

Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research www.jpsr.pharmainfo.in

The Effect of Drugs in the Oral Cavity - A Review

Trophimus Gnanabagyan Jayakaran

Saveetha Dental College and Hospitals, Saveetha University, Chennai, India

Abstract:

It is estimated that more than 2-4% of hospital admissions are related to drug induced reactions. There is an ever expanding list of medications linked to pathologic reactions in the oral and perioral region. Several patterns of diseases have been identified, and these can assist the clinician in determining a possible cause and effect relationship with a particular or a group of drugs. The mechanism of drug induced reaction is not always known or not always predictable since aspects other than pharmacodynamics and/or pharmacokinetics, as well as various interacting variables contribute to the final outcome. Drug induced oral reactions clinically present as Xerostomia, Swelling, Dysguesia, Nonspecific Ulceration, Vesiculobullous or ulcerative mucositis, pigmentation of mucosa, Gingival enlargement, oral malodor, taste alterations, discoloration of teeth. This review gives an update of the various drug induced oral reactions, so that Dentists and oral health professionals increase their knowledge for a better diagnosis and therapy.

Key Words: Adverse drug reactions, Oral reactions, Oral manifestations, Mucosal lesions, Drug pharmacodyanamics,

INTRODUCTION:

Several systemic factors are known to contribute to oral diseases or conditions and among those are the intake of drugs. An adverse drug reaction is defined by WHO as 'a response to a drug which is noxious and unintended, and which occurs at doses normally used in man for the prophylaxis, diagnosis, therapy of diseases or for the modification of physiological function'. [1]. Fortunately several patterns of diseases have been identified and these can assist the clinician in determining a possible cause and effect relationship with a particular medication or a group of medications. The clinical patterns of drug induced oral reactions include. Considering the ageing of the population and widespread and increased use of presciptions, over the counter drugs and herbal remedies, dentists can expect to encounter oral side effects among their patients due to the usage of these medications. Since many patients take prescriptions and nonprescription medications, dentists should take a thorough medical history and be aware of medication related problems and their potential effects on diagnosis and treatment planning [2-4].

SALIVARY GLAND DISORDERS:

Salivary gland function can be affected by a variety of drugs that can produce xerostomia, ptyalism, Salivary gland pain and discolouration of saliva.

A] XEROSTOMIA:

Dryness of mouth or Xerostomia, results from diminished secretions of saliva and a decrease in salivary calcium phosphate concentration. More than 250 medications claim xerostomia as a side effect. Few of the drugs are, anticholinergics, antidepressants, anti-Parkinson's drugs, antihistamines, antipsychotics, diuretics, hypnotics, systemic bronchodilators, muscle relaxants, methyldopa, laxatives, betablockers. narcotics, guanabenz, and clonidine. Furthermore the possibility of an underlying autoimmune etiology(eg. Sjogren Syndrome) should also be considered in Xerostomic patients, especially those who also present with Xerophthalmia or evidence of parotid gland swelling. Common oral manifestations resulting from decreased salivary flow include increased dental caries, fungal infections, bacterial infections, aphthous lesions, and dysphagia. Pilocarpine and Bethanechol have been suggested to be of potential use in the management of drug induced Xerostomia [5]. Drugs with potential to cause xerostomia are shown in Table 1.

B] PTYALISM:

Ptyalism or sialorrhoea, is the condition of increased salivary flow, and it is uncommon. Salivary hypersecretion is usually caused by physiological factors such as menstruation or early pregnancy, local factors such as teething, oral inflammatory lesions, food, medication, or by nasogastric intubation.[6]. Sialorrhoea is also caused by certain heavy metal toxins (mercury and thallium),from exposure to irreversible acetylcholinesterase inhibitors (insecticides and nerve agents) and by a few other drugs such as yohimbine, mucosa irritanting antibiotics.[7]. Drugs causing ptyalism are listed in Table 2.

C] SALIVARY GLAND PAIN:

Antihypertensives, anti-thyroid agents, chlorhexidine, cytotoxics, ganglion-blocking agents, iodides, phenothiazines, and sulphonamides may cause salivary gland pain, as may drugs causing dry mouth.[8]. Salivary gland pain is rarely associated with guanethidine or guanacline. Drugs causing salivary gland pain and swelling are listed in Table 3

