Dental Care for the Patient with Bipolar Disorder

(Soins dentaires aux patients souffrant de maladies affectives bipolaires)

• David B. Clark, BSc, DDS, MSc (Oral Path), MRCDC •

Sommaire

Les maladies mentales chroniques et les traitements qui y sont associés comportent un risque inhérent de maladies buccodentaires importantes. Or, comme l'approche actuelle en matière de soins tend à favoriser la désinstitutionnalisation, les dentistes généralistes peuvent s'attendre à être appelés à traiter des patients souffrant de diverses formes de troubles psychiatriques. Un de ces groupes est formé des patients souffrant de maladies affectives bipolaires (incluant les troubles bipolaires de type I ou trouble maniaco-dépressif). Le présent article vise à familiariser le dentiste avec les caractéristiques psychopathologiques des maladies affectives bipolaires et à faire ressortir les particularités de ces patients en matière de santé buccodentaire et de traitement dentaire. Les troubles bipolaires sont considérés comme une des formes de maladies psychiatriques qui répondent le mieux au traitement, une fois correctement diagnostiquées. Grâce à une approche qui allie la pharmacothérapie, la psychothérapie et le counseling sur l'adaptation du mode de vie, ces patients sont mieux en mesure de comprendre les changements d'humeur qui caractérisent leur état et d'y faire face, et ainsi de s'intégrer d'une manière plus positive et progressive au sein de la société. Cependant, autant la maladie proprement dite que les divers traitements pharmacologiques qu'elle requiert entraînent un éventail de complications et d'effets secondaires buccodentaires, dont les plus fréquents sont la carie, les maladies parodontales et la xérostomie. Nous espérons qu'après la lecture de cet article les dentistes généralistes se sentiront mieux aptes à dispenser des soins dentaires aux patients qui souffrent de maladies affectives bipolaires et qu'ils joueront ainsi un rôle vital dans la réintégration de ces patients dans la société.

Mots clés MeSH : bipolar disorder/drug therapy; bipolar disorder/complications; dental care for chronically ill

© J Can Dent Assoc 2003; 69(1):20–4 Cet article a fait l'objet d'une révision par des pairs.

B ipolar disorder (including manic-depressive disorder) is a psychiatric illness affecting approximately 1% to 2% of the general population,¹⁻³ with no difference in prevalence among men and women. It is characterized by variation in an individual's mood, thought content and behavioural pattern between extreme elation (mania) and depression. These cycles are often unpredictable and of variable duration. Most patients display an extreme cycling of moods once every few years. However, some people, described as "rapid cyclers," experience mood swings at least 4 times per year, a situation more resistant to conventional treatment.³

Manic episodes are characterized by hyperactivity, which may involve excessive participation in multiple activities (e.g., sexual, occupational, religious or political). There is often a demanding and increasing nature to these activities of which the individual is unaware. Days may pass with little or no sleep. Speech is often rapid and loud, with abrupt changes in ideas or topics. Sadness, apathy, insomnia, loss of appetite, and decreased energy characterize the depressive phase. There is a loss of interest in daily activities, whether related to work or recreational pursuits. Affected individuals have difficulty concentrating on simple tasks, become easily distracted and express feelings of hopelessness, worthlessness and guilt^{1,4} (**Table 1**).

The first manic episodes often occur in the late teens or early twenties, and they tend to be of shorter duration than the depressive episodes. As the person becomes older, the intervals between episodes become shorter, with a concomitant increase in the duration of each manic or depressive episode.^{1,5}

Both manic and depressive episodes result in significant impairment in social and occupational functioning, which can lead to marital instability, alienation from family and loss of employment.³ Poor insight and judgement often result in substance abuse, financial downfall and various illegal activities. In fact, bipolar disorder exhibits one of the highest rates of associated substance abuse among all the major psychiatric

Manic symptoms	Depressive symptoms
Excessive "high" or euphoric feelings	Loss of appetite, weight loss or weight gain
Obnoxious, provocative or intrusive behaviour	Chronic pain or other persistent bodily symptoms not caused by
Unrealistic beliefs in one's abilities and powers	physical disease
Increased energy, restlessness, racing thoughts, rapid speech	Persistent sad or "empty" mood
Difficulty in concentrating, remembering, making decisions	Fatigue or sleep disturbances
Denial that anything is wrong	

