

Understanding of Burning Mouth Syndrome Based on Psychological Aspects

Moon-Jong KIM¹, Hong-Seop KHO^{1,2}

Burning mouth syndrome (BMS) is a chronic pain condition characterised by a persistent burning sensation in clinically normal oral mucosa. BMS most commonly occurs in middle-aged and elderly women. Various local and systemic factors can cause oral burning symptoms. When all possible local and systemic factors are excluded, burning mouth symptoms can be diagnosed as BMS. Psychophysical tests and histopathological data suggest the involvement of peripheral and central neuropathic mechanisms in BMS etiopathogenesis. Psychological problems are frequently observed in BMS patients. Several mechanisms, including increased parafunctional habits, steroid dysregulation, central disinhibition due to taste dysfunction, and low dopamine levels in the brain, have been proposed as an explanation for the role of psychological factors in BMS pathophysiology. However, the causal relationship between BMS and psychological problems remains controversial. Given the neuropathic nature of BMS, treatment for it is similar to other neuropathic pain conditions. Although various treatment modalities, including pharmacological intervention, behavioural therapy and psychotherapy, have been proposed, there is no definitive treatment always effective for the majority of BMS patients. In conclusion, for better understanding of the relationship between BMS and psychological factors, well-designed prospective studies are needed. In addition, the evaluation and treatment of psychological problems are essential for successful management of BMS patients.

Key words: burning mouth syndrome, pathophysiology, psychological factors
Chin J Dent Res 2018;21(1):9–19; doi: 10.3290/j.cjdr.a39914

Many elderly patients complain of burning mouth symptoms, which include oral burning pain and other dysesthesias. Oral soft tissue lesions (e.g. oral lichen planus and oral candidiasis) and systemic diseases (e.g. diabetes and anaemia) can cause oral mucosal burning mouth symptoms. However, some patients complain of oral burning pain without distinct oral mucosal

abnormalities and related systemic conditions. This condition is referred to as burning mouth syndrome (BMS).

BMS is defined as a chronic pain condition characterised by a persistent burning sensation in clinically normal oral mucosa¹. Various synonyms – glossodynia, glossopyrosis, glossalgia, stomatodynia, stomatopyrosis, and sore tongue – have also been used to describe oral burning pain, which is a representative symptom of this chronic pain condition. However, because BMS patients often have other symptoms besides oral burning pain, BMS or burning mouth disorder seems to be the most appropriate term^{2,3}. Although several diagnostic criteria for BMS have been proposed, they have not been universally accepted. Some earlier studies made no distinction between BMS and burning mouth symptoms^{4,5}, and thus they must be carefully interpreted and compared.

Because different criteria have been applied to diagnose BMS, its prevalence is not consistent among epidemiological studies. BMS prevalence is thought to

1 Department of Oral Medicine and Oral Diagnosis, School of Dentistry and Dental Research Institute, Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea (ROK).

2 Institute on Aging Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea (ROK).

Corresponding author: Dr Hong-Seop KHO, Department of Oral Medicine and Oral Diagnosis, School of Dentistry and Dental Research Institute, Seoul National University, 101 Daehak-ro, Jongno-gu, Seoul 03080, Korea (ROK). Tel: 82-2-2072-3989; Fax: 82-2-744-9135. Email: hkho@snu.ac.kr

This research was supported by the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) grant funded by the Korea government (MSIP) (No. 2016R1A2B4007286).

be between 0.7% and 4.6% of the general population^{2,3}. These epidemiological data may include patients with “burning mouth symptoms.” In a recent population-based study using stringent BMS criteria, BMS prevalence was estimated to be 0.1%⁶, which is much lower than results of previous studies. In general, BMS is more common in women than in men, and it appears to be most prevalent in peri- or post-menopausal women⁷. After the age of 50, BMS incidence drastically increases (under 50 years: 3.3 per 100,000 person-years vs 50 to 59 years: 22.8 per 100,000 person-years), and the maximal incidence rate was found among people aged 70 to 79 (46.9 per 100,000 person-years)⁸.

The main symptom of BMS is oral burning pain. Patients often describe pain as “pricking”, “tingling”, “numbness”, and “itching” instead of “burning”⁹. Burning pain usually occurs spontaneously without any causative factors, and persists for several months to years. Pain ranges from moderate to severe, similar to toothache^{10,11}, and its intensity is usually lowest in the morning and gradually increases during the day^{9,12}. Spontaneous remission of the burning pain is rare¹³. The burning pain usually occurs bilaterally, and the most frequently affected area in the oral cavity is the tongue, especially the tip and the anterior two-thirds¹⁴⁻¹⁶. Other areas, such as the lower lip mucosa and the anterior hard palate, are also frequently affected. In addition, BMS patients often have dry mouth and dysgeusia². Therefore, these three symptoms are referred to as the BMS symptom triad.

Although several articles have been published on various aspects of BMS, there is a lack of consensus regarding the contributing factors related to BMS pathophysiology. In addition, BMS patients often have psychological problems¹⁷⁻²⁰, which may be closely associated with poor prognosis^{2,21-23}. However, the relationship between BMS and psychological problems remains unclear. The aim of this review is to summarise current knowledge on the pathophysiology and management of this syndrome, focusing especially on the complex interactions between psychological problems and BMS.

Etiopathogenesis of BMS

Knowledge of BMS etiopathogenesis has increased considerably in recent years. At present, complex interactions between various etiological factors appear to be associated with the development of oral burning sensations (burning mouth symptoms, not “true” BMS). However, in many cases of burning mouth symptoms, no particular causative factors can be identified, and

peripheral and/or central neuropathic changes have been suggested^{5,24,25}.

Local and systemic factors related to burning mouth symptoms

Previous studies have uncovered various local factors associated with burning mouth symptoms. Local factors, including biological and mechanical factors, can directly irritate the oral mucosal tissues and produce oral burning sensations. In these cases, treating the factors can alleviate oral burning mouth symptoms.

Even after identifying a clinically normal oral mucosa through a comprehensive oral examination, fungal infections and allergic reactions should be considered as important causes of oral burning sensations. It has been reported that fungal infection can be found in patients diagnosed with BMS², and some patients with burning pain in normal oral mucosa experience a reduction of symptoms after antifungal therapy. One study categorised the participants according to pain intensity during meals and at rest, and compared the clinical features and response to antifungal agents²⁶. The study concluded that although the clinical features were similar for all participants, only the group of patients who complained of greater pain while eating showed a good response to antifungal therapy. BMS and atrophic candidiasis frequently exist as comorbidities. Thus, the possibility of fungal infection should be carefully examined.

