# **Evaluation of the Dental Patient**



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the first tooth erupts. Subsequent evaluations should take place by age 1 yr or when intervals or whenever symptoms develop. Examination of the mouth is part of every general physical examination. Oral findings in many systemic diseases are unique, sometimes pathognomonic, and may be the first sign of disease. Oral cancer may be detected at an early stage.

#### History

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Important dental symptoms include bleeding, pain, malocclusion, new growths, numbness or paresthesias, and chewing problems; prolonged dental symptoms may decrease oral intake, leading to weight loss. General information includes use of alcohol or tobacco (both major risk factors for head and neck cancer) and systemic symptoms, such as fever and weight loss.

	Table 2	
Some Oral Symptoms and Po	ossible Causes	
Symptom	Causes	
Bleeding or pain with brushing (common)	Acute necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis (rare) Bleeding diathesis* Gingivitis (most common) Leukemia*	
Ear pain, referred (fairly common)	Inflamed gingival flap around a partly erupted	

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	and a paperabia infections	
	spreading to the bone	K.
	Poorly fitting dental appliances	k. V
	Spasm of the masticatory muscles	k.
	Temporomandibular disorders	4. 4.
Facial numbness or paresthesias (uncommon, except with	Antrum or nasopharynx tumor	×.
stroke)	Brain stem tumors	

			Y
		K	
	Extraction of a mandibular molar causing damage to the inferior alveolar nerve <sup>‡</sup>		
	Multiple sclerosis	Ka	
	Oral tumor (rare)	Le la	
	Stroke		
	Viral infection		
Masticatory fatigue (rare, except with poorly fitting dentures)	Congenital muscular or neuromuscular disorder (in younger people)		
	Myasthenia gravis (a cardinal symptom)		
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Temporomandibular

disorder

Too loose, too few, or painful teeth

\*May be indicated by easily induced gingival hemorrhaging.

<sup>†</sup>Elongation of the styloid process or ossification of the stylohyoid ligament, causing pain when the head is turned.

<sup>\*</sup>May cause paresthesia of the lower lip.

#### **Physical examination**

A thorough inspection requires good illumination, a tongue blade, gloves, and a gauze pad. Complete or partial dentures are removed so that underlying soft tissues can be seen.



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Most physicians use a head-mounted light. However, because the light cannot be precisely aligned on the axis of vision, it is difficult to avoid shadowing in narrow areas. Better illumination results with a head-mounted convex mirror; the physician looks through a hole in the center of the mirror, so the illumination is always on-axis. The head mirror reflects light from a source (any incandescent light) placed behind the patient and slightly to one side and requires practice to use effectively.

The examiner initially looks at the face for asymmetry, masses, and skin lesions. Slight facial asymmetry is universal, but more marked asymmetry may indicate an underlying disorder, either congenital or acquired.

Table 3

Some of Inv	Disorders of the Oral F olvement	Region by Predominant Site	
Site	Disorder or Lesion	Description	
Lips	Actinic atrophy	Thin atrophic mucosa with erosive areas; predisposes to neoplasia	
	Angioedema	Acute swelling	
	Angular cheilitis (cheilosis)	Fissuring at corners of mouth, often with maceration	

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	hemorrhagic ulcers; includes Stevens-Johnson syndrome	
Exfoliative cheilitis	Chronic desquamation of superficial mucosal cells	
Keratoacanthoma	A benign, locally destructive epithelial tumor resembling squamous cell carcinoma; regresses spontaneously in about 6 mo	
Peutz-Jeghers	Brownish black melanin	

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	syndrome	spots, with GI polyposis		
	Secondary herpes simplex (cold sore)	Short-lived (< 10 days) vesicle followed by small painful ulcer at the vermillion border (common)		
	Verruca vulgaris (wart)	Pebbly surface		
Buccal mucosa	Aspirin	Painful white area; when wiped off, exposes an inflamed area		

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	mild	
Herpangina	Vesicles in posterior of mouth	
Irritation fibroma	Smooth-surfaced, dome- shaped, sessile	
Koplik's spots	Tiny, grayish white macules with red margins near orifice of parotid duct; measles precursor	
Linea alba	Thin white line, typically bilateral, on the level of the	

	occlusal plane; benign	
Smokeless tobacco lesion	White or gray corrugated; usually behind lower lip; tends toward cancer	
Verrucous carcinoma	Slow-growing, exophytic, usually well differentiated; at site of snuff application; metastasis unusual, occurs late	
White sponge nevus	Thick white folds over most of buccal mucosa except gingivae: benign	
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	appears grossly malignant;
	heals spontaneously in 1–3 mo
Papillary inflammatory hyperplasia	Red, spongy tissue, succeeded by fibrous tissue folds; velvety texture; benign; occurs under poorly fitting dentures
Pipe smoker's p (nicotine stoma	alate Red punctate areas, are atitis) ducts of minor salivary glands, appearance is red

	severe, usually benign) leukoplakia	
Secondary herpes simplex	Small papules quickly coalescing into series of ulcers (uncommon)	
Torus palatinus	Overgrowth of bone in midline; benign	
Wegener's granulomatosis	Lethal midline granuloma, with bone destruction, sequestration, and perforation	

