Pratique

CLINIQUE

Hyposalivation in Elderly Patients

Anurag Gupta, BDS; Joel B. Epstein, DMD, MSD, FRCD(C); Herve Sroussi, DMD, PhD

SOMMAIRE

La salive est un élément essentiel de l'homéostasie buccale, de la fonction buccale et du maintien de la santé buccodentaire. La xérostomie a de multiples conséquences sur la santé buccodentaire et sur la qualité de vie. Or l'incidence de la xérostomie, ainsi que ses impacts sur la santé publique, sont en progression sous l'effet du vieillissement de la population, de certaines maladies systémiques, de certains traitements médicaux et de médicaments fréquemment prescrits qui réduisent la production de salive. Dans cet article, nous passons en revue les causes de la sècheresse de la bouche et en examinons les conséquences sur la santé. Nous examinons également le rôle des fournisseurs de soins dentaires et le traitement actuel de la xérostomie.

Mots clés MeSH : aging/physiology; salivary glands/secretion; xerostomia/etiology; xerostomia/ therapy Courriel: jepstein@

Auteur-ressource

Dr Epstein



© J Can Dent Assoc 2006; 72(9):841–6 Cet article a été révisé par des pairs.

S aliva helps maintain a neutral oral pH and provides a reservoir of calcium and phosphate ions to remineralize teeth. Saliva protects oral mucosa and teeth against harmful substances; lubricates the mouth to facilitate chewing, swallowing and speech; and reduces tissue trauma. Saliva contains enzymes, immunoglobulin A, lactoferrin, histatins and defensins, which provide local antimicrobial activity. Saliva also acts as a solvent to enhance taste and facilitate the initial steps in digestion.

A decrease in salivary flow (hyposalivation), leading to a complaint of dry mouth (xerostomia), is common in older people. Salivary function was thought to decline with age, but it is now accepted that the production of saliva and its composition are largely age independent in healthy people.¹⁻⁸ Salivary dysfunction in old age is mainly a consequence of systemic diseases, medications and head and neck radiotherapy; it also reflects reduced functional reserve. Current treatment approaches for management of xerostomia are directed toward providing relief of symptoms and resulting conditions. They include gustatory, masticatory and pharmacologic stimulants,⁹ replacement therapies (mouthwetting agents) and prevention of effects on oral health due to hyposalivation.

The Burden of the Disease

The prevalence of xerostomia increases with age and is approximately 30% in those aged 65 years and older.⁹ Drugs are the most common cause, because most elderly people take at least 1 medication that adversely affects salivary function.¹⁰ Almost all patients with Sjogren syndrome (SS) complain of xerostomia and show impaired salivary function on examination. The prevalence of SS is 1% to 4% in older adults^{11,12} and is more common in females. Head and neck radiotherapy causes permanent damage to salivary glands in all patients receiving this treatment¹³ when salivary glands are in the radiation field.

Hyposalivation contributes to a number of health problems. It can produce serious negative effects on the patient's quality of life by affecting dietary habits, nutritional status, speech, taste and tolerance to dental prosthesis and increasing the risk of oral infection, including candidiasis,

Box 1	Consequences of	xerostomia
-------	-----------------	------------

Dry mouth
Thirst
Difficulties in oral function
Dysphagia
Altered speech
Difficulties wearing dentures
Nocturnal oral discomfort
Oropharyngeal infections
Oropharyngeal burning
Mucus accumulation
Food retention in the mouth
Plaque accumulation
Changes in oral microbial flora
Mucosal changes
Hyposalivation-associated caries
Taste disturbances

and susceptibility to dental caries, periodontal disease and tooth loss (Box 1).

Patients may have problems while eating, speaking, swallowing and wearing dentures. It is particularly difficult for people with hyposalivation to eat dry foods such as biscuits (cracker sign). Denture wearers may have problems in denture retention, denture sores and the tongue sticking to the palate. Patients also complain of halitosis, a chronic burning sensation and intolerance of spicy foods.¹⁴ Complaints of xerostomia are more common at night because salivary production is at its lowest circadian level during sleep; the problem may be compounded by mouth breathing. Speech and eating difficulties can impair social interactions and may cause some patients to avoid social engagements.⁹

Diagnosis

Diagnosis of hyposalivation is based on the patient's history and clinical examination. Diagnosis may be facilitated by asking simple questions (**Table 1**). It is very important to elicit an accurate drug and family history.

