

Multi-professional Guidelines

for the Management of the Patient

with Primary Cutaneous Squamous Cell Carcinoma

R J Motley, P W Preston, C M Lawrence

Summary: These guidelines for management of primary cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma present evidence-based guidance for treatment, with identification of the strength of evidence available at the time of preparation of the guidelines, and a brief overview of epidemiological aspects, diagnosis and investigation. These guidelines aim to ensure people with cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma receive the best possible treatment and care.

Disclaimer: These guidelines reflect the best published data available at the time the report was prepared. Caution should be exercised in interpreting the data; the results of future studies may require alteration of the conclusions or recommendations in this report. It may be necessary or even desirable to depart from the guidelines in the interests of specific patients and special circumstances. Just as adherence to the guidelines may not constitute defence against a claim of negligence, so deviation from them should not be necessarily deemed negligent.

Footnote: The authors are grateful to Professor PJ Barrett-Lee (Radiotherapy), Dr DAL Morgan (Oncology) Dr DN Slater (Pathology), Mr M Schenker (Plastic Surgery) and Mr A Langford (Skin Care Campaign) for their expert advice and comments on the manuscript.

DEFINITION

Primary cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) is a malignant tumour which may arise from the keratinising cells of the epidermis or its appendages. It is locally invasive and has the potential to metastasize to other organs of the body. These guidelines are confined to the treatment of SCC of the skin and the vermilion border of the lip, and exclude SCC of the penis, vulva and anus, SCC insitu (Bowenøs disease), SCC arising from mucous membranes and keratoacanthoma.

INCIDENCE, AETIOLOGY AND PREVENTION

SCC is the second most common skin cancer and, in many countries, its incidence is rising.¹⁻⁷ Its occurrence is usually related to chronic ultra violet light exposure and is therefore especially common in people with sun-damaged skin, fair skin, albinism and xeroderma pigmentosum. It may develop *de-novo*, as a result of previous exposure to ultraviolet or ionising radiation, or arsenic, within chronic wounds, scars, burns, ulcers or sinus tracts and from pre-existing lesions such as Bowenøs disease (intraepidermal SCC).⁸⁻¹⁷ Individuals with impaired immune function, for example those receiving immunosuppressive drugs following allogeneic organ transplantation or for inflammatory disease, and those with lymphoma or leukaemia, are at increased risk of this tumour. The risk of SCC with the new wave of *biologicø* therapies (for inflammatory and haematological disease) has yet to be quantified, although reports identify cases of rapid-onset or reactivation of SCC in patients with risk factors or a past history of the disease.¹⁸⁻²⁷ Some SCCs are associated with human papilloma virus infection.²⁸⁻³⁶ There is good evidence linking SCCs with chronic actinic damage, (including that from the use of tanning devices)⁸ and to support sun avoidance, use of protective clothing and effective sunblocks³⁷ in the prevention of actinic keratoses and SCCs. These measures are particularly important for people receiving long term immunosuppressive medication.³⁸⁻

41

People with organ transplants are at high risk of developing cutaneous SCC. Skin surveillance to allow early detection and treatment, and measures to prevent SCC should be part of their routine care. In patients with multiple, frequent or high-risk SCCs consideration should be given to modifying immunosuppressive regimens^{42;43} and the prophylactic use of systemic retinoids^{44;45} which may also be valuable in other high risk groups.⁴⁶ Topical agents, such as imiquimod may have a useful role in preventing the development of skin dysplasia in high-risk renal transplant recipients but substantive evidence is awaited.⁴⁷

CLINICAL PRESENTATION

SCC usually presents as an indurated nodular keratinising or crusted tumour that may ulcerate, or it may present as an ulcer without evidence of keratinisation. All patients where there is a possibility of a cutaneous SCC should be referred urgently to an appropriately trained specialist, usually in the local Dermatology Department, rapid access skin cancer clinic.⁴⁸

DIAGNOSIS

The diagnosis is established histologically. The histology report should include the following: histopathological subtype (for example -acantholyticø, -desmoplasticø, -spindleø or -verrucous SCCø), degree of differentiation (well, moderately, poorly or un-differentiated; histological grades as described by Broders: Appendix 2), tumour depth (thickness in mm ó excluding layers of surface keratin), the level of dermal invasion (as Clarkøs levels), and the presence or absence of perineural, vascular or lymphatic invasion.⁴⁹ The margins of the excised tissue can be stained prior to tissue preparation to allow their identification histologically and comment should be made on the peripheral and deep margins of excision.⁵⁰⁻⁶⁴

COMMUNICATION

Having a diagnosis of cancer can evoke many emotions within a person. It is essential that each person with SCC receives very clear and fully informed advice about his or her tumour. A Skin Cancer Clinical Nurse Specialist can provide invaluable information, support and advice. Some people may require additional psychological support and this can often be accessed through the multiprofessional supportive and palliative care team. All clinicians working with people who have cancer should have advanced communication skills training.

PROGNOSIS

The accumulated experience of treating cutaneous SCC by various methods has allowed some predictions to be made about prognosis based on the original lesion.

Factors which influence metastatic potential include anatomical site, size, tumour thickness, level of invasion, rate of growth, aetiology, degree of histological differentiation and host immunosuppression. These details are frequently omitted from reported series of treated SCC and the conclusions of such series must therefore be interpreted with caution. Patient referral patterns may influence local experience of this condition, and series reported from office practices tend to suggest a more favourable prognosis than cases reported from hospital and tertiary centres.⁶¹⁻⁷² Changes to the TNM staging system have been proposed to more accurately reflect the prognosis and natural history of cutaneous SCC.⁷³

FACTORS AFFECTING METASTATIC POTENTIAL OF CUTANEOUS SCC

A Site

Tumour location influences prognosis: sites are listed in order of increasing metastatic potential^{65;74-77}

- 1 SCC arising at sun-exposed sites excluding lip and ear.
- 2 SCC of the lip.
- 3 SCC of the ear.
- 4 Tumours arising in non sun-exposed sites (e.g. perineum, sacrum, sole of foot).
- 5 SCC arising in areas of radiation or thermal injury, chronic draining sinuses, chronic ulcers, chronic inflammation or Bowenøs disease.