Alizapride Ambroxol Amphetamines Antihistamines Antimigrain agents Antineoplastics	OfloxacinOlanzapineOndansetron	
Amphetamines Antihistamines Antimigrain agents Antineoplastics	-	
Antihistamines Antimigrain agents Antineoplastics	 Ondansetron 	
Antimigrain agents Antineoplastics		
Antineoplastics	Opioids	
	Orphenadrine	
	Oxybutynin	
Antiparkinson drugs	Paricalcitol	
Atropine	Phenothiazines	
Benzodiazepines	Phenylpropanola	
Beta blockers	mine	
Bladonna alkaloids	Posaconazole	
Botulinum toxin-A	Pregabalin	
Bupropion	• Propantheline	
Cadmium	• Proton pump	
Calcium channel blockers	inhibitors	
Ciprofloxacin	Radioiodine	
Clidinium	Reboxetine	
Clozapine	• Selegiline	
Cyclobezaprine	Sertraline	
Cyclopentolate	• Sibutramine	
Cyclosporine	Solifenacin	
Cytokines	Sotalol	
Dexmedetomidine	Spiramycin	
Ephedrine	• Sucralfate	_
Fenfluramine	Tadalafil	Γ
Gentamycin	Tamsulosin	
Glycopyrolate	Tadalafil	
Guanabenz	Terazosin	
Guanfacine	• Terodiline	
Hyoscine	• Thiabendazole	
Insulin	Thioridazine	
Ipratropium	• Tiamenidine	
Isotretinoin	Tiapride	
Ketanserin	Tiotropium	
Ketotifen	• Tizamidine	
L-dopa	Tolterodine	
Lead	Tramadol	
Lithium	• Tranylcypromine	
Lubiprostone	• Trazodone	
Mazindol	• Trepium chloride	
Methdilazine	Triamterene	L
Modafinil	Trimipramine	
Molindone	Tropicamide	
Nabilone	 Trospium 	
Nefazodone	 Venlafaxine 	
Nefopam	 Viloxazine 	
Nicotine	 Vigabatrin 	
Nitric oxide inhibitors	 Zuclopenthixol 	
THE OTHER HIDROID	 Zopiclone 	

Table 2: Drugs Causing Ptyalism.[30,34,43-45].			
• Alprazolam	•	Mefenamic acid	
Ambroxol	•	Mercurial salts	
Amiodarone	•	Modafinil	
• Bethanechol	•	Neostigmine	
• Buprenorphine	•	Nicardipine	
Buspirone	•	Niridazole	
• Clozapine	•	Nitrazepam	
• Desfluorane	•	Ofanzapine	
• Diazoxide	•	Organophosphates	
• Digoxin	•	Pentoxifylline	
• Ethoinamide	•	Physostigmine	
• Edrophonium	•	Pilocarpine	
• Galantamine	•	Remoxipride	
• Gentamycin	•	Risperidone	
• Guanethidine	•	Rivestigmine	
Haloperidol	•	Sildenafil	
• Imipenem/cilastatin		Succinylchloride	
• Iodides	•	Tacrine	
Kanamycin	•	Theophylline	
• Ketamine	•	Tobramycin	
• Lamotrigine	•	Venlafaxine	
• Levodopa	•	Zaleplon	
	•	Zonisamide	

	Lombannae	
Table 3: Drugs Causing Salivary Gland Swelling and		
Pain. [30,34,43-45].		
• Bethanidine	• Isoprenaline	
• Bretylium	 Methyldopa 	
Catecholamine	Naproxen	
inhalation	Nifedipine	
• Cimetidine	Nitrofurantoin	
• Clonidine	Oxyphenylbutazone	
Clozapine	Phenylbutazone	
Deoxycycline	• Phenytoin	
• Famotidine	Ranitidine	
• Guanethidine	Ritodrine	
• Iodine	Sulofonamides	
• Insulin	• Trimepramine	
• Interferon	• Warfarin	

D] DISCOLORATION OF SALIVA:

Discoloration of saliva and other body fluids into red or orange colour may be seen in patients treated with clofazimine, levodopa, rifampicin, and rifabutin therapy.[9].

ORAL ULCERATION:

Ulceration is a breach in the oral epithelium, which typically exposes nerve endings in the underlying lamina propria, resulting in pain or soreness especially when eating spicy foods or citrus fruits. Oral Ulcers are Inflammatory lesions of the oral mucosa that affect approximately 20% of the population.[10]. Numerous causes of these ulcers include, immunological alterations, infections, nutritional deficiencies, repetitive trauma to the mucosa, food and contact allergies, autoimmune diseases and neoplasms, as well as psychosomatic, genetic and environmental factors.[11]. Drugs with potential to cause oral ulceration are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Drugs Causing Oral ulceration. [17,37,46].		
Anti HIV drugs	• Imipramine	
Antineoplastics	• Indomethacin	
Alendronate	• Interferons	
Allopurinol	• Interleukin-2	
• Alprazolam	Isoprenaline	
• Asprin	Ketorolac	
Atrovastatin	Lamotrigine	
Aurothiomalate	Levamisole	
Azathiopurine	• Lithium	
• Aztreonam	• Losartan	
• Barbiturates	Mesalamine	
Captopril	Methimazole	
Carbamazepine	• Methotrexate	
Chlorambucil	Metronidazole	
Chloramphenicol	Mitomycin	
Choloroquine	• Naproxen	
Chlorpromazine	Nicorandil	
Clarithromycin	• NSAIDs	
• Clofibrate	Olanzapines	
• Clonazepam	Pancreatin	
• Codeine	Penicillamine	
Cyclosporine	Penicillins	
Diclofenac	Phenylbutazone	
• Dideoxycytidine	• Phenytoin	
• Emepromium	Potassium chloride	
• Enalapril	• Proguanil	
Erythromycin	• Promethazine	
• Fluconazole	Propranolol	
• Fluoxetine	• Quinidine	
Ganciclovir	Streptomycin	
• Gefitinib	• Sulindac	
Gold Compounds	• Terbutaline	
• Hydralazine	Tetracycline	
Hydroxyurea	Vancomycin	
• Ibuprofen	• Venlafaxine	
• Imatinib	• Warfarin	