Extraoral findings include dry and cracked lips, which may be infected with *Candida*, and occasionally enlarged salivary glands. Some older people may develop acute parotitis after undergoing extended periods of dehydration and anesthesia due to secondary retrograde salivary infection. Patients may also report dryness of the eyes along with xerostomia, which is suggestive of primary SS. Other systemic autoimmune diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, polyarthritis nodosa, scleroderma (systemic sclerosis) and systemic lupus erythematosus may also be present in secondary SS.

The oral mucosa may appear dry and shiny (Fig. 1). The clinical manifestations of candidiasis include

Table 1 Subjective evaluation of xe	erostomia ^{15,16}
-------------------------------------	----------------------------

Do you have difficulties swallowing any foods?	Yes/No
Does your mouth feel dry while ea- ting a meal?	Yes/No
Do you sip liquids to aid in swallowing dry foods?	Yes/No
Does the amount of saliva in your mouth seem to be too little?	Yes/No
Does the amount of saliva in your mouth seem to be too much?	Yes/No
Dryness of lips	Present/Absent
Dryness of buccal mucosa	Present/Absent

angular cheilitis and erythematous candidiasis, which may be more common than pseudomembranous candidiasis (thrush), which is more readily recognized.^{17–20} The tongue can become furrowed, dry and sticky or it can undergo partial or complete depapillation of the dorsum (**Fig. 2**). Palpation of the parotid papilla and milking of the gland and duct may reveal little or no saliva output. Food debris may stick to teeth or soft tissue and the normal pooling of saliva in the floor of mouth is absent. A tongue depressor, used to examine the mouth, can stick to the buccal mucosa. The dry mucosa is more susceptible to trauma and infection, and the patient may be suffering from painful mucositis.

Recurrent carious lesions are seen on the cervical margins or neck of the teeth (Class V), incisal margins and cusp tips (Class VI) (**Fig. 3**). These lesions are more common in today's elderly, because of the increasing prevalence of retained natural teeth and previously restored carious dental surfaces.⁹

Salivary flow rates can be measured (sialometry). Resting saliva can be collected by asking the patient to dribble into a measuring container for 3-5 minutes, and stimulated saliva can be collected by having the patient chew unflavoured wax or chewing gum base during collection for 3-5 minutes. In healthy people, the unstimulated whole saliva rate exceeds 0.15 mg/min.²¹ When glandular fluid production is decreased by about 50%, a person will have symptoms of dry mouth.²² The best strategy is to monitor a patient's salivary health (objectively and subjectively) over time. Sialographic studies, which involve injection of a radiopaque medium into the glands, can be employed to assess ductal obstruction and damage to the gland seen in SS. Quantitative salivary scintigraphy can be used to assess salivary gland function. Biopsy of minor salivary glands may be useful in diagnosis of SS and is required for diagnosis of salivary gland neoplasms. Fine-needle aspiration biopsy may be useful to identify lesions suspected of malignancy.23

— Hyposalivation —



Figure 1: Patient with hyposalivation, dry mucosa and chronic ulceration on lateral border of the tongue.



Figure 2: Candidiasis in patient taking antidepressant medications that cause dry mouth. Oral findings include pseudomembranous candidiasis with white adherent patches on the palate and erythematous candidiasis presenting with erythema and depapillation on the mid-dorsum of the tongue.



Figure 3: Extensive demineralization and cavitation of teeth in a patient with hyposalivation.

Common Causes of Hyposalivation

Medications

Medications are the most common cause of decreased salivary function (**Table 2**). It has been reported that 80% of the most commonly prescribed medications cause xerostomia. Xerostomic drugs can be found in 42 drug categories and 56 subcategories.^{24,25} The use of medications increases with age, with more than 75% of people aged 65 and older taking at least 1 prescription medication²⁶; therefore, the prevalence of medication-induced xerostomia is high in the elderly.²⁷

The most common medications causing hyposalivation are those with anticholinergic activity. Although cancer chemotherapy has also been associated with reduced salivary function,^{28,29} these changes appear to be transient in most patients. Radioactive iodine used for thyroid cancer treatment can affect parotid function in a dose-dependent fashion.³⁰

Substitution of xerostomia-causing drugs with similar types of medication with fewer xerostomic side effects should be considered whenever applicable. For example, serotonin-specific reuptake inhibitors have been reported to cause less dry mouth than tricyclic antidepressants.³¹ Milnacipran, used in combination with noradrenaline-serotonin reuptake inhibitor in cases of depression, has been shown to improve outcome and was associated with fewer dry-mouth symptoms than clomipramine.³² Use of anticholinergic drugs during the day will minimize symptoms at night. Also, divided doses can eliminate the side effects of a single large dose.