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glossitis (geographic tongue, eryth migrans)	hyperkeratosis and erythema on dorsum and edges; desquamated filiform papillae in irregular circinate pattern, often with an inflamed center and a white or yellow border
Dermoid cyst	Swelling in floor of mouth
Enlargement o tongue (macroglossia	<ul> <li>a) Localized or generalized depending on how many</li> <li>a) teeth are missing; adjacent teeth may indent tongue;</li> </ul>

	posterior enlargement associated with obstructive sleep apnea and snoring	
Fissured (scrotal) tongue	Deep furrows in lateral and dorsal areas	
Glossitis	Red, painful tongue; often secondary to another condition, allergic, or idiopathic	
Hairy tongue	Dark, elongated filiform papillae	

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	under the tongue; can compromise the airway by forcing the tongue superiorly and posteriorly	k
Median rhomboid glossitis	Red (usually) patch in midline of tongue, without papillae; asymptomatic	k k
Neurilemoma	Persistent swelling, sometimes at site of prior trauma; can be painful	k
Pernicious anemia	Smooth, pale tongue, often with alossodynia or	

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		glossopyrosis		
	Ranula	Large mucocele penetrating the mylohyoid muscle; may plunge deep into the neck; swollen floor of mouth		
	Thyroglossal duct cyst	Midline swelling that moves upward when tongue protrudes		
	ТВ	Ulcers on dorsum (firm), cervical adenopathy		
Salivary	Benign	Unilateral or bilateral		
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		pickle	
	Sjögren's syndrome	Systemic disease causing dry mucous membranes	
	Xerostomia	Dry mouth; usually secondary to drugs	
Various	Acute herpetic gingivostomatitis	Widespread ulcerating vesicular lesions; always present on gingiva; other locations may be involved; usually in young children	

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	CANAL AND	Walk was	EV SEV SEV SEV SE
	Behçet's syndrome	Multiple oral ulcers similar to those of aphthous stomatitis; also includes dry eyes	
	Cicatricial pemphigoid	Bullae that rupture quickly, leaving ulcers; ocular lesions develop after oral lesions; found on alveolar mucosa and vestibules	
	Condyloma acuminatum	Venereally transmitted wart forming cauliflower-like clumps	
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	Denigii	
Hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia	Localized dilated blood vessels	
Lichen planus	Lacy pattern (Wickham's striae), sometimes erosive; may become malignant; most common on buccal mucosa, lateral tongue	
Lymphangioma	Localized swelling or discoloration; benign; most common on tongue	

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			No.
Mucocele (mucous retention cyst)	Soft nodule; if superficial, covered by thin epithelium; appears bluish; most common on lips and floor of mouth		
Noma	Small vesicle or ulcer that rapidly enlarges and becomes necrotic		
Pemphigoid	Small yellow or hemorrhagic tense bullae; may last several days before rupture; most common on		
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Syphilis	Chancre (red papule rapidly
	developing into a painless
	ulcer with a
	serosanguineous crust),
	mucous patch, gumma
presence of adherent placed and a signal presence of a signal placed by the sis signal placed by the signal placed by the signal placed	que, materia alba (dead bacteria, food debris, ells), and calculus (tartar).

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an incomplete (green stick) fracture of a tooth. Percussion tenderness in multiple adjacent maxillary teeth may result from maxillary sinusitis. Tenderness to palpation around the apices of the teeth also may indicate an abscess.

Loose teeth usually indicate severe periodontal disease but can be caused by bruxism or trauma that damages periodontal tissues. Rarely, teeth become loose when alveolar bone is eroded by an underlying mass (eg, ameloblastoma, eosinophilic granuloma). A tumor or systemic cause of alveolar bone loss (eg, diabetes mellitus, hyperparathyroidism, osteoporosis, Cushing's syndrome) is suspected when teeth are loose and heavy plaque and calculus are absent.

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Calculus is mineralized bacterial plaque—a concretion of bacteria, food residue, saliva, and mucus with Ca and phosphate salts. After a tooth is cleaned, a mucopolysaccharide coating (pellicle) is deposited almost immediately. After about 24 h, bacterial colonization turns the pellicle into plaque. After about 72 h, the plaque starts calcifying, becoming calculus. When present, calculus is deposited most heavily on the lingual (inner, or tongue) surfaces of the mandibular anterior teeth near the submandibular and sublingual duct orifices (Wharton's ducts) and on the buccal (cheek) surfaces of the maxillary molars near the parotid duct orifices (Stensen's ducts).

Caries first appears as defects in the tooth enamel. Caries then appears as white spots, later becoming brown.