Table 1 Symptoms of bipolar disorder

Table 2 Side effects of long-term use of lithium

Neurologic	Lethargy, fatigue, weakness, cognitive or memory impairment, fine tremors
Renal	Impaired tubular or glomerular functioning
Thyroid	Lithium-induced hypothyroidism (5% to 35%), nontoxic goitre (4% to 12%)
Cardiovascular	T-wave depression on ECG (displacement of intracellular potassium by lithium)
Gastrointestinal	Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, abdominal pain, xerostomia
Hematologic	Benign leukocytosis (reversible)
Dermatologic	Acneform eruptions, psoriasis
Metabolic	Weight gain, altered glucose metabolism

ECG = electrocardiography

illnesses, some studies showing up to a 60% lifetime prevalence of some form of substance abuse.^{6,7} It is well recognized that alcohol is abused by many patients, but recent studies illustrate that abuse of other substances, including marijuana, cocaine, LSD, heroin and other opiates, amphetamines and PCP (phencyclidine), is becoming more prevalent.⁶ Recent research remains inconclusive as to the effects of substance abuse on the overall course of bipolar disorder. However, some studies have shown a trend toward an increase in attempted suicides, more noncompliance with medications, increased rates of hospital admission and nonresponsiveness to pharmacotherapeutic regimens.^{6,7} From the dental standpoint, an awareness of the prevalence of drug abuse in patients with bipolar disorder is important. For example, myocardial ischemia and cardiac arrhythmias are a serious concern in patients who are "high" on cocaine. Administration of epinephrine-containing local anesthetics in the presence of cocaine intoxication will exacerbate the patient's response to sympathomimetic amines, which could result in myocardial infarction, stroke or hypertensive crisis.8,9

Individuals suffering from bipolar disorder are far more likely to commit suicide than patients in any other high-risk psychiatric or medical groups. Recent literature suggests that the rate of attempted suicides is 25% to 50%, and the overall completion rate is close to 15%.^{1,10}

Although an exact cause for this condition has not been identified, several contributing factors have been implicated,

such as biologic abnormalities relating to brain anatomy or physiology and hormonal or biochemical disturbances.⁴ Of greater significance is the fact that a strong familial pattern has been established. Patients with bipolar disorder are significantly more likely than patients with major depression to have parents and first-degree relatives with mood disorders.¹¹ Twin and adoption studies also favour a strong genetic component to bipolar disorder: concordance rates are 60% to 80% for monozygotic twins and 14% to 23% for dyzygotic twins.^{2,11}

Medical Management

There is no cure for bipolar disorder, but a 3-pronged treatment approach can be taken to the management of this illness: pharmacotherapy, psychotherapy and life-adjustment skills education. The pharmacotherapeutic phase is the one aspect of this treatment approach that holds the greatest relevance for dental management protocols. Initial pharmacologic management involves the administration of so-called mood stabilizers. Lithium carbonate, an alkali metal, is one such mood stabilizer that was previously regarded as the treatment of choice for this illness.^{12,13} It is effective as an antimanic agent and also prevents recurrent depression and stabilizes mood swings. The exact mechanism of action of lithium resides in its capacity to alter membrane function, through the ease with which it is substituted for other cations involved in the cell membrane-transport mechanism. Lithium enhances the uptake of norepinephrine and serotonin into the synaptosomes, thereby reducing their action. The onset of lithium activity is slow, and up to 10 days may be required to achieve the desired effect, which can be attained in up to 80% of patients if compliance is maintained. However, lithium has a variety of side effects involving many systems in the body^{12,14} (Table 2).

In recent years, several new medications have been developed for even more effective management of bipolar disorder,¹² including anticonvulsants such as divalproex, a derivative of valproic acid. This particular medication is being used more frequently as a first-choice treatment for mania because it is safer than lithium.¹² Other medications include antipsychotics such as risperidone and olanzapine, both of which display fewer side effects and less interference with cognitive functioning than lithium. Carbamazepine (an antiseizure drug) and verapamil (a calcium-channel blocker) have also been employed with increasing frequency in patients with bipolar disorder in whom the response to lithium has been inadequate.^{5,12} Antidepressant medications such as tricyclic

Table 3Dental management of the patientwith bipolar disorder

Consult with physician or psychiatrist Patient's current medication regimen and potential drug interactions Degree of compliance with pharmacotherapy Current status and psychological profile
Undertake aggressive preventive education program Oral hygiene instruction Frequent recall appointments Regular use of topical fluorides (e.g., dentifrices, gels in custom trays) Dietary counselling
Manage xerostomia and mucosal pathology Salivary substitutes and stimulants Chlorhexidine mouth rinses Regular examination of oral soft tissues

Use local anesthetic agents containing epinephrine judiciously: aspirate and inject slowly, and avoid use of epinephrine in retraction cords, hemostatic agents, etc.