Head and Neck Radiotherapy

Hyposalivation is a common side effect of fractionated radiation therapy of head and neck.³³ Acute xerostomia is

usually due to acute inflammatory reaction, whereas late xerostomia following radiation therapy results from fibrosis of salivary glands, loss of acinar cells and reduced blood flow.³⁴ Within 1 week of the start of irradiation (after 10 Gy have been delivered), salivary function declines 60% to 90%,³⁵ with later recovery only if the total dose to salivary tissue is less than 25 Gy.³⁶ After a high radiation dose (> 60 Gy), degenerative changes progress and the glands atrophy and become fibrotic. Patients often develop thick, sticky saliva after starting head and neck radiotherapy, due to loss of serous secretion initially, followed by lack of any secretion and xerostomia. The degree of salivary gland damage depends on the number of salivary glands exposed to radiation and the dose. Radiation doses of 23 and 25 Gy are the threshold, above which permanent salivary gland destruction occurs.

Intensity-modulated radiotherapy and 3-dimensional treatment planning and dose delivery techniques can minimize radiation exposure of salivary glands, sparing salivary function and improving xerostomia-related quality of life.^{36,37} Use of a radioprotective agent, amifostine, provides cytoprotection to the gland and has been shown to reduce hyposalivation following radiation therapy.³⁴ Surgical replacement of submandibular glands can be used to remove them from the path of radiation.

Other Conditions

SS is the most common disease causing xerostomia in the elderly. It is an autoimmune chronic inflammatory disease with preponderance among females (female to male ratio 9:1). The disease is characterized by lymphocyte infiltration of salivary and lacrimal glands resulting in hypofunction. The disease can occur in 2 forms: primary, which involves the salivary glands, or secondary, which occurs along with other autoimmune disorders (mainly rheumatoid arthritis).

Xerostomia and xerophthalmia are the main symptoms of primary SS. Secondary SS also presents with symptoms of associated systemic conditions.

Dehydration due to impaired fluid intake, emesis, diarrhea or polyuria can result in hyposalivation. Dry mouth is also a common complaint in patients with diabetes mellitus.³⁸ Psychogenic causes, such as depression, anxiety, stress or fear, can also result in xerostomia. In cases of Alzheimer's disease or stroke, patients may complain of dry mouth in the presence of normal salivary secretion due to altered perception.

Management of Hyposalivation

The management of dry mouth should begin with identification and management of the underlying cause, although this is not always possible. There is no definitive treatment for patients with dry mouth due to radiation therapy or SS. Treatment is directed toward local and systemic salivary gland stimulation, symptomatic relief and preventing and treating complications due to hyposalivation.

Patients with xerostomia should undergo frequent dental evaluations for early diagnosis of oral complications. Patients should be encouraged to carry out daily oral selfexaminations for any mucosal ulcers, lesions or tooth decay and to report any unusual findings.

The mainstay of prevention of dental caries is meticulous plaque control through excellent oral hygiene. Patients should be instructed to brush their teeth at least twice a day using a soft-bristled toothbrush and a low-abrasive highly fluorinated toothpaste or gel¹² such as Prevident (Colgate Palmolive Co., New York, N.Y.). In addition, use of sodium fluoride rinses or fluoride gel may reduce tooth decay.³⁹ The most suitable topical fluoride gels contain 0.4% to 1.25% fluoride, have neutral pH and are applied in mouthguards (custom-made fluoride carriers). In high-risk patients, such as those undergoing daily radiation therapy, high-potency fluoride treatment is recommended. Use of both fluoride and chlorhexidine is effective in high-risk irradiated patients.⁴⁰ Patients should be advised against using alcohol and tobacco and to adopt a low-sugar diet to control dental caries. Xylitol-sweetened gums are effective in caries prevention and can be easily incorporated into a patient's routine.⁴¹

Denture use at night should be discouraged. Denture hygiene should be maintained with brushing and denture cleansers. In the case of candidiasis, dentures may be cleaned with 0.2% chlorhexidine solution overnight or a 1% chlorhexidine gel twice a day. Oral candidiasis can be treated with topical antifungal agents, such as nystatin cream and azole gel and, if refractory, systemic therapy with fluconazole may be provided.