B Size: Diameter

Tumours greater than 2 cm in diameter are twice as likely to recur locally (15.2% vs. 7.4%), and three times as likely to metastasize (30.3% vs. 9.1%) as smaller tumours.^{61;65}

C Size: Depth and level of invasion

Tumours greater than 4 mm in depth (excluding surface layers of keratin) or extending into or beyond the subcutaneous tissue (Clark level V) are more likely to recur and metastasize (metastatic rate 45.7%) compared with thinner tumours. Tumours less than 2 mm in thickness rarely metastasise.^{51;55;65} Recurrence and metastases are less likely in tumours confined to the upper half of the dermis and less than 4 mm in depth (metastatic rate 6.7%).^{52;55;61;65}

D Histological differentiation and subtype

Poorly differentiated tumours (i.e. those of Broders grades 3 and 4) (Appendix 2) have a poorer prognosis, with more than double the local recurrence rate and triple the metastatic rate of better differentiated SCC.^{53;52;65} Acantholytic, spindle and desmoplastic subtypes have a poorer prognosis, whereas the vertucous subtype has a better prognosis. Tumours with perineural involvement, lymphatic or vascular invasion are more likely to recur and to metastasize.^{59;62;78}

E Host immunosuppression

Tumours arising in patients who are immunosuppressed have a poorer prognosis. Host cellular immune response may be important both in determining the local invasiveness of SCC and the hostøs response to metastases.^{35;36;50}

F Previous treatment and treatment modality

The risk of local recurrence depends upon the treatment modality. Locally recurrent disease itself is a risk factor for metastatic disease. Local recurrence rates are considerably less with Mohsø micrographic surgery than with any other treatment modality.^{65;75-77;79-82}

TREATMENT

In interpreting and applying guidelines for treatment of SCC, three important points should be noted:

- There is a lack of randomised controlled trials (RCTs) for the treatment of primary cutaneous SCC.
- There is widely varying malignant behaviour of tumours which fall within the histological diagnostic category of -primary cutaneous SCCø
- There are varied experiences among the different specialists treating these tumours, which are determined by referral patterns and interests. Plastic and maxillofacial surgeons may encounter predominantly high-risk, aggressive tumours, whereas dermatologists may deal predominantly with smaller and less aggressive lesions.

However, there are three main factors which influence treatment, which are:

- The need for complete removal or treatment of the primary tumour
- The possible presence of local -in transitømetastases
- The tendency of metastases to spread by lymphatics to lymph nodes

The majority of SCC cases are low risk and amenable to various forms of treatment, but it is essential to identify the significant proportion which are high risk. These may be best managed by a multiprofessional team with experience of treating the most malignant tumours.^{66;67;69;72;83-86}

The goal of treatment is complete (preferably histologically confirmed) removal or destruction of the primary tumour and of any metastases. In order to achieve this, the margins of the tumour must be identified. The gold standard for identification of tumour margins is histological assessment, but most treatments rely on clinical judgement. It must be recognised that this is not always an accurate predictor of tumour extent, particularly when the margins of the tumour are ill-defined.^{60;87-90}

SCC may give rise to local metastases, which are discontinuous with the primary tumour. Such -intransitø metastases may be removed by wide surgical excision or destroyed by irradiation of a wide field around the primary lesion. Small margins may not remove metastases in the vicinity of the primary tumour. Locally recurrent tumour may arise either due to failure to treat the primary continuous body of tumour, or from local metastases.^{50;52;66;67;69;84;91;92}

SCC usually spreads to local lymph nodes and clinically enlarged nodes should be examined histologically (for example by fine needle aspiration or excisional biopsy). Tumour positive lymph nodes are usually managed by regional node dissection, but detailed discussion of the management of metastatic disease is beyond the scope of these guidelines.^{74;93-96}

In the absence of clinically enlarged nodes, techniques such as high resolution ultrasound-guided fine needle aspiration cytology may be useful in evaluating regional lymph nodes in patients with high risk tumours.⁹⁷⁻¹⁰⁰ The role of sentinel lymph node biopsy has yet to be established.¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰⁹

Although there are many large series in which long-term outcome after treatment for cutaneous SCC has been reported (comprehensively summarised in Rowe *et al.*⁶⁵), there are no large prospective randomised studies in which different treatments for this tumour have been compared.^{66;90;110-112}

Guidelines for patient treatment

Conclusions from population-based studies do not necessarily indicate the best treatment for an individual patient. In particular, when choosing a treatment modality it is important to be aware of factors which may influence success. Curettage and cautery, cryosurgery, and to a lesser degree radiotherapy are all techniques in which the outcome depends of the experience of the physician. Although the same could be said of surgical excision and Mohsø micrographic surgery, these two modalities provide tissue for histological examination that allows the pathologist to assess the adequacy of treatment and for the physician to undertake further surgery if necessary. For this reason, where feasible, surgical excision (including Mohsø micrographic surgery where appropriate) should be regarded as the treatment of first choice for cutaneous SCC. The other techniques can yield excellent results in experienced hands, but the quality of treatment cannot be assured or audited contemporaneously by a third party.^{50;65;70;88;89:94;96;110;113-115}

Surgical Excision

Surgical excision is the treatment of choice for the majority of cutaneous SCC. It allows full characterisation of the tumour and a guide to the adequacy of treatment through histological examination of the margins of the excised tissue.^{52;65}

When undertaking surgical excision a margin of normal skin is excised from around the tumour. For clinically well-defined, low risk tumours less than 2 cm in diameter, surgical excision with a minimum 4-mm margin around the tumour border is appropriate and would be expected to completely remove the primary tumour mass in 95% of cases⁸⁸ (*Strength of Recommendation A, Quality of Evidence II-iii*). Narrower margins of excision are more likely to leave residual tumour. In order to maintain the same degree of confidence of adequate excision, tumours more than 2 cm in diameter, tumours classified as moderately, poorly or undifferentiated, tumours extending into the subcutaneous tissue and those on the ear, lip, scalp, eyelids or nose should be removed with a wider margin (6 mm or more) and the tissue margins examined histologically, or with Mohsømicrographic surgery.^{75-77;88}

It is only meaningful to consider such margins when the peripheral boundary of the tumour appears clinically well-defined. The concept of a -surgical marginø (i.e. normal-appearing tissue around the tumour) is based upon an assumption that the clinically visible margin of the tumour bears a predictable relationship to the true extent of the tumour, and that excision of a margin of clinically normal-appearing tissue around the tumour will encompass any microscopic tumour extension. The wider the surgical margin the greater the likelihood that all tumour will be removed. Large tumours have greater microscopic tumour extension and should be removed with a wider margin. This concept is equally valid for non-surgical treatments such as radiotherapy and cryotherapy in which a margin of clinically normal-appearing tissue is treated around the tumour. Mohsø micrographic surgery, does not make this assumption but displays the margins of the tissue for histological examination, and allows a primary tumour mass, growing in-continuity to be excised completely with

minimal loss of normal tissue. There are important lessons to be learnt from the experiences of micrographic surgery in treating cutaneous SCC (see below).^{60;65;75-77;79;89}