Avoid or use reduced dosages of sedative and hypnotic agents and narcotic analgesics

antidepressants and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors may be added to the therapeutic regimen in some instances to assist in the management of the depressive phase.¹⁵ Patients with bipolar disorder who have demonstrated medication compliance can be maintained indefinitely on these therapeutic regimens with few harmful side effects, which allows them to lead relatively productive and active lives. Consequently, the community dental practitioner will see such individuals for dental treatment and must consider the special problems and concerns related to this particular illness.

Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) may be indicated for patients with severe depressive episodes that are refractory to medication.¹⁵ With ECT, a central nervous system seizure is created by means of an electric current; the seizure is thought to accentuate the responsiveness of neuronal membranes to norepinephrine and serotonin. It is important for the anesthetist or dental consultant to assess the patient's dentition before ECT to rule out any loose or broken teeth that could be aspirated during the treatments.¹⁵ As well, partial or complete dentures must also be identified. A bite block is generally placed between the teeth by the anesthetist to protect both the teeth and the tongue from the clenching that occurs upon stimulation of the masseter muscles.

Dental Therapeutic Considerations

Through encouragement, motivation and education about improving health, the dental practitioner can enhance the sense of identity and self-esteem for patients with bipolar disorder, thereby contributing in some degree to their psychological rehabilitation.¹⁶ The overall goal of treatment planning must incorporate the maintenance of oral health, comfort and function as well as the prevention and control of specific oral disease (**Table 3**). Before commencing any treatment, the dental practitioner should consult with the patient's physician or psychiatrist to confirm or update information about the current medication regimen, degree of compliance, ability to provide consent and overall psychological profile.¹⁷ The dental practitioner should also be aware that depressed patients may be uncooperative for even simple routine procedures.

During depressive episodes, many patients exhibit a distinct decline in the level of oral hygiene, coupled with a rise in dental caries and periodontal disease, which often progress to an unmanageable situation.¹⁸⁻²⁰ Dental hygiene is neglected, and any existing prostheses may become ill-fitting and may be discarded.²¹ Conversely, during manic periods, overzealous use of oral health aids (such as toothbrushes and floss) may be associated with a corresponding increase in the incidence and severity of cervical abrasion, as well as occasional mucosal or gingival lacerations.^{22,23} Unfortunately, medical pharmacotherapy for bipolar disorder can result in moderate to severe xerostomia, which further compounds the severity of any dental disease.²⁴⁻²⁶ With reduced salivary flow there is a rapid increase in the degree of dental deterioration, mucosal dryness and dysphagia. Patients often experience a sharp increase in rampant cervical caries not only because of the anticholinergic effects of lithium and other psychotropic medications, but also because they use candies or sweetened beverages to provide some form of oral lubrication.^{5,15} High caffeine intake and heavy smoking exacerbate the drying effects of various medications.²⁷ Other consequences of hyposalivation can include an increased incidence of yeast infections (Candida),26 fissuring of the corners of the mouth (perlèche)²⁸ and lips, and difficulty in chewing, speaking and swallowing.28

There have been numerous reports of the oral side effects of long-term lithium therapy, which can have some importance to dental management. Lichenoid stomatitis has been reported as an adverse reaction to lithium carbonate^{14,29} and is thought to represent a response to alterations in immunoregulation induced by the lithium therapy. Nonspecific stomatitis in association with lithium therapy has also been reported.³⁰ Other patients have reported a metallic taste sensation while taking lithium therapy.⁸

As in the pharmacotherapeutic management of any disease, there is a wide range of interactions between the drugs used in managing bipolar disorder and those used by dental practitioners. Concomitant administration of lithium and metronidazole or tetracycline may cause renal retention of lithium, which could lead to toxic effects.⁵ Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs such as ibuprofen are reported to increase plasma lithium levels by as much as 60%, so more frequent monitoring of plasma lithium levels may be needed.^{5,8}