A].NONSPECIFIC ULCERATION:

Oral Ulceration may be caused as a result of direct application of over the counter drugs like asprin, hydrogen peroxide, potassium tablets, and phenol containing compounds. The affected mucosa appears whitish and corrugated, with erosion and ulceration of the more severely damaged areas.[12].

B]. APHTHOUS ULCERATION:

Ulcers resembling recurrent aphthous stomatitis but have systemic causes are often termed Aphthous like ulcers. Examples include Behcet's syndrome, gastrointestinal diseases, such as gluten-sensitive enteropathy or inflammatory bowel disease, immunodeficiency syndromes such as infection with HIV, cyclic neutropenia and adverse reactions to medications.[13-15]. A number of drug are implicated in the development of nonspecific ulceration and oral mucositis, and the lesions are often associated with an equally nonspecific histologic appearance at biopsy. These include barbiturates, beta-blockers, dapsone, NSAIDs, phenazone derivatives, thiazide derivatives, phenolphthalein, sulfonamides, tetracyclines, and sirolimus.[16]. Ulceration of the mucosa is a common adverse effect of a wide variety of antineoplastic agents, including methotrexate, 5-fluoroucil, doxorubicin and melphalan.

C].FIXED DRUG ERUPTIONS:

Fixed drug eruptions in the oral cavity often initially appear as areas of edema and erythema that lead to the localized, nonspecific ulceration. The labial mucosa is most commonly involved, and a clinical course of recurrence at the same site after drug use is diagnostically helpful, but this relationship is not always easy to establish. A number of drugs are implicated in the development of nonspecific ulceration and oral mucositis, and the lesions are often associated with an equally nonspecific histologic appearance at biopsy. These include barbiturates, beta-blockers, dapsone, NSAIDs, phenazone derivatives, thiazide derivatives, phenolphthalein, sulfonamides, and tetracyclines.[17].

D]. MUCOSITIS:

Chemotherapy regimens play a vital role in Oral mucositis and ulceration, particularly those involving methotrexate, 5fluorouracil, doxorubicine, melphelan, mercaptopurine, or bleomycin.[18]. Widespread sloughing and ulceration arise within days of commencement of therapy, the associated pain often requiring opioid therapy and/or alteration or cessation of chemotherapy. The ulceration may be a portal of entry for infection and hence a potential cause of septicemia.

E]. PEMPHIGOID LIKE REACTIONS:

Pemphigoid like reactions can be limited to the oral mucosa, or they can affect other mucosal or cutaneous sites. Clinically, lesions appear as relatively sturdy vesicles or bullae that break down into shallow ulceration. Thiolcontaining drugs and sulfonamide derivatives are among the most commonly involved medications, as are the therapeutic classes of NSAIDs, cardiovascular agents, antimicrobials, and antirheumatics.[19]. The oral mucosa is frequently affected in drug induced pemphigoid, particularly penicillamine-induced disease, and can be the only affected mucosal surface, although patients often also have cutaneous lesions.

F]. PEMPHIGUS:

Pemphigus like reactions can have features of either Pemphigus vulgaris or Pemphigus foliaceous, although pemphigus foliaceous is uncommon in the oral cavity. Traditionally, drugs that are capable of inducing pemphigus are divided into two main groups according to their chemical structure—drugs containing a sulfhydryl radical (thiol drugs or SH drugs) and non-thiol.[20]. Pemphigus vulgaris may occasionally be associated with drugs with active thiol groups in the molecule. Drugs implicated include penicillamine, phenol drugs , rifampicin, diclofenac , and other ACE-inhibitors.[21].

G]. ERYTHEMA MULTIFORMAE:

As with idiopathic or virally induced cases(Herpes simplex virus), the disease has a rapid onset with a variable expression that can range from lesions limited to the oral mucosa with widespread mucocutaneous involvement. Drug induced EM is frequently linked to agents such as barbiturates, cephalosporins, NSAIDs, estrogens, inhibitors, phenothiazines, progestogens, protease sulphonamides, sulphonylurea derivatives, and tetracyclines-may give rise to erythema multiforme, and it may be clinically impossible to distinguish drug-induced erythema multiforme from disease due to other causes.[22]. The distinction of severe erythema multiforme from toxic epidermal necrolysis is quite unclear.

