



Unique Journal of Medical and Dental Sciences

Available online: www.ujconline.net

Review Article

TEA AND ORAL CANCER: A REVIEW

Adhikari Aniket^{1*}, Madhusnata DE²

¹Research Scholar, Department of Genetics, Vivekananda Institute of Medical Sciences, Ramakrishna Mission Seva Pratishthan 99, Sarat Bose Road, Kolkata – 700026, India.

²Professor, Department of Genetics, Vivekananda Institute of Medical Sciences, Ramakrishna Mission Seva Pratishthan 99, Sarat Bose Road, Kolkata – 700026, India.

Received: 09-11-2013; Revised: 07-12-2013; Accepted: 06-01-2014

*Corresponding Author: **Aniket Adhikari***

Department of Genetics, Vivekananda Institute of Medical Sciences, Ramakrishna Mission Seva Pratishthan 99 Sarat Bose Road, Kolkata – 700026, India.
Phone No: 2475–3636/37/38/39/30 (033) E mail: address: aniket_adhikari@rediffmail.com

ABSTRACT

Tea is the most widely consumed beverage worldwide and important agricultural product. It is consumed in different forms namely, oolong, green, and black tea. Being rich in natural antioxidants, tea is used in the management of different types of cancers including oral cavity. The development of oral cancer is a tobacco related multistep process. Micronuclei (MN) act as a biomarker which is related with tobacco-associated genetic mutations. The present review focuses on the tea antioxidants and their mechanism of protective effects on oral cancer.

Keywords: Tea, Cancer, Polyphenols, Micronuclei.

INTRODUCTION

Oral cancer is the sixth most common human cancer¹, representing 3% of all types of cancer. They are located in the oral cavity in 48% of cases, and 90% of these are oral squamous cell carcinoma². They are sometimes preceded by precancerous lesions, such as leukoplakia and erythroplakia. More than 300,000 new cases of oral squamous cell carcinoma are diagnosed annually³. The most common site for intraoral carcinoma is the tongue, which accounts for around 40% of all cases in the oral cavity proper. Tongue cancers most frequently occur on the posterior-lateral border and ventral surfaces of the tongue. The floor of the mouth is the second most common intraoral location. Less common sites include the gingival, buccal mucosa, labial mucosa, and hard plate. The incidence of oral cancer has significant local variation. Oral and pharyngeal carcinomas account for up to half of all malignancies in India and other Asian countries, and this particularly high prevalence is attributed to the influence of carcinogens and region-specific epidemiological factors, especially tobacco and chewing betel quid.

Risk Factors of Oral Cancer

The most important risk factor for the development of oral cancer in the Western countries is the consumption of tobacco⁴ and alcohol⁵. Although drinking and smoking are independent risk factors, they have a synergistic effect and greatly increase the risk together. The use of smokeless tobacco products such as gutkha and betel quid in Asian countries^{6,7}.

GENETIC: Several studies have reported a significant familial component in the development of oral cancer. Familial aggregation of oral cancer, possibly with an autosomal dominant mode of inheritance, is observed in a very small percentage of oral cancer patients⁸. Polymorphic variation of genes in the xenobiotic metabolism pathways such as in CYP family or the genes coding for glutathione S-transferase-M1^{9,10} and N-acetyltransferase-2 may be implicated¹¹. Individuals that carry the fast-metabolizing alcohol dehydrogenase type 3 (ADH3) allele¹² may be particularly vulnerable to the effects of chronic alcohol consumption and could be at increased risk to develop oral cancer¹³. The single nucleotide polymorphism A/G870 in the CCND1 gene that encodes Cyclin D is associated with susceptibility to oral cancer.

INFLAMMATION: Cytokines, including interleukins (ILs), tumor necrosis factors (TNFs), and certain growth factors are an important group of proteins that regulate and mediate inflammation and angiogenesis. Genetic association studies suggest a putative correlation between functional DNA polymorphisms in cytokine genes and oral cancer¹⁴. Increased serum levels of proinflammatory cytokines, interleukin (IL)-1 β , IL-6, IL-8, and TNF- α as well as the anti-inflammatory cytokine, IL-10, are seen in patients with oral cancer.