Preventive dental education for these patients and their families continues to be the mainstay for not only institutional but also community-based dental treatment programs. Studies have shown that the longer the period of hospitalization for psychiatric illness, the greater the incidence of dental caries, periodontitis and subsequent tooth loss; conversely, outpatients have in general demonstrated better oral health than inpatients.^{2,18,31,32} Reinforcement of both tooth-brushing and

flossing techniques are required to maintain and enhance plaque removal. The use of a chlorhexidine gluconate mouth rinse can be effective in reducing the severity of gingivitis. However, the secondary effects of staining of teeth reported in the literature must be reviewed with the patient.³³ A protocol for dry mouth management may be required.^{28,34} Commercially available saliva substitutes, either in liquid form (Mouth Kote, Parnell, Mississauga, Ont.) or gel form (Oral Balance, Laclede, Inc., Rancho Dominguez, Calif.), provide temporary relief from symptoms in both dentate and edentulous individuals wearing complete dentures. Avoidance of both caffeinated and alcoholic beverages reduces the intensity of xerostomia. Sugar-free candies and chewing gum offer some stimulus to increase salivary flow. Taking frequent sips of water throughout the day also relieves symptoms. Regular use of 0.05% sodium fluoride mouth rinses or fluoride gels in custom trays or daily application of 1.1% sodium fluoride dentifrice (Prevident, Colgate, Canton, Mass.) facilitates enamel remineralization and reduces the incidence of dental caries. Depending on the patient's motivation and compliance and the severity of the xerostomia, recall appointments may have to be scheduled more frequently than usual, often at 3- to 4-month intervals.

In general, all aspects of dental care can be undertaken with adequate local anesthesia and judicious use of vasoconstrictive agents. Various psychotropic medications (e.g., phenothiazines and related antipsychotics, as well as tricyclic antidepressants) block the α -adrenergic receptors (which are responsible for vasoconstriction in smooth muscle), thereby preventing the usual effect of the vasoconstrictor epinephrine. Instead, a vasodilating effect is promoted, as the action of epinephrine is unopposed on the β -adrenergic receptors. Hypotension and reflex tachycardia could result. The duration of local anesthesia is also shortened.^{9,25}

Fixed prosthodontic treatment including implants requires a case-by-case analysis, with review of such factors as the degree of xerostomia, compliance with optimum oral hygiene, ability to tolerate more lengthy appointments and, in many cases, financial resources.

Conclusions

Cases of bipolar disorder represent a significant proportion of patients with mental illness. The general dental practitioner must be prepared to consider the special problems and features unique to this type of psychiatric disease. With a thorough medical history (often generated in consultation with the physician or psychiatrist), appropriate examination and knowledge of the diagnosis, most dental services can be provided to clients with bipolar disorder, often in association with an aggressive program of preventive dental education. The dentist's ability to contribute to the increased feelings of self-worth and overall psychotherapeutic management of these individuals can be a rewarding experience and demonstrates the harmonious interaction that can be achieved in the overall medical and dental management of patients with bipolar disorder. \Rightarrow **Remerciement :** L'auteur remercie sincèrement Mme Andrea Johnston, Services pharmaceutiques, Centre de santé mentale de Whitby, pour son aide à la préparation du manuscrit.

Le **Dr Clark** est chef des services dentaires au Centre de santé mentale de Whitby à Whitby (Ontario).

Écrire au : Dr David B. Clark, Centre de santé mentale de Whitby, 700, rue Gordon, Whitby ON L1N 5S9. Courriel : dentist@wmhc1. moh.gov.on.ca.

L'auteur n'a aucun intérêt financier déclaré dans la ou les sociétés qui fabriquent les produits mentionnés dans cet article.

References

1. Schatzberg AF. Bipolar disorder: recent issues in diagnosis and classification. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1998; 59(Suppl 6):5–10.

2. Mollica RF. Mood (affective) disorders. In: Comprehensive textbook of psychiatry. 5th ed. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins; 1989. p. 859–67.

3. Montgomery DB. ECNP Consensus Meeting March 2000 Nice: guidelines for investigating efficacy in bipolar disorder. European College of Neuropsychoparmacology. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 2001; 11(1):79–88.

5. Scully C, Cawson RA. Psychiatric disorders. In: Medical problems in dentistry. 4th ed. Oxford: Wright; 1998. p. 374–95.

4. Goodwin FK, Jamison KR. Manic-depressive illness. New York: Oxford University Press; 1990. p. 227-8.

6. Sherwood Brown E, Suppes T, Adinoff B, Rajan Thomas N. Drug abuse and bipolar disorder: comorbidity or misdiagnosis? *J Affect Disord* 2001; 65(2):105–15.