In the case of allergic reactions, although no significant association has been identified between BMS and a positive patch test reaction^{27,28}, earlier studies found that some patients with burning mouth symptoms had local hypersensitivity reactions to dentures and dental filling materials^{29,30}, and in some cases^{31,32}, remission of the burning sensation after removal of the allergen was observed. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the possibility of allergic reaction as the cause in those patients complaining of oral burning pain after dental treatment.

Microtrauma resulting from mechanical irritation is regarded as a causative factor for burning mouth symptoms. Causes of mechanical irritation include ill-fitting prostheses and oral parafunctional habits. In particular, there is strong evidence supporting oral parafunctional habits as a cause of oral burning pain^{2,33}. Oral parafunctional habits, including clenching, bruxing, and tongue thrusting, have been frequently reported in BMS patients^{34,35}. These habits might lead to traumatic inflammation, which can result in a burning sensation³⁶. It has also been reported that habit control and the use of oral lubricants can decrease the burning sensations³⁷.

Previous studies have suggested that BMS may be caused by decreased salivary output^{14,34,38}. Saliva plays an important role in the protection and lubrication of the oral mucosa³⁹. Thus, reduction of salivary output can result in decreased oral lubrication and increased friction between oral mucosal tissues, which can ultimately lead to microtrauma. In fact, BMS patients often have salivary gland dysfunction^{34,40}. In addition, medical interventions and systemic diseases, which are known to induce the reduction of salivary flow rate, are associated with increased incidence of BMS². However, salivary flow rates for BMS patients were not consistently different from those of control subjects, and salivary gland stimulation with a sialogogue was not effective for BMS patients³⁸. Recent evidence seems to indicate that both the quantity (objective reduction of salivary output) and quality of saliva (change in salivary components related to protection and lubrication) are important factors that influence BMS incidence.

Systemic factors have also been described as possible causes of burning mouth symptoms. These include nutritional deficiencies (low serum levels of vitamin B12, folic acid, ferritin, zinc, and magnesium), systemic diseases (anaemia, diabetes, thyroid diseases, and immunological diseases), and medications (antihistamines, neuroleptics, antihypertensives, and benzodiazepines)^{2,41-43}. Many peri- and post-menopausal women complain of burning mouth symptoms^{44,45}, and the majority of BMS patients are peri- or post-menopausal women⁷. Thus, hormonal changes in peri- or post-menopausal stages are considered to be a key factor in the development and progression of BMS. However, hormone replacement therapy was not effective in relieving pain in many BMS patients^{44,46}, and a definite relationship between BMS and hormonal changes has not yet been established.

Neuropathic alterations in BMS pathophysiology

BMS can be classified as either true or primary when all possible local and systemic factors are excluded. Several features of primary BMS suggest the involvement of neuropathic pain mechanisms in the pathophysiology of this condition. Firstly, a burning sensation, the main symptom of BMS, is a typical characteristic of many chronic neuropathic pain syndromes^{2,9}. Secondly, previous clinical and animal studies regarding neuropathic pain reported that the pain worsens over the course of the day⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ for the vast majority of BMS patients^{9,12}. Finally, taste and sensory dysfunction⁵⁰, commonly observed in BMS patients, imply the possibility of alterations in the peripheral and central nervous systems.

Grushka et al⁵⁰ first applied a psychophysical test to investigate the tactile and sensory functions of the oral mucosa in BMS patients. In this study, pain tolerance for the BMS subjects was found to be significantly lower at the tip of the tongue. Other earlier studies also reported similar results^{51,52}. In studies using objective electrophysiological tests^{5,53}, higher stimulus intensities were needed to evoke the R1 component of the blink reflex in BMS patients than in the controls^{5,53}, and the majority of BMS patients showed signs of hypoaesthesia in quantitative sensory tests (QST)⁵.

A more recent study that applied strict diagnostic criteria for primary BMS and meticulous clinical and neurophysiological examinations to exclude patients with subclinical trigeminal neuropathy reaffirmed that BMS patients show negative sensory signs (hypoesthesia and hypoalgesia) in QST⁵⁴. Furthermore, Grémeau-Richard et al⁵⁵ reported that some BMS patients experience a reduction of the burning pain following a lingual nerve block. Taken together, the above data suggest that peripheral neuropathy in the oral mucosal areas may be the underlying cause of the burning sensation, and several previous studies reporting a significant reduction of intraepithelial small diameter nerve fibre density lend support to this possibility^{54,56,57}.

Neuropathic alterations associated with BMS are not always confined to the peripheral nervous system. The electrophysiological findings on BMS patient groups show considerable heterogeneity^{5,53}. Some BMS patients showed negative sensory signs, whereas others showed positive sensory signs (warm allodynia, decreased heat pain tolerance). Furthermore, BMS patients showed generalised sensory abnormalities that were not restricted to the intraoral mucosa^{5,53}. Although lingual nerve block was shown to decrease burning pain in some BMS patients, on others it had no effect⁵⁵. These findings indicate that in BMS, neuropathic alterations can occur in the multilevel of neuraxis.

Some BMS patients have been reported to show sensory signs in the form of deficient habituation of R2 components and low thresholds for the R3 components of the blink reflex test^{5,53,55,58}. These facts imply that the dysfunction is located higher within the nervous system⁵. Deficient habituation of the blink reflex is also a common finding in Parkinson's disease⁵⁹, and appears to be due to a deficient dopaminergic striatal influence on the brainstem nuclei⁶⁰. Likewise, several studies using fluorodopa-positron emission tomography on BMS patients demonstrated a decreased level of endogenous dopamine in the putamen^{61,62}. In one fMRI study⁶³, BMS patients showed less volumetric activation to painful stimuli in the brain than control subjects,

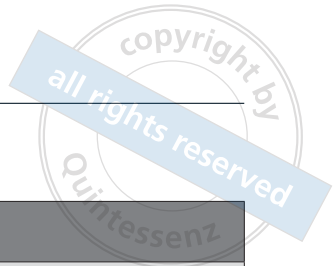


Table 1 Diagnostic tools used to examine psychological problems in BMS patients.

	Diagnostic tools
Psychiatric disorders	Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D) Hamilton Anxiety Rating Test (HAM-A) Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI) Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale Cattell's Anxiety Test Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview-PLUS (MINI-PLUS) Symptom Checklist-90-Revised (SCL-90-R)
Personality traits	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder, 4th edition (DSM-IV) NEO Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R) Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 (MMPI-2) Big Five Inventory (BFI) Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI) Toronto Alexithymia Scale-20 (TAS-20)

and the brain activity patterns in BMS patients were similar to those in other types of neuropathic patients.