INFECTION: Human papillomavirus (HPV), particularly HPV type 16, may be an etiologic factor, especially among persons who do not smoke or drink alcohol^{15,16}. Tumor HPV status is a strong and independent prognostic factor for

survival among patients with oropharyngeal cancer¹⁷. The mouth contains a variety of different surfaces that are home to a huge diversity of micro-organisms, including more than 750 distinct taxa of bacteria, thus suggesting that the oral squamous epithelium is constantly exposed to a variety of microbial challenges, on both cellular & molecular levels^{18,19}.

TOBACCO: Nicotine stomatitis is a thickened, hyperkeratotic alteration of the palatal mucosa that is most frequently related to pipe smoking, but milder examples can also develop secondary to cigar smoking or, rarely, from cigarette smoking (Warnakulasuriya et al., 2007). Another specific tobacco-related oral mucosal alteration occurs in association with smokeless tobacco use, such as either snuff or chewing tobacco (Neville and Day, 2002). Such lesions typically occur in the buccal or labial vestibule where the tobacco is held, but they can also extend onto the adjacent gingival and buccal mucosa. Early lesions show slight wrinkling that disappears when the tissues are stretched. Other lesions may appear as hyperkeratotic, granular patches. Advanced lesions exhibit greatly thickened zones of grayish white mucosa with well-developed folds and fissures²¹.

MUTATIONS: Genetic mutations often produce early phenotypic changes that may present as clinically apparent, recognizable lesions. An oral premalignant lesion is an area of morphologically or genetically altered tissue that is more likely than normal tissue to develop cancer. The reported rates of malignant transformation of leukoplakia range from less than 1% to 18%^{22,23}. A velvety reddish mucosal lesion, known as erythroplakia, is associated with a higher rate of cancer development, occurs much less frequently, and is more difficult to detect clinically than oral leukoplakia. Virtually all erythroplakic lesions contain severe dysplasia, carcinoma in situ, or early invasive carcinoma at the time of presentation²⁴. Formalized classification and staging systems for oral preneoplastic lesions have been proposed^{25,26}.

PRENEOPLASIA: There are clinically apparent oral premalignant lesions of oral cancer. They include leukoplakia, erythroplakia, nicotine stomatitis and tobacco pouch keratosis, lichen planus, and submucous fibrosis²⁷.

LEUKOPLAKIA: The term "leukoplakia" is a white lesion of the tongue that probably represented a syphilitic glossitis²⁸. Leukoplakia is seen most frequently in middle aged and older males, with an increasing prevalence with age. Fewer than 1% of males below the age of 30 have leukoplakia, but the prevalence increases to an alarming 8% in men over the age of 70²⁹. The prevalence in females past the age of 70 is approximately 2%. The most common sites are the buccal mucosa, alveolar mucosa, and lower lip.

ERYTHROPLAKIA: The term "erythroplasia" originally used by (Queyrat, 1911) to describe a red, precancerous lesion of the penis is used for a clinically and histopathologically similar process that occurs on the oral mucosa³⁰. Oral erythroplakia occurs most frequently in older males and appears as a red macule or plaque with a soft, velvety texture. The floor of mouth, lateral tongue, retro molar pad and soft palate are the most common sites of involvement. Often the lesion is well demarcated, but some examples may gradually blend into the surrounding mucosa. Some lesions may be intermixed with white areas (erythroleukoplakia).

Erythroplakia is often asymptomatic, although some patients may complain of a sore, burning sensation.

Beneficial Effect of Tea

Tea, other natural dietary agents have drawn substantial attention from both researchers and the general public because of their ready availability, low toxicity, and potential ability to suppress carcinogenesis and reduce the risk of cancer³¹. Tea beverage is an infusion of the dried leaves of *Camellia sinensis*, a member of Theaceae family. It is an evergreen shrub or tree that can grow to a height of 30 feet, but is usually clipped to a height of 2.5 feet in cultivation. The tree or shrub is heavily branched with dark-green, hairy, oblong, ovate leaves cultivated and preferentially picked as young shoots. Older leaves are considered to be inferior in quality. Freshly harvested tea leaf is processed differently in different parts of the world to give oolong tea (2%), green tea (20%) or black tea (78%)³².