Local Metastases

Microscopic metastases may be found around high-risk primary cutaneous SCC.^{67;92;95} Under these circumstances a ÷wideø surgical margin extending well beyond the primary tumour may include such metastases and thus have a higher cure rate than a narrower margin. Mohsø micrographic surgery removes tumour growing in-continuity but does not identify in-transit micro-metastases. For this reason some practitioners of Mohsø micrographic surgery will excise a further surgical margin when treating high risk tumours after the Mohsø surgical wound has been histologically confirmed to be clear of the primary tumour mass.^{67;95}

Histological Assessment of Surgical Margins

Conventional histological examination of one or more transverse sections of excised tissue displays a cross-section of the tumour and tissue margins. This is the best way of assessing and categorising the nature of the tumour, and it is usual to comment on whether tumour extends to the tissue margin, or if not, to record the margin of uninvolved skin around the tumour.^{49;60} The value of such comments depends on how closely the section examined reflects the excised tissue in general. If SCC appears to extend to the margin of the examined tissue, then it should be assumed, particularly if the true margin of the tissue has been stained prior to sectioning, that excision is incomplete. Orientating markers or sutures should be placed in the surgical specimen by the surgeon to allow the pathologist to report accurately on the location of any residual tumour. A pathologist, using the conventional -breadloafø technique for examining tissue, typically views only a small sample of the specimen microscopically,⁶⁰ and this may allow incompletely excised high-risk tumour to go undetected. There are several alternative tissue preparations that allow the peripheral margins of the excised tissue to be more comprehensively examined.⁸⁷ The clinician and pathologist must work closely together in order

to ensure appropriate sampling and microscopic examination of excised tissue, particularly with highrisk tumours.^{60;87}

Mohsø micrographic surgery differs because the tissue is not displayed in cross-section and, if the first level of excision is adequate, tumour may not be seen at all in the microscopic sections. There are technical factors that may occasionally hamper identification of SCC in frozen sections and under these circumstances final histological examination should be undertaken on formalin-fixed tissue.^{116;117}

Mohs' Micrographic Surgery

Mohsø micrographic surgery allows precise definition and excision of primary tumour growing incontinuity, and as such would be expected to reduce errors in primary treatment which may arise due to clinically invisible tumour extension. There is good evidence that the incidence of local recurrent and metastatic disease are low after Mohsø micrographic surgery and it should therefore be considered in the surgical treatment of high-risk SCC, particularly at difficult sites where wide surgical margins may be technically difficult to achieve without functional impairment.^{52;65} (*Strength of Recommendation B, Quality of Evidence II-iii*). The best cure rates for high risk SCCs are reported in series treated by Mohsø micrographic surgery.^{65;81;82;116-118} Where Mohsø micrographic surgery is indicated but not available then one of the other histological techniques to examine the peripheral margin of the excised tissue should be employed.⁸⁷

However, there are no prospective randomised studies comparing therapeutic outcome between conventional or wide surgical excision versus Mohsømicrographic surgery for cutaneous SCC.

It is firmly established that incomplete surgical excision is associated with a worse prognosis and, when doubt exists as to the adequacy of excision at the time of surgery, it is desirable, where practical, to delay or modify wound repair until complete tumour removal has been confirmed histologically.^{50;65-69;78}

Curettage and Cautery

Excellent cure rates have been reported in several series and experience suggests that small (<1 cm) well-differentiated, primary, slow growing tumours arising on sun-exposed sites can be removed by experienced physicians with curettage.^{65;90;110;114;119} There are few published data relating outcome after curettage of larger tumours and different clinical tumour types.

The high cure rates reported following curettage and cautery of cutaneous SCC (*Quality of Evidence II-iii*), may reflect case selection, with a greater proportion of small tumours treated by curettage than by other techniques, but also raise the question as to whether curettage per se has a therapeutic advantage. The experienced clinician undertaking curettage can detect tumour tissue by its soft consistency and this may be of benefit in identifying invisible tumour extension and ensuring adequate treatment. Conventionally, cautery or electrodesiccation is applied to the curetted wound and the curettage-cautery cycle then repeated once or twice. Curettage is routinely undertaken to \div debulkø the tumour prior to Mohsø micrographic surgery, but is of no proven benefit prior to standard surgical resection.¹²⁰ Curettage provides poorly orientated material for histological examination and no histological assessment of the adequacy of treatment is possible. Curettage and cautery is not appropriate treatment for locally recurrent disease or high risk tumours.

Cryosurgery

Good short term cure rates have been reported for small histologically confirmed SCC treated by cryosurgery in experienced hands. Prior biopsy is necessary to establish the diagnosis histologically. There is great variability in the use of liquid nitrogen for cryotherapy and significant transatlantic variations in practice. For this reason caution should be exercised in the use of cryotherapy for SCC

although it may be an appropriate technique for selected cases in specialised centres.^{65;113;121} Cryosurgery is not appropriate for locally recurrent disease or high risk tumours.

Radiotherapy

Radiotherapy is generally contraindicated in the younger patient because the scar from surgery is usually less noticeable than the pallor and telangiectases which develop as a late effect in irradiated skin. In some circumstances radiotherapy will give a better cosmetic effect, particularly where loss of tissue is likely to cause cosmetic or functional impairment. For example, the lower eyelid, the inner canthus of the eye, the lip, the tip of the nose and in some cases the ear. SCC can be cured by radiotherapy in more than 90% of cases.^{52;65;110;122-125} Choice of radiotherapy modality (electrons or photons) dose and technique require experience and the involvement of a qualified clinical oncologist.

Some skin sites tolerate radiotherapy poorly, e.g. the back of the hand, the abdominal wall and the lower limb, and surgical excision is preferable at these sites. Any tumour invading cartilage or bone, e.g. over the ear or nose is best treated surgically to avoid radio-necrosis.

In all cases where there is debate about whether radiotherapy or surgery is the best option, close liaison should take place between the dermatologist, clinical oncologist and plastic surgeon ideally in a multi-disciplinary clinic.

