

Management of Temporomandibular Joint Dysfunction Syndrome: An Overview

SMA SADAT^a, NM CHOWDHURY^b, RBA BATEN^c, ABMF UDDIN^d, SN RITA^e

Summary:

Temporomandibular joint dysfunction is a complex and multifactorial disorder of oro-facial region. It is one of the most common disorders in maxillofacial region. The usual complain of the patients with this syndrome are pain in the area of the jaw and associated muscles, eating problem,

chewing and locking of the jaw. It is more common in female than male. It's etiology is not yet well established. However it's successful management depends on identification and controlling of the etiological factors.

(J Bangladesh Coll Phys Surg 2017; 35: 133-141)

Introduction:

The American Dental Association (ADA) presidents' conference on temporomandibular disorder defined TMD as "A group of oro-facial disorder characterized by pain in the pre-auricular area, TMJ or muscles of mastication, limitations & deviation in mandibular range of motion, TMJ sounds during jaw function."¹ It is the most common and the third most chronic pain condition worldwide in maxillo-facial region after tension headache and back pain.^(2,3) The causes of this condition are numerous and include trauma, systemic, iatrogenic, occlusal and mental health disorder.⁴⁻⁹ Today mental health plays a dominating role in the pathogenesis of TMD.^(10,11) Like other musculoskeletal disorders pain during function and/or at rest is the main reason patients seek treatment, and pain reduction is the primary goal of treatment for these patients.^{12,13}

Epidemiology:

The signs and symptoms of temporomandibular disorders appear in about 60-70% of the general population but only a few people are actually aware of or report any symptoms.¹⁴ Population based studies shows that TMD affects 10-15% of adults, but only 5% seek treatment.^{15,16} Approximately 33% of the population has at least one TMD symptom and 3.6-7% of the population are aware and come to get treatment.⁽¹⁷⁾ Severity of TMD problems are much more common in women and the ratio between women and men who seeks treatment for TMJ disorder is 8:1.¹⁸ Temporomandibular dysfunction syndrome occurs usually within the reproductive age between the age of 20 and 40.^{12, 13, 19, 20} Although a few patients are seeking treatment, but the prevalence of TMD is high in developed societies.^{21,22}

Etiology:

The etiology of TMJ disorders remains unclear, but it is mostly multifactorial. Capsule inflammation or damage and muscle pain or spasm may be caused by abnormal occlusion, para-functional habits (e.g., bruxism, teeth clenching, lip biting), stress, anxiety, or abnormalities of the intra-articular disk.^{23,24} Parafunctional habits have been thought to cause TMJ microtrauma or masticatory muscle hyperactivity.⁽²⁵⁾ Associated factors include other pain conditions (e.g., chronic head-aches), fibromyalgia, autoimmune disorders, sleep apnea, and psychiatric illness.^{26,27} The factors that causes TMD are classified as:

- Predisposing factors as structural, metabolic and/or psychologic conditions
- Initiating factors as trauma or repetitive adverse loading of the masticatory system

- a. Dr. S. M. Anwar Sadat, Associate Professor, Dept. of Oral & Maxillofacial Surgery, Sher-E-Bangla Medical College Dental Unit, Barisal, Bangladesh
- b. Dr. Naim Mahmud Chowdhury, Lecturer, Dept. of Oral & Maxillofacial Surgery, Chattagram International Dental College, Chittagong, Bangladesh
- c. Dr. Redwan Bin Abdul Baten, Dental Surgeon, Upazilla Health Complex, Nabinagar, Brahmanbaria, Bangladesh
- d. Dr. A.B.M. Farid Uddin, Assistant Professor, Dept. of Prosthodontics, Dental Unit, Chittagong Medical College, Chittagong, Bangladesh
- e. Prof. Sufia Nasrin Rita, Professor and Head, Dept. of Orthodontics, Sapporo Dental College, Dhaka, Bangladesh

Address of Correspondence: Dr. S. M. Anwar Sadat, Associate Professor, Dept. of Oral & Maxillofacial Surgery, Sher-E-Bangla Medical College Dental Unit, Barisal, Bangladesh. Contact No. +880 1711156023, E-mail: an_sadat@yahoo.com

Received: 20 Nov. 2016

Accepted: 17 July 2017

- Aggravating factors as parafunction, hormonal or psychosocial.⁽²⁸⁻³⁴⁾

Factors that interfere with healing or enhance the progression of temporomandibular disorder are called "Perpetuating factors." The following may be included in the perpetuating factors:⁽³⁵⁾

- Behavioral factors: grinding, clenching and abnormal head posture
- Social factors: could effect perception and influence of learned response to pain
- Emotional factors: depression and anxiety
- Cognitive factors: negative thoughts and attitudes.