TYPES

GREEN TEA: Green teas are not fully fermented like black teas, or partially fermented as oolongs. Instead, the tea leaves are plucked, steamed or pan fried, (which removes the fermentation enzymes), rolled, and then dried. This process yields a chemical composition in green tea similar to the fresh tea leaf. Green teas are generally produced in two different varieties, white tea and yellow tea, the latter being less fermented because of a process known as wilting. Green tea has a high content of vitamins and minerals including ascorbic acid (vitamin C), which is present in amounts comparable to a lemon and several B vitamins, which are water-soluble and quickly released into a cup of tea. Green tea polyphenols may account for up to 30% of the dry weight³³. Most of the green tea polyphenols are flavonols, commonly known as catechins. Some major green tea catechins are (-)-epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG), (-)-epigallocatechin (EGC), (-)-epicatechin-3-gallate (ECG), (-)-epicatechin (EC). (+)- gallocatechin, and (+)-catechin³⁴. The green tea catechins have been shown to be more effective antioxidants than Vitamins C and E³⁵, and their order of effectiveness as radical scavengers is ECG>EGCG>EGC>EC>catechin. The metal-chelating properties of green tea catechins are also important contributors to their anti oxidative activity^{36,37,38}.

BLACK TEA: In the process of manufacturing the black tea, the harvested leaves are allowed to wither. Known as 'withering', this process softens up the tea leaves. Next the leaves are rolled (crushed). After the leaves have been crushed, they often bunch together in balls and must be unrolled so as to allow the entire surface of leaf to be exposed to air for an even fermentation. During the manufacture of black tea, the monomeric flavan-3-ols undergo polyphenol oxidase-dependent oxidative polymerization leading to the formation of bisflavanols, theaflavins, thearubigins, and other oligomers in a process commonly known as "oxidation". Theaflavins (about 1%-2% of the total dry matter of black tea), including theaflavin, theaflavin-3-O-gallate, theaflavin-3'-O-gallate, and theaflavin-3, 3'-O-digallate, possess benzotropolone rings with dihydroxy or trihydroxy substitution systems, which give the characteristic color and taste of black tea. About 10%- 20% of the dry weight of black

tea is due to thearubigins, which are more extensively oxidized and polymerized.

OOLONG TEA: Being an intermediate between black and green tea – oolong tea is partially fermented. The leaves are partially withered, then allowed to ferment immediately. The leaves are then fired, rolled, and then allowed to partially ferment again. The fermentation process results in the oxidation of simple polyphenols, giving oolong tea its characteristic color and flavours³⁹. Oolong tea, a partially oxidized tea, contains monomeric catechins, theaflavins, and thearubigins along with some characteristic components, like epigallocatechin esters, theasinensins, dimeric catechins and dimeric proanthocyanidins. The flavanols are easily oxidized to the corresponding O-quinones.

EFFECT OF TEA ON ORAL CANCER

Cancer in the oral cavity is associated with cigarette smoking and tobacco use⁴⁰. A series of studies in animal models, especially in mice and rats, employing the appropriate carcinogens, mainly nitrosamine and in particular 4-(methylnitrosoamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-butanone (NNK) found in tobacco have revealed that green and black tea or the corresponding polyphenols decrease the incidence of these cancers through inhibition of oxidative reaction caused by the carcinogens^{41, 42}. Formation of nitrosamines, the carcinogens also found in tobacco, can be prevented by phenolics of green tea⁴³. Green tea polyphenols may be chemopreventive or inhibitory towards oral leukoplakia⁴⁴. Both green and black tea, are a natural source of fluoride and an effective vehicle for fluoride delivery to the oral cavity. After cleansing the mouth with tea, approximately 34% of the fluoride is retained and shows a strong binding ability to interact with the oral tissues and their surface integuments⁴⁵. This fluoride content may have a beneficial impact on caries and may carry out a wide range of biological activities including prevention of tooth loss and oral cancer^{46,47}. EGCG treatment inhibits the phosphorylation of EGFR and its downstream targets AKT and ERK and potentiates the effects of the EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor erlotinib in head and neck cancer⁴⁸. Tsao et al. have conducted an important phase II randomized, placebo controlled trial of green tea extract (GTE) in patients with high-risk oral premalignant lesions. Hong et al. conducted the first randomized clinical retinoid trial, which showed that high-dose 13-cisretinoic acid (13-cRA) significantly reduced the size of oral premalignant lesions and reversed dysplasia⁴⁹. The combination of high-dose 13-cRA, α -IFN, and α -tocopherol seemed to be very effective in delaying head and neck-associated second primary tumors and recurrence⁵⁰.

