warnakulasuriya, Johnson, & van der Waal, 2007). Since the introduction of this terminology, '*potentially malignant disorders of the oral mucosa*' (PMD) (later OPMD), health care providers and researchers over the globe have enthusiastically adopted this term and the classification of entities therein, and this has resulted in better reporting of this important group of disorders. A recent review identified over 750 publications on the topic of OPMDs published since 2007 (Liu, Wu, Zhang, Shi, & Yang, 2020). However, discrepancies in describing these disorders are still found in the published literature leading to inconsistency and a degree of confusion. The terminology for disorders that precede development of cancers has evolved over the years to align with greater scientific evidence and to reflect temporal advances in understanding of the natural history of these disorders. OPMDs refer to a group of lesions and conditions characterised by a variably increased risk of developing cancers of the lip (C00) and the oral cavity (C02-C06) (Warnakulasuriya et al., 2007). The terminology has been endorsed by the latest WHO classification on Head and Neck Tumours (Reibel, Gale, & Hille, 2017).

The concept of 'pre-cancer' was introduced in 1805 when a European panel of physicians suggested that there are benign diseases that may develop into invasive malignancy if followed for a long time (Baillie, Simms, et al., 1806). The thinking behind the concept of OPMDs as reported by the 2005 workshop and re-affirmed by the Working Group (2020) is that OPMDs represent tissue "fields" with more or less distinctive clinical appearances at initial assessment, and where a proportion within each clinical category have been documented to have subsequently developed a cancer during follow-up; Viz: tissues within these categories have enhanced malignant potential. Some of these clinical alterations, red and white patches in particular, are seen to co-exist at the margins of overt OSCCs; they possess similar morphological and cytological changes observed in superficially invasive carcinomas; and, some of the chromosomal, genomic and molecular alterations detected in early invasive OSCCs are also found in OPMDs (presented in later chapters in this supplement). It is also important to recognise that OSCC can present without the patient or a clinician having been aware of a preceding clinically altered mucosa at the site. Thus, expert opinion at the 2005 workshop

(published in 2007) proposed a shift from previously used terms “*precancer*”, “*epithelial precursor lesions*”, “*pre-malignant*”, “*precancerous*”, and “*intra-epithelial lesion*” to OPMD. Lesions and conditions were combined into one category of “*disorders*”, in recognition of the fact that field change usually exists due to exposure to environmental carcinogens across much of the upper aero-digestive tract, and that the whole person may have changes which influence the risk of cancer development (Johnson, 2017; 2020). “*Potentially malignant*” implies that not all patients diagnosed with any of these mucosal abnormalities will develop an oral malignancy. Nor does it imply that a carcinoma will arise exactly at the site where an OPMD was previously diagnosed. The observed clinical and biological course of these disorders has been discussed recently by Speight, Khurram, & Kujan (2018). The concept that the mere presence of OPMDs is but one of several factors increasing the risk for cancer development is important.

Patients diagnosed with OPMDs may have an increased susceptibility to develop cancer anywhere in their mouth during their lifetime. The majority of these OPMDs may not progress to carcinoma, but rather they provide a field of abnormality in which cancer development is more likely than in their clinically normal mucosa, and more likely than in patients without such disorders. “Clinically normal mucosa” can be molecularly abnormal. As alluded to earlier, the cancer does not necessarily occur in the site of the visibly altered mucosa. An important challenge faced by clinicians managing patients with OPMDs is to be able to identify the small proportion of patients most likely to develop a future malignancy.

Updating the classification of OPMDs is not just an academic endeavour, but necessity for clinicians as they make evidence-based management decisions for patients diagnosed with these disorders. Such decisions have the potential for serious consequences and can impact the patient’s quality of life, and need to be carefully considered to minimize the risks for both under- or over-management. In the ICD-11 classification of diseases, the World Health Organisation has proposed revisions for the following purposes; 1) increasing usability, 2) updating scientific content, 3) integrating with eHealth, and 4) accommodating the needs for multi-users in recording, reporting, and analysis (World Health Organisation, 2019). The 2020 workshop on OPMDs adheres to this rationale. The collective expert opinion favours perpetuation of the existing OPMD nomenclature to describe oral mucosal disorders that indicate an increased risk for cancer development, and consideration of new evidence from both basic science and clinical studies. With these objectives in mind, inclusion of some additional disorders has been proposed (Warnakulasuriya, 2018; 2020): oral lichenoid lesions

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3 and reactions, oral chronic graft-versus-host disease, chronic hyperplastic candidosis, and oral  
4 exophytic verrucous hyperplasia. We discuss the available evidence on these disorders in  
5 section 4 of this report.  
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9 This paper lays out the updated classification, provides or endorses definitions of each disorder  
10 and highlights areas of uncertainty that warrant further investigation. The objective is to present  
11 a consensus on a revised classification of OPMDs, recommended nomenclature and definitions  
12 for each disorder. Such classification is predominantly, albeit not exclusively, based on clinical  
13 features.  
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## 18 **2. DEFINITION AND GENERAL FEATURES**

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21 The working group has defined OPMD as *“any oral mucosal abnormality that is associated*  
22 *with a statistically increased risk of developing oral cancer.”*  
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25 The presence of an OPMD does indicate an increased risk for cancer of the lip or the oral cavity  
26 during the lifetime of the patient, but only a minority progress to cancer. On the other hand, in  
27 some patients with an OPMD, microinvasive carcinoma may be discovered on biopsy at the  
28 initial assessment. Patients presenting with overt clinical signs and symptoms suggestive of the  
29 presence of a “frank carcinoma”, (ie deeply ulcerated, exophytic, or indurated) would not be  
30 designated as having an OPMD. Table 1 provides definitions for the disorders listed as  
31 OPMDs.  
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37 OPMDs have a wide range of clinical features including colour variations (white, red, and  
38 mixed white and red), topographic changes (plaque/plateau, smooth, corrugated, verrucous,  
39 granular, atrophic), and may be of variable size (Williams, Poh, Hovan, Ng, & Rosin, 2008;  
40 Speight, Khurram, & Kujan, 2018). Some OPMDs, particularly oral leukoplakia may  
41 superficially ulcerate due to abrasion of the surface by trauma from teeth or appliances.  
42 OPMDs can involve any anatomical site in the oral cavity and may be uni- or multifocal (Farah  
43 et al., 2014). Extraoral sites (eg pharynx, larynx, esophageal, and genital) may demonstrate  
44 analogous PMDs. OPMDs have an unpredictable clinical course - remaining static, or may  
45 demonstrate progression or regression (Gupta et al., 1980; Holmstrup, Vedtofte, Reibel, &  
46 Stoltze, 2006; Speight et al., 2018; Farah, Kujan, Prime, & Zain, 2019).  
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55 The majority of patients with OPMDs are diagnosed in middle-aged or elderly patients,  
56 predominantly males (Napier & Speight, 2008; Speight et al., 2018). In western populations,  
57 elderly females with long-standing leukoplakia and without obvious risk factors have,  
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3 paradoxically, a significant risk of progression to cancer. These individuals could carry an  
4 endogenous risk factor, rather than being exposed to an environmental factor. Ethnicity and  
5 associated dominance of particular cultural risk factors have influenced the type and pattern of  
6 OPMDs reported in specific populations. For example, betel quid/areca nut chewing habits are  
7 widely prevalent in South Asian populations resulting in a greater prevalence of OPMDs (Lee  
8 et al., 2012a; Lee, et al., 2012b, Mello et al., 2018). Reverse smoking habit is also known to  
9 induce specific mucosal changes on the palate in some geographic regions (see section 3.7)