Salivary stimulation is the preferred treatment in patients with residual capacity in the salivary glands. Salivary secretion is increased by nonspecific mechanical and gustatory stimulants. The combination of chewing and taste, as provided by gums and mints, can be effective in relieving **Table 2**Drugs associated with dry mouth

Drugs that directly damage salivary glands		
Cytotoxic drugs		
Drugs with anticholinergic activity		
Anticholinergic agents: atropine, atropinics and hyoscine		
Antireflux agents: proton-pump inhibitors		
(e.g., omeprazole)		
Central-acting psychoactive agents		
Antidepressants, including tricyclic compounds		
Phenothiazines		
Benzodiazepines		
Antihistamines		
Bupropion		
Opioids		
Drugs acting on sympathetic system		
Drugs with sympathomimetic activity (e.g., ephedrine)		
Antihypertensives: alpha-1 antagonists (e.g., terazosin and prazosin); alpha-2 agonists (e.g., clonidine); beta blockers (e.g., atenolol, propanolol), which also alter salivary protein levels		
Drugs that deplete fluid		
Diuretics		

Adapted from Scully and Felix.²¹

symptoms. Citric acid can stimulate salivation, but its use is limited because of attendant mucosal irritation and the risk of demineralization in patients with teeth. Sugar-free chewing gums, candies and mints are useful in patients with residual salivary capacity. A disadvantage of local saliva stimulants is their limited effectiveness during the night when the symptoms are most severe.

Pharmacologic agents stimulate salivary output and produce a lasting effect throughout the day. Pilocarpine (Salagen, MGI Pharma Inc., Bloomington, Minn.) and cevimeline (Evoxac, Daiichi Pharmaceuticals, Tokyo, Japan) have been approved for use in xerostomic patients.⁴²⁻⁴⁴ Pilocarpine is a nonspecific muscarinic agonist and has widespread pharmacologic effects on the body. When taken as tablets of 5-10 mg, 3 times a day, such adverse effects as sweating, chills, nausea, dizziness, rhinitis and asthenia in patients suffering from irradiation-induced xerostomia have been observed. The recommended initial dose is a 5mg tablet 3 or 4 times a day; the usual dose range is 3-6 tablets (15-30 mg) a day, not exceeding 2 tablets (10 mg) per dose. Slow-release preparations of pilocarpine have been developed to minimize side effects and prolong the drug's duration of action. Nanoparticles loaded with pilocarpine are being investigated as a new mode of drug delivery.45

Cevimeline is a cholinergic agonist with high affinity for M_3 muscarinic receptor subtypes, which are located on

Table 3Commercially available mouth-wetting agents
(saliva substitutes)

Carboxymethyl or hydroxyethyl solutions	
Moi-Stir spray; Moi-Stir Oral Swabsticks (Kingswood	
Laboratories, Indianapolis, Ind.)	
Optimoist spray (Colgate-Palmolive, Canton, Mass.)	
— sodium-free	
Saliva Substitute (Roxane Labs, Columbus, Ohio) — liquid	
Salivart (Gebauer, Cleveland, Ohio) — preservative-free	
aerosol	
Salix (Salix Pharmaceuticals Inc, Morrisville, N.C.)	
— tablets	
VA OraLube (compounding pharmacies) — sodium-free	
liquid	
Entertainer's Secret (KLI Corp, Carmel, Ind.) — spray	
Biotene products	
Oral Balance Gel (Laclede Pharmaceuticals, Gardena,	
Calif.)	
Animal mucin product	
Glandosane (Bradley Pharmaceuticals, Fairfield, N.J.)	
Mucopolysaccharide solutions	
MouthKote (Parnell, San Francisco, Calif.) — spray	