Micronuclei: A cancer biomarker

Micronuclei are extra nuclear cytoplasmic bodies. It has been reported as marker for high cancer risk as they arise in response to carcinogens. The formation of micronuclei can be induced by substances that cause chromosome breakage (clastogens) as well as by agents (aneugens) that affects the spindle apparatus⁵¹. The frequency of micronucleated exfoliated cell elevates in human tissues, which appear to be the main targets of carcinogens and from which the carcinomas arise⁵². Micronuclei are induced in oral exfoliated cell by a variety of carcinogenic substances which is found in tobacco, betel nut and alcohol⁵³. It has been reported that

potent clastogenic and mutagenic effects which are produced by tobacco specific nitrosamines, are responsible for the induction of chromatid / chromosomal aberrations resulting in the production of micronuclei⁵⁴.

Criteria for identifying micronuclei as given by Heddle & Countryman (1976) are:

1. Diameter less than 1/3rd the main nucleus.
2. Non-refractility (to exclude small stain particles).
3. Colour same as or lighter than the nucleus (to exclude large stain particles).
4. Location within 3 or 4 nuclear diameters of a nucleus; and not touching the nucleus (to make frequency measurements meaningful).
5. No more than 2 micronuclei associated with one nucleus⁵⁵.

Administration of black tea to subjects with oral leukoplakia resulted in a gradual reversal of the leukoplakia both on clinical observation and at cellular level as assessed by MN and chromosomal studies⁵⁶. Both the black tea and green tea extract decreased MN rates. The decrease in the MN indicated that the black tea and green tea were not genotoxic and clastogenic agents. The antigenotoxic and anticlastogenic properties of the teas might be due to the catechins (polyphenols) present in the tea. Many studies have demonstrated that tea catechins could suppress the genotoxic activity of various carcinogens with both in vitro and in vivo systems^{57,58,59}. It has shown that there is minimal genotoxic concern with a decaffeinated green tea catechin mixture. The antigenotoxic and anticlastogenic activities of the tea are mostly due to its antioxidant activity that inactivates the direct carcinogens⁶⁰. The antioxidant property has been highly attributed to the polyphenolic compounds in the tea. Catechins and flavonoids from the polyphenols are primarily responsible for the beneficial healthful properties of the tea^{61,62}.

CONCLUSION

Oral cancer is the sixth largest group of malignancies worldwide. The process of formation of oral cancer results from multiple sites of premalignant changes in the oral cavity. Micronuclei act as a biomarker of squamous cell carcinoma. Percentage of MN formation has been observed in pre cancerous lesions of the oral cavity of betel quid chewers. The polyphenols present in tea decrease the risk factor of specific type of cancers by inducing phase I and phase II metabolic enzymes that increase the formation of carcinogens. We have screened 311 subjects from different areas of Eastern, North Eastern India and also from RKMS Hospital, Kolkata. Out of which 61.09% had betel quid chewing habit. Percentage of micronuclei is higher than the normal in cases who had betel quid chewing habit and after supplementation of tea micronuclei percentage are lower than before. Overall tea is an affordable beverage of natural origin, shown some protective effect and also reducing the risk of cancer."

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This investigation was supported by the grants from National Tea Research Foundation (NTRF) Tea Board, Kolkata, India. I am thankful to Dept of Maxillofacial and ENT Department of RKMS hospital.

