

## Systematic Review

## The effects of continued smoking in head and neck cancer patients treated with radiotherapy: A systematic review and meta-analysis

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## ARTICLE INFO

## Article history:

Received 11 October 2018  
 Received in revised form 12 February 2019  
 Accepted 25 February 2019  
 Available online 11 March 2019

## Keywords:

Radiotherapy  
 Head and neck neoplasms  
 Smoking cessation  
 Survival  
 Recurrence  
 Quality of life

## ABSTRACT

**Purpose:** To determine the effects of continued smoking in head and neck cancer (HNC) patients undergoing radiotherapy on overall survival (OS), locoregional control (LRC), quality of life (QoL) and acute and late toxicities.

**Methods:** Articles from January 1990 to August 14, 2018 were searched in PubMed, MEDLINE (Ovid), Embase, Scopus, The Cochrane Library, CINAHL and AUSThealth. Articles were included if majority of patients were treated with radiotherapy and smokers were defined as those who continued to smoke during or after radiotherapy. Data extraction and risk of bias assessment was performed by three independent co-authors using summary data of original studies. A meta-analysis using a random effects model was conducted for OS and LRC. In addition, a qualitative synthesis was performed for toxicities and quality of life as only a limited number of articles were available.

**Results:** The initial search identified 2217 studies, with 24 articles comprising 6332 patients eligible for inclusion. Analysis demonstrated that continued smoking was associated with approximately two times the risk of mortality (RR = 1.85, 95% CI 1.55–2.21,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $I^2 = 43%$ ) in HNC patients. Similarly, the risk of locoregional failure was more than two times greater in HNC patients who continued smoking (RR = 2.24, CI 1.42–3.52,  $p = 0.0005$ ,  $I^2 = 64%$ ). The qualitative synthesis indicates that continued smoking may contribute to an elevated incidence of late but not acute toxicities.

**Conclusions:** This review provides evidence that continued smoking is associated with a lower OS and LRC and a higher incidence of late toxicities. Therefore, clinicians should strongly encourage smoking cessation amongst all head and neck cancer patients.

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Head and Neck cancer (HNC) is the ninth most common malignancy in the world and includes tumours within the oral cavity, nasal cavity, pharynx and larynx [1,2]. More than 90% of these malignancies are squamous cell carcinomas, with smoking, alcohol and human papilloma virus (HPV) being the major recognised risk factors [1–3]. Prognosis for these patients has largely remained unchanged, with a 5-year overall survival rate of 66% [4]. Current treatment options for HNC include various combinations of radiotherapy, surgery, and chemotherapy, depending on the stage and location of the tumour. Early stage disease (I or II) is often treated with surgery or radiation alone, whilst advanced stage disease (III

or IV) usually involves multimodality treatment [2]. Radiotherapy (RT) is an integral component of the clinical management of HNC, with up to 80% of patients receiving RT as part of their treatment [5]. Smoking after a diagnosis of HNC is relatively common, with 55% of patients who were smokers at diagnosis found to be still smoking at 1-year follow-up [6]. This has significant prognostic implications for patients undergoing RT, where continued smoking has been suggested to reduce the efficacy of this treatment modality through the induction of chronic hypoxia [7,8].

A number of studies [9–11] have investigated the prognostic value of smoking status at diagnosis in HNC patients, but few have evaluated the effects of continued smoking after diagnosis. From a clinical perspective the period after a diagnosis is critical as it represents a “teachable moment” in which health professionals can encourage smoking cessation [12]. Only one systematic review has previously been conducted to assess the effects of continued smoking in HNC patients [13]. However, this review included

Abbreviations: HNC, head and neck cancer; OS, overall survival; LRC, locoregional control; QoL, quality of life.

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studies with up to 50% of patients treated with surgery alone and did not specifically evaluate the potential interaction of continued smoking with RT or its effects on toxicities and quality of life. Furthermore, this review included limited studies and did not perform a meta-analysis due to reported heterogeneity. The aim of the current review was to investigate the effects of continuing to smoke during or after RT on overall survival (OS), locoregional control (LRC), quality of life (QoL) and acute and late toxicities in patients with HNC.