H]. LUPOID REACTIONS:

Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) may be induced by a wide variety of different drugs. Indeed, over 70 agents have been implicated in causing drug-induced lupus.[23]. The most commonly implicated agents of drug-induced SLE are procainamide and hydralazine, although drugs less commonly associated include chlorpromazine, isoniazid, methyldopa, penicillamine, and quinine, as well as whole groups of drugs such as anticonvulsants, beta-blockers, sulphonamides,[24]. and others.

ORAL MALODOR:

Oral Malodor or Halitosis is offensive breath resulting from poor oral hygiene, dental or oral infections, ingestion of certain foods, use of tobacco, and some systemic disease and medications. Drugs causing xerostomia, may indirectly cause or aggrave this problem, but other drugs, such as isosorbide dinitrate, dimethyl sulphoxide, or disulfiram, can be directly responsible for malodor.[17]. Drugs causing oral malodor are shown in Table 5. **Table 5: Drugs causing Oral Malodor.**[37,47]. several treatment strategies. Some drugs can induce oral disorders resembling lichen planus and are said to be oral lichenoid drug reactions. Oral lichenoid reactions are uncommon and these reactions disappear after drug withdrawal.[25,26]. A characteristic white lace pattern may be seen. The drugs now most commonly implicated in lichenoid reactions are the non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and the angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors. Lichenoid reactions also may follow the use of HIV protease inhibitors , antihypertensive agents, antimalarials, phenothiazines, sulphonamides, tetracyclines, thiazide diuretics,[27] and many others. Drugs with potential to cause oral lichenoid eruptions are listed in Table 6.

Table 6: Drugs Causing Oral Lichenoid Reactions. [17,37,48].

	[,,].
ACE inhibitors	Hydroxychloroquine
Allopurinol	Ketoconazole
Amiphenazole	• Lithium carbonate
• Angiotensin converting	• Lorazepam
enzyme inhibitors	Mepacrine
Antimalarials	• Mercury (Amalgam)
 Arsenical compounds 	Metformin
Barbiturates	 Methyldopa
BCG vaccine	Metronidazole
Carbamazepine	 NSAIDs
Carbimazole	Penicillins
Chloroquine	• Phenytoin
Chlorpropamide	Piroxicam
Cholera vaccine	Propranolol
Clofibrate	• Quinidine
Colchicine	Rifampicin
• Dapsone	• Streptomycin
Dipyridamole	 Sulphonamides
• Ethionamide	 Tetracyclines
Flunarizine	• Thalidomide
Gaunoclor	Thiazides
Gold compounds	• Tolbutamide
Griseofulvin	Triprolidine
Hepatitis B vaccine	

B].ORAL CANDIDIASIS:

Candidiasis is the most common opportunistic infection seen in dental practices. Patients usually present with creamy, white plaques on the tongue and buccal mucosa, it when scraped leave a red, painful ulcerated surface exposed. Pseudomembranous candidosis arises secondary to therapy with broad-spectrum antibiotics, corticosteroids - systemic and inhaler preparations, and other immunosuppressive regimens (e.g., ciclosporin) and cytotoxic therapy.[28].

C]. BLACK HAIRY TONGUE (Lingua villosa nigra)

This condition is presented with an elongation of the filliform papillae of the tongue to form hair like over growth which becomes stained brown or black due to the proliferation of

WHITE LESIONS:

A]. LICHENOID ERUPTIONS:

Succimer

Disulfiram

Chloral hydrate

Cytotoxic drugs

Dimethyl sulphoxide

Nitrates and nitrites

•

Lichen planus is a chronic systemic disease of the established immune mediated pathogenesis. Oral lichen planus is usually a persistent disorder and may persist for many years despite chromogenic microorganisms. Black hairy tongue can be seen with the administration of oral antibiotics, poor oral hygiene and excessive smoking in adults.[17]. Drugs causing black hairy tongue are listed in Table 7. offending drug can improve the taste. Drugs with potential to cause aguesia and dysguesia are listed in Table 9 and 10.

Benztropine•Cephalosporines•Chloramphenicol•Clarithromycin•Clomipramine•Clonazepam•Corticosteroids•Desipramine•Fluoxetine•	Nortriptyline Olanzapine Penicillins Sodium perborate
Chloramphenicol•Clarithromycin•Clomipramine•Clonazepam•Corticosteroids•Desipramine•	Penicillins
Clarithromycin•Clomipramine•Clonazepam•Corticosteroids•Desipramine•	
Clomipramine•Clonazepam•Corticosteroids•Desipramine•	Sodium perborate
Clonazepam • Corticosteroids • Desipramine •	
Corticosteroids • Desipramine •	Sodium peroxide
Desipramine •	Streptomycin
	Sulfonamides
Fluoxetine •	Tobacco
	Tetracycline
Griseofulvin •	Thiothixene
Imipramine •	Tranylcypromine
Lansoprazole	Vegetable dyes