REFERENCES

1. Williams HK. Molecular pathogenesis of oral squamous carcinoma. *Molecular Pathology* 2000; 53(4): 165–72.
2. Jemal A, Siegel R, Ward E, Hao Y, Xu J, Thun MJ. Cancer statistics, 2009. *CA Cancer Journal for Clinicians* 2009; 59(4): 225–49.
3. Parkin DM, Laara E, Muir CS. Estimates of the worldwide frequency of sixteen major cancers in 1980. *International Journal of Cancer* 1988; 41(2): 184–97.
4. Warnakulasuriya S, Sutherland G, Scully C. Tobacco, oral cancer, and treatment of dependence. *Oral Oncology* 2005; 41(3): 244–60.
5. Ogden GR. Alcohol and oral cancer. *Alcohol* 2005; 35(3):169–73.
6. Boffetta P, Hecht S, Gray N, Gupta P, Straif K. Smokeless tobacco and cancer. *The Lancet Oncology* 2008;9(7):667–5.
7. Jeng JH, Chang MC, Hahn LJ. Role of areca nut in betel quid-associated chemical carcinogenesis: current awareness and future perspectives. *Oral Oncology* 2001; 37(6): 477–92.
8. Ankathil R, Mathew A, Joseph F, Nair MK. Is oral cancer susceptibility inherited? Report of five oral cancer families. *European Journal of Cancer Part B: Oral Oncology* 1996; 32(1): 63–7.
9. Sato M, Sato T, Izumo T, Amagasa T. Genetic polymorphism of drug-metabolizing enzymes and susceptibility to oral cancer. *Carcinogenesis* 1999; 20(10): 1927–31.
10. Sreelekha T T, Ramadas K, Pandey M, Thomas G, Nalinakumari KR. Genetic polymorphism of CYP1A1, GSTM1 and GSTT1 genes in Indian oral cancer. *Oral Oncology* 2001; 37(7): 593–8.
11. Gonzalez MV, Alvarez V, Pello MF, Menéndez MJ, Suárez C, Coto E. Genetic polymorphism of N-acetyltransferase-2, glutathione S-transferase-M1, and cytochromes P450IIE1 and P450IID6 in the susceptibility to head and neck cancer. *Journal of Clinical Pathology* 1998; 51(4):294–8.
12. Harty LC, Caporaso NE, Hayes RB, Winn DM, Bravo-Otero E, Blot WJ et al. Alcohol dehydrogenase 3 genotype and risk of oral cavity and pharyngeal cancers. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute* 1997; 89(22): 1698–05.
13. Brennan P, Lewis S, Hashibe M, Bell DA, Boffetta P, Bouchardy C et al. Pooled analysis of alcohol dehydrogenase genotypes and head and neck cancer: a HuGE review. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 2004; 159(1): 1–16.
14. Serefoglou Z, Yapijakis C, Nkenke E, Vairaktaris E. Genetic association of cytokine DNA polymorphisms with head and neck cancer. *Oral Oncology* 2008;44(12):1093–9.
15. Braakhuis BJM, Snijders PJF, Keune WJH, Meijer CJLM, Ruijter-Scheepers HJ, Leemans CR et al. Genetic patterns in head and neck cancers that contain or lack transcriptionally active human papillomavirus. *Journal of the National Cancer Institute* 2004; 96(13): 998–06.