Adapted from Bartels⁵¹ and Epstein and Stevenson-Moore.⁵²

salivary and sweat glands. Thus, it can cause salivary stimulation while minimizing adverse effects on cardiac and pulmonary function. It is contraindicated in patients with asthma and narrow-angle glaucoma. It is used during pregnancy if the benefits are considered acceptable, although animal studies show adverse effects on the fetus. The recommended dose is 30 mg 3 times a day. Bethanechol, another cholinergic-muscarinic sialagogue has increased salivary secretion in irradiated patients when taken at the rate of 25 mg 3 times daily. Anethole trithione (Sialor, Paladin, Montreal, Que.) is used for the treatment of xerostomia in patients with SS. Unlike other sialagogues, it increases receptor sites on salivary acinar cells. Its beneficial effects in SS patients taking 25-mg doses 3 times a day have been reported.46 A combination of pilocarpine and anethole trithione has shown a synergistic effect on salivary secretion.47

Human interferon-alpha, used as low-dose lozenges, has significantly increased salivary secretion in SS patients.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ In 1 study, oral administration of 150 IU interferon-alpha 3 times a day for patients with primary SS improved saliva production, relieved symptoms of xerostomia and xerophthalmia and was well tolerated.⁴⁹

If saliva secretion cannot be stimulated, symptomatic treatment involves the use of saliva substitutes (**Table 3**). Patients should be encouraged to take frequent sips of water throughout the day. Use of water during meals can aid in

swallowing and improve taste perception. Commercially available saliva substitutes containing thickening agents, such as carboxymethyl cellulose or mucin, are the most common. Recently, saliva substitutes based on polyacrylic acid and xanthan gum have been developed and are recommended for patients with extremely low salivary production rates. Although there is clearly a role for saliva replacements, particularly in those who have no residual salivary gland function, this is not a highly effective therapy.

Use of bedside humidifiers, particularly at night, may lessen discomfort due to oral dryness.

Oral health and function depend on salivary function. Although hyposalivation is common in elderly patients, it is frequently not assessed and managed. \Rightarrow

THE AUTHORS



Dr. Gupta is clinical research coordinator in the department of oral medicine and diagnostic sciences, and a student in the master of public health program, University of Illinois, Chicago, Illinois.



Dr. Epstein is professor and head, department of oral medicine and diagnostic sciences and Chicago Cancer Center, University of Illinois, Chicago, Illinois.



Dr. Sroussi is assistant professor and director of oral medicine, department of oral medicine and diagnostic sciences and Chicago Cancer Center, University of Illinois, Chicago, Illinois.

Correspondence to: Dr. Joel Epstein, Department of Oral Medicine and Diagnostic Sciences, MC-838, 801 South Paulina St., University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, IL 60091

The authors have no declared financial interests in any company manufacturing the types of products mentioned in this article.

References

1. Baum BJ. Evaluation of stimulated parotid saliva flow rate in different age groups. *J Dent Res* 1981; 60(7):1292–6.

2. Heft MW, Baum BJ. Unstimulated and stimulated parotid salivary flow rate in individuals of different ages. *J Dent Res* 1984; 63(10):1182–5.

3. Aguirre A, Levine MJ, Cohen RE, Tabak LA. Immunochemical quantitation of alpha-amylase and secretory IgA in parotid saliva from people of various ages. *Arch Oral Biol* 1987; 32(4):297–301.

4. Percival RS, Challacombe SJ, Marsh PD. Flow rates of resting whole and stimulated parotid saliva in relation to age and gender. *J Dent Res* 1994; 73(8):1416–20.

5. Challacombe SJ, Percival RS, Marsh PD. Age related changes in immunoglobulin isotypes in whole and parotid saliva and serum in healthy individuals. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 1995; 10(4):202–7.

6. Ship JA, Baum BJ. Is reduced salivary flow normal in old people? *Lancet* 1990(8729); 336:1507.

7. Wu AJ, Atkinson JC, Fox PC, Baum BJ, Ship JA. Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses of stimulated parotid salivary constituents in healthy, different-aged subjects. *J Gerontol* 1993; 48(5):M219–24.

8. Ship JA, Nolan NE, Puckett SA. Longitudinal analysis of parotid and submandibular salivary flow rates in healthy, different-aged adults. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* 1995; 50(5):M285–9.

9. Ship JA, Pillemer SR, Baum BJ. Xerostomia in the geriatric patient. J Am Geriatr Soc 2002; 50(3):535–43.

10. Schein OD, Hochberg MC, Munoz B, Tielsch JM, Bandeen-Roche K, Provost T, and others. Dry eye and dry mouth in the elderly: a populationbased assessment. *Arch Intern Med* 1999; 159(12):1359–63. 11. Fox RI, Stern M, Michelson P. Update in Sjogren syndrome. *Curr Opin Rheumatol* 2000; 12(5):391–398.