The following occlusal factors had a slight relation in patient with TMD symptoms:⁽³⁵⁾

- Open bite
- Overjet greater than 6-7 mm
- Retruded contact position/intercuspal position with sliding greater than 4 mm
- Unilateral lingual cross-bite
- Five or more missing posterior teeth
- Faulty restorations and ill-fitting prosthesis.

Aplasia, hypoplasia, hyperplasia, dysplasia, neoplasia can lead to TMJ problems and trauma, anatomic, systemic, pathophysiological and emotional causes can make the disorder more severe.^(26, 36, 37)

Classification:

Classification of TMD is very important for proper diagnosis of the disease because of similarities with numerous diseases and pain in the head and neck region. Following are the differential diagnosis of TMD:⁽³⁶⁾

- Deviation in form
- Disc displacement with reduction
- Disc displacement without reduction
- Dislocation
- Inflammatory conditions:
 - Synovitis
 - Capsulitis
- Arthritides:
 - Osteoarthrosis
 - Osteoarthritides
 - Polyarthritides
- Ankylosis:
 - Fibrosis
 - Bony

The International Research Diagnostic Criteria for Temporomandibular Dysfunction Consortium Network published an updated classification for TMD in 2013 and that is shown below.^(38, 39)

Articular disorders (intra-articular):

- Congenital or developmental disorders
 - Condylar hyperplasia
 - First and second branchial arch disorders
 - Idiopathic condylar resorption
- Degenerative joint disorders
 - Inflammatory: capsulitis, synovitis, polyarthritides (rheumatoid arthritis, psoriatic arthritis, ankylosing spondylitis, Reiter syndrome, gout)
 - Noninflammatory: osteoarthritis
- Disk derangement disorders
 - Displacement with reduction
 - Displacement without reduction (closed lock)
 - Perforation
- Infection
- Neoplasia
- Temporomandibular hypermobility
 - Dislocation
 - Joint laxity
 - Subluxation
- Temporomandibular hypomobility
 - Ankylosis: true ankylosis (bony or fibrous) or pseudoankylosis
 - Postradiation fibrosis
 - Trismus
- Trauma
 - Contusion
 - Fracture
 - Intracapsular hemorrhage

Masticatory muscle disorders (extra-articular)

- Local myalgia
- Myofascial pain disorder
- Myofibrotic contracture
- Myositis
- Myospasm
- Neoplasia

Clinical Presentation:

TMD has many similarities to musculoskeletal disorders of other parts of the body and therapeutic approaches for other musculoskeletal disorders generally apply to

this disorder as well.^{12, 13, 40} The typical signs and symptoms of TMD are-

pain in the joint (preauricular region), headaches behind and around the eyes, and pain radiating from the joint to the temple, ears, side of neck and upper shoulder. The pain is typically aggravated by wide opening, chewing or other joint activities, such as clenching and bruxism. There are clicking, popping or "locking" because of disc interference, which results in reflex masticatory muscle spasm.⁽⁴¹⁻⁴⁴⁾ Symptoms of TMD are also associated with jaw movement (e.g., opening and closing the mouth, chewing) and pain in the pre-auricular, masseter, or temple region. Another cause of oro-facial pain should be identified if pain is not associated with jaw movement.⁽⁴⁵⁾ Patients with TMD symptoms usually report that their pain is aggravated by stress, clenching, and eating, while it is relieved by

relaxing, applying heat to the painful area, and taking analgesics.^{12, 40, 46, 47}

Differential Diagnosis:

For proper diagnosis of TMD some other cause for oro-facial pain should be carefully excluded as dental caries or abscess, oral lesions (e.g., herpes zoster, herpes simplex, oral ulcerations, lichen planus), conditions resulting from muscle overuse (e.g., clenching, bruxism, excessive chewing, spasm), trauma or dislocation, maxillary sinusitis, salivary gland disorders, Neuropathic pain (e.g., trigeminal neuralgia, postherpetic neuralgia, glossopharyngeal neuralgia, giant cell arteritis, primary headache syndrome, and pain associated with cancer) autoimmune diseases (e.g., systemic lupus erythematosus, Sjögren syndrome, and rheumatoid arthritis).^(48,49) The differential diagnosis and associated clinical findings are presented in Table-1⁵⁰