## Methods

This study followed the PRISMA and MOOSE guidelines for systematic reviews and meta-analyses. A study protocol was registered with the PROSPERO database (registration number CRD42018087473).

### Eligibility criteria

This systematic review included studies that complied with the following criteria.

#### Inclusion criteria:

1. Patients with squamous cell carcinomas of oral cavity, larynx and pharynx.
2. Patients were treated with radiotherapy (as the sole modality or in conjunction with chemotherapy or surgery).
3. Smokers were defined as those who continued to smoke during or after radiotherapy.
4. Reported data for a continuing and ceased smoking group for at least one of the following outcomes:
  - Primary: OS and LRC
  - Secondary: Acute and late toxicities and QoL
5. Early and late toxicities were graded as per standardised criteria – Radiation Therapy Oncology Group (RTOG), European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) or Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Effects (CTCAE).
6. Quality of life measured using a validated tool.

#### Exclusion criteria:

1. Inadequate definition of smoking status provided.
2. Abstract only articles with no full text publication available.

### Information sources and searches

Using the search strategy outlined below, the following databases were searched: PubMed, MEDLINE (Ovid), Embase, Scopus, The Cochrane Library, CINAHL and AUSThealth. The citations of the articles selected for inclusion were analysed to identify further relevant studies. For the most relevant studies, a Google Scholar ‘cited by’ search of the first 50 results was performed. Searches were limited to those published in English and between January 1990 until the date the search was conducted (April 19th, 2018). A second search was conducted on August 14th, 2018 to identify articles that may have been published whilst the manuscript was being prepared. The search strategy for PubMed can be found in [Appendix A](#), with alterations made for use in alternative databases.

### Study selection

The retrieved articles were initially screened based on their titles and abstracts by the first author (JS) who created a list of articles for full text analysis. These articles were then independently screened in full text by a second review author (DN) and assessed for suitability. Disagreements were resolved by consultation with a third reviewer (MC).

### Data collection process

Three authors (JS, DN, RT) piloted the initial data extraction form and agreed upon any required alterations. These researchers then conducted the data extraction independently. Disagreements were resolved with an additional researcher (MC). The corresponding authors of original studies were contacted for additional data if required. One author [14] provided raw data from their study, which was used to calculate the QoL scores for continuing and ceased smokers.

### Data items

Data were extracted for each included study relating to participant characteristics, study methodology and outcomes. Further details are demonstrated in [Appendix B](#).

### Risk of bias in individual studies

The risk of bias in the included studies was conducted using a modified Newcastle–Ottawa quality assessment scale. Studies were rated as low, medium or high quality using a modified version of this scale ([Appendix C](#)). Low quality articles were those with a score of 0–3, whilst a score of 4–5 was considered moderate quality, and 6–7 high quality. The quality assessment was conducted independently by the co-authors (JS, DN, RT) with another co-author (MC) consulted if there were any disagreements. Only articles deemed of a moderate or high quality were included in the meta-analysis.

### Summary measures

A meta-analysis was performed for OS and LRC, which is presented as an overall risk ratio (RR) with 95% confidence intervals (95% CI). Given substantial variations in reporting of toxicities, the results of this outcome are presented as the percentage of events occurring. As only one study reported on QoL a quantitative synthesis was also not possible for this outcome.

### Synthesis of results

A random effects model was used in the quantitative synthesis to account for expected heterogeneity amongst the studies. All computations were performed using ‘RevMan 5’ software and statistical significance was defined at the conventional 5% level. The heterogeneity was evaluated through  $I^2$  and  $\text{Tau}^2$  tests. Whilst the outcome of interest was LRC, papers reporting local control [17–22] were also included in the meta-analysis as these studies included only early laryngeal cancers with a low risk of regional failure.

### Risk of bias across studies

Funnel plots were created in RevMan 5 and grey literature such as conference abstracts were examined to allow assessment of publication bias. To minimise selective reporting bias, articles which reported the absence of an association were also screened and their stated findings discussed.

### Sensitivity analysis

A sensitivity analysis was performed to determine the robustness of the observed outcomes. In particular, a leave-one-out method was used to repeat the full set analysis to determine whether these changes have any effect on the combined outcome estimate. A sub-group analysis was performed to assess the influence of quality of studies on the results.