Table 9: Drugs Causing Ageusia	a. [17,37,50	,51].
Acarbose	٠	Fluvoxamine
Acetazolamide	•	Indomethacin
Amitriptyline	•	isotretinoin
Angiotensin II receptor antagonist	•	Levodopa
• Asprin	•	Methimazole
Atrovastatin	•	Penicilliamine
Captopril	•	Pentamidine
Ceftirizine	٠	Phenytoin
Cisplatin	•	Propantheline
• Clidinium	•	Propylthiouracil
Clopidogrel	٠	Rifabutin
• Cocaine	•	Ritonavir
• Diazoxide	•	Rivastigmine
Dicyclomine	•	Spironolactone
• Enalapril	•	Sulfadoxine
• Etridonate	•	Terbinafine topiramate
• fluoxetine	•	Venlafaxine

•	Amlodipine	•	Lithium
•	Bepridil	•	Mephenytoin
•	Cannabis	•	Nifedipine
•	Cotrimoxazole	•	Nitrendipine
•	Cyclosporine	•	Oral contraceptives
•	Diltiazem	•	Phenytoin
•	Erythromycin	•	Phenobarbitone
•	Ethosuximide	•	Primidone
•	Ethotoin	•	Sertraline
•	Felodipine	•	Sodium valproate
•	Flunarizine	•	Topiramate
•	Interferon alpha	•	Verapamil
•	Ketoconazole	•	Vigabatrin
•	Lamotrigene		

TASTE ALTERATIONS:

Individuals taking any variety of medications may present with subjective complaints of taste changes. Many classes of drus are associated with taste alteration, which manifests as hypoguesia (decreased taste), dysguesia (distortion of the correct taste), paraguesia (bad taste), aguesia (no taste).[29]. ACE inhibitors, anti-thyroids, beta-lactam antibiotics, biguanides, chlorhexidine, opiates, and protease inhibitors are particularly implicated. Up to 4% of patients treated with ACE inhibitors may have dysgeusia, although this adverse effect is self-limiting and reversible within a few months, even with continued therapy. Newer therapies—such as the anti-HIV protease inhibitors, therapy with tripotassium dicitrato bismuthate chelate, clarithromycin, and lansoprazole therapy for H. pylori infection, terbinafine, intravenous pentamidine , and isotretinoin.[30]. Reduction of the

Table 10: Drugs Causing Dysgeusia. [17,37,52,53].		
ACE inhibitors	• Lignocaine	
Acetaminophen	Maprotilline	
Alendronate	Methocarbamol	
Allopurinol	Metoprolol	
• Alprazolam	Minoxidil	
• Amiloride	Mupirocin	
Amiodarone	Nedocromil	
Amlodipine	Nitroglycerine	
• Asprin	• Nylidrin	
• Auranofin	• omidazole	
• Baclofen	Palifermin	
• Beclomethazone	• Phenytoin	
Bleomycin	Pilocarpine	
• Busulfan	Propafenone	
• Calcitonin	Protirelin	
• Cimetidine	• Quinidine	
Ciprofloxacin	• Ranitidine	
• Clomipramine	• Ribavirin	
• Cotrimazole	Risperidone	
• Dantrolene	• Selegiline	
• Fentanyl	• Sunitinib	
• Fluvastatin	Tacrine	
• Gadobenate	• Tamoxifen	
Gancyclovir	• Tegafur	
• Glyburide	• Terbinafine	
Gold compounds	• Tiagabin	
• Imipramine	• Tolazamide	
• Indinavir	• Tramadol	
• Ketorolac	• Ursodiol	
• Levodopa	• Vinblastine	

MUCOSAL PIGMENTATION:

Oral discoloration may be superficial due to extrinsic or deep due to intrinsic causes.

Extrinsic discoloration is rarely of consequence and is usually caused by habits that include the following:

- Use of tobacco or betel nut
- Consumption of colored foods or beverages
- Use of drugs (such as chlorhexidine, iron salts, cocaine, minocycline, bismuth subsalicylate and lansoprazole)

The primary causes of intrinsic mucosal hyperpigmentation include: [31]

- Amalgam or other tattoo
- Nevus
- Melanotic macule
- Peutz-jegher's syndrome
- Racial pigmentation
- Drugs such as antimalarials and oral contraceptives
- Addison's disease
- Pregnancy

Pigmented lesions of the tongue(dark macular patches) are reported to occur in heroin addicts who inhale the smoke.[32]. Drugs causing oral mucosal pigmentation along with the color and site are listed in Table 11.