Other Treatments

Other reported treatments include: topical Imiquimod, intralesional Interferon Alpha, intralesional 5-Fluorouracil, and photodynamic therapy.¹²⁶⁻¹³⁵ Evidence for the role of these treatments is lacking and limited to isolated case reports (*Strength of Recommendation C, Quality of Evidence IV*).

Elective prophylactic lymph node dissection / sentinel lymph node biopsy

Elective prophylactic lymph node dissection has been proposed for SCC on the lip greater than 6 mm in depth and cutaneous SCC greater than 8 mm in depth, but evidence for this is weak^{70;74} (*Strength of Recommendation C, Quality of Evidence II-iii*). Elective lymph node dissection is not routinely practised and there is no compelling evidence of benefit over morbidity.^{51;56}

There has been recent interest in the application of sentinel lymph node biopsy in the management of high risk SCC. The procedure is technically feasible and may help avoid unnecessary lymph node dissection. However, the overall benefit of the technique in patients with SCC has yet to be determined.¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰⁹

The multiprofessional oncology team

Patients with high risk SCC and those presenting with clinically involved lymph nodes should ideally be reviewed by a multiprofessional skin oncology team which includes a dermatologist, pathologist, appropriately trained surgeon (usually a plastic, ENT or maxillo-facial surgeon), clinical oncologist, radiologist and a clinical nurse specialist in skin cancer.⁴⁸ Some advanced tumours are not surgically resectable and these should be managed in a multiprofessional setting in order that other therapeutic options are considered. Patients should be provided with suitable written information concerning diagnosis, prognosis, self-examination and follow up support, local and national support organisations and, where appropriate, access to a multiprofessional palliative care team.

Follow-up

Early detection and treatment improves survival of patients with recurrent disease. All patients should be instructed in self-examination of the surgical scar site, local skin and lymph nodes and should receive written information sheets giving clear instructions and actions to take should they

suspect recurrent disease. Elderly patients may have difficulty in undertaking adequate selfexamination. A specialist or appropriately trained clinical nurse specialist or primary care physician may undertake regular follow-up examination for recurrent disease. Seventy five percent of local recurrences and metastases are detected within 2 years and 95% within 5 years.^{52;65} It would therefore seem reasonable for the patient who has had a high-risk SCC to be kept under close medical observation for recurrent disease for at least 2 and up to 5 years (*Strength of Recommendation A, Quality of Evidence II-ii*; Table 1). The decision as to who follows the patient will depend upon the disease risk, local facilities and interests.^{52;65}

Summary of treatment options for primary cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma

Please see Table 2 for recommendations.

Table 1: Risk Factors	: Primary	Cutaneous	Squamous	Cell Carcinoma
-----------------------	-----------	-----------	----------	-----------------------

	Site	Diameter	Tumour Depth and level of invasion	Histological Features and subtype	Host Immune status
Low risk	SCC arising at sun- exposed sites excluding lip and ear	Tumours up to 20 mm in diameter	Tumours up to 4 mm in depth and confined to dermis	Well- differentiated tumour or Verrucuous subtype	No evidence of immune dysfunction
	SCC of lip or ear	Tumours more than 20 mm in diameter	Tumours more than 4 mm in depth or invading beyond dermis	Moderately- differentiated tumour	Immunosupressive therapy ó such as Organ Transplant Recipients
High risk	Recurrent SCC			Poorly- differentiated tumour	Chronic immunosuppressive disease ó e.g. CLL
	SCC arising in non exposed sites such as perineum, sacrum, sole of foot			Perineural invasion Acantholytic, Spindle, or Desmoplastic subtypes	
	SCC arising in radiation or thermal scars, chronic ulcers or inflammation or Bowenøs disease			Incomplete excision	

Tumours with features confined to the first row are considered How riskøall others are High riskø

Treatment	Indications	Contraindications	Notes
Surgical Excision	All resectable tumours	Where surgical morbidity is likely to be unreasonably high	General treatment of choice for SCC
Mohs Micrographic Surgery / Excision with histological control	High risk tumours	Where surgical morbidity is likely to be unreasonably high	High risk tumours need wide margins or histological margin control
Radiotherapy	Non-resectable tumours	Where tumour margins are ill-defined	
Curettage and Cautery	Small, well-defined, low-risk tumours	High risk tumours	Only suitable for experienced practitioners
Cryotherapy	Small, well-defined, low-risk tumours	High risk tumours, recurrent tumours	Only suitable for experienced practitioners

Table 2: Summary of Treatment Options for Primary Cutaneous Squamous Cell Carcinoma

AUDIT POINTS

- 1 Surgical excision margins: Are the margins of excision (recommended: 4 mm for welldefined, low risk tumours and 6 mm for high risk tumours) appropriate and clearly documented in the medical notes?
- 2 Are those involved in the care of patients with SCC able to show evidence of advanced communications skills training?
- 3 Has the prognosis of the tumour ó low-risk or high-risk been documented in the notes?
- 4 Is there evidence of the patient being instructed in self-examination and being provided with written information sheets?
- 5 Is there evidence of appropriate follow up examination by suitably trained persons?

Appendix 1

STRENGTH OF RECOMMENDATIONS

- A There is good evidence to support the use of the procedure.
- B There is fair evidence to support the use of the procedure.
- C There is poor evidence to support the use of the procedure.
- D There is fair evidence to support the rejection of the use of the procedure.
- E There is good evidence to support the rejection of the use of the procedure.

QUALITY OF EVIDENCE

- I Evidence obtained from at least one properly designed, randomised control trial.
- II-i Evidence obtained from well designed controlled trials without randomisation.
- II-ii Evidence obtained from well designed cohort or case control analytic studies, preferably from more than one centre or research group.
- II-iii Evidence obtained from multiple time series with or without the intervention. Dramatic results in uncontrolled experiments (such as the introduction of penicillin treatment in the 1940¢s) could also be regarded as this type of evidence.
- III Opinions of respected authorities based on clinical experience, descriptive studies or reports of expert committees.
- IV Evidence inadequate owing to problems of methodology (e.g. sample size, or length or comprehensiveness of follow-up or conflicts in evidence).