Table-I

Conditions That May Mimic Temporomandibular Disorders

Condition	Location	Pain characteristics	Aggravating factors	Typical findings
Dental conditions				
Caries	Affected tooth	Intermittent to continuous dull pain	Hot or cold stimuli	Visible decay
Cracked tooth	Affected tooth	Intermittent dull or sharp pain	Biting, eating	Often difficult to visualize crack
Dry socket	Affected tooth	Continuous, deep, sharp pain	Hot or cold stimuli	Loss of clot, exposed bone
Giant Cell arteritis	Temporal region	Sudden onset of continuous dull pain	Visual disturbance, loss of vision	Scalp tenderness, absence of temporal artery pulse
Migraine headache	Temporal region, behind the eye, cutaneous allodynia	Acute throbbing, occasionally with aura	Activity, nausea, phonophobia, photophobia	Often normal, aversion during ophthalmoscopic examination, normal cranial nerve findings
Neuropathic conditions				
Glossopharyngeal neuralgia	Most often ear, occasionally neck or tongue	Paroxysmal attacks of electrical or sharp pain	Coughing, swallowing, touching the ear	Pain with light touch
Postherpetic neuralgia	Site of dermatomal nerve and its distribution	Continuous, burning, sharp pain	Eating, light touch	Hyperalgesia
Trigeminal neuralgia	Unilateral trigeminal nerve	Paroxysmal attacks of sharp pain	Cold or hot stimuli, eating, light touch, washing	Pain with light touch
Salivary stone	Submandibular or parotid region	Intermittent dull pain	Eating	Tenderness at gland, palpable stone, no salivary flow
Sinusitis	Maxillary sinus, intraoral upper quadrant	Continuous dull ache	Headache, nasal discharge, recent upper respiratory infection	Tenderness over maxillary sinus or upper posterior teeth

In differential diagnosis of TMJ disorders and pains, problems such as neoplasms, migraine, neuralgia and mental disorders should be considered. Practitioners must be alert for unusual pain locations, pain qualities, pain-aggravating and pain-relieving events, and other factors (e.g., unexplained fever) suggestive of disorders that may mimic TMD symptoms (e.g., infection, giant cell arteritis, meningitis, etc.).^(13, 46)

Investigations:

Imaging plays an important role in the diagnosis of TMD when history and physical examination findings are equivocal.⁽⁵¹⁾ The usual radiographs are plain radiograph, panoramic view, and tomograms (frontal and lateral). Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) or arthrography can be done for evaluation of the disc and associated soft tissue structures. Other radiological studies may also be done if necessary.⁽⁵²⁻⁵⁶⁾ The importance of different imaging study are given below:-

- A. *Plain radiograph*: Evaluation of plain radiography (trans-cranial and trans-maxillary views) or panoramic radiography should be done first. Acute fractures, dislocations, and severe degenerative articular disease are often visible in these radiographs.
- B. *Computed Tomography*: To assess bone abnormalities such as ankylosis, dysplasias, growth abnormalities, fractures, and osseous tumors.⁽⁵⁷⁾
- C. *Magnetic resonance imaging*: Is useful to analyze soft tissues, bone marrow changes, disc position, morphology, mobility, and joint effusion.^{53, 54, 58-60}
- D. *Ultrasonography*: Ultrasonography is a noninvasive, dynamic, low-cost technique to diagnose internal derangement of the TMJ when magnetic resonance imaging is not readily available.⁶¹
- E. *Arthrography*: For primary imaging study of disc pathology, arthrography can be done as the replacement of MRI.^{55, 56}
- F. *Isotope bone scan*: For detecting metabolic activity and inflammation.⁶²
- G. *Diagnostic Injections*: Injections of local anesthetic at trigger points involving the muscles of mastication can be a diagnostic adjunct to distinguish the source of jaw pain.⁶³

Diagnostic injections include:-⁽³⁶⁾

1. Nerve block (auriculotemporal nerve)
2. Trigger points injection
3. TMJ injections

Treatment:

Spontaneous resolution of symptoms occurs in 40% of the patients and only 5% to 10% of patients require treatment for TMD. A study shows that 50% to 90% of patients get relief from pain after conservative therapy.^(64, 65) Successful management of TMD can be done with multidisciplinary approach. Initial treatment goals should focus on resolving pain and dysfunction.

Non-Pharmacological Management:

Selective treatments include:-⁽³⁶⁾

1. Patient education and stress control
2. Mental therapy
3. Pharmacotherapy
4. Physiotherapy
5. Splint therapy
6. Occlusal correction
7. Surgery

A. *Patient education*: Patient education is the basic treatment for TMD. Associated measures include jaw rest, soft diet, moist warm compresses, and passive stretching exercises. TMJ immobilization is not beneficial and may worsen symptoms as a result of muscle contractions, muscle fatigue, and reduced synovial fluid production.^(2, 66, 67) Necessary instructions should include in patient education:-⁽³⁶⁾