### 18 **3. DETAILED DESCRIPTIONS OF THE ORAL POTENTIALLY MALIGNANT** 19 **DISORDERS**

#### 22 **3.1 Leukoplakia**

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25 Leukoplakia is amongst the most common and most studied OPMD encountered in clinical  
26 practice and in population surveys. A bibliometric study of the most-cited articles on oral  
27 leukoplakia that provide a historical perspective on scientific evolution of our understanding  
28 of this disorder was published recently (Liu, Zhang, Wu, Yang, & Shi, 2019). Historically,  
29 several definitions have been proposed for leukoplakia (Supplementary Table 1). The most  
30 recent definition by the WHO Collaborating Centre, published in 2007, was “*A predominantly*  
31 *white plaque of questionable risk having excluded (other) known diseases or disorders that*  
32 *carry no increased risk for cancer*” (Warnakulasuriya et al., 2007). The present Working Group  
33 found no reason to change this definition which is now being reported widely in the global  
34 literature.  
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45 The following criteria should be considered when making a clinical diagnosis of oral  
46 leukoplakia:  
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- 48 • A predominantly white patch/plaque that cannot be rubbed off
- 49 • Most homogeneous leukoplakias affect a circumscribed area and have well-demarcated  
50 borders. A smaller subset can present with diffuse borders.
- 51 • Non-homogeneous leukoplakias typically present with more diffuse borders and may  
52 have red or nodular components.  
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- No evidence of chronic traumatic irritation to the area (e.g. a sharp tooth rubbing on the tongue, a white patch on the alveolar ridge or retromolar pad from masticatory friction, a white patch on gingiva from overzealous tooth-brushing)
- Is not reversible on elimination of apparent traumatic causes, i.e. demonstrates a persistence feature
- Does not disappear or fade away on stretching (retracting) the tissue
- Exclusion of other white or white/red lesions outlined in Table 2.

It is emphasised that the term leukoplakia is used as a clinical diagnosis having excluded other clinically recognisable white or white/red lesions (Warnakulasuriya, 2019) (Table 2). The term “persistent” has been used under inclusion criteria but it must be noted that a history of persistence cannot always be ascertained at baseline. When the clinical features are clear it is not always important to definitively establish persistence. During clinical examination of a white patch it is important to first look for a local traumatic cause. If this is evident, the white patch should not be considered a leukoplakia, but rather be designated as a frictional keratosis. Frictional keratoses are typically diffuse and upon removal of the putative frictional source, they should resolve. It is important they are not regarded as an OPMD and must be distinguished from leukoplakia because the latter indicates a future cancer risk.

Leukoplakia can be sub-classified clinically into homogenous and non-homogenous types using distinct features based on colour and surface texture (Table 3). Homogenous leukoplakias are typically asymptomatic and present as a uniformly thin white plaque/patch. They have a smooth surface with a consistent surface topography throughout, are usually sharply demarcated and often exhibit shallow surface cracks/fissures.

On the other hand, non-homogenous leukoplakias may present with diverse clinical presentations including speckled (also referred to as erythroleukoplakia; ie mixed white and red), nodular (small polypoid projections, rounded red or white excrescences) and verrucous (wrinkled or corrugated surface). Leukoplakias, predominantly non-homogeneous leukoplakias, may show focal superficial ulceration. Non-homogenous leukoplakias carry a higher risk of transformation than homogeneous leukoplakias (Diz et al., 2011; Speight et al., 2018), and it is not uncommon for non-homogeneous leukoplakia to exhibit severe dysplasia or even superficially invasive SCC following biopsy at baseline detection (Pentenero et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2006). Lee et al., (2006) reported carcinomas in 12% of incisional biopsies



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3 taken from oral leukoplakia samples in Taiwan. The variable and often severe histopathology  
4 within the field of non-homogeneous leukoplakias raises the importance of selecting the  
5 correct biopsy site (or sites) to avoid underdiagnosis: indeed, multiple mapping biopsies may  
6 be indicated.  
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10 It is important to document whether the patient with a leukoplakia is a never smoker because  
11 these patients may experience a more aggressive natural history.  
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13 In the 2007 classification, mixed white and red lesions were considered as a separate  
14 entity under the term erythroleukoplakia. The consensus of the current Working Group was to  
15 classify erythroleukoplakia under non-homogeneous leukoplakia (Table 3).  
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19 The current expert group emphasises that at the time of baseline detection, oral  
20 leukoplakia is a provisional clinical diagnosis made by exclusion of other white disorders. A  
21 diagnostic biopsy is indicated to confirm this clinical diagnosis or modify it (ie. oral lichen  
22 planus, or hyperplastic candidosis). One or more underlying histopathologic diagnoses ranging  
23 from simple epithelial hyperplasia with hyperparakeratosis or hyper(ortho)keratosis, varying  
24 severity of epithelial dysplasia are consistent with oral leukoplakia (Reibel et al., 2017;  
25 Ranganathan and Loganathan, 2019). It is customary that the pathologist mentions whether the  
26 histology is compatible with the clinical diagnosis of leukoplakia or not, indicates the presence  
27 or absence of dysplasia and if present, provides the grade(s) of dysplasia. To achieve uniformity  
28 in reporting we recommend a pathology report to state “keratosis with no/mild/moderate/severe  
29 dysplasia, consistent with oral leukoplakia”. A biopsy may on occasion demonstrate  
30 superficially invasive carcinoma, then the diagnosis of leukoplakia is revised to carcinoma.  
31 These pathological aspects of leukoplakia are presented in detail by Kujan et al., in this volume.  
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41 Any field surveys that have not included a protocol for biopsy should clarify that the  
42 diagnosis was based on clinical features without histopathological confirmation  
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45 Misdiagnosis and misclassification of leukoplakias have led to confusion and inaccurate  
46 reporting of prevalence (Auluck & Pai, 2005), also thereby under-reporting malignant  
47 transformation in cases of oral leukoplakia. One source of confusion is conflating the many  
48 different situations in which “frictional keratosis” is misclassified under the umbrella of  
49 “leukoplakia”. Keratosis” is unfortunately misused by some clinicians to clinically describe a  
50 white lesion. We discourage keratosis as a clinical term unless it is part of a specific name such  
51 as frictional keratosis. The published literature refers to other disorders which include keratosis  
52 in their name, and that need to be better defined:  
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3 • Tobacco pouch keratosis - this is a white patch found on the lower buccal grooves  
4 among smokeless tobacco users who retain their tobacco quid at the site (Müller, 2019).  
5 Most of them will resolve following discontinuation of the habit but those that persist  
6 should be included within the group leukoplakia. A biopsy is indicated at baseline and  
7 further study is needed to assess their natural history.  
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- 10 • Sublingual keratosis- A white patch when found of the floor of the mouth or inferior  
11 surface of the tongue was termed *sublingual keratosis* by Kramer's group (Kramer, El-  
12 Labban, & Lee, 1978a). The authors attributed high significance to these, having noted  
13 that a large proportion of their patients with such white patches developed squamous  
14 cell carcinomas in that area. Subsequent studies have not confirmed the extremely high  
15 risk of transformation noted in early studies, but the floor of mouth remains a high-risk  
16 site and leukoplakias at this site merit careful follow-up. The Working Group  
17 recommends that any white patch on floor of mouth - having excluded other known  
18 conditions - should be clinically considered a leukoplakia.  
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- 20 • Sanguinaria-associated keratosis- Damm et al., (1999), Eversole et al., (2000) and  
21 Mascarenha et al., (2002) described a unique form of a white patch that could be  
22 attributed to the use of a dentifrice and/or mouthrinse containing the herbal additive  
23 sanguinaria. Sanguinarine is the principal alkaloid in an extract from the Indian  
24 bloodroot plant (*Sanguinaria canadensis* L.). Sanguinaria-associated keratosis is rarely  
25 reported these days since the product was banned. This condition should not be  
26 considered a leukoplakia, as it has an established cause, and would generally resolve  
27 on removal of the cause.  
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- 29 • Palatal keratosis in reverse smokers- This has a very specific appearance and is  
30 classified as a separate entity in the OPMD literature and is not considered as a  
31 leukoplakia. Reverse smokers' keratosis is considered a disorder with a comparatively  
32 high risk of malignant transformation (Gupta et al., 1980) (see section 3.7)  
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- 34 • Keratosis of unknown significance (KUS)- This term was introduced by Woo,  
35 Grammar, & Lerman, (2014) and refers to the histologic entity of hyperkeratosis with  
36 minimal to no epithelial dysplasia or cellular atypia (Woo et al., 2014; Villa et al.,  
37 2019). There is no rationale to apply this term in the clinical context. In fact, over 50%  
38 of leukoplakias will be in this histologic category. The Working Group does not  
39 recommend use of the term "keratosis of unknown significance".  
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### 3.2 Proliferative verrucous leukoplakia