12. van der Reijden WA, Vissink A, Veerman EC, Amerongen AV. Treatment of oral dryness related complaints (xerostomia) in Sjogren's syndrome. *Ann Rheum Dis* 1999; 58(8):465–74.

13. Henson BS, Inglehart MR, Eisbruch A, Ship JA. Preserved salivary output and xerostomia-related quality of life in head and neck cancer patients receiving parotid-sparing radiotherapy. *Oral Oncol* 2001; 37(1):84–93.

14. Atkinson JC, Wu AJ. Salivary gland dysfunction: causes, symptoms, treatment. J Am Dent Assoc 1994; 125(4):409–16.

15. Fox PC, Busch KA, Baum BJ. Subjective reports of xerostomia and objective measures of salivary gland performance. *J Am Dent Assoc* 1987; 115(4):581–4.

16. Navazesh M, Christensen C, Brightman V. Clinical criteria for the diagnosis of salivary gland hypofunction. *J Dent Res* 1992; 71(7):1363–69.

17. Tapper-Jones L, Aldred M, Walker DM. Prevalence and intraoral distribution of Candida albicans in Sjogren's syndrome. *J Clin Pathol* 1980; 33(3):282–7.

18. Lundstrom IM, Lindstrom FD. Subjective and clinical oral symptoms in patients with primary Sjogren's syndrome. *Clin Exp Rheumatol* 1995; 13(6):725–31.

19. Rhodus NL, Bloomquist C, Liljemark W, Bereuter J. Prevalence, density, and manifestations of oral Candida albicans in patients with Sjogren's syndrome. *J Otolaryngol* 1997; 26(5):300–5.

20. Soto-Rojas AE, Villa AR, Sifuentes-Osornio J, Alarcon-Segovia D, Kraus A. Oral candidiasis and Sjogren's syndrome. *J Rheumatol* 1998; 25(5):911–5.

21. Scully C, Felix DH. Oral medicine — update for the dental practitioner: dry mouth and disorders of salivation. *Br Dent J* 2005; 199(7):423–7.

22. Dawes C. Physiological factors affecting salivary flow rate, oral sugar clearance, and the sensation of dry mouth in man. *J Dent Res* 1987; 66(Spec No):648–53.

23. Greenspan D. Xerostomia: diagnosis and management. *Oncology* 1996; 10(3 Suppl):7–11.

24. Dry mouth. National Institutes of Health and National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research. Bethesda, MD: 1999. Available from URL: http://www.nidcr.nih.gov/HealthInformation/DiseasesAndConditions/DryMouthXerostomia/DryMouth.htm (accessed September 2006).

25. Sreebny LM, Schwartz SS. A reference guide to drugs and dry mouth — 2nd edition. Gerodontology 1997; 14(1):33–47.

26. Chrischilles EA, Foley DJ, Wallace RB, Lemke Jh, Semla TP, Hanlon JT, and others. Use of medications by persons 65 and over: data from the established populations for epidemiologic studies of the elderly. *J Gerontol* 1992; 47(5):M137–44.

27. Narhi TO. Prevalence of subjective feelings of dry mouth in the elderly. J Dent Res 1994; 73(1):20-5.

28. Harrison T, Bigler L, Tucci M, Pratt L, Malamud F, Thigpen JT, and others. Salivary slgA concentrations and stimulated whole saliva flow rates among women undergoing chemotherapy for breast cancer: an exploratory study. *Spec Care Dentist* 1998; 18(3):109–12.

29. Meurman JH, Laine P, Keinanen S, Pyrhonen S, Teerenhovi L, Lindqvist C. A longitudinal follow-up of salivary secretions in bone marrow transplant patients. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Path Oral Radiol Endo* 1997; 83(4):447–52.

30. Allweiss P, Braunstein GD, Karz A, Waxman A. Sialadenitis following I-131 therapy for thyroid carcinoma: concise communication. *J Nucl Med* 1984; 25(7):755–8.

31. Hunter KD, Wilson WS. The effects of antidepressant drugs on salivary flow and content of sodium and potassium ions in human parotid saliva. *Arch Oral Biol* 1995; 40(11):983–9.

32. Trindade E, Menon D, Topfer LA, Coloma C. Adverse effects associated with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and tricyclic antidepressants: a meta-analysis. *CMAJ* 1998; 159(10):1245–52.