Table 11: Drugs Causing Oral Mucosal Pigmentation.[17].		
Drug/Chemical	Colour	Site
Amalgam	Gray	Gingiva
Aminopyrine	Brown	Tongue
Amodiaquine	Blue-gray/black	Palate
Arsenic	Brown	Tongue
Asprin	White	Mucosa
Bismuth	Blue-gray/blue-	Gum lines/tongue
	black	Guin mics/tongue
Busulfan	Brown	Mucosa
Chlorhexidine	White/brown	Tongue
Chloroquine	Blue-gray	Palate, gingiva, lip
Copper salts	Blue-green	Gum lines
Doxorubicin	Dark/Brown	Mucosa/Tongue
Gold	Purple	Gingiva
Heroin inhalation	Dark Macular	Tongue
Heroin initiatation	Patch	Toligue
Lansoprazole	Yellow	Tongue
Lead	Blue-gray/Blue	Gum lines/Tongue
Mepacrine	Yellow	Mucosa
Mercury	Blue-gray/Blue- Black	Gum line/Mucosa
Methyldopa	Dark	Tongue
Phenolphthalein	Brown	Tongue
Phenothiazines	Blue-Gray	Mucosa
Quinacrine	Gray/Brown	Palate/Tongue
Quinidine	Blue-black	Palate
Silver salts	Gray	Gingiva
Thallium	Blue-gray	Gumlines
Tin	Dark	Mucosa
Tobacco	Hazy gray brown	Mucosa
Vanadium	Green	Tongue
		Soft
Zidovudine	Dark	Palate, Gingiva, lips, ton
		gue

TEETH DISCOLORATION:

Tetracycline and minocycline are antimicrobial agents causing the teeth to stain. Systemic ingestion of tetracycline causes irreversible staining in developing teeth and bones. The cervical third is most affected and staining is directly proportional to the age at drug exposure, dosage and duration of therapy.[33].Minocycline, unlike tetracycline staining occurs after the teeth are fully developed and erupted. Minocycline penetrates easily into both soft and calcified tissues. Pigmentation is produced by incorporation of the drug from the pulp into the dentin and enamel. Oxidation from the saliva and gingival crevicular fluid produces a bluegray staining in the middle and incisal thirds of the teeth. Minocycline staining is irreversible.[34,35]. Metals, such as lead or mercury, or drugs that contain metals, such as gold salts, produce pigmentation changes along the gingival margin. These colour changes may resolve following discontinuation of the drug, but may be permanent.[36]. Drugs causing teeth discoloration along with the color are listed in Table 12

Table 12: Drugs And Chemicals Causing Tooth Discoloration. [17,43]		
Drugs/Chemicals	Color	
Betel leaves (areca)	Red to black	
Cadmium	Yellow ring	
Cayenne	Black	
Chlorhexidine	Yellow-brown	
Chlortetracycline	Gray-brown	
Ciprofloxacin	Green	
Co-amoxiclav	Yellow or gray brown	
Copper salts	Green	
Doxycyclin	Yellow	
Essential oils	Yellow brown	
Fluoride	White brown	
Iron salts (liquid)	Black	
Isoproterenol	Chalky white	
Minocycline	Gray black	
Oxytetracycline	Yellow	
Potassium permanganate	Violet to black	
Silver nitrate	Gray	
Tannins (coffee,Tea)	Brown	
Tetracycline	Yellow	
Tobacco	Yellow-brown	
Tooth paste with stannous fluoride	Black or green	
White wine	Black	

POSTMORTEM PINK-RED COLORATION:

Tooth coloration of this type is due to hemolysis and exudation of hemoglobin to the dental pulp which is enhanced in the presence of moisture and increased venous pressure. Specific conditions of death associated with this phenomenon include drowning, aspiration, pneumonitis, and suffocation. Overdose with barbiturates, dichloralphenazon, and carbon monoxide also present with similar findings.[37].

SWELLINGS:

A] GINGIVAL HYPERPLASIA:

Gingival Hyperplasia is a known side effect associated with the anticonvulsant phenytoin, the immunosuppressant

cyclosporine, and the calcium channel blockers used for hypertension and angina. Drug induced gingival enlargement can be localized or generalized and varies with degree of severity. Enlargement typically affects the labial tissues and begins in the interdental papillae. Severity is directly proportional to the patients oral hygiene. The enlarged gingiva appears fibrotic and the patient often develops an overlying inflammation, as hyperplastic tissues can be difficult to keep clean.[38,39]. Drugs which have the potential to cause gingival hyperplasia are listed in Table 8. **B**] MUCOSAL SWELLING:

Drugs are the most common cause of urticarial reactions in adults affecting approximately 15-20% of young adults. Urticaria is a vascular reaction in the superficial layers of the skin, characterized by local edema and increased capillary permeability with wheals (hives), often accompanied by severe itching. When this swelling occurs in either the subcutaneous or submucosal tissues, the condition is known as angioedema. Drugs like penicillins, local anesthetic agents, cephalosporin derivatives, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, aspirin, and barbiturates—may give rise to angioedema.[40]. Hypersensitivity to latex is an increasing problem in oral health care and may cause rapid-onset angioedema in susceptible patients.