## Results

### Study selection

The initial search across all databases identified 3452 studies (Appendix D). After duplicates were removed, this number was reduced to 2217. A title and abstract screen was then conducted, with 73 articles selected for full text analysis. Fifty-two of these articles were later excluded, with 16 due to insufficient data for continuing and ceased smokers. Three [23–25] of the 16 articles with no data stated the presence or absence of an association but did not report actual values. These articles are mentioned below in the relevant paragraphs, with their stated findings. Eight were excluded as the majority of patients did not receive RT, 14 because the outcomes reported weren't relevant and 13 because the smoking status definition was inadequate. Another study was excluded [26] as its results were duplicates of an included study [17]. Three studies [22,27,28] were added in based on the reference lists of the initially included studies, which left 24 studies for inclusion in the review. Nine articles [7,15–20,22,29] were included in the quantitative analysis for OS or LRC, with two of these studies [7,17] having data on both outcomes.

### Study characteristics

The study characteristics for the included articles are summarised in Appendix E. Sixteen studies (67%) reported on smoking status during RT [7,15–17,20,22,28–37] and eight (33%) investigated smoking status post-RT [14,18,19,27,38–41]. Of these, only three studies (12.5%) performed an analysis on current smokers at baseline (pre-treatment) who either continued or ceased smoking [31,35,41]. There were significant variations in the types and locations of cancers involved, with some studies analysing low stage glottic tumours only [17–19,22,34]. There were two studies which did not have all patients receiving RT as part of their management [40,41]. Both of these studies had greater than 80% of participants undergoing RT and were included in the qualitative synthesis.

### Risk of bias within studies

The results of the quality assessment using the modified Newcastle Ottawa tool are shown in Appendix C. Ten studies (42%) were determined to be of moderate quality [14,17–20,22,28,33,34,37], thirteen studies (54%) of high quality [7,15,16,27,29–32,35,36,38,40,41] and one study (4%) of low quality [39]. Only one study utilised biochemical verification to ascertain smoking status [16]. Eight studies (33%) had more than 20% of their cohort with no smoking status recorded [17,18,20,22,28,31,34,39].

### Overall survival

The OS rates for ceased and continuing smokers are presented in Table 1. Five studies reported OS rates and were included in the meta-analysis [7,15,17,21,29]. Analysis revealed that patients who continued smoking had almost two times greater risk of mortality when compared with those who ceased smoking (RR = 1.85, 95% CI 1.55–2.21,  $p < 0.0001$ ,  $I^2 = 43%$ ; Fig. 1). Platek et al. reported a 5-year OS for continuing and ceased smokers for both a HPV+ and HPV- group, with continuing smokers having an increased risk of mortality irrespective of HPV status [29]. Browman et al. did not report data for a continuing and ceased smoking group but reported combined 2-year survival values for a “lighter” (abstainers and  $\leq 1$  cigarette/day) and “heavier” ( $>1$ –10/day, 11–20/day and  $>20$ /day) smoking group [16]. These figures were included in the meta-analysis as 71.4% of the “light smoking” group were abstainers confirmed on biochemical verification. Three studies [30,32,41] reported hazard ratios only and could

not be included in the meta-analysis but found that continuing to smoke during RT resulted in a significant reduction in overall OS. Choi et al. reported hazard ratios for continuing smokers, quitters (those who smoked at diagnosis but quit) and former smokers in comparison to never smokers [41]. This study demonstrated that the highest hazard ratio was for continuing smokers (HR = 2.71,  $p = 0.001$ ) with a reduced hazard ratio (HR = 2.38,  $p = 0.005$ ) for patients who quit smoking after their diagnosis.

### Locoregional control

Incidences of LRC for included studies are presented in Table 2. Quantitative synthesis (Fig. 2) revealed that patients with HNC who continued to smoke had more than two times greater risk of locoregional failure when compared with those who ceased smoking (RR = 2.24, CI 1.42–3.52,  $I^2 = 64%$ ,  $p = 0.0005$ ). Two studies [28,31] reported LRC rates but did not state the numbers of continuing and ceased smokers and therefore could not be included in the meta-analysis. Both articles found that continuing smoking was associated with significantly lower 5-year LRC rates [28,31].