33. Scully C, Epstein JB. Oral health care for the cancer patient. *Eur J Cancer B Oral Oncol* 1996; 32B(5):281–92.

34. Hensley ML, Schuchter LM, Lindley C, Meropol NJ, Cohen GI, Broder G, and others. American Society of Clinical Oncology clinical practice guidelines for the use of chemotherapy and radiotherapy protectants. *J Clin Oncol* 1999; 17(10):3333–55.

35. Ship JA, Eisbruch A, D'Hondt E, Jones RE. Parotid sparing study in head and neck cancer patients receiving bilateral radiation therapy: one-year results. *J Dent Res* 1997; 76(3):807–13.

36. Eisbruch A, Ten Haken RK, Kim HM, Marsh LH, Ship JA. Dose, volume, and function relationships in parotid salivary glands following conformal and

intensity-modulated irradiation of head and neck cancer. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys 1999; 45(3):577–87.

37. Chambers MS, Garden AS, Kies MS, Martin JW. Radiation-induced xerostomia in patients with head and neck cancer: pathogenesis, impact on quality of life, and management. *Head Neck* 2004; 26:9(796–807).

38. Sreebny LM, Yu A. Green A, Valdini A. Xerostomia in diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Care* 1992; 15(7):900–4.

39. Epstein JB, van der Meij EH, Lunn R, Stevenson-Moore P. Effects of compliance with fluoride gel application on caries and caries risk in patients after radiation therapy for head and neck cancer. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 1996; 82(3):268–75.

40. Joyston-Bechal S, Hayes K, Davenport ES, Hardie JM. Caries incidence, mutans streptococci and lactobacilli in irradiated patients during a 12-month preventive programme using chlorhexidine and fluoride. *Caries Res* 1992; 26(5):384–90.

41. Burt BA. The use of sorbitol- and xylitol-sweetened chewing gum in caries control. J Am Dent Assoc 2006; 137(2):190–6.

42. Gorsky M, Epstein JB, Parry J, Epstein MS, Le ND, Silverman S Jr. The efficacy of pilocarpine and bethanechol upon saliva production in cancer patients with hyposalivation following radiation therapy. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2004; 97(2):190–5.

43. Fox PC, van der Ven PF, Baum BJ, Mandel ID. Pilocarpine for the treatment of xerostomia associated with salivary gland dysfunction. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1986; 61(3):243–8.

44. Fox PC, Atkinson JC, Macynski AA, Wolff A, Kung DS, Valdez IH, and others. Pilocarpine treatment of salivary gland hypofunction and dry mouth (xerostomia). *Arch Intern Med* 1991; 151(6):1149–52.

45. Kao HJ, Lin HR, Lo YL, Yu SP. Characterization of pilocarpine-loaded chitosan/Carbopol nanoparticles. J Pharm Pharmacol 2006; 58(2):179–86.

46. Epstein JB, Decoteau WE, Wilkinson A. Effect of Sialor in treatment of xerostomia in Sjogren's syndrome. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1983; 56(5):495–9.

47. Epstein JB, Schubert MM. Synergistic effect of sialagogues in management of xerostomia after radiation therapy. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1987; 64(2):179–82.

48. Cummins MJ, Papas A, Kammer GM, Fox PC. Treatment of primary Sjogren's syndrome with low-dose human interferon alfa administered by the oromucosal route: combined phase III results. *Arthritis Rheum* 2003; 49(4):585–93.

49. Khurshudian AV. A pilot study to test the efficacy of oral administration of interferon-alpha lozenges to patients with Sjogren's syndrome. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2003; 95(1):38–44.

50. Shiozawa S, Tanaka Y, Shiozawa K. Single-blinded controlled trial of low-dose oral IFN-alpha for the treatment of xerostomia in patients with Sjogren's syndrome. *J Interferon Cytokine Res* 1998; 18(4):255–62.

51. Bartels CL. Xerostomia information for dentists. Newport Beach, CA: Oral Cancer Foundation. Available from URL: www.oralcancerfoundation. org/dental/xerostomia.htm (accessed September 2006).

52. Epstein JB, Stevenson-Moore P. A clinical comparative trial of saliva substitutes in radiation-induced salivary gland hypofunction. *Spec Care Dentist* 1992; 12(1):21–3.