On the basis of existing evidence, BMS is thought to occur through neuropathic mechanisms at the peripheral and the central nervous system levels, or both. However, the cause of neuropathic changes is still unknown, although hypotheses based on repeated epithelial nerve fibre trauma^{2,64} or neuroactive steroid depletion⁶⁵ have been proposed.

Psychological features of BMS patients

Over the past decades, psychological problems have been commonly reported in BMS patients, and many studies have been conducted to clarify the relationship between BMS and psychological problems. In 1987, an objective and standardised personality test, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, was first employed to investigate the psychological characteristics of BMS patients⁶⁶. Since then, several studies using various psychometric tests (Table 1) have been conducted, and much evidence for psychiatric comorbidities in BMS has been accumulated^{15,17-20,67,68}. On the basis of the results of previous studies, patients with BMS, similar to other patients with chronic pain, have a higher risk of psychological distress than healthy individuals – the most common psychological problems in BMS patients being anxiety, depression, cancer phobia, and hypochondriasis. A recent systematic review of psychiatric aspects

of BMS reaffirmed the high prevalence of anxiety and depression in BMS patients⁶⁹. One study reported that a large proportion of BMS patients had a history of hospitalisation with previous psychiatric illness, or were currently receiving psychiatric treatments^{15,70}. Interestingly, some authors found that BMS patients were more likely to have experienced stressful life events recently or early in life than normal controls^{17,18,70}. This fact may explain some of the relationships between BMS and psychological problems.

Many studies have examined the psychological problems in BMS patients in terms of personality using various diagnostic tools (Table 1). Regarding personality characteristics, BMS patients were found to be significantly different from control subjects⁷¹⁻⁷³, and showed higher levels of neuroticism⁷²⁻⁷⁵ and lower levels of novelty seeking⁷⁶. Pain catastrophizing defined as an exaggerated negative orientation towards actual or anticipated pain experiences⁷⁷, was also found to be significantly higher in BMS patients than in normal controls⁶⁸. These aberrant personality traits in BMS patients have been observed in other chronic pain patients⁷⁸.

Pathophysiology of BMS based on psychological factors

The high comorbidity rates of psychiatric conditions in BMS suggest that psychological problems are important in its pathophysiology, and several hypotheses

have been proposed to explain the role of psychological problems in the occurrence and development of BMS (Fig 1).

The relationship between BMS and psychological factors may be related to oral parafunctional habits. The etiology of oral parafunctional habits, such as bruxism, is probably multifactorial, and psychological problems are also considered to be among causative factors⁷⁹. In BMS patients, oral parafunctional habits and anxiety are significantly related³⁵. Thus, psychological problems can cause oral parafunctional habits, which can ultimately lead to neuropathic changes in the oral mucosa through small nerve fiber damage. Psychological problems and related medications are causative factors of dry mouth⁸⁰, which can further aggravate the occurrence of microtrauma in the oral mucosa caused by oral parafunctional habits.

An interesting hypothesis has been published regarding the link between psychological distress and hormonal changes during the menopause, which are common features of BMS⁶⁵. It is well known that psychological distress can induce hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal axis dysfunction and steroid dysregulation. Previous studies have reported elevated cortisol levels in patients with anxiety, major depression and chronic stress⁸¹⁻⁸⁶. In a comparative study of BMS patients and normal controls, BMS patients showed higher anxiety scores and cortisol levels⁶⁷. Steroid dysregulation induced by psychological distress could result in neurodegenerative changes in the oral mucosal tissues, and the depletion of neuroactive steroids because of menopausal hormonal changes could further promote these changes⁶⁵. This phenomenon could lead to oral burning pain and other symptoms of BMS.

Psychological problems can also cause oral burning sensations as a result of taste disturbances, which are one of the symptom triads of BMS and a common clinical characteristic in BMS patients. Previous studies have reported an association between taste and pain perception. Applying sucrose to the tongue decreased the burning sensation induced by capsaicin⁸⁷, and conversely, interruption of taste signal transmission (chorda tympani nerve block or topical anaesthesia of the mouth) intensified the oral burning sensation^{88,89}. These findings suggested that taste stimulation may result in centrally mediated inhibition of the trigeminal nociceptive pathway, and central disinhibition due to taste dysfunction may increase oral pain perception⁶⁴. In addition, taste disturbance was strongly associated with psychological distress^{90,91}, and cortisol levels may affect taste perception⁹². Therefore, psychological distress could alter taste perception and consequently

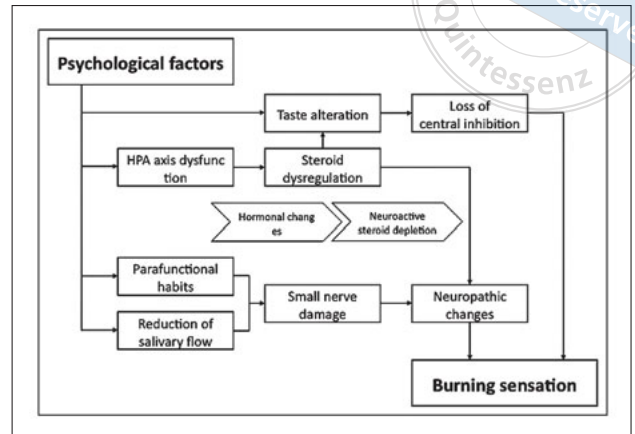


Fig 1 Possible pathophysiology of burning mouth syndrome based on psychological factors.

exacerbate oral burning sensations, as well as other oral symptoms of BMS.

Changes in the central nervous system also suggest a connection between psychological problems and BMS. Low dopamine levels in the brain are frequently found in patients with depressive illness⁹³, and they are also associated with BMS. Low dopamine levels in the brain may increase the vulnerability of some individuals to BMS incidence. This possibility is supported by the fact that BMS patients who have burning pain related to central nervous system etiologies frequently have anxiety and depression⁵⁵.

Relationships between psychological factors and BMS

Psychological factors and BMS, the chicken or egg problem

Because psychological problems are common in BMS patients, and are considered to play an important role in its pathophysiology, many authors have suggested that BMS may be a somatoform disorder or a psychogenic problem^{1,69,94,95}. Previous studies demonstrated that stressful life events precede BMS incidence⁷⁰, and the majority of BMS patients have psychiatric disorders or a history of psychiatric treatment before BMS onset^{15,70,96}. Anxiety and depression have been identified as major risk factors in previous studies based on

regression analysis^{18,19}. The fact that the majority of BMS patients have unexplained extraoral comorbidities also suggests that BMS may be a somatoform disorder⁹⁵.