### Acute & late toxicities

Data reported for acute and late toxicities in each of the relevant studies is described in Table 3. There were substantial variations in the outcomes used for quantifying these toxicities and therefore a quantitative analysis was not possible. A qualitative synthesis of these data suggests that continued smoking is associated with an increase in late but not acute toxicities.

As shown in Table 3 only one study by Rugg et al. found a statistically significant association between continued smoking and acute toxicities [33]. Subsequent studies found higher rates of acute toxicities, but these differences did not reach statistical significance [36,37]. Another study by Chen et al. reported that ceased smokers had higher rates of acute toxicities, but this association was not statistically significant [7]. Four articles describing correlations between smoking and acute toxicities did not provide adequate data for inclusion in the review [15,16,23,30]. Porock et al. was the only study which found a positive correlation between continued smoking and acute toxicities, reporting a statistically significant correlation between number of cigarettes smoked and severity of mucositis [23]. Skin toxicities were also increased in continuing smokers in this study [23]. Other studies with insufficient data all reported a negative correlation [15,16,30]. Browman et al [15] analysed stomatitis and skin toxicities but found no differences between continuing and ceased smokers, and in the associated follow-up study found no association between smoking and radiation-induced mucositis [16]. Gillison et al. also found no differences in rates of severe mucositis (grade  $\geq 3$ ) between continuing and ceased smokers [30].

Two studies reported late toxicities as an incidence of Grade III or higher toxicity (Table 3) [7,36]. These studies measured multiple toxicities such as fibrosis, laryngeal oedema, dysphagia, trismus and osteoradionecrosis (ORN). Five articles presented data for specific late toxicities, with four on ORN [7,27,35,38] and one for chondroradionecrosis [39]. All these studies demonstrated higher rates of late toxicities in continuing smokers, but only two were found to be statistically significant [27,35].

### Quality of life

Only one study (Silveira et al.) reported on the QoL of ceased and continuing smokers [14]. This study utilised the QoL in Swallowing Disorders (SWAL-QoL) and found that patients who continued to smoke after RT had a poorer QoL. Whilst values for each of the groups was not published, the authors provided this additional

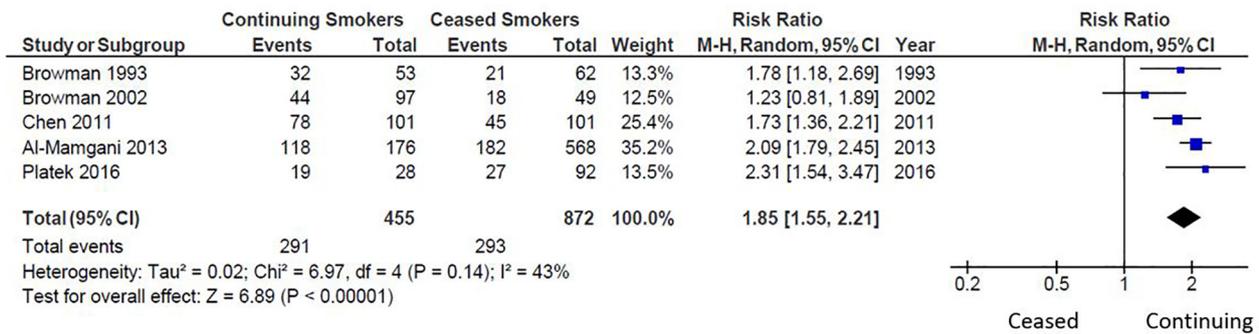
**Table 1**  
Overall survival (OS) data from included studies.

| First Author (Year)                      | Follow-Up Period (Years) | OS<br>Ceased Smokers (%)                               | OS<br>Continuing Smokers (%) | p value   |
|------------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------|
| <i>Studies Included in Meta-Analysis</i> |                          |                                                        |                              |           |
| Browman (1993) [15]                      | 2                        | 66                                                     | 39                           | 0.005     |
| Browman (2002) [16]                      | 2                        | Light – 63.4                                           | Heavy – 54.8                 | NR        |
| Chen (2011) [7]                          | 5                        | 55                                                     | 23                           | <0.001    |
| Al-Mamgani (2013) [17]                   | 10                       | 68                                                     | 33                           | <0.001    |
| Platek (2016) [29]                       | 5                        | 70.7                                                   | 32.1                         | NR        |
| <i>Studies not in Meta-Analysis</i>      |                          |                                                        |                              |           |
| Gillison (2012) [30]                     | 9.3*                     | HR – 2.19                                              |                              | <0.01     |
| Choi (2016) [41]                         | 4.5*                     | HR** – 2.71 (Continuing), 2.38 (Ceased), 1.68 (Former) |                              | All <0.05 |
| Descamps (2016) [32]                     | 2*                       | HR – 1.51                                              |                              | 0.03      |