This condition is defined as a distinct form of multifocal oral leukoplakia characterised by having a progressive clinical course, changing clinical and histopathologic features, and is associated with the highest proportion of oral cavity cancer development compared with other OPMDs (Cabay, Morton, & Epstein, 2007; Iocca et al., 2019). Other terms proposed in the literature are Proliferative Multifocal Leukoplakia (Aguirre-Urizar et al., 2011) and Proliferative leukoplakia (Villa et al., 2018). From a clinical perspective, the evolution of this type of OPMD often begins as one or more leukoplakias, later presenting in multiple locations due to gradual spread of an individual focus or resulting from fusion over time of several adjacent foci (Villa et al., 2018). The original report by Hansen et al., (1985) coining the term Proliferative Verrucous Leukoplakia proposed that the diagnosis be made by a combination of clinical and histological features (Hansen, Olson, & Silverman, 1985). Specific clinical diagnostic criteria were later proposed by Cerero-Lapiedra et al., (2010) and Carrard et al., (2013). Their criteria included the disorder affecting more than two different oral sites, and the existence of a verrucous area. Initial clinical presentation could be flat white lesions (without any verrucous component) (Batsakis, Suarez, & El-Naggar, 1999; Villa et al., 2018), and may also sometimes have a lichenoid clinical appearance (Garcia-Pola et al., 2016) and be signed out as being lichenoid by the pathologist. In the latter situation it is possible that a case could be erroneously treated as OLP for many years, with the risk of missing, or of accelerating, subsequent malignancy. Despite the imperfection of the term PVL to capture an expanded group of patients with multifocal disease, the term is widely reported, and the Working Group recommended retaining this term.

A high proportion of patients diagnosed with PVL eventually develops oral cancer. A recent systematic review estimated the proportion to be 49.5% (CI 26.7%-72.4%) (Iocca et al., 2019). Patients with a diagnosis of PVL may subsequently develop either conventional squamous cell carcinomas or verrucous carcinomas. Multiple primary carcinomas were documented in a case-series mostly affecting gingival sites (Bagan, Murillo-Cortes, Poveda-Roda, Leopoldo-Rodado, & Bagan, 2019).

### 3.3 Erythroplakia

Erythroplakia is a solitary lesion defined (Table 1) as ‘a predominantly fiery red patch that

cannot be characterised clinically or pathologically as any other definable disease'

Erythroplakia exhibits a clinical appearance of a sharply demarcated, flat or depressed, erythematous area of mucosa with a matt appearance. Inflammatory conditions that may result in a red clinical appearance are excluded prior to arriving at this diagnosis (see Table 3) (Kramer et al., 1978b; van der Waal & Scully, 2011; Warnakulasuriya, 2019) The solitary presentation of erythroplakia helps to distinguish it from other more widespread conditions such as erosive lichen planus, lupus erythematosus and erythematous candidiasis which present more often in multiple sites (van der Waal, 2010). Other conditions include autoimmune disorders, infections, and vascular hamartomas/vascular neoplasms that may exhibit similar clinical features and should be considered in the differential diagnosis (Reichart & Philipson, 2005). Most oral erythroplakias, at the time of diagnosis, are either histopathologically a squamous cell carcinoma or show high-grade epithelial dysplasia.

### 3.4 Oral Submucous Fibrosis (OSF)

Oral submucous fibrosis is a well-recognised OPMD characterised by fibrosis of the oral mucosa (and submucosa) and there is a higher risk for oral cancer development in patients with OSF. In moderate to advanced cases fibrosis may also involve the oropharynx and the upper third of the oesophagus (Maher, Ahmed, Qureshi, Zuberi, & Syed, 1991; Misra, Misra, Dwivedi, & Gupta, 1998., Tilakaratne, Ekanayaka, & Warnakulasuriya, 2016). The definition proposed by Kerr et al., (2011) following the World Workshop of Oral Medicine V that has gained acceptance was slightly modified by the Working Group; '*A chronic, insidious disease that affects the oral mucosa, initially resulting in loss of fibroelasticity of the lamina propria and as the disease advances, results in fibrosis of the lamina propria and the submucosa of the oral cavity along with epithelial atrophy*'. The clinical diagnostic features are described in Table 3. The clinical features at the time of presentation of oral submucous fibrosis depend on the stage of the disease. It is generally characterised by patients reporting a burning sensation of the oral mucosa and intolerance to spicy foods. Initial signs include a leathery mucosa, pallor, loss of tongue papillae, petechiae and occasionally vesicles. As the disease progresses fibrous bands develop in lips, cheek mucosa and soft palate and this hallmark feature leads to a limited mouth opening (Kerr et al., 2011). There is growing evidence to support the role of genetic susceptibility and family history in the pathogenesis and clinical presentation of OSF (Ray, Chatterjee, & Chaudhuri, 2019). Several grading systems have been proposed. Based on

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3 objective criteria a 5-grade system was proposed by Kerr et al., (2011). The working group  
4 endorses this for clinical use.  
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### 8 **3.5 Oral lichen planus**

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10 Carrozzo et al., (2019) characterised oral lichen planus (OLP) as a disease with bilateral white  
11 reticular patches affecting buccal mucosae, tongue, and gingivae. More severe presentations  
12 include erosions/areas of atrophy and ulceration. Despite being a common non-infectious  
13 disorder in the oral cavity (Roopashree et al., 2010), oral lichen planus (OLP) continues to be  
14 a disorder without clear causative factors (Krutchkoff, Cutler, & Laskowski, 1978; van der  
15 Meij et al., 1999; Cheng, Gould, Kurago, Fantasia, & Muller 2016; Aghbari et al., 2017).  
16 Cancer development in patients with a diagnosis of OLP was recently reviewed by Gonzalez-  
17 Moles et al., (2019). OLP should be diagnosed using both clinical and histopathological  
18 characteristics (Table 4) (van der Meij & van der Waal, 2003; Al-Hashimi et al., 2007; Cheng  
19 et al., 2016), and should be clearly distinguished from disorders with similar clinical  
20 appearances but due to other causes including oral lichenoid lesions (van der Meij & van der  
21 Waal, 2003), oral lichenoid drug reactions (Scully & Bagan, 2004), oral lichenoid contact  
22 hypersensitivity reactions (Al-Hashimi et al., 2007), lichen planus pemphigoides, chronic  
23 ulcerative stomatitis, acute and chronic graft-versus host disease, lichen sclerosus, lupus  
24 erythematosus, and the early stages of PVL (Cheng et al., 2016; Carrozzo et al., 2019). When  
25 defining cancer development in patients with OLP authors should follow strict criteria in  
26 diagnosing OLP that incorporate clinical, histopathological and patient characteristics (Idrees,  
27 Kujan, Shearston, & Farah, 2020). Diagnostic criteria of oral lichen planus endorsed by the  
28 Working Group based on previous proposals are listed in Table 4.  
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### 44 **3.6 Actinic Keratosis/Actinic Cheilitis**