However, there are studies that refute the suggestion that psychological factors cause BMS. Contradictory results exist on the prevalence of psychological problems among BMS patients. One study reported that only 21% BMS patients have severe psychological distress⁹⁷, and another reported that only one-third of patients have an underlying psychiatric diagnosis⁹⁸. It has also been reported that personality profiles do not differ significantly between BMS patients and controls⁹⁹. These findings suggest that the presence of psychological problems may not be a common feature in BMS patients, and that BMS can occur in the absence of psychological problems¹⁰⁰. In a study examining 69 variables as potential risk factors for BMS, only three neurological variables were significant in BMS cases, and no psychological variables were relevant¹⁰¹. Because psychologically distressed patients tend to seek treatment, and many studies usually involve patients seeking treatment, the prevalence of psychological problems in BMS patients may be overestimated¹⁰².

Psychological dysfunctions are also common in other chronic pain disorders, such as atypical facial pain and temporomandibular disorders^{2,103}, and the psychological characteristics of BMS patients are similar to those found in other chronic pain patients⁶⁶.

Therefore, some researchers claim that psychological problems in BMS patients are a secondary to pain^{51,66}. Similar to the other chronic pain disorders, a prolonged period of pain and a long history of repetitive unsuccessful treatments may relate to the onset of psychological problems⁷¹. However, some previous studies found that symptom severity and duration were not associated with psychological problems^{7,15,104}. Therefore, it appears that the relationship between BMS and psychological problems is more complicated than a simple causal relationship.

Psychological problems as an aggravating factor

Based on current knowledge, it is difficult to determine whether psychological problems are the main cause or they are just a secondary effect. They do, however, appear to be aggravating factors in BMS symptoms, and BMS patients with psychological problems tend to suffer from greater levels of pain^{23,66}. In a study investigating the relationship between the catastrophizing trait and BMS symptoms, the catastrophizing score was significantly correlated with symptom intensity¹⁰⁴. Conversely, there are other studies showing that pain intensity and psycho-

logical problems are not associated^{7,15}. These contradictory results can be explained by the fact that BMS is a multifactorial disorder; hence, various factors – including psychological factors – can affect BMS symptoms.

BMS patients with psychological problems do not respond well to treatment^{22,23}, and a bad prognostic index may be associated with hypochondria and other phobias in BMS patients². Thus, it is important to evaluate and manage psychological problems in BMS patients, especially in those with a poor prognosis.

Management of BMS

Given the chronic nature of BMS and the decreased quality of life seen in BMS patients, it is necessary to identify effective treatment modalities. Nevertheless, there is no definitive clinical guideline for BMS management because of the complexity of the pathophysiology. Although a variety of medications, behavioural approaches, psychotherapy and many other modalities have been proposed for BMS (Table 2), its treatment remains unsatisfactory.

In retrospective studies, symptomatic improvement was observed in less than half of the patients during long-term follow-up.

Complete remission is rare, and has been reported to be only 3%^{13,105}. Thus, BMS management is clinically challenging. BMS treatment is supportive in nature, and is aimed at alleviating symptoms and improving the quality of life. For effective management, a multidisciplinary approach combining careful assessment of a patient's condition and various treatment modalities is needed.

Initial treatment

Before treatment begins it is important to communicate information regarding the nature of BMS and to reassure the patient. Explanation should be provided that BMS is a chronic pain disorder unrelated to intraoral problems (oral mucosal lesions, prosthesis, etc), that BMS etiology is not still fully understood, there is no definite treatment, and it is necessary to relieve symptoms through possible treatments.

Regarding the effects of cancer phobia on BMS symptoms, it should be emphasised that BMS is not a life-threatening disease and is not associated with malignant conditions. Lack of objective information regarding the disease is a major cause of concern in chronic pain patients¹⁰⁶ and providing them with the right information can eliminate the negative thinking and behavioural patterns associated with the symptoms¹⁰⁷.

Reassurance can help control psychological problems, including anxiety due to chronic pain, as well as contribute to symptom reduction. Reassurance alone has been proven to significantly decrease pain intensity and increase the quality of life for patients^{107,108}. This method is particularly relevant in BMS treatment, for which there are no definitive treatments.

Control of parafunctional habits and use of topical lubricants may also be considered as an initial treatment procedure.

Parafunctional habits and repeated oral mucosal microtrauma can cause neuropathic changes through the damage of peripheral small nerve endings². It has been shown that the burning sensation and other symptoms can be significantly decreased with these simple initial treatments^{22,37}. Topical lubricant application with oral habit control is considered an effective initial treatment strategy because it is easy to administer and has no side effects. Pharmacological treatments can be reserved for BMS patients who do not respond to this simple treatment protocol.

Medications

As BMS is considered to have a neuropathic origin, the medications used to treat BMS are similar to those used in other neuropathic pain conditions. Although several medications have been employed for managing BMS (Table 2), most of them are unsupported by controlled studies, and for the majority of patients there is no consistently effective medication. A recently published systematic review on BMS therapy¹⁰⁹ reported the following medications to be effective: clonazepam, alpha-lipoic acid, gabapentin, and capsaicin.

Clonazepam, a benzodiazepine, is an anticonvulsant and is thought to contribute to the reduction of BMS symptoms because of its role as a GABA receptor agonist and to contribute to decreased anxiety levels. It is usually administered orally, although recent studies have focused on topical administration to achieve immediate pharmacological effects and fewer adverse events. Various previous studies have consistently reported the beneficial effects of clonazepam¹¹⁰⁻¹¹³. According to a recent meta-analysis, clonazepam therapy is effective for BMS management, irrespective of treatment duration, administration mode, or dosage¹¹⁴.

Alpha-lipoic acid, which is an antioxidant and potent nerve regeneration agent, has been used in the treatment of diabetic neuropathy. Although many authors have conducted comparative studies investigating the effects of alpha-lipoic acid and placebo on pain reduction, the results have been inconsistent¹¹⁵, and evidence

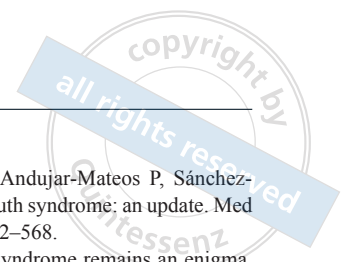
Table 2 Therapeutic modalities used in BMS.