NR – Not recorded.

\* Reported as median follow-up.

\*\* Hazard ratios were reported in comparison to never smokers.



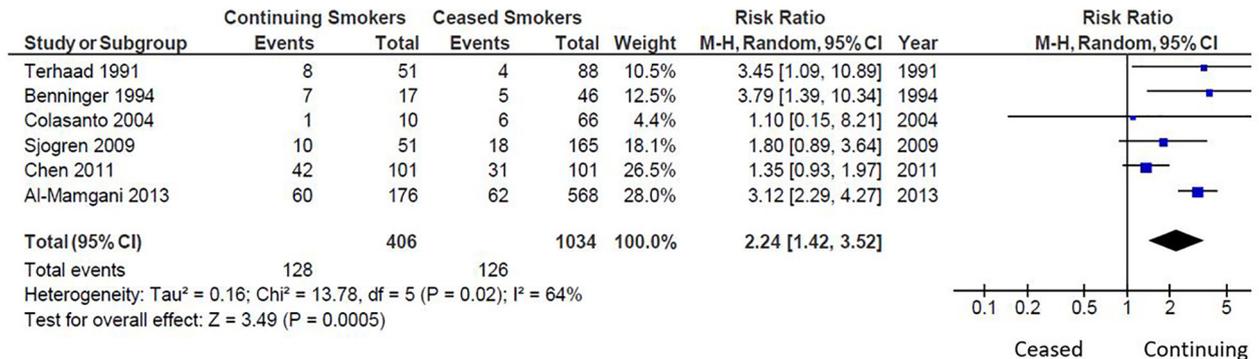
**Fig. 1.** Forest plot of relative risk for OS: a comparison of continuing and ceased smokers.

**Table 2**  
Locoregional control (LRC) data from included studies.

| First Author (Year)                      | Follow-Up Period (Years) | LRC<br>Ceased Smokers (%) | LRC<br>Continuing Smokers (%) | p value |
|------------------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|---------|
| <i>Studies Included in Meta-Analysis</i> |                          |                           |                               |         |
| Terhaad (1991) [18]                      | 3                        | 96                        | 85                            | <0.05   |
| Benninger (1994) [19]                    | 6.2*                     | 89.1                      | 58.8                          | 0.012   |
| Colasanto (2004) [20]                    | 16.6*                    | 91                        | 90                            | 0.30    |
| Sjogren (2009) [22]                      | 5                        | 89                        | 81                            | 0.12    |
| Chen (2011) [7]                          | 5                        | 69                        | 58                            | 0.03    |
| Al-Mamgani (2013) [17]                   | 10                       | 89                        | 66                            | <0.001  |
| <i>Studies not in Meta-Analysis</i>      |                          |                           |                               |         |
| Garden (2013) [31]                       | 5                        | 78                        | 67                            | 0.08    |
| Zackrisson (2015) [28]                   | 5**                      | 71.2                      | 57.1                          | <0.001  |

\* Reported as mean [19] and median [20] follow-up.

\*\* Kaplan–Meier's estimate.