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46 Actinic Keratosis (AK) is produced by the effect of actinic (solar, predominantly ultraviolet)  
47 radiation to exposed areas of the face, and therefore predominantly the skin and vermilion of  
48 the (lower) lip. The precise areas affected are important in clinical assessment (Savage, McKay,  
49 & Faulkner, 2010). AK occurs predominantly in middle-aged and light-skinned men with  
50 outdoor occupations (Dancyger et al., 2018). There may be localised or diffuse lesions of white  
51 flaking plaques or scaly lesions with interspersed red areas (Markopoulos, Albanidou-Farmaki,  
52 & Kayavis, 2004). In very mild cases, patients may present simply with dryness of lips (Savage  
53 et al., 2010). The white surface is due to hyperkeratosis whilst the red colour results from  
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3 epithelial atrophy or even erosion allowing the vasculature to shine through. It is not possible  
4 to predict which AKs will progress, regardless of the histological grade (AK I-AK III)  
5 (Fernandez Figueras, 2017).  
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9 Histologically, the epithelium may show hyperplasia or atrophy, disordered maturation,  
10 varying degrees of keratinisation or parakeratinisation, cytological atypia and increased mitotic  
11 activity. The lamina propria often shows basophilic degeneration of collagen, elastosis and  
12 vasodilatation (de Santana Sarmiento, Miguel, Queiroz & da Silveira, 2014; Cavalcante,  
13 Anbinder & Carvalho, 2008; Mello, Melo, Modolo, & Rivero, 2019). Lichenoid inflammation  
14 is often present and a histopathological diagnosis of lichenoid actinic keratosis should then be  
15 rendered. Benign lichenoid keratosis (lichen planus-like keratosis) is an important differential  
16 diagnosis in facial skin, including vermilion border. In a case series (n= 124) reported from  
17 Brazil, 25% displayed early SCC in the biopsy specimens (Mello et al., 2019). A systematic  
18 review on AK found no reliable estimates concerning the frequency of AK developing into  
19 invasive carcinoma (Werner et al., 2013).  
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### 31 **3.7 Palatal lesions in reverse smokers**

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33 In reverse smoking, the burning end of a cigarette or cigar is held inside the mouth. Where this  
34 is practiced, as many as 50% of all oral malignancies are found on the hard palate, a site usually  
35 spared other OPMDs, except among pipe smokers. Reverse smoking is an endemic tobacco  
36 habit practised in the coastal rural Andhra Pradesh, India. The habit is also prevalent among  
37 the people of the Caribbean Islands, in Latin America (Colombia, Panama, Venezuela),  
38 Sardinia, and among some Pacific Islanders, for example, the Philippines, but there are no  
39 follow up studies published, outside India. Field research undertaken by the Tata Institute of  
40 Fundamental Research (TIFR), India, (Gupta et al., 1980) first described palatal changes in  
41 reverse smokers in several Indian cohorts as “thickened white plaques of palate, mucosal  
42 nodularity, excrescences around orifices of palatal (minor) mucosal glands, yellowish brown  
43 staining, erythema and ulceration. Lesions can present as red, white or mixed red and white, in  
44 a background of tobacco staining”. In a later Indian study of reverse smokers, 32% were found  
45 white and red patches on their palates (Bharath et al., 2015).  
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### 59 **3.8 Oral lupus erythematosus**



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3 Lupus erythematosus is a chronic auto-immune disease which can be principally subdivided  
4 into 3 forms: (1) systemic, (2) drug-induced, and (3) discoid. Oral lesions may manifest in  
5 approximately 20% patients with systemic lupus. Oral lesions of lupus erythematosus (OLE)  
6 exhibit similar clinical presentations as found in OLP. Typically, OLE presents as a central  
7 circular zone of atrophic mucosa, with superficial ulceration surrounded by whitish striae  
8 (Odell, 2017). Buccal mucosae, palate and lips are most commonly affected. Histopathologic  
9 criteria for the diagnosis of (discoid) lupus erythematosus are described by Schiødt, (1984).  
10 Carcinomas developing within lesions OLE are rare intra-orally, and most arise on the lips  
11 (Arvanitidou et al., 2018). It is not always possible to confidently distinguish OLP from OLE  
12 intra-orally, so that in the absence of systemic features it is quite possible that malignancy  
13 arising in LE would be misclassified as a malignancy arising in OLP.  
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### 23 **3.9 Dyskeratosis congenita**

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25 Dyskeratosis Congenita (DKC) (also called Zinsser-Cole-Engman syndrome), is a rare  
26 hereditary condition of dysfunctional telomere maintenance that is regarded as a potentially  
27 malignant disorder. A higher frequency of oral cancers is noted among patients affected by this  
28 condition (Bongiorno, Rivard, Hammer, & Kentosh, 2017). The pathogenesis is attributed to  
29 mutations of several genes that help maintain telomere structure and function, such as the  
30 DKC1 gene. DKC1 gene encodes for the ribonucleoprotein dyskerin (Abdel-Karim et al., 2009;  
31 Ballew & Savage, 2013). Most cases are inherited, and may be X-linked, autosomal dominant  
32 or autosomal recessive, with variable penetrance (Handley & Ogden, 2006). The condition  
33 often arises early and should always be considered and excluded in a child presenting with oral  
34 leukoplakia. It consists of the triad of oral leukoplakias (usually on the dorsal tongue but can  
35 arise in any mucous membranes within the body), hyperpigmentation of the skin (usually with  
36 a reticular pattern on the neck) and nail dystrophy (Ogden, Connor, & Chisholm, 1988).  
37 Lichenoid like lesions have also been reported (Handley & Ogden, 2006). The prognosis is  
38 often poor, due to either malignant change within the oral lesions or bone marrow failure  
39 resulting in overwhelming infection and death. Attempts have been made to identify potential  
40 markers for future cancerous change within these oral lesions. Evidence for disturbed  
41 cytokeratin, abnormal p53 expression and changes at an ultrastructural level (foetal/neonatal  
42 features) have been reported some 10 years before malignant change (McKay, Ogden, &  
43 Chisholm, 1991; Ogden, Chisholm, Hopwood, & Lane, 1993).  
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## 4. CONDITIONS NEWLY ADDED IN 2020 CLASSIFICATION

#### 4.1 Oral lichenoid Lesions (OLL)

Oral lichenoid lesions (OLL) lack the typical clinical or histological appearance of OLP ie they may not be symmetrical and could be unilateral. According to van der Meij & van der Waal, (2003), OLL would be those disorders that do not present the clinical and / or histopathological characteristics considered typical (but compatible) with OLP. Oral lichenoid lesions include (a) atypical OLP and unilateral lichenoid lesions (as characterised by van der Meij et al 1999; van der Meij & van der Waal, 2003; van der Meij , Mast , van der Waal, 2007), (b) those in close contact relationship to a dental restoration, often amalgam, referred to as oral lichenoid contact reactions (OLCR) (Al-Hashimi et al., 2007; McParland & Warnakulasuriya, 2012), (c) lichenoid drug- reactions (LDR) (Al-Hashimi et al., 2007), (e) oral lesions following intake of food or some substances, like cinnamon, and (f) oral lesions of graft versus host disease. Furthermore, lichenoid contact reactions to betel quid (BQ) are reported among BQ users (Reichart & Warnakulasuriya, 2012).

It is a diagnostic challenge to clinically distinguish OLL from OLP. Recently, Aguirre-Urizar et al., (2020) proposed grouping OLP and OLLs under the term “oral lichenoid disease”, which they define as a potentially malignant disorder of the oral mucosa that cannot be clinically or histopathologically diagnosed as any other specific oral disease. Oral lichenoid diseases encompass both OLP and OLL and characteristically show white papules (and reticular formation) and are sometimes accompanied by other types (erosive-ulcerative, atrophic, plaque, and bullous). Gonzalez Moles et al., (2019) also argues for abandoning the term OLL as defined by van der Meij & van der Waal, (2003). The evidence from their systematic review suggests that patients with OLL, have more or less similar malignant potential to OLP (Gonzalez-Moles et al., 2019).