Behavioural therapy and psychotherapy	Modification of oral care product usage Diet control Cessation of parafunctional habits Cognitive psychotherapy
Pharmacological intervention	Antidepressants Anxiolytics Anticonvulsants Antioxidants Capsaicin Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs Sialogogues Dopamine agonists Herbal supplements
Other modalities	Low level laser therapy Acupuncture Transcranial magnetic stimulation Tongue protector

for significant improvement is lacking¹⁰⁹. Nonetheless, because no significant side effects have been reported, alpha-lipoic acid is at least useful as a first line treatment for BMS management. One randomised controlled trial demonstrated that alpha-lipoic acid, gabapentin, and a combination of both medications are more effective in decreasing pain than placebo controls, with combination therapy showing the best results¹¹⁶. However, most studies on the efficacy of gabapentin were poorly designed. Well-designed gabapentin trials for BMS management are needed when considering the role of gabapentin, which has been widely used in the treatment of general neuropathic diseases. Capsaicin regulates oral symptoms by inducing desensitisation of nociceptors. It often exhibits side effects such as temporary pain exacerbation and gastrointestinal disturbance^{117,118}, and therefore proper administration methods should be established.

Cognitive psychotherapy

Cognitive psychotherapy, which is based on the concept that the way we think about things (cognitive structure) affects how we feel emotionally, is focused on replacing dysfunctional cognitive structures. Cognitive psychotherapy is used in the treatment of various psychological disorders, including depression, anxiety, phobias and chronic pain disorders. Considering the relationship



between BMS and psychological factors, cognitive psychotherapy has been proposed as a treatment for BMS. Two studies reported a significant improvement in BMS symptoms following cognitive psychotherapy^{71,119}, suggesting that BMS has a psychological origin.

Several authors have attempted to confirm the efficacy of a combination of psychotherapy and pharmacological interventions. A case report on BMS patients successfully treated using a combination of psychotherapy and the antidepressant sertraline has been published¹²⁰. Another study compared the effects of psychotherapy alone, alpha-lipoic acid alone, and combination therapy (psychotherapy plus alpha-lipoic acid). The results showed that the combination therapy was more effective than the individual treatments¹²¹. Considering the excellent results of combination therapies, further studies on combination therapies are needed.

Conclusion

To date, accumulated research results indicate that psychological problems are frequently observed in BMS patients and play an important role in symptom development and aggravation.

Nevertheless, the detailed mechanisms underlying the relationship between psychological problems and BMS are difficult to establish, and well-designed prospective studies are needed to understand the relationship. For successful management of BMS symptoms in patients, their psychological status should be evaluated, and if psychological factors are found, they should be appropriately managed.

Conflicts of interest

The authors reported no conflicts of interest related to this study.

Author contribution

Dr Moon-Jong KIM collected the literature and prepared the manuscript; Dr Hong-Seop KHO supervised the procedures, revised and approved the manuscript.

(Received Nov 06, 2017; accepted Nov 20, 2017)

References

1. Grushka M, Epstein JB, Gorsky M. Burning mouth syndrome. *Am Fam Physician* 2002;65:615–620.
2. Scala A, Checchi L, Montevecchi M, Marini I, Giamberardino MA. Update on burning mouth syndrome: overview and patient management. *Crit Rev Oral Biol Med* 2003;14:275–291.
3. López-Jornet P, Camacho-Alonso F, Andujar-Mateos P, Sánchez-Siles M, Gómez-García F. Burning mouth syndrome: an update. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal* 2010;15:e562–568.
4. Zakrzewska JM. The burning mouth syndrome remains an enigma. *Pain* 1995;62:253–257.
5. Forssell H, Jääskeläinen S, Tenovuo O, Hinkka S. Sensory dysfunction in burning mouth syndrome. *Pain* 2002;99:41–47.
6. Kohorst JJ, Bruce AJ, Torgerson RR, Schenck LA, Davis MD. The prevalence of burning mouth syndrome: a population-based study. *Br J Dermatol* 2015;172:1654–1656.
7. Bergdahl M, Bergdahl J. Burning mouth syndrome: prevalence and associated factors. *J Oral Pathol Med* 1999;28:350–354.
8. Kohorst JJ, Bruce AJ, Torgerson RR, Schenck LA, Davis MD. A population-based study of the incidence of burning mouth syndrome. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2014;89:1545–1552.
9. Braud A, Touré B, Agbo-Godeau S, Descroix V, Boucher Y. Characteristics of pain assessed with visual analog scale and questionnaire in burning mouth syndrome patients: a pilot study. *J Orofac Pain* 2013;27:235–242.
10. Svensson P, Kaaber S. General health factors and denture function in patients with burning mouth syndrome and matched control subjects. *J Oral Rehabil* 1995;22:887–895.
11. Abetz LM, Savage NW. Burning mouth syndrome and psychological disorders. *Aust Dent J* 2009;54:84–93; quiz 173.
12. Forssell H, Teerijoki-Oksa T, Kotiranta U, et al. Pain and pain behavior in burning mouth syndrome: a pain diary study. *J Orofac Pain* 2012;26:117–125.
13. Sardella A, Lodi G, Demarosi F, Bez C, Cassano S, Carrassi A. Burning mouth syndrome: a retrospective study investigating spontaneous remission and response to treatments. *Oral Dis* 2006;12:152–155.
14. Grushka M. Clinical features of burning mouth syndrome. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1987;63:30–36.
15. Eli I, Kleinhauz M, Baht R, Littner M. Antecedents of burning mouth syndrome (glossodynia) – recent life events vs. psychopathologic aspects. *J Dent Res* 1994;73:567–572.
16. Grinspan D, Fernández Blanco G, Allevato MA, Stengel FM. Burning mouth syndrome. *Int J Dermatol* 1995;34:483–487.
17. Lamey PJ, Freeman R, Eddie SA, Pankhurst C, Rees T. Vulnerability and presenting symptoms in burning mouth syndrome. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2005;99:48–54.
18. Gao J, Chen L, Zhou J, Peng J. A case-control study on etiological factors involved in patients with burning mouth syndrome. *J Oral Pathol Med* 2009;38:24–28.
19. Schiavone V, Adamo D, Ventrella G, et al. Anxiety, depression, and pain in burning mouth syndrome: first chicken or egg? *Headache* 2012;52:1019–1025.
20. de Souza FT, Teixeira AL, Amaral TM, et al. Psychiatric disorders in burning mouth syndrome. *J Psychosom Res* 2012;72:142–146.
21. Bergdahl J, Anneroth G, Perris H. Cognitive therapy in the treatment of patients with resistant burning mouth syndrome: a controlled study. *J Oral Pathol Med* 1995;24:213–215.
22. Ko JY, Park IH, Park HK, Kho HS. Outcome predictors of initial treatment with topical lubricant and parafunctional habit control in burning mouth syndrome (BMS). *Arch Gerontol Geriatr* 2011;53:263–269.
23. Ko JY, Kim MJ, Lee SG, Kho HS. Outcome predictors affecting the efficacy of clonazepam therapy for the management of burning mouth syndrome (BMS). *Arch Gerontol Geriatr* 2012;55:755–761.
24. Lauria G, Majorana A, Borgna M, et al. Trigeminal small-fiber sensory neuropathy causes burning mouth syndrome. *Pain* 2005;115:332–337.
25. Yilmaz Z, Renton T, Yiangou Y, et al. Burning mouth syndrome as a trigeminal small fibre neuropathy: Increased heat and capsaicin receptor TRPV1 in nerve fibres correlates with pain score. *J Clin Neurosci* 2007;14:864–871.