BRODERS HISTOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF DIFFERENTIATION IN SCC

Broders devised a classification system in which grades 1, 2 and 3 denoted ratios of differentiated to undifferentiated cells of 3:1, 1:1 and 1:3 respectively. Grade 4 denoted tumour cells having no tendency towards differentiation.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- 1) Marks R. Squamous cell carcinoma. Lancet 1996; 347: 735-38.
- Bernstein SC, Lim KK, Brodland DG, Heidelberg KA. The many faces of squamous cell carcinoma. *Dermatol Surg* 1996; 22: 243-54.
- Glass AG, Hoover RN. The emerging epidemic of melanoma and squamous cell skin cancer. JAMA 1989; 262: 2097-100.
- 4) Gray DT, Suman VJ, Su WP, Clay RP, Harmsen WS, Roenigk RK. Trends in the population-based incidence of squamous cell carcinoma of the skin first diagnosed between 1984 and 1992. *Arch Dermatol* 1997; 133: 735-40.
- 5) Weinstock MA. The epidemic of squamous cell carcinoma. JAMA 1989; 262: 2138-40.
- Holme SA, Malinovszky K, Roberts DL. Changing trends in non-melanoma skin cancer in South Wales, 1988-98. *Br J Dermatol* 2000; 143: 1224-9.
- 7) Hemminki K, Dong C. Subsequent cancers after in-situ and invasive squamous cell carcinoma of the skin. *Arch Dermatol* 2000; **136**: 647-51.
- Karagas MR, Stannard VA, Mott LA *et al.* Use of tanning devices and risk of basal cell and squamous cell skin cancers. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2002; 94: 224-6.
- 9) OBaldursson B, Sigurgeirsson B, Lindelof B. Leg ulcers and squamous cell carcinoma. An epidemiological study and review of the literature. *Acta Derm Venereol* 1993; **73**: 171-4.
- 10) 1Bosch RJ, Gallardo MA, Ruiz del Portal G et al. Squamous cell carcinoma secondary to recessive dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa: report of eight tumours in four patients. J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol 1999; 13: 198-204.
- 11) Keefe M, Wakeel RA, Dick DC. Death from metastatic cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma in autosomal recessive dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa despite permanent inpatient care. *Dermatologica* 1988; 177: 180-4.

- 12) Chang A, Spencer JM, Kirsner RS. Squamous cell carcinoma arising from a nonhealing wound and osteomyelitis treated with Mohs' micrographic surgery: a case study. Ostomy Wound Manage 1998; 44: 26-30.
- 13) Chowdri NA, Darzi MA. Postburn scar carcinomas in Kashmiris. Burns 1996; 22: 477-82.
- 14) Dabski K, Stoll HL Jr, Milgrom H. Squamous cell carcinoma complicating late chronic discoid lupus erythematosus. J Surg Oncol 1986; 32: 233-7.
- 15) Fasching MC, Meland NB, Woods JE, Wolff BG. Recurrent squamous cell carcinoma arising in pilonidal sinus tract - multiple flap reconstructions. Report of a case. *Dis Colon Rectum* 1989; **32**: 153-8.
- 16) Lister RK, Black MM, Calonje E, Burnand KG. Squamous cell carcinoma arising in chronic lymphoedema. *Br J Dermatol* 1997; **136**: 384-7.
- 17) Maloney ME. Arsenic in Dermatology. Dermatol Surg 1996; 22: 301-4.
- 18) Moloney FJ, Comber H, OøLorcain P *et al.* A population-based study of skin cancer incidence and prevalence in renal transplant recipients. *Br J Dermatol* 2006; **154**: 498-504.
- 19) Lindelof B, Jarnvik J, Ternesten-Bratel A *et al.* Mortality and Clinicopathological features of cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma in organ transplant recipients: A Study of the Swedish Cohort. *Acta Derm Venereol* 2006; 86: 219-22.
- 20) Fogarty GB, Bayne M, Bedford P *et al.* Three cases of activation of cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma during treatment with prolonged administration of rituximab. *Clin Oncol (Royal College of Radiologists)* 2006; **18**: 155-6.
- 21) Baskaynak G, Kreuzer KA, Schwarz M *et al.* Squamous cutaneous epithelial cell carcinoma in two CML patients with progressive disease under imatinib treatment. *Eur J Haematol* 2003; **70**: 231-4.

- 22) Lebwohl M, Blum R, Berkowitz *et al.* No evidence for increased risk of cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma in patients with rheumatoid arthritis receiving etanercept therapy for up to 5 years. *Arch Dermatol* 2005; **141**: 861-4.
- 23) Smith KJ, Skelton HG. Rapid onset of cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma in patients with rheumatoid arthritis after starting tumor necrosis factor receptor IgG1-Fc fusion complex therapy. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2001; **45**: 953-6.
- 24) Burge D. Etanercept and squamous cell carcinoma. J Am Acad Dermatol 2003: 49: 358-9.
- 25) Smith KJ, Skelton H. Etanercept and squamous cell carcinoma. Reply. J Am Acad Dermatol 2003; 49: 359.
- 26) Mehrany K, Weenig RH, Lee KK *et al.* Increased metastasis and mortality from cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma in patients with chronic lymphatic leukaemia. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2005; **53**: 1067-71.
- 27) Mehrany K, Weenig RH, Pittelkow MR *et al.* High recurrence rates of squamous cell carcinoma after Mohsø surgery in patients with chronic lymphocytic leukaemia. *Dermatol Surg* 2005; **31**: 38-42.
- 28) Moy R, Eliezri YD. Significance of human papillomavirus-induced squamous cell carcinoma to dermatologists. *Arch Dermatol* 1994; 130: 235-8.
- 29) Bens G, Wieland U, Hofmann A *et al.* Detection of new human papillomavirus sequences in skin lesions of a renal transplant recipient and characterization of one complete genome related to epidermodysplasia verruciformis-associated types. *J Gen Virol* 1998; **79**: 779-87.
- 30) Harwood CA, McGregor JM, Proby CM, Breuer J. Human papillomavirus and the development of non-melanoma skin cancer. *J Clin Pathol* 1999; **52**: 249-53.
- 31) Harwood CA, Surentheran T, McGregor JM *et al.* Human papillomavirus infection and nonmelanoma skin cancer in immunosuppressed and immunocompetent individuals. *J Med Virol* 2000; **61**: 289-97.