**Fig. 2.** Forest plot of relative risk for LRC: a comparison of continuing and ceased smokers.

**Table 3**  
Acute and late toxicities for ceased and continuing smokers.

| First Author (Year)                       | Outcome Measured              | Acute Toxicity Rate Ceased Smokers (%) | Acute Toxicity Rate Continuing Smokers (%) | p value |
|-------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|---------|
| <i>Acute Toxicities</i>                   |                               |                                        |                                            |         |
| Rugg (1990) [33]                          | Mucositis <sup>*</sup>        | 13.6wks                                | 23.4wks                                    | 0.014   |
| Zevallos (2009) [35]                      | Skin ≥ Grade II               | 43.2                                   | 31.8                                       | 0.29    |
|                                           | Mucositis ≥ Grade II          | 56.8                                   | 72.7                                       | 0.13    |
| Chen (2011) [7]                           | ≥Grade III                    | 60                                     | 55                                         | 0.74    |
| Meyer (2012) [36]                         | ≥Grade III                    | 22.3                                   | 24.1                                       | 0.65    |
| Szeszko (2015) [37]                       | Mucositis ≥ Grade III         | 42                                     | 46                                         | 0.71    |
| <i>Late Toxicities</i>                    |                               |                                        |                                            |         |
| Van der Voet (1998) [34]                  | 10 yr Laryngeal Complications | 14                                     | 28                                         | NR      |
| Chen (2011) [7]                           | ≥Grade III                    | 31                                     | 49                                         | 0.01    |
| Meyer (2012) [36]                         | ≥Grade III                    | 3.5                                    | 4.5                                        | 0.61    |
| <i>Specific Late Toxicities – ORN/CRN</i> |                               |                                        |                                            |         |
| Katsura (2008) [27]                       | ORN                           | 3.8                                    | 38.5                                       | 0.011   |
| Zevallos (2009) [35]                      | ORN                           | 2.7                                    | 20.5                                       | 0.02    |
| Chen (2011) [7]                           | ORN                           | 4                                      | 5                                          | NR      |
| Raguse (2016) [38]                        | ORN                           | 22.9                                   | 30.2                                       | 0.051   |
| Sathasivam (2017) [40]                    | ORN                           | 11                                     | 35.1                                       | <0.001  |
| Gessert (2017) [39]                       | CRN <sup>**</sup>             | 1.2                                    | 5.7                                        | 0.067   |

NR – Not recorded.

<sup>\*</sup> Reported as weeks to resolution of mucositis.

<sup>\*\*</sup> Chondroradionecrosis.

information. Continuing smokers were found to have reduced mean scores when compared to ceased smokers across each of the ‘burden’ (40.1 vs 60.4,  $p = 0.003$ ), ‘mental health’ (48.6 vs 63.2,  $p = 0.030$ ) and ‘fatigue’ (61.4 vs 73.1,  $p = 0.028$ ) domains. Another study did not provide adequate data for inclusion but stated that continued smoking during radiotherapy reduced QoL [25].

#### Risk of bias across studies

Funnel plots were created for OS and LRC, as seen in Appendix F. No evidence of publication bias was observed by visual inspection of these figures.

#### Sensitivity analysis

Exclusion of studies from the meta-analysis which were rated as medium quality on the modified Newcastle–Ottawa scale did not result in significant changes in the effect estimates. A leave-one-out sensitivity analysis revealed that no single study substantially affected the overall risk ratios, or the statistical significance of the effect estimate (Table 4).

#### Discussion

The main finding of this systematic review is that continued smoking during and after RT is associated with an increased mortality (RR = 1.85) and locoregional failure (RR = 2.24). Whilst deaths unrelated to cancer may contribute to the risk of mortality due to tobacco exposure at diagnosis or after, the increased risk of locoregional failure suggests a possible direct effect of smoking on treatment response and disease control. Prior studies have postulated that smoking may reduce the efficacy of RT through the induction of chronic hypoxia [7,8]. However, without studies investigating smoking behaviour before, during and after treatment; it is difficult to ascertain whether these adverse outcomes are attributed to the effects of smoking on RT, past burden of smoking or the cumulative effects of smoking after treatment. Most studies included in this analysis reported on smoking status during RT, with only some articles analysing those who smoked after the completion of RT. Studies that only investigated smoking during RT could be excluding patients who quit for the duration of treatment

**Table 4**

Leave-one-out sensitivity analysis: relative risk (RR), 95% confidence intervals (CI) and p value when one study was removed from the meta-analysis.