Topical anaesthetic agents, dental local anaesthetics, and drugs are associated with type-I hypersensitivity reactions. This type of allergic reaction has a rapid onset, with oral lesions developing, in and around the oral cavity, with urticarial swelling or angioedema of the lips, tongue and oral mucosa.[41].

CONCLUSION:

Numerous Drugs have the capability to cause adverse effects in the oral cavity. Drugs have the potential to cause conditions such as salivary gland disease, oral ulceration, taste alterations, discoloration of teeth, mucosal pigmentation, white lesions, swellings and oral malodor. These side effects interfere with the patient function and increase risk of infection, pain and possible tooth loss. It has been reported that the most common side effects of drugs are xerostomia, Altered taste and stomatitis.[42]. It is imperative that health professionals understand the complications that medications can have on the oral health of their patients. In order to properly diagnose and treat patients, a complete medical history including prescription medications, over the counter drugs and dietary supplements must be recorded which will enable the healthcare team to identify the causative agents.

REFERENCES:

- 1. Topel LA, Kragelund C, Reibel J, Nauntofte B, Oral adverse drug reactions to cardiovascular drugs. *Crit Rev Oral Biol Med* 2004;15(1):28-46.(1).
- 2. Ciancio SG. Medications' impact on oral health. J Am Dent Assoc. 2004 Oct;135(10):1440-8.
- Guggenheimer J. Oral manifestations of drug therapy. Dent Clin North Am. 2002 Oct;46(4):857-68.

- Rees TD. Drugs and Oral disorders. *Periodontol 2000*. 1998 Oct;18:21-36.
- Porter SR, Scully C, Hegarty AM. An update of the etiology and management of xerostomia. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod 2004, 97(1):28-46.
- Boyce HW, Bakheet MR. Sialorrhea: a review of a vexing, often unrecognized sign of oropharyngeal and esophageal disease. J Clin Gastroenterol 2005, 39(2):89-97.
- 7. Freudenreich O. Drug induced sialorrhea. *Drugs Today (Barc)* 2005, 41(6):411-8.
- 8. Glass BJ (1989). Drug induced xerostomia as a cause of glossodynia. *Ear Nose Throat J* 68(10):776-781.
- British National Formulary (2002). Antituberculous drugs. In: British National Formulary. British Medical Association and Royal Pharmaceutical Society Of Great Britain, pp. 290-291.
- Scully C, Shotts R: ABC of oral health. Mouth ulcers and other causes of orofacial soreness and pain. *Br Med J* 2000, 321:162-165.
- O'Neill A, de Leon J: Two case reports of oral ulcers with lamotrigine several weeks after oxcarbazepine withdrawal. *Bipolar disorders 2007*, 9:310-313.
- Criado PR, Brandt HR, Moure ER, Pereira GL, Sanches Junior JA. Adverse mucocutaneous reactions related to chemotherapeutic agents: part II. An Bras Deramatol. Oct 2010;85(5):591-608.
- Jurge S, Kuffer R, Scully C, Porter SR. Mucosal disease series. Number 6. Recurrent aphthous stomatitis. Oral Dis 2006, 12(1):1-21.
- 14. Scully C. Clinical practice. Aphthous ulceration. N Engl J Med. 2006 Jul 13;355(2):165-72.
- Koyabasi S, Parlak AH, Serin E, Yilmaz F, Serin D. Recurrent aphthous stomatitis: investigation of possible etiological factors. *Am J Otolaryngol.* 2006, 27(4):229-32.
- Van Gelder T, ter Meulen CG, Hene R, Weimar W, Hoitsma A (2003). Oral ulcers in kidney transplant recipients treated with sirolimus and mycophenolate mofetil. *Transplantation* 75:788-791.
- 17. Abdollahi M, Radfar M (2003). A review of drug induced oral reactions. *J Contemp Dent Pract* 4:10-31.
- Femiano F, Scully C, Gombos F (2003). Linear IgA dermatosis induced by a new angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 95:169-173.
- Rasmussen HB, Jepsen LV, Brandrup F (1989). Penicillamine-induced bullous pemphigoid with pemphigus-like antibodies. J Cutan Pathol 16:154-157.
- Wolf R, Brenner S (1994). An active amide group in the molecule of drugs that induce pemphigus: a casual or casual relationship? *Dermatology* 189:1-4.
- Ong CS, Cook N, Lee S (2000). Drug- related pemphigus and angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors. *Australias J Dermatol* 41:242-246.
- Ayangco L, Rogers RS III (2003). Oral manifestations of erythema multiforme. *Dermatol Clin* 21:195-205.
- Rich MW (1996). Drug induced lupus. The list of culprits grows. Postgrad Med 100:299-308.
- 24. Prince EJ, Venables PJ (1995). Drug-induced lupus. Drug safety 12:283-290.
- 25. Laeijendecker R, Dekker SK, Burger PM, Mulder PG, Van Joost T, Neumann MH. Oral lichen planus and allergy to dental amalgam restorations. *Arch Dermatol* 2004, 140(12):1434-8.
- 26. Al-Hashmi I, Schifter M, Lockhart PB, Wray D, Brennan M, Migliorati CA, Axell T, Bruce AJ, Carpenter W, Eisenberg E, Epstein JB, Holmstrup P, Jontell M, Lozada-Nur F, Nair R, Silverman B, Thongprasom K, Thornhil M, Warnakulasuriya S, Van der wall I. Oral lichen planus and oral lichenoid reactions: diagnostic and therapeutic considerations. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2007, 103(suppl S25):1-12.
- Scully C, Diz DP (2001). Orofacial effects of antiretroviral therapies. Oral Dis 7:205-210.
- Seymour RA, Thomason JM, Nolan A (1997). Oral lesions in organ transplant patients. J Oral Pathol Med 26(7):297-304.
- 29. Tomita H, Yoshikawa T. Drug related taste disturbances. Acta otolaryngol Suppl. 2002;546: 116-121.
- Porter SR, Scully C. Adverse drug reactions in the mouth. *Clin Dermatol* 2000, 18(5):525-532.