Importantly, the current Working Group recommends health professionals refrain from using the term ‘oral lichenoid dysplasia’ to describe an entity amongst OLP or lichenoid disorders which show dysplastic changes. If dysplasia is present, the diagnosis should be oral epithelial dysplasia with lichenoid features (ie if the latter features are indeed evident) or OLP with dysplasia. Additional details regarding this topic are reported by Kujan et al., (2021) in this volume.

#### 4.2 Oral graft versus host disease (OGVHD)

OGVHD is reported in patients with haematologic malignancies receiving allogeneic stem cell transplants (Elad, Zadik, Caton, & Epstein, 2019). They present in acute and chronic forms that

usually involve several organs (Flowers, Kansu, & Sullivan, 1999). Oral lesions with a lichenoid appearance, erythema, atrophy, and ulceration were reported in more than 90% of patients who suffered from GVHD (Schubert et al., 1984; Fricain et al., 2005). Since our previous Workshop Report on OPMDs (Warnakulasuriya et al., 2007), progression to cancer in OGVHD-related oral lichenoid lesions has subsequently been reported in several case studies (Demarosi, 2005; Mawardi et al., 2011; Frydrych, Kujan, & Farah, 2019; Hashimoto, Nagao, Koie, Miyabe & Saito, 2019). Atsuta et al., (2014) analysed a data base of 17,545 adult recipients of an allogeneic stem cell transplantation between 1990 and 2007 in Japan. Multi-system chronic graft-versus-host disease (GVHD) was a significant risk factor for the development of all solid tumours (RR=1.8, P<0.001), significantly higher for oral cancer (RR=2.9, P<0.001) among patients after 1-year post-transplant. The possible role of immunosuppressant therapy for chronic graft-versus-host disease on the development of oral squamous cell carcinoma needs consideration (de Araújo et al., 2014).

## **5. DISORDERS WITH LIMITED OR INSUFFICIENT EPIDEMIOLOGICAL EVIDENCE FOR MALIGNANT POTENTIAL.**

The current literature refers to three other disorders that are probably associated with an increased frequency of oral cancers; epidermolysis bullosa, chronic hyperplastic candidosis and exophytic verrucous hyperplasia

We describe here the available evidence and highlight the controversies surrounding these disorders:

### **a. Disorders with limited epidemiological evidence of malignant potential.**

#### *5.1 Oral epidermolysis bullosa*

Epidermolysis bullosa was included as a potentially malignant disorder in our 2007 classification of OPMDs. A specific potentially malignant oral lesion associated with epidermolysis bullosa is not well characterized in the literature. Squamous cell carcinomas are common in sun exposed areas among patients with recessive dystrophic type of epidermolysis bullosa (RDEB). A review by Wright, (2010) includes case reports of oral SCCs, particularly among individuals with severe generalized RDEB.

### **b. Disorders with insufficient epidemiological evidence**

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3 The Working Group reviewed the available evidence on the following disorders and found  
4 insufficient evidence for their malignant potential. At present, these are not recommended for  
5 inclusion within the OPMD group of disorders.  
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## 10 5.2 Chronic hyperplastic candidosis (CHC)

11 CHC presents as an adherent white patch caused by a chronic fungal infection, usually *Candida*  
12 *albicans* (Farah et al., 2019). The clinical presentation is thick white plaques, or mixed red and  
13 nodular non-homogenous white patches most commonly involving the anterior buccal mucosae  
14 and commissures or on the dorsum of the tongue (Dilhari et al., 2016). There is some  
15 experimental evidence that *Candida* causes epithelial hyperproliferation (Sitheeque &  
16 Samaranayake, 2003; Rast, Kullas, Southern, & Davis, 2016). It is known that *C. albicans*  
17 dramatically modifies the clinical and histological aspects of oral white plaques commonly  
18 referred to as candida leukoplakia. *Candida* is frequently present in the biopsies of moderate  
19 and severe dysplasia and significant dysplastic changes are noted in the epithelium of candida  
20 leukoplakias harbouring *Candida* species (McCullough et al., 2002; Shukla et al., 2019). It is  
21 postulated that *Candida*-related oral carcinogenesis could arise from acetaldehyde production  
22 from alcoholic beverages by specific *Candida* isoforms (Alnuaimi et al., 2016). Candidalysin  
23 - a cytolytic peptide toxin secreted by *C. albicans* – by interacting with Epithelial Growth Factor  
24 Receptors (EGFR) could activate human EGF pathways to produce increased cell proliferation  
25 (Ho et al., 2019).  
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37 The distinction between candida leukoplakia and chronic hyperplastic candidosis is not  
38 clear and most authors consider these two terms synonymous. The first description of candidal  
39 leukoplakia was published by Cawson & Lehner, (1968) and reviewed by Sitheeque &  
40 Samaranayake, (2003). Both sets of authors emphasize that the lesions responded readily to  
41 antifungal treatment, which supports a causal relationship. Nevertheless, it must be noted that  
42 whilst many cases improve with antifungal treatment, they do not disappear completely. The  
43 current Working Group noted that it is important to have consistency in the way we use these  
44 two terms and that antifungal treatment should be part of the diagnostic process.  
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51 A recent systematic review on “candida leukoplakia” (Shukla et al., 2019) identified 3  
52 studies quoting malignant transformation ratios of 2.5%, 6.5% and 28.7%: such a wide range  
53 implies inconsistent diagnostic criteria. The definition of leukoplakia excludes specific causes  
54 and the Working Group noted that candidal leukoplakia was now a deprecated term.  
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### 5.3 Exophytic verrucous hyperplasia)/Oral verrucous hyperplasia

Verrucous hyperplasia of the oral mucosa - a relatively unrecognized entity that may resemble verrucous carcinoma both clinically and histologically was first described by Shear and Pindborg, (1980). VH was considered a precursor of verrucous carcinoma (Batsakis et al., 1999). A new entity was proposed by a group of South Asian pathologists to describe a “mass type” lesion with an exophytic and verrucous appearance specifically recognised among areca nut and betel quid users (Zain et al., 2016; Patil, Warnakulasuriya, Raj, Sanketh, & Rao, 2016). This disorder was first noted in Taiwanese patients diagnosed with OPMDs (Wang et al., 2009) and the name proposed by these authors was *oral verrucous hyperplasia*. A second cohort was described later by the same group amongst which 6 (10%) developed an oral cancer (Wu et al., 2018). This disorder can present in two forms: 1) as an exophytic, fleshy verruco-papillary outgrowth with a white and/or pink surface colour or 2) as a white, plaque-like exophytic verrucous lesion. It typically manifests as a discrete or solitary lesion and may co-exist in patient presenting with oral submucous fibrosis. The clinical presentation could masquerade as a squamous cell carcinoma or verrucous carcinoma. Absence of deep induration is a cardinal feature.