16. Mao L, Hong W K. How does human papillomavirus contribute to head and neck cancer development? *J. of the National Cancer Institute* 2004; 96(13): 978–9.
17. Ang KK, Harris J, Wheeler R, Weber R, Rosenthal DI, Nguyen-Tân PF et al. Human papilloma virus and survival of patients with oropharyngeal cancer. *New England Journal of Medicine* 2010; 363(1): 24–35.
18. Hooper S J, Wilson MJ, Crean SJ. Exploring the link between microorganisms and oral cancer: a systematic review of the literature. *Head and Neck* 2009; 31 (9): 1228–39.
19. Meurman J H, Uttamo J. Oral micro-organisms in the etiology of cancer. *Acta Odontologica Scandinavica* 2008; 66 (6): 321–26.
20. Warnakulasuriya S, Johnson N W, van der Waal I. Nomenclature and classification of potentially malignant disorders of the oral mucosa. *Journal of Oral Pathology and Medicine* 2007; 36 (10): 575–80.
21. Smith JF, Mincer HA, Hopkins KP, Bell J. Snuffdipper's lesion. A cytological and pathological study in a large population. *Archives of Otolaryngology* 1970;92(5): 450–56.
22. Silverman S Jr, Gorsky M, Lozada F. Oral leukoplakia and malignant transformation. A follow-up study of 257 patients. *Cancer* 1984; 53(3):563–8.
23. Reibel J. Prognosis of oral pre-malignant lesions: significance of clinical, histopathological, and molecular biological characteristics. *Critical Reviews in Oral Biology & Medicine* 2003;14(1):47–62.
24. Reichart PA, Philipsen H P. Oral erythroplakia— a review. *Oral Oncology* 2005;41(6): 551–61.
25. Ax'ell T, Pindborg J J, Smith C J, van der Waal I. Oral white lesions with special reference to precancerous and tobacco-related lesions: conclusions of an international symposium held in Uppsala, Sweden, May 18–21 1994. International Collaborative Group on Oral White Lesions. *Journal of Oral Pathology and Medicine* 1996; 25(2): 49–54.
26. Van der Waal I, Schepman K P, van der Meij E H. A modified classification and staging system for oral leukoplakia. *Oral Oncology* 2000; 36(3): 264–66.
27. Neville B W, Day T A. Oral cancer and precancerous lesions. *Cancer J. for Clinicians* 2002;52(4) :195–15.
28. Schwimmer E. Die idiopathischen Schleimhaut plaques der Mundhöhle (Leukoplakia buccalis). *Archives of Dermatology—Syphilis* 1877; 9:570–11.
29. Bouquot J E, Gorlin R J. Leukoplakia, lichen planus, and other oral keratoses in 23,616 white Americans over the age of 35 years. *Oral Surgery Oral Medicine and Oral Pathology* 1986; 61(4): 373–81.
30. Queyrat L. Erythroplasie de gland. *Bulletin de la Société Française de Dermatologie et de Syphiligraphie* 1911; 22: 378–82.
31. Bode AM, Dong Z. Epigallocatechin 3-gallate and green tea catechins: united they work, divided they fail. *Cancer Prev Res* 2009; 2: 514–7.