7. Cassidy F, Ahearn EP, Carroll BJ. Substance abuse in bipolar disorder. *Bipolar Disord* 2001; 3(4):181–8.

8. Little JW, Falace DA, Miller CS, Rhodus NL. Dental management of the medically compromised patient. 5th ed. St. Louis: Mosby; 1997. p. 546–75.

9. Pallasch TJ. Vasoconstrictors and the heart. *Oral Health* 2000; 90(3):19–26.

10. Simpson SG, Jamison KR. The risk of suicide in patients with bipolar disorder. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1999; 60(Suppl 2):53-6.

11. Numberger JL, Gershon ES. The genetics of affective disorders. In: Friedman E, editor. Depression and antidepressants and implications for cause and treatment. New York: Raven Press; 1983. p. 75–98.

12. Psychiatric Disorders. In: Tierney LM, McPhee SJ, Papadakis MA, editors. Current medical diagnosis and treatment 1999. 38th ed. Stamford: Appleton and Lange; 1999. p. 1025–8.

13. Erlich BE, Diamond JM. Lithium membranes and manic-depressive illness. *J Membr Biol* 1980; 52(3):187–200.

14. Bone S, Roose SP, Dunner DL, Fieve RR. Incidence of side effects in patients on long-term lithium therapy. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137(1):103–4.

15. Friedlander AH, Friedlander IK. Dental management of the patient with major depressive disorder. *Oral Health* 2001; 91(10):47–57.

16. Dicks JL. Outpatient dental services for individuals with mental illness: a program description. *Spec Care Dent* 1995; 15(6):239-42.

17. Friedlander AH, Mills MJ, Cummings JL. Consent for dental therapy in severely ill patients. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1988; 65(2):179–82.

18. Barnes GP, Allen EH, Parker WA, Lyon TC, Armentrout W, Cole JS. Dental treatment needs among hospitalized adult mental patients. *Spec Care Dent* 1988; 8(4):173–7.

19. Sjogren R, Nordstrom G. Oral health status of psychiatric patients. *J Clin Nurs* 2000; 9(4):632-8.

20. Velasco E, Bullon P. Periodontal status and treatment needs among Spanish hospitalized psychiatric patients. *Spec Care Dentist* 1999; 19(6):254–8.

21. Friedlander AH, West LJ. Dental management of the patient with major depression. *Oral Surg Oral Mel Oral Pathol* 1991; 71(5):573-8.

22. Friedlander AH, Brill NQ. The dental management of patients with bipolar disorder. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1986; 61(6):579–81.

23. Friedlander AH, Birch NJ. Dental conditions in patients with bipolar disorder on long-term lithium maintenance therapy. *Spec Care Dentist* 1990; 10(5):148–51.

24. Markitziu A, Shani J, Avni J. Salivary gland function in patients on chronic lithium treatment. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1988; 66(5):551–7.

25. Quock RM. Clinical complications in the psychiatric dental patient. *Compend Contin Educ Dent* 1985; 6(5):333–4, 338–40, 342.

26. Butt GM. Drug-induced xerostomia. J Can Dent Assoc 1991; 57(5):391–3.

27. Clark DB. Dental care for the psychiatric patient: chronic schizophrenia. J Can Dent Assoc 1992; 58(11):912–20.

28. Haveman CW, Redding SW. Dental management and treatment of xerostomic patients. *Oral Health* 1999; 89(10):53–71.

29. Hogan DJ, Murphy MD, Burgess WR, Epstein JD, Lane PR. Lichenoid stomatitis associated with lithium carbonate. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1985; 13(2 Pt 1):243–6.

30. Bar Nathan EA, Brenner S, Horowitz I. Nonspecific stomatitis due to lithium therapy. [Letter] *Am J Psychiatry* 1985; 142:1126.

31. Armstrong M. Dentists and community care. Br Dent J 1994; 176(2):48–9.

32. Kenkre AM, Spadigam AE. Oral health and treatment needs in institutionalized psychiatric patients in India. *Indian J Dent Res* 2000; 11(1):5–11.

33. Burtner AP, Low DW, McNeal DR, Hassell TM, Smith RG. Effects of chlorhexidine spray on plaque and gingival health in institutionalized persons with mental retardation. *Spec Care Dentist* 1991; 11(3):97–100. 34. Kroll B. Dry mouth. *Pharmacy Practice* 1998; 14(4):72–82.