26. Terai H, Shimahara M. Tongue pain: burning mouth syndrome vs Candida-associated lesion. *Oral Dis* 2007;13:440–442.

27. Virgili A, Corazza M, Trombelli L, Arcidiacono A. Burning mouth syndrome: the role of contact hypersensitivity. *Acta Derm Venereol* 1996;76:488–490.

28. Marino R, Capaccio P, Pignataro L, Spadari F. Burning mouth syndrome: the role of contact hypersensitivity. *Oral Dis* 2009;15:255–258.

29. van Joost T, van Ulsen J, van Loon LA. Contact allergy to denture materials in the burning mouth syndrome. *Contact Dermatitis* 1988;18:97–99.

30. Dutrée-Meulenberg RO, Kozel MM, van Joost T. Burning mouth syndrome: a possible etiologic role for local contact hypersensitivity. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1992;26:935–940.

31. Purello-D'Ambrosio F, Gangemi S, Minciullo P, Ricciardi L, Merendino RA. Burning mouth syndrome due to cadmium in a denture wearer. *J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol* 2000;10:105–106.

32. Pigatto PD, Guzzi G, Persichini P, Barbadillo S. Recovery from mercury-induced burning mouth syndrome due to mercury allergy. *Dermatitis* 2004;15:75–77.

33. Patton LL, Siegel MA, Benoliel R, De Laat A. Management of burning mouth syndrome: systematic review and management recommendations. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2007;103 Suppl:S39.e1–13.

34. Lamey PJ, Lamb AB. Prospective study of aetiological factors in burning mouth syndrome. *Br Med J (Clin Res Ed)* 1988;296:1243–1246.

35. Paterson AJ, Lamb AB, Clifford TJ, Lamey PJ. Burning mouth syndrome: the relationship between the HAD scale and parafunctional habits. *J Oral Pathol Med* 1995;24:289–292.

36. Boras VV, Brailo V, Lukac J, Kordić D, Blazić-Potočki Z. Salivary interleukin-6 and tumor necrosis factor-alpha in patients with burning mouth syndrome. *Oral Dis* 2006;12:353–355.

37. Kho HS, Lee JS, Lee EJ, Lee JY. The effects of parafunctional habit control and topical lubricant on discomforts associated with burning mouth syndrome (BMS). *Arch Gerontol Geriatr* 2010;51:95–99.

38. Gorsky M, Silverman S Jr, Chinn H. Clinical characteristics and management outcome in the burning mouth syndrome. An open study of 130 patients. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1991;72:192–195.

39. Mandel ID. The functions of saliva. *J Dent Res* 1987;66:623–627.

40. Maresky LS, van der Bijl P, Gird I. Burning mouth syndrome. Evaluation of multiple variables among 85 patients. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1993;75:303–307.

41. López-Jornet P, Camacho-Alonso F, Andujar-Mateos P, Sánchez-Siles M, Gómez-García F. Burning mouth syndrome: an update. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal* 2010;15:e562–568.

42. Coculescu EC, Tovar S, Coculescu BI. Epidemiological and etiological aspects of burning mouth syndrome. *J Med Life* 2014;7:305–309.

43. Klasser GD, Grushka M, Su N. Burning Mouth Syndrome. *Oral Maxillofac Surg Clin North Am* 2016;28:381–396.

44. Wardrop RW, Hailes J, Burger H, Reade PC. Oral discomfort at menopause. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1989;67:535–540.

45. Ben Aryeh H, Gottlieb I, Ish-Shalom S, David A, Szargel H, Laufer D. Oral complaints related to menopause. *Maturitas* 1996;24:185–189.

46. Basker RM, Sturdee DW, Davenport JC. Patients with burning mouths. A clinical investigation of causative factors, including the climacteric and diabetes. *Br Dent J* 1978;145:9–16.

47. Odrich M, Bailey JM, Cahill CM, Gilron I. Chronobiological characteristics of painful diabetic neuropathy and postherpetic neuralgia: diurnal pain variation and effects of analgesic therapy. *Pain* 2006;120:207–212.

48. Takada T, Yamashita A, Date A, et al. Changes in the circadian rhythm of mRNA expression for μ -opioid receptors in the periaqueductal gray under a neuropathic pain-like state. *Synapse* 2013;67:216–223.

49. Gilron I, Bailey JM, Vandenberg EG. Chronobiological characteristics of neuropathic pain: clinical predictors of diurnal pain rhythmicity. *Clin J Pain* 2013;29:755–759.

50. Grushka M, Sessle BJ, Howley TP. Psychophysical assessment of tactile, pain and thermal sensory functions in burning mouth syndrome. *Pain* 1987;28:169–184.

51. Grushka M, Sessle BJ. Burning mouth syndrome. *Dent Clin North Am* 1991;35:171–184.

52. Svensson P, Bjerring P, Arendt-Nielsen L, Kaaber S. Sensory and pain thresholds to orofacial argon laser stimulation in patients with chronic burning mouth syndrome. *Clin J Pain* 1993;9:207–215.

53. Jääskeläinen SK, Forssell H, Tenovuo O. Abnormalities of the blink reflex in burning mouth syndrome. *Pain* 1997;73:455–460.

54. Puhakka A, Forssell H, Soinila S, et al. Peripheral nervous system involvement in primary burning mouth syndrome – results of a pilot study. *Oral Dis* 2016;22:338–344.