- 31. Scully C, Felix DH, Oral Medicine- Update for the dental practitioner. Red and pigmented lesions. *Br Dent J* 2005, 199:639-645.
- 32. Eisen D. Disorders of pigmentation in the oral cavity. *Clin Dermatol* 2000, 18:579-587.
- Parks ET. Lesions associated with drug reactions. *Dermatol clin*, 1996:14:327-337.
- Hung P, Caldwell JB, James WD. Minocycline-induced hyperpigmentation. J Fam Pract. 1995; 40:183-185.
- 35. Morrow GL, Abbott RL. Minocycline induced scleral, dental and dermal pigmentation. *Am J Ophthalmol*. 1998; 125:396-397.
- DeRossi SS, Hersh EV. A review of adverse oral reactions to systemic medications. *Gen Dent.* 2006; 54:131-138.
- Micromedex Healthcare series, Drugdex, Drug consults, 2007, Vol. 133.
- Hassell TM, Hefti AF. Drug induced gingival overgrowth: Old problem, new problem. Crit Rev Oral Biol Med. 1991;2:103-137.
- 39. Wynn RL. An update on calcium channel blocker induced gingival hyperplasia. *Gen Dent.* 1995;43:218-22.
- Bas M, Hoffmann TK, Kojda G. Evaluation and management of angioedema of the head and neck. *Curr Opin Otolaryngol Head And Neck Surg* 2006, 14(13):170-5.
- 41. Scully C, Beyli M, Ferreiro MC, et al. Update on oral lichen planus: etiopathogenesis and management. *Crit Rev Oral Bio Med.* 1998;9(1):86-122.

- 42. Shinkai RS, Hatch JP, Schmidt CB, Sartori EA. Exposure to the oral side effects of medication in a community-based sample. *Spec Care Dentist* 2006, 26(3):116-20.
- Tredwin CJ, Scully C, Bagan-Sebastian JV. Drug induced disorders of teeth. J Dent Res 2005, 84(7):596-602.
- Scully C, Felix DH. Oral medicine –Update for the dental practioner: dry mouth and disorders of salivation. Br Dent J 2005, 199(7):423-7.
- Knulst AC, Stengs CJ, Baart de la Faille H, Graamans K, Hene RJ, Collet JT, Bruijnzeel-Koomen CA. Salivary gland swelling following naproxen therapy. *Br J Dermatol* 1995, 133(4):647-649.
- McAvoy BR. Letter: Mouth ulceration and slow release potassium tablets. Br Med J 1974 19;4(5837):164-165.
- Scully C, Felix DH. Oral medicine- update for the dental practitioner: Oral malodor. *Br Dent J* 2005, 199(8):498-500.
- Almeyda J, Levantine A. Drug reactions. XVI. Lichenoid drug eruptions. Br J Dermatol 1971, 85(6):604-7.
- Tamam L, Annagur BB. Black hairy tongue associated with olanzapine treatment: a case report. *Mt Sinai J Med* 2006, 73(6):891-4.
- Koc F, Ozeren A. Reversable ageusia associated with clopidogrel treatment. *Neurol India* 2006, 54(2):218-9
- Doty RL, Haxel BR. Objective assessment of terbinafine- induced taste loss. *Laryngoscope* 2005, 115(11):2035-7.
- Drew H, Harasty L. Dysgeusia following a course of Zithromax: a case report. J N J Dent Assoc 2007, 78(2):24-7.
- Ellul P, Vella V, Vassallo M. Reversible dysgeusia attributed to azathioprine. Am J Gastroentrol 2007, 102(3):689.