Hsue et al., (2007) reported on a group of 1458 Taiwanese patients with OPMDs and based on clinical and histopathologic criteria 324 (22%) were classified as oral verrucous hyperplasia: 10 patients developed malignancies during a mean follow-up time of 43 months. Wang et al., (2014) reporting on 5071 southern Taiwanese patients from Kaohsiung city diagnosed with OPMDs, described the clinical presentation of 869 OVH patients, 59 of whom (6.79%) developed cancer in a follow up period of 33.5 months. Cancers were found mostly on the buccal mucosa, but the lower lip, dorso-lateral surfaces of the tongue, soft palate and gingiva were also affected. The clinical and histological diagnostic criteria for oral verrucous hyperplasia aka oral exophytic verrucous hyperplasia (OEVH) are outlined by Zain et al., (2016). A high proportion of these disorders in Taiwanese subjects demonstrated OED at the initial histopathological investigation and a proportion developed oral cancer at the sites of the presenting lesion. Recent reports on exophytic/oral verrucous hyperplasia proposed that this disorder be regarded as an OPMD (Hsue et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014; Zain et al., 2016; Patil et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2018). Several cases presented at a workshop held in Kuala Lumpur (Zain et al., 2016) have provided new evidence that these may arise as a secondary lesion in patients with oral submucous fibrosis (Shah, Bansal, Shirsat, Prasad, & Desai, 2019). Having considered the recent publications describing these disorders the

Working Group was of the opinion that it would be desirable to obtain more follow up data from several countries in regions where betel quid chewing is common. The Working Group recommends the term OEVH rather than OVH for this apparent entity.

## 6. CARCINOMAS ARISING IN PATIENTS WITH OPMDs

The most common histopathological diagnosis reported for a cancer arising in a patient with an OPMD is a conventional squamous cell carcinoma. OPMDs are a heterogeneous and have variability in their ratios of progression to cancer (1.4% - 49.5%) over a follow-up period ranging from 12 months to 20 years) (Iocca et al., 2019). Predicting the risk of transformation remains a significant challenge even in specialist practice. At one end of the spectrum patients diagnosed with PVL and erythroplakia show high frequencies of cancer development (close to 30-50%), and on the other hand, oral lichen planus (OLP) show lower frequencies of cancer development (1-2%). Oral leukoplakia has a variable risk with non-homogeneous forms showing higher risk compared with homogeneous leukoplakia. The presence and grade of epithelial dysplasia has shown prognostic utility in stratifying the risk of cancer development. In a meta-analysis Mehanna et al., (2009) have shown that higher grades of dysplasia have significantly higher frequencies of cancer development. Techniques such as ploidy assessment when combined with dysplasia grading may refine the prediction of risk (Alaizari, Sperandio, Odell, Peruzzo, & Al-Maweri, 2018). Accompanying publications in this volume discuss in greater detail cancer development in patients with OPMDs, pathology tools, biomarkers and how ploidy analysis may assist in stratifying risk. The biomarkers currently investigated for predicting the risk are not in routine clinical use anywhere in the world.

## 7. CARCINOMA ARISING FROM CLINICALLY NORMAL MUCOSA

Malignancy can arise from an area of “normal-looking” mucosa without the patient or a clinician being aware of an OPMD being present earlier at the site. This is consistent with the concept of a field change, that apparently normal mucosa may contain significant molecular aberrations that increase the likelihood of cancer (Nikitakis et al., 2018; Thomson, Goodson, & Smith, 2017; Farah et al., 2018; Farah, Shearston, Nguyen, & Kujan, 2019).

There is a need to further investigate the basic biology associated with the concept of field cancerisation as proposed by Slaughter et al., (1953) - not least in ensuring common terminology (Ogden & Hall, 1997). Field cancerisation is characterized by phenotypic and genetic changes in the neighbouring areas of frank carcinomas, whilst the term “field change” should be reserved for alterations in tissues that show no evidence of disease clinically or



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3 histologically (Ogden, 1998). A proliferating field that gradually displaces the normal mucosa  
4 have been detected on the basis of mutations in TP53, whereas they are usually not detected by  
5 routine diagnostic techniques (Braakhuis, Tabor, Kummer, Leemans, & Brakenhoff, 2003;  
6 Braakhuis, Leemans, & Brakenhoff, 2005). Thus, the identification of a marker usually  
7 associated with malignant disease would signify a field change effect in the absence of  
8 histomorphological evidence of dysplasia. Such patients may not have yet developed nor  
9 indeed may never develop a tumour.

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15 Currently available adjunctive tools (Rashid & Warnakulasuriya, 2015; Kerr, 2020)  
16 have not been adequately researched to test whether the new optical devices are able to identify  
17 these occult lesions within field changes. However, evidence for field change, based on a  
18 variety of markers (eg cytokeratins, p53 and markers of angiogenesis) have been identified  
19 within biopsies of clinically normal mucosa from oral cancer patients (Ogden, Chisholm,  
20 Hopwood, Lane, 1993, Ogden, Chisholm, Morris & Stevenson , 1997, El Gazzar, Macluskey,  
21 & Ogden, 2005), and using exfoliative cytology (eg cytomorphology, cytokeratins (Ogden,  
22 1997). However, a reliable marker that can predict future malignant change in every case has  
23 yet to be found. Future molecular techniques might make these invisible changes detectable  
24 but further research is needed.

## 34 **8. SYNDROMES THAT MAY POTENTIATE CANCER DEVELOPMENT IN THE** 35 **ORAL CAVITY**

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38 Close to 20 familial cancer syndromes are described and people born with inherited genetic  
39 predispositions develop haematological malignancies and solid cancers at a younger age and  
40 with a relatively high frequency. Important examples are Fanconi anaemia, xeroderma  
41 pigmentosum, Li Fraumeni syndrome, Blooms's syndrome, ataxia-telangiectasia and Cowden  
42 syndrome.

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46 Many of these syndromes are caused by alterations in tumour suppressor genes, or DNA  
47 repair genes that can be broadly divided into two groups, called gatekeepers and caretakers  
48 respectively. Prime et al., (2001) examined whether there is an increase in the incidence of oral  
49 cancer in inherited cancer syndromes and whether the genes that are known to be relevant to  
50 the pathogenesis of these cancer syndromes also play a role in the development and behaviour  
51 of oral cancer. These authors provide a comprehensive list of gatekeeper genes associated with  
52 several hereditary cancer syndromes (Prime, Thakker, Pring, Guest, & Paterson, 2001).

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58 Of the many familial cancer syndromes described, Fanconi Anaemia has the strongest  
59 evidence for a predisposition for oral cancer and a short description appears below:  
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### 8.1 Fanconi anaemia (FA)

An increased susceptibility of Fanconi anaemia (FA) patients to early-onset OSCCs - largely in the absence of known life-style risk factors - has been observed for decades. Fanconi anaemia (FA) is a rare autosomal recessive disorder of DNA repair genes in which the defect(s) lie in the repair of DNA crosslinks. It is characterized by physical congenital anomalies (skeletal malformations), aplastic anaemia, and then progressive pancytopenia. FA may lead to bone marrow failure, leukemia, and/or solid tumours, including head and neck cancers, with oral squamous cell carcinoma being the most common type. Recently there has been renewed interest among researchers on development of OSCCs in FA. Masserot et al., (2008) described head and neck squamous cell carcinoma in 13 patients (8 in oral cavity) with Fanconi anemia after hematopoietic stem cell transplantation. In a systematic review Furquim et al., (2018) identified a total of 121 individuals affected by FA and OSCC among 47 published from 1970 to 2016. The tongue was the most affected site. The overall risk was estimated to increase 500 to 700-fold for head and neck cancer in FA patients compared to the general population (Kutler et al., 2003) and the majority developed carcinomas at an early age. Therefore, young people who develop HNSCC must receive FA diagnostic tests. Patients with FA can present with potentially malignant disorders, especially oral leukoplakia (Amenábar, Torres-Pereira, Tang, & Punyadeera, 2019). Among 138 Brazilian patients with FA who had not undergone hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT), 16 cases (12%) were diagnosed with oral leukoplakia, with a median age of 16.5 years (Cavalcanti et al., 2015)

### 8.2 Plummer-Vinson syndrome

Plummer-Vinson (Paterson-Kelly) syndrome (PVS) - a constellation of symptoms relating to postcricoid oesophageal webs, atrophic glossitis, koilonychia, and dysphagia considered to be caused by microcytic hypochromic anaemia - was linked to predisposition to upper digestive tract cancer. Barron, (1991) claimed in an analysis of a Welsh cohort that this syndrome no longer existed. Anaemia causes atrophy of the oral epithelium (Rennie et al., 1984; Ranasinghe et al., 1987) and could be a co-factor among people with OPMDs and deserves attention in future research.