Attrition (wearing of biting surfaces) can result from chewing abrasive foods or tobacco or from the wear that accompanies aging, but it usually indicates bruxism. Another common cause is abrasion of a porcelain crown occluding against opposing enamel, because porcelain is considerably harder than enamel. Attrition makes chewing less effective and causes noncarious teeth to become painful when the eroding enamel exposes the underlying dentin. Dentin is sensitive to touch and to temperature changes. A dentist can desensitize such teeth or restore the dental anatomy by placing crowns or Copyright © 2018 Surely work.co

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Dentinogenesis imperfecta, an autosomal dominant disorder, causes abnormal dentin that is dull bluish brown and opalescent and does not cushion the overlying enamel adequately. Such teeth cannot withstand occlusal stresses and rapidly become worn. People with pituitary dwarfism or with congenital hypoparathyroidism have small dental roots; people with gigantism have large ones. Acromegaly causes excess cementum in the roots as well as enlargement of the jaws, so teeth may become widely spaced. Acromegaly also can cause an open bite to develop in adulthood. Congenitally narrow lateral incisors occur in the absence of systemic disease. The most commonly congenitally absent teeth are the 3rd molars, followed in frequency by the maxillary lateral incisors and 2nd mandibular premolars.



http://img.ehowcdn.com/article-new/ehow/images/a04/lg/f0/what-causes-white-marks-teeth-800x800.jpg

Defects in tooth color must be differentiated from the darkening or yellowing Copyright © 2018 Surely work.co

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Affected teeth fluoresce with distinctive colors under ultraviolet light corresponding to the specific tetracycline taken. In congenital porphyria, both the deciduous and permanent teeth may have red or brownish discoloration but always fluoresce red from the pigment deposited in the dentin. Congenital hyperbilirubinemia causes a yellowish tooth discoloration. Teeth can be whitened.

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#### **Tooth Whitening Procedures**

Done By	Ingredients	
Dentist		

Comments

In office	Concentrated hydrogen peroxide is applied to teeth, which is exposed to a light or laser	Very effective Gingiva, skin, and eyes must be protected	
Patient			
At home	6% carbamide peroxide (becomes 3% hydrogen peroxide when applied) and a thickening agent containing copolymers of acrylic acid cross-linked with a polyalkenyl	Very effective	

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Paint-on whitening	Usually composed of titanium dioxide	Not very effective
Defects in too	th enamel may be caused by rick	kets, which results in a rough,
irregular banc	in the enamel. Any prolonged fe	ebrile illness during
odontogenesis	s can cause a permanent narrow	zone of chalky, pitted enamel
or simply whit	te discoloration visible after the t	ooth erupts. Thus, the age at
which the dise	ease occurred and its duration can	n be estimated from the
location and h	height of the band. Amelogenesis	imperfecta, an autosomal
dominant dise	ease, causes severe enamel hypo	plasia. Chronic vomiting and
esophageal re	eflux can decalcify the dental crow	wns, primarily the lingual
surfaces of th	e maxillary anterior teeth. Chron	ic snorting of cocaine can
result in wide	spread decalcification of teeth, be	ecause the drug dissociates in

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saliva into a base and HCI. Chronic use of methamphetamines markedly increases dental caries ("meth mouth").

Swimmers who spend a lot of time in overchlorinated pools may lose enamel from the outer facial/buccal side of the teeth, especially the maxillary incisors, canines, and 1st premolars. If Na carbonate has been added to the pool water to correct pH, then brown calculus develops but can be removed by a dental cleaning.

Fluorosis is mottled enamel that may develop in children who drink water containing > 1 ppm of fluoride during tooth development. Fluorosis depends on the amount of fluoride ingested. Enamel changes range from irregular whitish opaque areas to severe brown discoloration of the entire crown with a roughened surface. Such teeth are highly resistant to dental caries.

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attention. Keratinized tissue that occurs in normally nonkeratinized areas appears white. This abnormal condition, called leukoplakia, requires a biopsy because it may be cancerous or precancerous. More ominous, however, are thinned areas of mucosa. These red areas, called erythroplakia, if present for at least 2 wk, especially on the ventral tongue and floor of the mouth, suggest dysplasia, carcinoma in situ, or cancer.

With gloved hands, the examiner palpates the vestibules and the floor of the mouth, including the sublingual and submandibular glands. To make palpation more comfortable, the examiner asks the patient to relax the mouth, keeping it open just wide enough to allow access.

The temporomandibular joint (TMJ) is assessed by looking for jaw deviation on opening and by palpating the head of the condyle anterior to the external auditory meatus. Examiners then place their little fingers into the external ear canals with the pads of the fingertips lightly pushing anteriorly while patients open widely and close 3 times. Patients also should be able to comfortably open wide enough to fit 3 of their fingers vertically between the incisors (typically 4 to 5 cm). Trismus, the inability to open the mouth, may indicate temporomandibular disease (the most common cause), pericoronitis, scleroderma, arthritis, ankylosis of the TMJ, dislocation of the temporomandibular disk, tetanus, or peritonsillar abscess. Unusually wide opening suggests subluxation or type III Ehlers-Danlos syndrome.

#### Testing

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For a new patient or for someone who requires extensive care, the dentist takes a full mouth x-ray series. This series consists of 14 to 16 periapical films to show the roots and bone plus 4 bite-wing films to detect early caries

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Reference: http://www.merckmanuals.com