55. Grémeau-Richard C, Dubray C, Aublet-Cuvelier B, Ughetto S, Woda A. Effect of lingual nerve block on burning mouth syndrome (stomatodynia): a randomized crossover trial. *Pain* 2010;149:27–32.

56. Lauria G, Majorana A, Borgna M, et al. Trigeminal small-fiber sensory neuropathy causes burning mouth syndrome. *Pain* 2005;115:332–337.

57. Yilmaz Z, Renton T, Yiangou Y, et al. Burning mouth syndrome as a trigeminal small fibre neuropathy: Increased heat and capsaicin receptor TRPV1 in nerve fibres correlates with pain score. *J Clin Neurosci* 2007;14:864–871.

58. Granot M, Nagler RM. Association between regional idiopathic neuropathy and salivary involvement as the possible mechanism for oral sensory complaints. *J Pain* 2005;6:581–587.

59. Kimura J. Disorder of interneurons in Parkinsonism. The orbicularis oculi reflex to paired stimuli. *Brain* 1973;96:87–96.

60. Evinger C, Basso MA, Manning KA, Sibony PA, Pellegrini JJ, Horn AK. A role for the basal ganglia in nicotinic modulation of the blink reflex. *Exp Brain Res* 1993;92:507–515.

61. Jääskeläinen SK, Rinne JO, Forssell H, et al. Role of the dopaminergic system in chronic pain – a fluorodopa-PET study. *Pain* 2001;90:257–260.

62. Hagelberg N, Forssell H, Aalto S, et al. Altered dopamine D2 receptor binding in atypical facial pain. *Pain* 2003;106:43–48.

63. Albuquerque RJ, de Leeuw R, Carlson CR, Okeson JP, Miller CS, Andersen AH. Cerebral activation during thermal stimulation of patients who have burning mouth disorder: an fMRI study. *Pain* 2006;122:223–234.

64. Kolkka-Palomaa M, Jääskeläinen SK, Laine MA, Teerijoki-Oksa T, Sandell M, Forssell H. Pathophysiology of primary burning mouth syndrome with special focus on taste dysfunction: a review. *Oral Dis* 2015;21:937–948.

65. Woda A, Dao T, Grémeau-Richard C. Steroid dysregulation and stomatodynia (burning mouth syndrome). *J Orofac Pain* 2009;23:202–210.

66. Grushka M, Sessle BJ, Miller R. Pain and personality profiles in burning mouth syndrome. *Pain* 1987;28:155–167.

67. Amenábar JM, Pawlowski J, Hilgert JB, et al. Anxiety and salivary cortisol levels in patients with burning mouth syndrome: case-control study. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2008;105:460–465.

68. Matsuoka H, Himachi M, Furukawa H, et al. Cognitive profile of patients with burning mouth syndrome in the Japanese population. *Odontology* 2010;98:160–164.

69. Galli F, Lodi G, Sardella A, Vegni E. Role of psychological factors in burning mouth syndrome: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Cephalalgia* 2017;37:265–277.

70. Hakeberg M, Hallberg LR, Berggren U. Burning mouth syndrome: experiences from the perspective of female patients. *Eur J Oral Sci* 2003;111:305–311.