- 32) Glover MT, Niranjan N, Kwan JT, Leigh IM. Non-melanoma skin cancer in renal transplant recipients: the extent of the problem and a strategy for management. *Br J Plast Surg* 1994;
 47: 86-9.
- 33) Liddington M, Richardson AJ, Higgins RM, Endre ZH, Venning VA, Murie JA, Morris PJ.Skin cancer in renal transplant recipients. *Br J Surg* 1989; 76: 1002-5.
- 34) Ong CS, Keogh AM, Kossard S *et al.* Skin cancer in Australian heart transplant recipients. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1999; **40**: 27-34.
- 35) Veness MJ, Quinn DI, Ong CS *et al.* Aggressive cutaneous malignancies following cardiothoracic transplantation: the Australian experience. *Cancer* 1999; **85**: 1758-64.
- 36) Weimar VM, Ceilley RI, Goeken JA. Aggressive biologic behaviour of basal and squamous cell cancers in patients with chronic lymphocytic leukaemia or chronic lymphocytic lymphoma. *J Dermatol Surg Oncol* 1979; **5**: 609-14.
- 37) van der Pols JC, Williams GM, Pandeya N *et al.* Prolonged prevention of squamous cell carcinoma of the skin by regular sunscreen use. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2006;
 15: 2546-8.
- 38) Green A, Williams G, Neale R *et al.* Daily sunscreen application and betacarotene supplementation in prevention of basal-cell and squamous-cell carcinomas of the skin: a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 1999; **354**: 723-9.
- 39) Marks R, Rennie G, Selwood TS. Malignant transformation of solar keratoses to squamous cell carcinoma in the skin: a prospective study. *Lancet* 1988, **9**: 795-7.
- 40) Naylor MF, Boyd *et al.* High sun protection factor sunscreens in the suppression of actinic neoplasia. *Arch Dermatol* 1995; **131**: 170-5.
- 41) Thompson SC, Jolley D, Marks R. Reduction of solar keratosis by regular sunscreen use. New Engl J Med 1993; 329: 1147-51.

- 42) Moloney FJ, Kelly PO, Kay EW *et al.* Maintenance versus reduction of immunosuppression in renal transplant recipients with aggressive squamous cell carcinoma. *Dermatol Surg* 2004;
 30: 674-8.
- 43) Euvrard S, Ulrich C, Lefrancois N. Immunosuppressants and skin cancer in transplant patients; focus on rapamycin. *Dermatol Surg* 2004; **30**: 628-33.
- 44) Chen K, Craig JC, Shumack S. Oral retinoids for the prevention of skin cancers in solid organ transplant recipients: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. Br J Dermatol 2005; 152: 518-23.
- 45) Harwood CA, Leedham-Green M, Leigh IM, Proby CM. Low-dose retinoids in the prevention of cutaneous squamous cell carcinomas in organ transplant recipients. *Arch Dermatol* 2005; **141**: 456-64.
- 46) Nijsten TEC, Stern RS. Oral retinoid use reduces cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma risk in patients with psoriasis treated with psoralen-UVA; a nested cohort study. J Am Acad Dermatol 2003; 49: 644-50.
- 47) Brown VL, Atkins CL, Ghali L *et al.* Safety and efficacy of 5% imiquimod cream for the treatment of skin dysplasia in high-risk renal transplant recipients. *Arch Dermatol* 2005; 141: 985-93.
- 48) National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence. Improving Outcomes for People with Skin Tumours including Melanoma. February 2006 (accessed 19 June 2007, at: http://guidance.nice.org.uk/csgstim/guidance/pdf/English/download.dspx).
- 49) Royal College of Pathologists. *Minimum Dataset for the Histopathological Reporting of Common Skin Cancers*. February 2002 (accessed 19 June 2007, at: http://www.rcpath.org/resources/pdf/skincancers2802.pdf).

- 50) Barksdale SK, O'Connor N, Barnhill R. Prognostic factors for cutaneous squamous cell and basal cell carcinoma. Determinants of risk of recurrence, metastasis and development of subsequent skin cancers. *Surg Oncol Clin N Am* 1997; **6**: 625-38.
- 51) Breuninger H, Black B, Rassner G. Microstaging of squamous cell carcinomas. *Am J Clin Pathol* 1990: **94**: 624-7.
- 52) Breuninger H. Diagnostic and therapeutic standards in interdisciplinary dermatologic oncology. Published by the German Cancer Society 1998.
- 53) Broders AC. Squamous cell epithelioma of the lip. JAMA 1920: 74: 656-64.
- 54) Broders AC. Squamous cell epithelioma of the skin. Ann Surg 1921: 73: 141-60.
- 55) Friedman HI, Cooper PH, Wanebo HJ. Prognostic and therapeutic use of microstaging in cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma of the trunk and extremities. *Cancer* 1985: **56**: 1099-1105.
- 56) Frierson HF, Cooper PH. Prognostic factors in squamous cell carcinoma of the lower lip. *Hum Pathol* 1986: 17: 346-54.
- 57) Heenan PJ, Elder DJ, Sobin LH. WHO International histological classification of tumors. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, New York, 1993.
- 58) Hermanek P, Heuson DE, Hutter RVP, Sobin LH. UICC (International Union Against Cancer) TNM Supplement, Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg, New York 1993.
- 59) Mendenhall WM, Parsons JT, Mendenhall NP, Brant TA, Stringer SP. Cassisi NJ, Million RR. Carcinoma of the skin of the Head and Neck with perineural invasion. *Head Neck* 1989; 11: 301-8.
- 60) Abide JM, Nahai F, Bennett RG. The Meaning of Surgical Margins. *Plast Reconstr Surg* 1984: **73**: 492-496.
- 61) Clayman GL, Lee JJ, Holsinger C *et al*. Mortality risk from squamous cell carcinoma. *J Clin* Oncol 2005; 23: 759-65.

- 62) Moore BA, Weber RS, Prieto V *et al.* Lymph node metastases from cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *Laryngoscope* 2005; **115**: 1561-7.
- 63) Veness MJ, Palme CE, Morgan GJ. High-risk cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. Results from 266 treated patients with metastatic lymph node disease. *Cancer* 2006; **106**: 2389-96.
- 64) Mullen JT, Feng L, Xing Y *et al.* Invasive squamous cell carcinoma of the skin: defining a high-risk group. *Ann Surg Oncol* 2006; **13**: 902-9.
- 65) Rowe DE, Carroll RJ, Day CL. Prognostic Factors for local recurrence, metastasis and survival rates in squamous cell carcinoma of the skin, ear and lip. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1992:
 26: 976-90.
- 66) Dzubow LM, Rigel DS, Robins P. Risk factors for local recurrence of primary cutaneous squamous cell carcinomas. *Arch Dermatol* 1982; **118**: 900-2.
- 67) Epstein E, Epstein NN, Bragg K, Linden G. Metastases from squamous cell carcinomas of the skin. *Arch Dermatol* 1968; **97**: 245-51.
- 68) Epstein E. Malignant sun-induced squamous cell carcinoma of the skin. *J Dermatol Surg* Oncol 1983; **9**: 505-6.
- 69) Eroglu A, Berberoglu U, Berberoglu S. Risk factors related to locoregional recurrence in squamous cell carcinoma of the skin. *J Surg Oncol* 1996; **61**: 124-30.
- 70) Friedman NR. Prognostic factors for local recurrence, metastases and survival rates in squamous cell carcinoma of the skin, ear and lip. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1993; **28**: 281-2.
- 71) Katz AD, Urbach F, Lilienfeld AM. The frequency and risk of metastases in squamous cell carcinoma of the skin. *Cancer* 1957; **10**: 1162-6.
- 72) Kwa RE, Campana K, Moy RL. Biology of Cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. J Am Acad Dermatol 1992: 26: 1-26.