## 9. OTHER TERMINOLOGIES

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3 It has recently been suggested to replace the term OPMD with: “potentially premalignant oral  
4 epithelial lesion (PPOEL)” (Nikitakis, 2018; van der Waal, 2018). The terminology, *oral*  
5 *potentially malignant disorders*, is now well established in the literature with over 750  
6 publications and the Working Group could not see any reason for change. Both in the 2007  
7 paper, and here, we argue distinction between the terms “potentially malignant” and  
8 “pre-malignant”: the former indicates an unknown potential for the later development of a  
9 malignant tumour; the latter an inevitability given sufficient time. “Potentially premalignant”  
10 may indicate lack of premalignancy. Moreover, changes observed in histology are not limited  
11 to epithelium and therefore “epithelial lesion” is inappropriate. Epithelial-connective tissue  
12 interactions are fundamental to homeostasis and disease and connective tissue changes are a  
13 striking component of many disorders (Vucicevic Boras et al., 2018; Johnson, 2020), including  
14 in oral lichen planus and oral submucous fibrosis (OSMF) (Arakeri et al., 2018; Lodi et al.,  
15 2005).

## 10. IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH

- The complete natural history of the individual OPMDs is yet to be confirmed
- There is a need for further research to identify the potential risk of cancer in patients with different OPMDs based on strict clinicopathological diagnostic criteria.
- There is a need to better understand the number of oral cancer cases developing from apparently normal oral mucosa.
- There is a need to elucidate the role (if any) of *Candida* infection in dysplastic tissues.
- The role of immunosuppression in GVHD towards the development of oral cancer needs study.
- There is a need to identify molecular differences between homogenous and non-homogenous leukoplakias, and dysplastic and non-dysplastic leukoplakias.
- There is a need to identify reliable molecular predictive and prognostic biomarkers to guide personalized management of OPMDs as the current model to estimate the risk of malignant transformation is based only on clinical and histopathological features of the observed mucosal changes.
- The Working Group reiterates the need for good quality longitudinal studies, assembling cases by the precise clinicopathological criteria defined here, gathering extensive metadata on demography and risk factors, and analyzing follow-up data appropriately. Studies with inconsistent designs should not be pooled.

## 11. CONCLUSIONS

This paper provides an update on the 2007 WHO Collaborating Centre's classification of oral potentially malignant disorders. The Working Group identified sufficient evidence on oral lichenoid lesions and oral graft versus host disease that merit their addition to the classification proposed in 2007. The natural history and the biological behaviour of many OPMDs remain unknown and there was consensus that further research on these disorders is warranted. A global research consortium to study OPMDs is needed to establish multi-site longitudinal studies with well-defined clinicopathological diagnostic criteria to address questions and characterise their natural history, and possibly to prevent development of oral cancer in patients diagnosed with these disorders.

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## DISCLOSURES

The authors filed detailed disclosure of potential conflicts relevant to the workshop topics, and none were declared.

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**Table 1. Recommended definitions for OPMDs**

<b>Disorder</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Source</b>
Leukoplakia	“A predominantly white plaque of questionable risk having excluded (other) known diseases or disorders that carry no increased risk for cancer”	WHO Collaborating Centre (2007)
Proliferative Verrucous Leukoplakia (PVL)	Progressive, persistent, and irreversible disorder characterized by the presence of multiple leukoplakias that frequently become warty.	WHO Collaborating Centre 2020
Erythroplakia	'A predominantly fiery red patch that cannot be characterized clinically or pathologically as any other definable disease'.	WHO Collaborating Centre, 2007
Oral Submucous Fibrosis (OSF)	'A chronic, insidious disease that affects the oral mucosa, initially resulting in loss of fibroelasticity of the lamina propria and as the disease advances, results in fibrosis of the lamina propria and the submucosa of the oral cavity along with epithelial atrophy'.	Modified from: World Workshop on Oral Medicine V (Kerr et al., 2011)
Oral Lichen Planus (OLP)	A chronic inflammatory disorder of unknown aetiology with characteristic relapses and remissions, displaying white reticular lesions, accompanied or not by atrophic, erosive and ulcerative and/or plaque type areas. Lesions are frequently bilaterally symmetrical. Desquamative gingivitis may be a feature.	WHO Collaborating Centre 2020
Actinic Keratosis (Actinic Cheilitis) (AK/AC)	A disorder that results from sun damage and affects exposed areas of the lips, most commonly the vermilion border of the lower lip with a variable presentation of atrophic and erosive areas and white plaques.	WHO Collaborating Centre 2020
Palatal Lesions in Reverse Smokers	White and/or red patches affecting the hard palate in reverse smokers, frequently stained with nicotine.	WHO Collaborating Centre 2020
Oral Lupus Erythematosus (OLE)	An autoimmune connective tissue disease which may affect the lip and oral cavity, where it presents as an erythematous area surrounded by whitish striae, frequently with a “target” configuration.	WHO Collaborating Centre 2020
Dyskeratosis Congenita (DC)	‘A rare cancer-prone inherited bone marrow failure syndrome caused by aberrant telomere biology. It is characterized clinically by the presence of the diagnostic triad of dysplastic nails, lacy reticular skin pigmentation and oral leukoplakia’	Ballew & Savage 2013

<b>Newly included in 2020 classification</b>		
Oral Lichenoid Lesion (OLL)	Oral lesions with lichenoid features but lacking the typical clinical or histopathological appearances of OLP ie may show asymmetry or are reactions to dental restorations or are drug-induced.	WHO Collaborating Centre 2020
Oral Graft vs Host Disease (OGVHD)	Clinical and histopathological presentations similar to oral lichen planus in a patient developing an autoimmune, multi-organ complication after allogenic hematopoietic cell transplantation.	WHO Collaborating Centre 2020
<b>Removed from the 2020 classification due to limited evidence</b>		
Oral Epidermolysis Bullosa (OEB)	‘A severe epidermal fragility disorder associated with trauma-induced blistering, progressive soft tissue scarring, and increased risk of epidermal cancer’	Fritsch et al., 2008

**Table 2: Other white lesions and disorders to be excluded based on clinical features alone before considering a clinical diagnosis of oral leukoplakia**

Normal and pathological entities	Diagnostic features
White sponge naevus	Noted in early life, family history, lesions are throughout the mouth; Genital mucosa may be affected.
Frictional keratosis*	History of friction or other mechanical trauma, mostly along the occlusal plane, an etiological cause apparent, mostly reversible upon removal of the cause
Biting of lip, commissures or cheeks (morsicatio buccorum)	Habit of lip &/or cheek biting known; irregular whitish flakes with jagged out line
Chemical injury	Known history of exposure to a chemical (e.g. an aspirin tablet or a caustic agent e.g. sodium hypochlorite). The site of lesion corresponds to chemical injury, painful, resolves rapidly
Oral lichen planus	White papules joined up with lines to form a reticular appearance on the surface of variably inflamed mucosa. It can also present as desquamative gingivitis. Plaque type may be difficult to distinguish from oral leukoplakia
Acute pseudomembranous Candidiasis**	Generally widespread. The white membrane can be scraped off sometimes revealing an erythematous/raw footprint. Associated with local or systemic (e.g. immunodeficiency) underlying causes.
Chronic hyperplastic candidosis	An adherent white or white and red patch caused by a chronic fungal infection, usually <i>Candida albicans</i>
Leukoedema	Bilateral on buccal mucosae, and disappears upon stretching (retracting). Predilection among some racial groups.
Fordyce's spots/condition	<1mm diameter, elevated, circular buff-coloured spots/papules distinctly demarcated from the normal surrounding lining mucosa
Skin graft	Known history of a skin graft
Oral hairy leukoplakia	Bilateral keratosis with vertical streaking, most common on the lateral borders of the tongue, but can focally affect other mucosal sites, especially in non-keratinised areas. Positive history of immunosuppression from HIV disease or drugs – the latter often following organ transplantation or the use of high potency steroid inhalers.
Nicotinic stomatitis	Greyish white palate with red spots (inflamed minor mucous glands). Smoking history,

(leukokeratosis nicotina palati or smokers' palate)	
Uremic stomatitis	White, sharply demarcated, adherent plaques made of fibrinous exudate with some desquamated epithelial cells. History of renal disease

\* Several terms are used for white patches induced by trauma: Frictional keratosis typically appears as a patch with diffuse borders; when found on alveolar ridges these are referred to as alveolar ridge keratosis (ARK); a white line along the occlusal plane is referred to as linea alba buccalis; Morsicatio buccarum is a condition characterized by chronic irritation or injury to the buccal mucosa, caused by repetitive chewing, biting or nibbling; None of these should be characterised as oral leukoplakia.