71. Bergdahl J, Anneroth G, Perris H. Personality characteristics of patients with resistant burning mouth syndrome. *Acta Odontol Scand* 1995;53:7–11.
72. Trikkas G, Nikolatou O, Samara C, Bazopoulou-Kyrkanidou E, Rabavilas AD, Christodoulou GN. Glossodynia: personality characteristics and psychopathology. *Psychother Psychosom* 1996;65: 163–168.
73. Maina G, Albert U, Gandolfo S, Vitalucci A, Bogetto F. Personality disorders in patients with burning mouth syndrome. *J Pers Disord* 2005;19:84–93.
74. Al Quran FA. Psychological profile in burning mouth syndrome. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2004;97:339–344.
75. de Souza FT, Kummer A, Silva ML, et al. The association of openness personality trait with stress-related salivary biomarkers in burning mouth syndrome. *Neuroimmunomodulation* 2015;22:250–255.
76. Tokura T, Kimura H, Ito M, et al. Temperament and character profiles of patients with burning mouth syndrome. *J Psychosom Res* 2015;78: 495–498.
77. Van Damme S, Crombez G, Bijttebier P, Goubert L, Van Houdenhove B. A confirmatory factor analysis of the Pain Catastrophizing Scale: invariant factor structure across clinical and non-clinical populations. *Pain* 2002;96:319–324.
78. Conrad R, Wegener I, Geiser F, Kleiman A. Temperament, character, and personality disorders in chronic pain. *Curr Pain Headache Rep* 2013;17:318.
79. Yap AU, Chua AP. Sleep bruxism: current knowledge and contemporary management. *J Conserv Dent* 2016;19:383–389.
80. Scully C. Drug effects on salivary glands: dry mouth. *Oral Dis* 2003;9:165–176.
81. Breier A. AE Bennett award paper. Experimental approaches to human stress research: assessment of neurobiological mechanisms of stress in volunteers and psychiatric patients. *Biol Psychiatry* 1989;26: 438–462.
82. Heuser I, Lammers CH. Stress and the brain. *Neurobiol Aging* 2003;24:S69–S76.
83. Tafet GE, Bernardini R. Psychoneuroendocrinological links between chronic stress and depression. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry* 2003;27:893–903.
84. Parker KJ, Schatzberg AF, Lyons DM. Neuroendocrine aspects of hypercortisolism in major depression. *Horm Behav* 2003;43:60–66.
85. Tse WS, Bond AJ. Relationship between baseline cortisol, social functioning and depression: a mediation analysis. *Psychiatry Res* 2004;126:197–201.
86. Kahl KG, Bens S, Ziegler K, et al. Cortisol, the cortisol-dehydroepiandrosterone ratio, and pro-inflammatory cytokines in patients with current major depressive disorder comorbid with borderline personality disorder. *Biol Psychiatry* 2006;59:667–671.
87. Schöbel N, Kyereme J, Minovi A, Dazert S, Bartoshuk L, Hatt H. Sweet taste and chorda tympani transection alter capsaicin-induced lingual pain perception in adult human subjects. *Physiol Behav* 2012;107:368–373.
88. Formaker BK, Mott AE, Frank ME. The effects of topical anesthesia on oral burning in burning mouth syndrome. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1998;855:776–780.
89. Tie K, Fast K, Kveton J, et al. Anesthesia of chorda tympani nerve and effect on oral pain. *Chem Senses* 1999;24:609.
90. Bergdahl M, Bergdahl J. Perceived taste disturbance in adults: prevalence and association with oral and psychological factors and medication. *Clin Oral Investig* 2002;6:145–149.
91. Davies SJ, Underhill HC, Abdel-Karim A, et al. Individual oral symptoms in burning mouth syndrome may be associated differentially with depression and anxiety. *Acta Odontol Scand* 2016;74:155–160.
92. Fehm-Wolfsdorf G, Scheible E, Zenz H, Born J, Fehm HL. Taste thresholds in man are differentially influenced by hydrocortisone and dexamethasone. *Psychoneuroendocrinology* 1989;14:433–440.
93. Lambert G, Johansson M, Agren H, Friberg P. Reduced brain norepinephrine and dopamine release in treatment-refractory depressive illness: evidence in support of the catecholamine hypothesis of mood disorders. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2000;57:787–793.
94. Takenoshita M, Sato T, Kato Y, et al. Psychiatric diagnoses in patients with burning mouth syndrome and atypical odontalgia referred from psychiatric to dental facilities. *Neuropsychiatr Dis Treat* 2010;6: 699–705.
95. Mignogna MD, Pollio A, Fortuna G, et al. Unexplained somatic comorbidities in patients with burning mouth syndrome: a controlled clinical study. *J Orofac Pain* 2011;25:131–140.
96. Taiminen T, Kuusalo L, Lehtinen L, et al. Psychiatric (axis I) and personality (axis II) disorders in patients with burning mouth syndrome or atypical facial pain. *Scand J Pain* 2011;2:155–160.
97. Carlson CR, Miller CS, Reid KI. Psychosocial profiles of patients with burning mouth syndrome. *J Orofac Pain* 2000;14:59–64.
98. Drage LA, Rogers RS 3rd. Clinical assessment and outcome in 70 patients with complaints of burning or sore mouth symptoms. *Mayo Clin Proc* 1999;74:223–228.
99. Merigo E, Manfredi M, Zanetti MR, Miazza D, Pedrazzi G, Vescovi P. Burning mouth syndrome and personality profiles [Article in English, Italian]. *Minerva Stomatol* 2007;56:159–167.
100. Bogetto F, Maina G, Ferro G, Carbone M, Gandolfo S. Psychiatric comorbidity in patients with burning mouth syndrome. *Psychosom Med* 1998;60:378–385.
101. Mendak-Ziólko M, Konopka T, Bogucki ZA. Evaluation of select neurophysiological, clinical and psychological tests for burning mouth syndrome. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol* 2012;114:325–332.
102. Marbach JJ. Medically unexplained chronic orofacial pain. Temporomandibular pain and dysfunction syndrome, orofacial phantom pain, burning mouth syndrome, and trigeminal neuralgia. *Med Clin North Am* 1999;83:691–710.
103. Woda A, Pionchon P. A unified concept of idiopathic orofacial pain: clinical features. *J Orofac Pain* 1999;13:172–84.
104. Rogulj AA, Richter I, Brailo V, Krstevski I, Boras VV. Catastrophizing in patients with burning mouth syndrome. *Acta Stomatol Croat* 2014;48:109–115.
105. Rodríguez-de Rivera-Campillo E, López-López J. Evaluation of the response to treatment and clinical evolution in patients with burning mouth syndrome. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal* 2013;18:e403–e410.
106. Newton BJ, Southall JL, Raphael JH, Ashford RL, LeMarchand K. A narrative review of the impact of disbelief in chronic pain. *Pain Manag Nurs* 2013;14:161–171.
107. Brailo V, Firić M, Vučićević Boras V, Andabak Rogulj A, Krstevski I, Alajbeg I. Impact of reassurance on pain perception in patients with primary burning mouth syndrome. *Oral Dis* 2016;22:512–516.
108. Trombelli L, Zangari F, Calura G. The psychological aspects of patients with the burning mouth syndrome [Article in Italian]. *Minerva Stomatol* 1994;43:215–221.
109. Liu YF, Kim Y, Yoo T, Han P, Inman JC. Burning mouth syndrome: a systematic review of treatments. *Oral Dis* 2017 Mar 1. doi:10.1111/odi.12660. [Epub ahead of print]
110. Woda A, Navez ML, Picard P, Gremeau C, Pichard-Leandri E. A possible therapeutic solution for stomatodynia (burning mouth syndrome). *J Orofac Pain* 1998;12:272–278.
111. Grushka M, Epstein J, Mott A. An open-label, dose escalation pilot study of the effect of clonazepam in burning mouth syndrome. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 1998;86:557–561.
112. Gremeau-Richard C, Woda A, Navez ML, et al. Topical clonazepam in stomatodynia: a randomised placebo-controlled study. *Pain* 2004;108:51–57.
113. Amos K, Yeoh SC, Farah CS. Combined topical and systemic clonazepam therapy for the management of burning mouth syndrome: a retrospective pilot study. *J Orofac Pain* 2011;25:125–130.

114. Cui Y, Xu H, Chen FM, et al. Efficacy evaluation of clonazepam for symptom remission in burning mouth syndrome: a meta-analysis. *Oral Dis* 2016;22:503–511.
115. Ducasse D, Courtet P, Olie E. Burning mouth syndrome: current clinical, physiopathologic, and therapeutic data. *Reg Anesth Pain Med* 2013;38:380–390.
116. López-D'alessandro E, Escovich L. Combination of alpha lipoic acid and gabapentin, its efficacy in the treatment of Burning Mouth Syndrome: a randomized, double-blind, placebo controlled trial. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal* 2011;16:e635–e640.
117. Petruzzi M, Lauritano D, De Benedittis M, Baldoni M, Serpico R. Systemic capsaicin for burning mouth syndrome: short-term results of a pilot study. *J Oral Pathol Med* 2004;33:111–114.
118. Silvestre FJ, Silvestre-Rangil J, Tamarit-Santafé C, Bautista D. Application of a capsaicin rinse in the treatment of burning mouth syndrome. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal* 2012;17:e1–e4.
119. Miziara ID, Filho BC, Oliveira R, Rodrigues dos Santos RM. Group psychotherapy: an additional approach to burning mouth syndrome. *J Psychosom Res* 2009;67:443–448.
120. Van Houdenhove B, Joostens P. Burning mouth syndrome. Successful treatment with combined psychotherapy and psychopharmacotherapy. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry* 1995;17:385–388.
121. Femiano F, Gombos F, Scully C. Burning Mouth Syndrome: open trial of psychotherapy alone, medication with alpha-lipoic acid (thioctic acid), and combination therapy [Article in English, Spanish]. *Med Oral* 2004;9:8–13.