| Study Removed from Analysis | RR   | 95% CI    | p value  |
|-----------------------------|------|-----------|----------|
| <i>Overall Survival</i>     |      |           |          |
| Browman (1993) [15]         | 1.85 | 1.50–2.29 | <0.0001  |
| Browman (2002) [16]         | 1.99 | 1.76–2.24 | <0.0001  |
| Chen (2011) [7]             | 1.87 | 1.48–2.37 | <0.0001  |
| Al-Mamgani (2013) [17]      | 1.73 | 1.39–2.15 | <0.0001  |
| Platek (2016) [29]          | 1.78 | 1.46–2.17 | <0.0001  |
| <i>Locoregional Control</i> |      |           |          |
| Terhaard (1991) [18]        | 2.13 | 1.29–3.51 | 0.003    |
| Benninger (1994) [19]       | 2.08 | 1.26–3.42 | 0.004    |
| Colasanto (2004) [20]       | 2.32 | 1.44–3.73 | 0.0005   |
| Sjogren (2009) [22]         | 2.36 | 1.37–4.09 | 0.002    |
| Chen (2011) [7]             | 2.89 | 2.22–3.77 | < 0.0001 |
| Al-Mamgani (2013) [17]      | 1.85 | 1.21–2.83 | 0.004    |

and then relapsed afterwards, thus potentially underestimating the effects of continued smoking.

An important clinical question is whether smoking cessation after a HNC diagnosis improves prognosis. Only three studies [31,35,41] reported an analysis on the group of current smokers at baseline who either continued or quit. Patients who ceased smoking after diagnosis demonstrated improved LRC [31], reduced mortality [41] and a decrease in ORN [35]. Choi et al. determined that continuing smokers had the highest hazard ratio for all-cause mortality (HR = 2.71) when compared with those who ceased at diagnosis (HR = 2.3) and those who were former smokers (HR = 1.68), demonstrating that it is never too late to cease smoking [41]. Browman et al. was another study which investigated the effects of smoking cessation around the time of diagnosis by excluding patients who were smoking more than 12 weeks prior to diagnosis [16]. They concluded that baseline smoking status, and not continued smoking, was an independent predictor of survival. However, this study only reported a 2-year survival estimate, which may not have allowed adequate time for the negative effects of continued smoking to become evident. Most of the included studies compared continuing smokers to a ceased smoking group, which included long-term former smokers and, in some cases, never smokers. Therefore, the results of the meta-analysis may overestimate the effects of continuing smoking when compared to patients who ceased at the time of diagnosis.

This review reports that currently there is limited evidence suggesting a correlation between continued smoking and acute toxicities, with only one paper identifying a statistically significant association [23]. Late toxicities were increased amongst continuing smokers with HNC, with the greatest evidence for osteoradionecrosis [7,27,35,38]. Continued smoking was also found to have a negative influence on quality of life of HNC patients, although this was based on the results of only one article [14]. This was further supported in a study by Jensen et al. which demonstrated that patients who continued smoking had a lower QoL than those who ceased. However, this paper did not meet eligibility criteria due to the inclusion of surgical patients [42]. The correlation between continued smoking and late but not acute toxicities may suggest that the negative effects of smoking are time dependent.

The major limitation of this study is that the analysis was based predominantly on retrospective data, with inadequate recording of smoking history and an absence of biochemical verification of smoking status in most of these studies. The meta-analyses revealed a moderate degree of statistical heterogeneity, possibly due to variations in duration of follow-up, stage and location of cancer and definitions of tobacco usage. Publication bias could have influenced the results, but the grey literature search identified multiple conference abstracts demonstrating a similar negative effect of continued smoking [43–46]. Selective reporting bias is another factor that could have affected the results of this review given that most of the articles did not investigate smoking as their primary variable of interest.

This review suggests that HNC patients who continue to smoke have significant reductions across multiple outcomes. The strength of evidence is sufficient to guide clinicians to pursue smoking cessation amongst these patients. There is a requirement for further high quality prospective studies with biochemical verification of smoking status to accurately determine and quantify the effects of quitting smoking upon and after HNC diagnosis. Additionally, further studies into quality of life amongst continuing smokers are essential, particularly as RT has the potential to cause significant morbidity.

## Funding

None to declare.

## Conflict of interest

None.

## Acknowledgements

We would like to acknowledge Dr Torres Woolley and Dr Erik Biros for assisting with drafting of the manuscript.

## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.radonc.2019.02.021>.

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