1. Muscle relaxant by voluntary limitation in mandibular function
 2. Parafunctional habits modification
 3. Physiotherapy at home
- B. *Psychotherapy*: It prevents relapses that may occur with conventional therapy alone.⁽⁶⁸⁾
- C. *Physiotherapy*: "Active and passive oral exercises and exercises to improve posture are effective interventions to reduce symptoms associated with TMD".⁽⁶⁹⁾ Specialized physical therapy such as ultrasound, iontophoresis, electrotherapy, or low-level laser therapy have been used in the

management of TMD, despite the lack of evidence that support their use.⁽⁷⁰⁾

D. *Splint Therapy*: Occlusal splints may be used to pre-vent degenerative forces placed on the TMJ, articular disk, and dentition.⁽⁷¹⁾ The usual maxillo-mandibular appliances used are-

1. Flat plane stabilization appliance: The flat plane stabilization appliance (also known as the Michigan splint, muscle relaxation appliance, or gnathologic splint) is generally fabricated for the maxillary arch. This is the most commonly used type of intraoral appliance.⁽⁷²⁾
 2. Traditional anterior bite plane: It is a horseshoe shape appliance with an occlusal platform covering six or eight maxillary anterior teeth to prevent clenching (e.g., Hawley, Sved, Shore).
 3. Mini anterior appliances: It engage only a small number of maxillary anterior teeth (usually two-four incisors)
 4. Anterior repositioning appliance: This is used to treat the patients with internal derangements (usually anterior disk displacements with reduction).⁽⁷³⁾
 5. Neuromuscular appliances: Jaw muscle stimulators and jaw-tracking machines are used to maintain the ideal vertical and horizontal position of the mandible relative to the cranium.⁽⁷⁴⁾
 6. Posterior bite plane appliances: It is fabricated for the mandibular arch to maintain vertical and horizontal maxillomandibular relationship
 7. Pivot appliances: This is constructed with hard acrylic resin that covers either the maxillary or mandibular arch and is recommended for patients with internal derangements and/or osteoarthritis.
 8. Hydrostatic appliance: It consists of bilateral water-filled plastic chambers attached to an acrylic palatal appliance to occlude patient's posterior teeth on the plastic chambers
- E. *Occlusal Adjustment*: It is the selective removal of enamel from the occlusal contacts of teeth to maintain the maximum number of teeth in the intercuspal position.
- F. *Acupuncture*: Acupuncture may be an adjunctive treatment, producing a short-term analgesic effect

in patients with painful TMJ symptoms.⁽⁷⁵⁾ It's sessions typically last 15 to 30 minutes, and the mean number of sessions is six to eight.⁽⁷⁶⁾

Pharmacological Management:

Drug management is only used when other somatic symptoms, such as sleep disorders, chronic pain, arthralgias, inflammatory diseases, myalgias or neuropathies are associated with TMD.⁽⁷⁷⁾ Varieties of medications are used to treat the pain associated with TMD. The most commonly used medications are muscle relaxants, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), analgesics, tricyclic antidepressants, benzodiazepines and corticosteroids.⁽⁷⁷⁾ NSAIDs are first-line management given for 10 to 14 days for initial treatment of acute pain.⁽⁷⁸⁻⁸⁰⁾ Despite the multiple choices of NSAIDs available, only naproxen has proven beneficial in reduction of pain.⁽⁷⁹⁾ Muscle relaxants can be prescribed with NSAIDs if there is evidence of a muscular cause of TMD.⁽⁸⁰⁾ Tricyclic antidepressants most commonly amitriptyline, desipramine, doxepin, and nortriptyline are used for the management of chronic TMD pain⁸¹. Benzodiazepines are also used for two to four weeks in the initial phase of treatment.^(78, 82) Ibuprofen is effective in skeletal muscular pains (dosage: 600 – 800 mg three times daily).⁽³⁶⁾ Opioids should be used cautiously because of the potential for dependence.⁸⁰ Injections of tender muscles, trigger areas, and/or

joint spaces with local anesthetic solution is used for diagnosis and relief of symptoms. Corticosteroid injection can be effective in reducing capsulitis.⁸³ It appears to be an effective method for treating severe bruxism and masseteric hypertrophy when traditional methods fail.⁽⁸⁴⁻⁸⁷⁾ Muscle relaxants (baclofen, tizanidin, cyclobenzaprine), opiates (morphine), anticonvulsants (e.g., gabapentin), ketamine, and TCA (e.g., amitriptyline) are also used clinically for TMJ management, but there is no strong evidence for their efficacy.^{88, 89}

Surgical Management:

Surgery is seldom needed for TMD patients. A study over 2,000 TMD patients from many practices found that only 2.5% needed TMJ surgery (1.4% arthrocentesis, 1.0% arthroscopy, and 0.1% open joint procedures).⁽⁹⁰⁾ The common TMJ surgeries are:-³⁶