- 73) Dinehart SM, Peterson S. Evaluation of the American Joint Committee on cancer Staging System for cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma and proposal of a new staging system. *Dermatol Surg* 2005; **31**: 1379-84.
- 74) Afzelius LE, Gunnarsson M, Nordgren H. Guidelines for prophylactic radical lymph node dissection in cases of carcinoma of the external ear. *Head Neck Surg* 1980; **2**: 361-5.
- 75) Mohs FE, Snow SN. Microscopically controlled surgical treatment for squamous cell carcinoma of the lower lip. *Surg Gynecol Obstet* 1985; **160**: 37-41.
- 76) Mohs FE. Chemosurgical treatment of cancer of the ear: a microscopically controlled method of excision. Surgery 1947; 21: 605-622.
- 77) Mohs FE. Chemosurgical treatment of cancer of the lip. *Archives of Surgery* 1944; 48: 478-88.
- 78) Cottel WI. Perineural invasion by squamous cell carcinoma. *J Dermatol Surg Oncol* 1982; 8: 589-600.
- 79) Glass RL, Spratt JS, Perez-Mesa C. The fate of inadequately excised epidermoid carcinoma of the skin. *Surg Gynecol Obstet* 1966; **122**: 245-8.
- 80) Mohs FE. Chemosurgery. Clinics in Plastic Surgery. 1980; 7: 349-60.
- 81) Leibovitch I, Huilgol SC, Selva D *et al.* Cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma treated with Mohs micrographic surgery in Australia I. Experience over 10 years. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2005; 53: 253-6.
- 82) Leibovitch I, Huilgol SC, Selva D *et al.* Cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma treated with Mohs micrographic surgery in Australia II. Perineural invasion. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2005;
 53: 261-6.
- 83) Immerman SC, Scanlon EF, Christ M, Knox KL. Recurrent squamous cell carcinoma of the skin. *Cancer* 1983; **51**: 1537-40.

- 84) Kraus DH, Carew JF, Harrison LB. Regional lymphnode metastasis from cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg.* 1998; **124**: 582-7.
- 85) Petter G, Haustein UF. Histologic subtyping and malignancy assessment of cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *Dermatol Surg* 2000; **26**: 521-30.
- 86) Tavin E, Persky M. Metastatic cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck region. *Laryngoscope* 1996; **106**: 156-8.
- 87) Rapini RP. Comparison of Methods for Checking Surgical Margins. J Am Acad Dermatol 1990; 23: 288-94.
- 88) Brodland DG, Zitelli JA. Surgical margins for excision of primary cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. J Am Acad Dermatol 1992: 27: 241-8.
- 89) 91) Fleming ID, Amonette R, Monaghan T, Fleming MD. Principles of management of basal and squamous cell carcinoma of the skin. *Cancer* 1995: **75**: 699-704.
- 90) Knox JM, Freeman RG, Duncan WC, Heaton CL. Treatment of skin cancer. *Southern Medical Journal* 1967: **60**: 241-6.
- 91) Lund HZ. Metastasis from sun-induced squamous cell carcinoma of the skin: an uncommon event. *J Dermatol Surg Oncol* 1984; **10**: 169-70.
- 92) Dinehart SM, Pollack SV. Metastases from squamous cell carcinoma of the skin and lip. J Am Acad Dermatol 1989; 21: 241-8.
- 93) Nicolson GL. Organ specificity of tumor metastasis: role of preferential adhesion, invasion and growth of malignant cells at specific secondary sites. *Cancer Metastasis Rev* 1988; 7: 143-88.
- 94) Weisberg NK, Bertagnolli MM, Becker DS. Combined sentinel lymphadenectomy and Mohs' micrographic surgery for high-risk cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2000; 43: 483-8.
- 95) Brodland DG, Zitelli JA. Mechanisms of metastasis. J Am Acad Dermatol 1992; 27: 1-8.

- 96) Geohas J, Roholt NS, Robinson JK. Adjuvant radiotherapy after excision of cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1994; **30**: 633-6.
- 97) van den Brekel MWM, Stel HV, Castelijns *et al.* Lymph node staging in patients with clinically negative neck examinations by ultrasound and ultrasound-guided aspiration cytology. *Am J Surg* 1991; **162**: 362-6.
- 98) Vassallo P, Wernecke K, Roos N, Peters PE. Differentiation of benign from malignant superficial lymphadenopathy: The role of high resolution US. *Radiology* 1992; 183: 215-20.
- 99) Knappe M, Louw M, Gregor RT. Ultrasonography-guided fine-needle aspiration for the assessment of cervical metastases. *Arch Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 2000; **126**: 1091-6.
- 100) Sumi M, Ohki M, Nakamura T. Comparison of sonography and CT for differentiating benign from malignant cervical lymph nodes in patients with squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *AJR Am J Roentgenol* 2001; **176**: 1019-24.
- 101) Civantos FJ, Moffat FL, Goodwin WJ. Lymphatic mapping and sentinel lymphadenectomy for 106 head and neck lesions: contrasts between oral cavity and cutaneous malignancy. *Laryngoscope* 2006; **116(S109)**: 1-15.
- 102) Wagner JD, Evdokimow DZ, Weisberger E *et al.* Sentinel node biopsy for high-risk nonmelanoma cutaneous malignancy. *Arch Dermatol* 2004; **140**: 75-9.
- 103) Nouri K, Rivas P, Pedroso F *et al.* Sentinel lymph node biopsy for high-risk cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck. *Arch Dermatol* 2004; **140**: 1284.
- 104) 106) Reschly MJ, Messina JL, Zaulyanov LL *et al.* Utility of sentinel lymphadenectomy in the management of patients with high risk cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *Dermatol Surg* 2003; 29: 135-40.
- 105) Altinyollar H, Berberoglu U, Celen O. Lymphatic mapping and sentinel lymph node biopsy in squamous cell carcinoma of the lower lip. *Eur J Surg Oncol* 2002; **28**: 72-4.