32. Kuroda Y, Hara Y. Antimutagenic and anticarcinogenic activity of tea polyphenols. *Mutat Res*, 1999; 436: 69–7.
33. Balentine DA, Wiseman SA. The chemistry of flavonoids. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 1997; 37: 693-04.
34. Graham HN. Green tea, composition, consumption & polyphenols chemistry. *Prev Med* 1992; 21: 334-50.
35. Rice-Evans CA, Miller NJ, Bolwell PG, Bramley PM, Pridham JB. The relative antioxidant activities of plant-derived polyphenolic flavonoids. *Free Radical Research* 1995; 22 (4): 375–83.
36. Brown JE, Khodr H, Hider RC, Rice-Evans CA. Structural dependence of flavonoid interactions with Cu²⁺ ions: implications for their antioxidant properties. *Biochemical Journal* 1998 :1173–78.
37. Hider RC, Liu ZD, Khodr HH. Metal chelation of polyphenols. *Methods in Enzymology* 2001; 335: 190–03.
38. Kumamoto M, Sonda T, Nagayama K, Tabata M. Effects of pH and metal ions on antioxidative activities of catechins. *Biosciences Biotechnology Biochemistry* 2001; 65 (1): 126 –32.
39. Harbowy ME, Balentine D A. Tea chemistry. *Crit Rev Plant Sci* 1997; 16: 415–80.
40. Wynder EL, Hoffmann D. Smoking and lung cancer: Scientific challenges and opportunities. *Cancer Research* 1994; 54: 5284-95.
41. Yang CS, Chen L, Lee MJ, Landau JM. Effects of tea on carcinogenesis in animal models and humans. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 1996;401:51-61.
42. Xu Y, Ho CT, Amin SG, Han C, Chung FL. Inhibition of tobaccospecific nitrosamine-induced lung tumorigenesis in A/J mice by green Tea and its major polyphenol as antioxidants. *Cancer Res* 1992;52: 3875–9.
43. Lampe JW. Health effects of vegetables and fruit: Assessing mechanisms of action in human exp. studies. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1999; 70: (Suppl.) 475S.
44. Khafif A, Schantz SP, al-Rawi M, Sacks PG. Green tea regulates cell cycle progression in oral leukoplakia. *Head and Neck* 1998; 20:528-34.
45. Simpson A, Shaw L, Smith AJ. The bio-availability of fluoride from black tea. *J Dent* 2001; 29: 15–21.
46. Okamoto M, Sugimoto A, Legun KP, Nakayama K, Kamaguchi A, Maeda N. Inhibitory effect of green tea catechins on cysteine proteinases in *Porphyromonas gingivalis*. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 2004;19: 118–20.
47. Lee MJ, Lambert JD, Prabhu S, Meng X, Lu H, Maliakal P et al. Delivery of tea polyphenols to the oral cavity by green tea lavelns and black tea extract. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2004; 13:132–7.
48. Masuda M, Suzui M, Weinstein IB. Effects of epigallocatechin- 3-gallate on growth, epidermal growth factor receptor signaling pathways, gene expression, and chemosensitivity in human head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cell lines. *Clin Cancer Res* 2001; 7: 4220–9.
49. Hong WK, Endicott J, Itri LM, Doos W, Batsakis JG, Bell R et al. 13-cis retinoic acid in the treatment of oral leukoplakia. *N Engl J Med* 1986; 315:1501–5.
50. Shin DM, Khuri FR, Murphy B, Garden AS, Clayman G, Francisco M et al. Combined interferon- α , 13-cis-retinoic acid and alfatocoferal in locally advanced head and neck squamous cell carcinoma: novel bioadjuvant phase II trial. *J Clin Oncol* 2001;19: 3010–7.
51. Ribero DA, de Oliveira G, de Castro GM, Angelieri F. Cytogenic biomonitoring in patients exposed to dental X- rays: Comparison between adults and children. *Dentomaxillofac Radiol* 2008; 37: 404 – 7.
52. Buajeeb W, Kraivaphan P, Amornchat C, Triratana T. Frequency of micronucleated exfoliated cells in oral lichen planus. *Mutation Res.*, 2007; 627:191-96.
53. Kumar V, Rao NN, Nair NS (2000). Micronuclei in oral squamous cell carcinoma: A marker of genotoxic damage. *Indian J Dent Res*, 11,101 -6.
54. Bhide SV, Nair UJ, Nair J, Spiegelhalder B, Preussmann R. N- nitrosamines in the saliva of tobacco chewers or maseri users. *Food Chemical Toxicol* 1986; 24: 293 -7.
55. Countryman IP, Heddle JA. The production of micronuclei from chromosome aberrations in irradiated cultures of human lymphocytes. *Mutation Research* 1976; 41:321-2.
56. Halder A, Roychowdhury R, Ghosh A, De M. Black tea (*Camellia sinensis*) as chemopreventive agent in oral precancerous lesions. *Journal of Environmental Pathology, Toxicology and Oncology* 2005;24(2):103-06.
57. Kuroda Y .Bio-antimutagenic activity of green tea catechins in cultured Chinese hamster V79 cells. *Mutat Res* 1996; 36: 1179–86.
58. Sinha D, Bhattacharya RK, Siddiqi M , Roy M. Amelioration of sodium arsenite-induced clastogenicity by tea extracts in Chinese hamster v79 cells. *J Environ Pathol Tox* 2005; 24: 129 –40.
59. Isbrucker R A, Bausch J, Edwards J A, Wolz E. Safety studies on epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG) preparations Part 1: Genotoxicity. *Food Chem Toxicol* 2006; 44: 626–35.
60. Chang PY, Mirsalis J, Riccio ES, Bakke JP, Lee PS, Shimon J, et al. Genotoxicity and toxicity of the potential cancer-preventive agent polyphenon E. *Environ Mol Mutagen* 2003; 41: 43–54.
61. Venditti E, Bacchetti T, Tiano L, Carloni P, Greci L, Damiani E. Hot vs. cold water steeping of different teas: Do they affect antioxidant activity? *Food Chem* 2010; 119: 1597–04.
62. Nie S P, Xie M Y. A review on the isolation and structure of tea polysaccharides and their bioactivities. *Food Hydrocolloid* 2011; 25: 144–9.

Source of support: Nil, Conflict of interest: None Declared