1. Arthrocentesis
2. Arthroscopy
3. Disc – repositioning surgery
4. Condylotomy
5. Arthroplasty
6. Total joint displacement
7. Prosthetic joint replacement: It may be indicated inpatients with severe joint degeneration,destruction, or ankylosis. But this should be used when their safety andefficacy has been recognized by the FDA.
8. Other Procedures: ⁹¹⁻⁹⁷
 - a. Coronoidotomy/coronoidectomy
 - b. Styloidectomy (Eagle’s Syndrome)

Conclusion:

TMD should be treated with multidisciplinary approach as other musculoskeletal complaint.It is important to note that treating TMD onlyfrom the dental perspective may fail, as many of theseanomalies are caused by somatic diseases. If TMD is left untreated, symptoms can worsen and extend far beyond the jaw and mouth area. Conservative therapy is best as a first-line approach for treating the patient. Treatment goals in patients with TMD are pain relief and return of function. These goals willbe achieved only if diagnosed properly and the treatment plan is taken with consideration of mental and physicalproblems with predisposing factors.

Reference:

1. Al-Riyami S. PhD Thesis. London: UCL Eastman Dental Institute for Oral Health Sciences; 2010. Temporomandibular joint disorders in patients with skeletal discrepancies.
2. Management of temporomandibular disorders. National institutes of health technology assessment conference statement. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 1996;127:1595–606.
3. MaisaSoares G, Rizzatti-Barbosa CM. Chronicity factors of temporomandibular disorders: A critical review of the literature. *Braz Oral Res.* 2015;29.
4. Kobs G, Bernhardt O, Kocher T, Meyer G. Oral parafunctions and positive clinical examination findings. *Baltic Dent Maxillofac J* 2005;7:81–83
5. Kijak E, Lietz-Kijak E, Śliwinski Z, Fraczak B. Muscle activity in the course of rehabilitation of masticatory motor system functional disorders. *Postepy Hig Med Dosw* 2013;67:507–516

6. Liu F, Steinkeler A. Epidemiology, diagnosis, and treatment of temporomandibular disorders. *Dent Clin North Am* 2013;57:465–479
7. Miettinen O, Lahti S, Sipilä K. Psychosocial aspects of temporomandibular disorders and oral health-related quality-of-life. *ActaOdontolScand* 2012;70:331–336
8. Manfredini D, Borella L, Favero L, Ferronato G, Guarda-Nardini L. Chronic pain severity and depression/somatization levels in TMD patients. *Int J Prosthodont* 2010;23:529–534
9. Bono AE, Learreta JA, Rodriguez G, Marcos JC. Stomatognathic system involvement in rheumatoid arthritis patients. *CRANIO* 2014;32:31–37
10. Fernandes G, Gonçalves DA, de Siqueira JT, Camparis CM. Painful temporomandibular disorders, self reported tinnitus, and depression are highly associated. *ArqNeuropsiquiatr* 2013;71:943–947
11. Calixtre LB, Grüninger BL, Chaves TC, Oliveira AB. Is there an association between anxiety/depression and temporomandibular disorders in college students? *J Appl Oral Sci* 2014;22:15–21
12. American Academy of OrofacialPain . In: Orofacial Pain: Guidelines for Assessment, Diagnosis and Management, 4th ed. de Leeuw R, editor. Chicago: Quintessence; 2008.
13. Wright EF. Manual of Temporomandibular Disorders. Ames, IA: Blackwell; 2005.
14. Graber, Rakosi, Petrovic . In: Dentofacial Orthopedics with Functional Appliances. 2nd ed. St. Louis: Mosby; 2009. Functional analysis- examination of temporomandibular joint and condylar movement; pp. 135–40.
15. Gonçalves DA, Camparis CM, Speciali JG, et al. Temporomandibular disorders are differentially associated with headache diagnoses: a con-trolled study. *Clin J Pain.* 2011; 27(7): 611-615.
16. Lim PF, Smith S, Bhalang K, et al. Development of temporomandibular disorders is associated with greater bodily pain experience. *Clin J Pain.* 2010; 26(2): 116-120.
17. Wright EF, North SL. Management and treatment of temporomandibular disorders: A clinical perspective. *J Man ManipTher.* 2009;17:247–54.
18. Rugh JD, Solberg WK. Oral health status in the United states: temporomandibular disorders. *J Dent Educ.* 1985;49: 398–405.
19. Lipton JA, Ship JA, Larach-Robinson D. Estimated prevalence and distribution of reported orofacial pain in the United States. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 1993;124:115–21.
20. Okeson JP. Management of Temporomandibular Disorders and Occlusion, 6th ed. St. Louis, MO: CV Mosby; 2008.
21. Fujita Y, Motegi E, Nomura M, Kawamura S, Yamaguchi D, Yamaguchi H. Oral habits of temporomandibular disorder patients with malocclusion. *Bull Tokyo Dent Coll* 2003;44:201–207