- 106) Weisberg NK, Bertagnolli MM, Becker DS. Combined sentinel lymphadenectomy and Mohs micrographic surgery for high risk cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2000; **43**: 483-8.
- 107) Eastman AL, Erdman WA, Lindberg GM *et al.* Sentinel lymph node biopsy identifies occult nodal metastases in patients with Marjolinøs ulcer. *J Burn Care Rehabil* 2004; **25**: 241-5.
- 108) Ozcelik D, Tatlidede S, Hacikerim S *et al.* The use of sentinel lymph node biopsy in squamous cell carcinoma of the foot: a case report. *J Foot Ankle Surg* 2004; **43**: 60-3.
- 109) Perez-Naranjo L, Herrera-Saval A, Garcia-Bravo B *et al.* Sentinel lymph node biopsy in recessive dystrophic epidermolysis bullosa and squamous cell carcinoma. *Arch Dermatol* 2005; 141: 110-1.
- 110) Freeman RG, Knox JM, Heaton CL. The treatment of skin cancer. A statistical study of 1,341 skin tumours comparing results obtained with irradiation, surgery and curettage followed by electrodesiccation. *Cancer* 1964: 17: 535-8.
- 111) Macomber WB, Wang MKH, Sullivan JG. Cutaneous Epithelioma. *Plast Reconst Surgery* 1959; 24: 545-62.
- 112) Stenbeck KD, Balanda KP, Williams MJ, Ring IT, MacLennan R, Chick JE, Morton AP. Patterns of treated non-melanoma skin cancer in Queensland - the region with the highest incidence rates in the world. *Med J Aust.* 1990; **153**: 511-5.
- 113) Kuflik EG, Gage AA. The five-year cure rate achieved by cryosurgery for skin cancer. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1991; **24**: 1002-4.
- 114) Tromovitch TA. Skin Cancer. Treatment by curettage and desiccation. *Calif Med* 1965: 103: 107-8.
- 115) Karagas MR. Occurrence of cutaneous basal cell and squamous cell malignancies among those with a prior history of skin cancer. *J Invest Dermatol*. 1994; **102**: 10S-13S.

- 116) Telfer NR. Mohs' micrographic surgery for cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma: practical considerations. *Br J Dermatol* 2000; 142: 631-3.
- 117) Turner RJ, Leonard N, Malcolm AJ, Lawrence CM, Dahl MGC. A retrospective study of outcome of Mohs' micrographic surgery for cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma using formalin fixed sections. *Br J Dermatol* 2000; 142: 752-7.
- 118) Lawrence CM, Dahl MGC, Dickinson AJ, Turner RJ. Mohsø micrographic surgery for cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma: practical considerations. *Br J Dermatol* 2001; 144: 186.
- 119) de Graaf YGL, Basdew VR, van der Zwan-Kralt N *et al.* The occurrence of residual or recurrent squamous cell carcinomas in organ transplant recipients after curettage and electrodesiccation. *Br J Dermatol* 2006; **154**: 493-7.
- 120) Chiller K, Passaro D, McCalmont T, Vin-Christian K. Efficacy of curettage before excision in clearing surgical margins of non-melanoma skin cancer. *Arch Dermatol* 2000; **136**: 1327-32.
- 121) Kuflik EG. Cryosurgery for skin cancer: 30 year experience and cure rates. *Dermatol Surg* 2004; **30**: 297-300.
- 122) Tsao MN, Tsang RW, Liu F-F et al. Radiotherapy management for squamous cell carcinoma of the nasal skin: the Princess Margaret Hospital experience. Int J Radiation Oncology Biol Phys 2002; 52: 973-9.
- 123) Caccialanzi M, Piccinno R, Kolessnikova L, Gnecchi L. Radiotherapy of skin carcinomas of the pinna: a study of 115 lesions in 108 patients. *Int J Dermatol* 2005; **44**: 513-7.
- 124) Locke J, Karimpour S, Young G. Radiotherapy for epithelial skin cancer. *Int J Radiation Oncology Biol Phys* 2001; **51**: 748-55.
- 125) Schulte K-W, Lippold A, Auras C *et al.* Soft x-ray therapy for cutaneous basal cell and squamous cell carcinomas. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2005; **53**: 993-1001.

- 126) Oster-Schmidt C. Two cases of squamous cell carcinoma treated with topical imiquimod5%. *JEADV* 2004; 18: 93-5.
- 127) Fernandez-Vozmediano J, Armario-Hita J. Infiltrative squamous cell carcinoma on the scalp after treatment with 5% imiquimod cream. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2005; **52**: 716-7.
- 128) Peris K, Micantonio T, Concetta Fargnoli M *et al.* Imiquimod 5% cream in the treatment of Bowenøs disease and invasive squamous cell carcinoma. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 2006; 55: 324-7.
- 129) Hengge UR, Schaller J. Successful treatment of invasive squamous cell carcinoma using topical imiquimod. *Arch Dermatol* 2004; **140**: 404-6.
- 130) Florez A, Feal C, de la Torre C, Cruces M. Invasive squamous cell carcinoma treated with imiquimod 5% cream. *Acta Derm Venereol* 2004; **84**: 227-8.
- 131) Martin-Garcia RF. Imiquimod: an effective alternative for the treatment of invasive cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma. *Dermatol Surg* 2005; **31**: 371-4.
- 132) Kim KH, Yavel RM, Gross VL, Brody N. Intralesional interferon -2b in the treatment of basal cell carcinoma and squamous cell carcinoma: revisited. *Dermatol Surg* 2004; 30: 116-20.
- 133) Morse LG, Kendrick C, Hooper D *et al.* Treatment of squamous cell carcinoma with intralesional 5-fluorouracil. *Dermatol Surg* 2003; **29**: 1150-3.
- 134) Marmur ES, Schmults CD, Goldberg DJ. A review of laser and photodynamic therapy for the treatment of non-melanoma skin cancer. *Dermatol Surg* 2004; **30**: 264-71.
- 135) Rossi R, Puccioni M, Mavilia L *et al.* Squamous cell carcinoma of the eyelid treated with photodynamic therapy. *J Chemotherapy* 2004; **16**: 306-9.