\*\* Acute pseudomembranous candidiasis is usually a widespread and distinctive infection of oral, and sometimes oropharyngeal mucosa and should be easily differentiated from oral leukoplakia.



**Table 3. Clinical presentations and differential diagnosis of some common OPMDs**

Disorder	Symptoms	Clinical presentation	Clinical conditions to exclude in the diagnosis
Oral Leukoplakia (OL)	<p>Generally asymptomatic</p> <p>Some discomfort</p>	<p><b>Homogeneous leukoplakia:</b> Uniformly white, flat and thin, with a smooth surface which may exhibit shallow cracks. Cannot be rubbed off.</p> <p><b>Non homogeneous leukoplakias: (sub types)</b> <i>Nodular leukoplakia:</i> Small polypoid or rounded outgrowths, red or white excrescences. <i>Verrucous leukoplakia:</i> The surface is raised, exophytic, wrinkled or corrugated <i>Erythroleukoplakia:</i> Mixed, white and red (speckled) but retaining predominantly white character. Margins may be irregular</p>	<p>White Sponge Naevus Frictional keratoses, including Alveolar Ridge Keratosis Chemical injury Chronic candidal infection Leukoedema Fordyce's spots/condition Skin graft Oral Hairy Leukoplakia (OHL) Leukokeratosis Nicotina Palati (Smoker's palate)</p> <p>HPV Lesions eg Condylomata/Warts</p> <p>Geographic tongue/Erythema Migrans Erosive lichen planus or lichenoid lesions</p>
Oral Erythroplakia	Discomfort, tingling and sensitivity to touch,	A localized red patch with well-defined margins and a matt surface.	Erythematous candidiasis Denture-associated stomatitis

	hot beverages or spicy foods.		Erythema migrans Erosive and inflammatory/infective disorders Desquamative gingivitis Discoid lupus erythematosus Erosive lichen planus Pemphigoid Pemphigus vulgaris Vascular hamartomas Vascular neoplasms
Oral Proliferative Multifocal Leukoplakia (OPML)	Some discomfort	Multiple, thick, white patches in more than two different oral sites, frequently found on the gingiva, alveolar processes and palate. Majority present with a verrucous pattern. Lesions spread and coalesce during development. Recurrence in a previously treated area.	Lichen planus (particularly in early stages of OPML)
Oral Lichen Planus (OLP)	Asymptomatic. Erosive/ulcerative variety is sore	Mostly white lines or as a white plaque. <i>Reticular</i> : lace-like white lines, <i>Linear, annular</i> ; various presentations as lines or, rings <i>Papular</i> : White dots <i>plaque-type</i> : white patch <i>Atrophic, erosive and ulcerative</i> : red and ulcerated. <i>Bullous</i> : vesicular	Oral lichenoid contact hypersensitivity reactions Oral lichenoid drug reactions Oral lichenoid lesions (see below) Lichenoid lesions in a betel quid user Mucous Membrane Pemphigoid Lichen planus pemphigoides Chronic ulcerative stomatitis Chronic graft-versus host disease Lichen sclerosis Oral lupus erythematosus Oral proliferative multifocal leukoplakia
Oral Submucous Fibrosis (OSF)	Burning sensation to spicy food.	Blanching of oral mucosa Marked loss of tongue papillae Leathery mucosa	Scleroderma

	Later, restricted mouth opening	Fibrous bands Limited mobility of tongue (rigidity) Shrunken or deformed uvula Limitation of mouth opening Sunken cheeks	
<b>New in 2020 Classification</b>			
Oral Lichenoid Lesion (OLL)	Asymptomatic. Red and atrophic areas could be sore	White lines (reticular: lace-like, linear or annular), papular, sometimes plaque-type. Red and erosive with white striae. Asymmetrical	Oral lichen planus
Oral Graft vs host disease (OGVHD)	Red and atrophic areas could be sore	As above. A history of allogenic haematopoietic cell transplantation.	Oral lichen planus Oral lichenoid contact reaction Oral lichenoid drug reaction

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**Table 4: Diagnostic criteria of oral lichen planus based on previous proposals (Al-Hashimi et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2016; van der Meij & van der Waal, 2003; and Aguirre-Urizar et al., 2020).**

<b>Clinical criteria</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Presence of bilateral, more or less symmetrical white lesions affecting buccal mucosa, and/or tongue, and/or lip, and/or gingiva</li> <li>- Presence of a white papular lesions and lace-like network of slightly raised white lines (reticular, annular or linear pattern) with or without erosions and ulcerations.</li> <li>- Sometimes presents as desquamative gingivitis.</li> </ul>
<b>Histopathological criteria</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Presence of a well-defined band-like predominantly lymphocytic infiltrate that is confined to the superficial part of the connective tissue.</li> <li>- Signs of vacuolar degeneration of the basal and/or supra basal cell layers with keratinocyte apoptosis</li> <li>- In the atrophic type there is epithelial thinning and sometimes ulceration caused by failure of epithelial regeneration as a result of basal cell destruction. A mixed inflammatory infiltrate may be found.</li> </ul>

**Supplementary Table 1: Historical Definitions of Oral Leukoplakia and Proliferative Verrucous Leukoplakia**

<b>Oral Leukoplakia</b>	
<b>Definition</b>	<b>Source</b>
'A white patch or plaque that cannot be characterized clinically or pathologically as any other disease'	WHO (1978) (Kramer, Lucas, Pindborg, & Sobin, 1978b)
'A white patch or plaque that cannot be characterized clinically or pathologically as any other disease and is not associated with any physical or chemical causative agent except use of tobacco'	Malmö Conference (1983) (Axéll, Holmström, Kramer, Pindborg, & Shear, 1984)
'Leukoplakia is a whitish patch or plaque that cannot be characterized clinically or pathologically as any other disease and it is not associated with any physical or chemical causative agent except the use of tobacco.'	Uppsala international symposium (1994) (Axéll et al., 1996)
'White plaques of questionable risk having excluded (other) known diseases or disorders that carry no increased risk for cancer'.	WHO Collaborating Centre 2007
'A predominantly white patch or plaque that cannot be characterized clinically or pathologically as any other disorder; oral leukoplakia carries an increased risk of cancer development either in or close to the area of the leukoplakia or elsewhere in the oral cavity.'	van der Waal, 2015
'White plaques of questionable risk having excluded (other) known diseases or disorders that carry no increased risk for cancer'	WHO Collaborating Centre 2020
<b>Proliferative Verrucous Leukoplakia</b>	
'Leukoplakias that spread and become multifocal. PVL is slow-growing, persistent, and irreversible, and in time areas become exophytic and wart like'	Hansen, Olson, & Silverman, 1985