22. de Barbosa TS, Miyakoda LS, de Pocztaruk RL, Rocha CP, Gaviao MB. Temporomandibular disorders and bruxism in childhood and adolescence: review of the literature. *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol* 2008;72:299–314
23. Dworkin SF, Huggins KH, LeResche L, Von Korff M, Howard J, Truelove E, et al. Epidemiology of signs and symptoms in temporomandibular disorders: Clinical signs in cases and controls. *J Am Dent Assoc*. 1990;120:273-81.
24. McNamara JA, Jr, Seligman DA, Okeson JP. Occlusion, Orthodontic treatment, and temporomandibular disorders: A review. *J Orofac Pain*. 1995;9:73–90.
25. Okeson JP. Orofacial Pain: Guidelines for assessment, diagnosis, and management. Chicago, Ill: Quintessence Pub. for the American Academy of Orofacial Pain Differential diagnosis and management considerations of temporomandibular disorders; 1996, 120–2.
26. DowlatAbadiMMotamedi MHK, Taheri KT. Textbook of Temporomandibular Disorders. ShayanNemodar Publications, Tehran, 2009, 5-100.
27. Motamedi, M. H. Treatment of condylar hyperplasia of the mandible using unilateral ramus osteotomies. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg*. 1996;54(10):1161-9.
28. Kirveskari P, Alanen P, Jämsä T. Association between craniomandibular disorders and occlusal interferences in children. *J Prosthet Dent*. 1992;67:692–6.
29. Oral K, BalKüçük B, Ebeoglu B, Dinçer S. Etiology of temporomandibular disorder pain. *Agri*. 2009;21:89–94.
30. Furquim BD, Flamengui LM, Conti PC. TMD and chronic pain: A current view. *Dental Press J Orthod*. 2015;20: 127–33.
31. Kolbinson DA, Epstein JB, Burgess JA, Senthilselvan A. Temporomandibular disorders, headaches, and neck pain after motor vehicle accidents: A pilot investigation of persistence and litigation effects. *J Prosthet Dent*. 1997;77:46–53.
32. Grzesiak RC. Psychologic considerations in temporomandibular dysfunction. A biopsychosocial view of symptom formation. *Dent Clin North Am*. 1991;35:209–26.
33. Shaefer JR, Holland N, Whelan JS, Velly AM. Pain and temporomandibular disorders: A pharmaco-gender dilemma. *Dent Clin North Am*. 2013;57:233–62.
34. Christensen L, Luther F. Adults seeking orthodontic treatment: Expectations, periodontal and TMD issues. *Br Dent J*. 2015;218:111–7.
35. Sharma S, Gupta DS, Pal US, Jurel SK. “Etiological factors of temporomandibular disorders”. *Natl J Maxillofac Surg*. 2011; 2(2): 116–119.
36. Navi F, Motamedi MHK, Talesh KT, Lasemi E, Nematollahi Z. A Textbook of Advanced Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery. Intech publications, Tehran, 2013; 831-858
37. Mortazavi, S. H. Motamedi MHK, Navi F, Pourshahab M, Bayanzadeh SM, HajmiraghaH, Isapour M: Outcomes of management of early temporomandibular joint disorders: How effective is nonsurgical therapy in the long-term? *National J MaxillofacSurg*, (2010).
38. De Leeuw R, Klasser GD; American Academy of Orofacial Pain. Oro-facial Pain: Guidelines for Assessment, Diagnosis, and Management. 5th ed. Chicago, Ill.: Quintessence Publ.; 2013.
39. Schiffman E, Ohrbach R, Truelove E, et al. Diagnostic criteria for tem-poromandibular disorders (DC/TMD) for clinical and research applica-tions: recommendations of the International RDC/TMD Consortium Network and Orofacial Pain Special Interest Group. *J Oral Facial Pain Headache*. 2014;28(1): 6-27.
40. Friction J. Myogenoustemporomandibular disorders: Diagnostic and management considerations. *DentClin North Am*. 2007;51:61–83.
41. Hall HD: Intra-articular disc displacement Part II: Its significant role in temporomandibular joint pathology. *J Oral MaxillofacSurg* 1995;53:1073.
42. Boering G: Temporomandibular joint osteoarthritis (1966 Doctoral thesis, University of Gronigan). Gronigen, the Netherlands, Drukkerij, van Denderen BV, 1994 (English-language version)
43. Link JJ, Nickerson JW Jr: TMJ internal derangements in an orthognathicsurgery population. *Int J Adult Orthodon OrthognathSurg* 1992;7:161.
44. Schellhas KP, Pollei SR, Wilkes CH: Pediatric internal derangements of the temporomandibular joint: Effect on facial development. *Am J OrthodDentofacOrthop* 1993;104:51.
45. Scrivani SJ, Keith DA, Kaban LB. Temporomandibular disorders. *N Engl J Med*. 2008;359(25): 2693-2705.
46. Murphy E. Managing Orofacial Pain in Practice. Chicago: Quintessence; 2008.
47. Friction JR, Schiffman EL. Management of masticatory myalgia and arthralgia. In: Sessle BJ, Lavigne GJ, Lund JP, Dubner R, editors. Orofacial Pain: From Basic Science to Clinical Management. Chicago: Quintessence; 2008.
48. Okeson JP, de Leeuw R. Differential diagnosis of temporomandibular disorders and other orofacial pain disorders. *Dent Clin North Am*. 2011; 55(1): 105-120.
49. Zakrzewska JM. Differential diagnosis of facial pain and guidelines for management. *Br J Anaesth*. 2013; 111(1): 95-104.
50. Robert L, Gauer MD, Michael J, Semidey DMD. Diagnosis and treatment of temporomandibular disorders. *American Family Physician*. March 15, 2015; 91(6): 378-388
51. Hunter A, Kalathingal S. Diagnostic imaging for temporomandibular disorders and orofacial pain. *Dent Clin North Am*. 2013; 57(3): 405-418.
52. Brand J, et al: The effects of temporomandibular joint internal derangement and degenerative joint disease on tomographic

- and arthrotomographic images. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 67: 220, 1989
53. Harms SE, Wilk RM, Wolford LM, et al: The temporomandibular joint: magnetic resonance imaging using surface coils. *Radiology* 157: 133, 1985
54. Katzberg RW, Bessette RW, Tallents RH et al: Normal and abnormal temporomandibular joint: MR imaging with surface coil. *Radiology* 158: 183, 1986
55. Wilkes CH: Arthrography of the temporomandibular joint in patients with the TMJ pain-dysfunction syndrome. *Minn Med* 61:645, 1978
56. Katzberg RW, Dolwick MF, Helms CA et al: Arthrotomography of the temporomandibular joint. *AJR* 1980;134: 995,
57. Katzberg RW: Temporomandibular joint imaging. *Radiology* 1989;170: 297.
58. Sanchez-Woodworth RE, Tallents RH, Katzberg RW et al: Bilateral internal derangements of the temporomandibular joint: evaluation by magnetic resonance imaging. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1988;65: 281,
59. Schellhas K: Internal derangement of the temporomandibular joint: radiologic staging with clinical and pathologic correlation. *Magnetic Resonance Imaging* 1989;7(5):495.
60. Westesson P-L, Brooks SL: Temporomandibular joint: magnetic resonance evidence of joint effusion relative to joint pain and internal derangement, *AJR* 1992;159:559.
61. Bas B, Yilmaz N, Gökce E, et al. Diagnostic value of ultrasonography in temporomandibular disorders. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg*. 2011; 69(5):1304-1310.
62. Matteson SR et al: Bone scanning with technetium phosphate to assess condylar hyperplasia. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1985;60:356.
63. Nascimento MM, Vasconcelos BC, Porto GG, et al. Physical therapy and anesthetic blockage for treating temporomandibular disorders: a clinical trial. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal*. 2013; 18(1): e81 e85.
64. Garefis P, Grigoriadou E, Zarifi A, et al. Effectiveness of conservative treatment for craniomandibular disorders: a 2-year longitudinal study. *J Orofac Pain*. 1994; 8(3): 309-314.
65. Indresano A, Alpha C. Nonsurgical management of temporomandibular joint disorders. In: Fonseca RJ, Marciani RD, Turvey TA, eds. *Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery*. 2nd ed. St. Louis, Mo.: Saunders/Elsevier; 2009: 881-897.
66. Dimitroulis G. Temporomandibular disorders: a clinical update. *BMJ*. 1998; 317(7152): 190-194.
67. Miloro M, Peterson LJ. *Peterson's Principles of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery*. 3rd ed. Shelton, Conn.: People's Medical Pub House; 2012.
68. Orlando B, Manfredini D, Salvetti G, Bosco M. Evaluation of the effectiveness of biobehavioral therapy in the treatment of temporomandibular disorders: a literature review. *Behav Med* 2007;33(3): 101-18
69. McNeely ML, Armijo Olivo S, Magee DJ. A systematic review of the effectiveness of physical therapy interventions for temporomandibular disorders. *Phys Ther*. 2006;86:710-725.
70. Melis M, Di Giosia M, Zawawi KH. Low level laser therapy for the treatment of temporomandibular disorders: a systematic review of the literature. *Cranio*. 2012; 30(4): 304-312.
71. Klasser GD, Greene CS. Oral appliances in the management of temporomandibular disorders. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*. 2009;107(2): 212-223.
72. Manns A, Chan C, Miralles R. Influence of group function and canine guidance on electromyographic activity of elevator muscles. *J Prosthet Dent*. 1987;57:494-501.
73. Farrar WB. Differentiation of temporomandibular joint dysfunction to simplify treatment. *J Prosthet Dent*. 1972;28:629-36.
74. Cooper BC. The role of bioelectronic instrumentation in the documentation and management of temporomandibular disorders. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*. 1997;83:91-100.
75. La Touche R, Goddard G, De-La-Hoz J et al. Acupuncture in the treatment of pain in temporomandibular disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Clin J Pain* 2010;26(6): 541-50
76. Rosted P. Practical recommendations for the use of acupuncture in the treatment of temporomandibular disorders based on the outcome of published controlled studies. *Oral Dis*. 2001; 7(2): 109-115.
77. Freesmeyer WB, Fussnegger MR, Ahlers MO. Diagnostic and therapeutic-restorative procedures for masticatory dysfunctions. *GMS Curr Top Otorhinolaryngol Head Neck Surg* 2005;4:1-29
78. Hersh EV, Balasubramaniam R, Pinto A. Pharmacologic management of temporomandibular disorders. *Oral Maxillofac Surg Clin North Am*. 2008; 20(2): 197-210.
79. Ta LE, Dionne RA. Treatment of painful temporomandibular joints with a cyclooxygenase-2 inhibitor: a randomized placebo-controlled comparison of celecoxib to naproxen. *Pain*. 2004; 111(1-2): 13-21.
80. List T, Axelsson S, Leijon G. Pharmacologic interventions in the treatment of temporomandibular disorders, atypical facial pain, and burning mouth syndrome. A qualitative systematic review. *J Orofac Pain*. 2003; 17(4): 301-310.
81. Herman CR, Schiffman EL, Look JO, et al. The effectiveness of adding pharmacologic treatment with clonazepam or cyclobenzaprine to patient education and self-care for the treatment of jaw pain upon awakening: a randomized clinical trial. *J Orofac Pain*. 2002; 16(1): 64-70.
82. Singer E, Dionne R. A controlled evaluation of ibuprofen and diazepam for chronic orofacial muscle pain. *J Orofac Pain*. 1997; 11(2): 139-146.
83. Wenneberg B, Kopp S, Grondahl HG: Long-term effect of intraarticular injection of a glucocorticosteroid into the TMJ:

- a clinical and radiographic 8-year follow-up. *J Craniomandib Disorders Oral Facial Pain* 1991;5:11.
84. Freund B, Schwartz M, Symington JM: The use of botulinum toxin for treatment of temporomandibular disorders: preliminary findings. *J Oral MaxillofacSurg* 1999;57:916.
 85. Tan E-K, Jankovic J: Treating severe bruxism with botulinum toxin. *JADA* 2000;131:211.
 86. Moore AP, Wood GD: The medical management of masseterichypertrophy with botulinum toxin type A. *Br J Oral MaxillofacSurg* 1994;32:26.
 87. Smyth AG: Botulinum toxin treatment of bilateral masseteric hypertrophy. *Br J Oral MaxillofacSurg* 1994;32:29.
 88. Cairns BE. Pathophysiology of TMD pain – basic mechanisms and their implications for pharmacotherapy. *J Oral Rehabil* 2010;37:391–410
 89. Shen YF, Goddard G. The short-term effects of acupuncture on myofascial pain patients after clenching. *Pain Pract* 2007;7:256–264
 90. Brown DT, Gaudet EL., JrTemporomandibular disorder treatment outcomes: Second report of a large-scale prospective clinical study. *Cranio*. 2002;20:244–253.
 91. Rowe NL: Bilateral developmental hyperplasia of the mandibular coronoid process. *Br J Oral Surg* 1:90, 1963
 92. Bronstein SL, Osborne JJ: Mandibular limitation due to coronoid enlargement: management by surgery and physical therapy. *JCraniomandPract* 1985;3:58.
 93. Isberg A, Isacsson G, Nak KS: Mandibular coronoid process locking: a prospective study of frequency and association with internal derangement of the temporomandibular joint. *J Oral Surg* 1987;63:275.
 94. Totsuka Y, Fukuda H: Bilateral coronoid hyperplasia. Report of two cases and review of the literature. *J CranioMaxillofacSurg* 1991;19: 172.
 95. Eagle WW: Elongated styloid process: symptoms and treatment. *Arch Otolaryngol* 1958;67:172.
 96. Chase DC, Zarmen A, Bigelow WC, McCoy JM: Eagle's syndrome: a comparison of intraoral versus extraoral surgical approaches. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1986;62:625.
 97. Murthy PS, Bazarika P, Mathat M, Kumar A, Kamath MP: Elongated styloid process, an overview. *Int J Oral MaxillofacSurg* 1990;19 : 230.