



EVALUATION OF PSYCHOSOCIAL ASPECTS IN PATIENTS WITH TMD: CATASTROPHIC PAIN, ANXIETY AND DEPRESSION - LITERATURE REVIEW

²Sabrina Noda, ²Tatiana Maia dos Reis Silva, ²Bárbara Borella Fernandes, ²Juliana dos Reis Dercelli, ²Taylane Berlanga de Araújo Soffener, ²Vera Lucia Bernardes, ^{1*}Idiberto José Zotarelli Filho and ²Carolina Almeida Rodrigues

¹Post Graduate and Continuing Education (Unipos), Street Ipiranga, 3460, São José do Rio Preto SP, Brazil 15020-040
²University Center of the Educational Foundation of Barretos, SP/Brazil- UNIFEB

ARTICLE INFO

Article History:

Received 08th September, 2017
Received in revised form
05th October, 2017
Accepted 15th November, 2017
Published online 29th December, 2017

Key Words:

Psychosocial aspects,
Temporo-mandibular dysfunction,
Catastrophic Pain,
Anxiety and Depression.

ABSTRACT

The temporomandibular joint (TMJ) is certainly one of the most complex joints of the human body and, as part of the stomatognathic system, is directly related to general physiological functions. It is a structure that undergoes continuous structural changes, being able to be by modeling or bone remodeling and are responsible for the adaptation of the articular tissue in front of the continuous forces that act on this one. Thus, the surgeon-dentist must be aware of the involvement of psychological, emotional and social factors in these patients, since many organic symptoms have an emotional substrate. It can be said that most of the symptoms of TMD are of a mild nature, fluctuate over time and do not constitute functional impotence for patient. However, some individuals evolve to chronic pain and tend to potentiate pain perception at the expense of unfavorable emotional manifestations.

Copyright ©2017, Sabrina Noda et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Citation: Sabrina Noda, Tatiana Maia dos Reis Silva, Bárbara Borella Fernandes et al. 2017. Evaluation of psychosocial aspects in patients with TMD: Catastrophic Pain, Anxiety and Depression - Literature Review", *International Journal of Development Research*, 9, (12), 17425-17431.

INTRODUCTION

The temporomandibular joint (TMJ) is certainly one of the most complex joints of the human body and, as part of the stomatognathic system, is directly related to general physiological functions. It interconnects independent tissues, maintaining the efficiency of movements and stability of the mandible, is responsible for masticatory movements and functional activities, such as talking, chewing and swallowing, in addition to parafunctional activities, which escape its normal functioning, are performed without a specific objective and unconsciously (1). It is a structure that undergoes continuous structural changes, being able to be by modeling or bone remodeling and are responsible for the adaptation of the articular tissue in front of the continuous forces that act on this one. When changes exceed the physiological limit of this joint, of the associated muscles and tissues, situations represented in

the form of pain, alteration and / or movement restriction, lead to the clinical picture that we call Temporomandibular Disorders (TMD) (1,2). The American Academy of Orofacial Pain defines TMD as a set of disorders involving masticatory muscles, TMJ and associated structures. It is also pointed out as the main cause of non-dental pain in the orofacial region, including head, face and related structures (3). Pain from these regions is considered musculoskeletal, and may be of muscular origin, joint origin or both (mixed TMD). The term TMD is generic and involves several subgroups of musculoskeletal pain, whether acute or chronic, often related to mandibular activity (3,4). Thus, the surgeon-dentist must be aware of the involvement of psychological, emotional and social factors in these patients, since many organic symptoms have an emotional substrate (10). It can be said that most of the symptoms of TMD are of a mild nature, fluctuate over time and do not constitute functional impotence for patients (11).

However, some individuals evolve to chronic pain and tend to potentiate pain perception at the expense of unfavorable emotional manifestations (12,13).

METHODS

Experimental and clinical studies were included (case reports, retrospective, prospective and randomized trials) with qualitative and / or quantitative analysis. Initially, the key words were determined by searching the DeCS tool (Descriptors in Health Sciences, BIREME base) and later verified and validated by MeSh system (Medical Subject Headings, the US National Library of Medicine) in order to achieve consistent search.

Mesh Terms

The words were included. For further specification, the "Psychosocial aspects; Tempero-mandibular dysfunction; Catastrophic Pain, Anxiety and Depression." description for refinement was added during searches. The literature search was conducted through online databases: Pubmed, Periodicos.com and Google Scholar. It was stipulated deadline, and the related search covering all available literature on virtual libraries.

Series of Articles and Eligibility

A total of 125 articles were found involving temporomandibular dysfunction. Initially, it was held the exclusion existing title and duplications in accordance with the interest described this work. After this process, the summaries were evaluated and a new exclusion was held. A total of 96 articles were evaluated in full, and 83 were included and discussed in this study.

Literature Review

Orofacial pain is considered a significant group of disorders characterized by the presence of pain between the orbitomeatal line and the inferior margin of the anterior triangle of the neck. It includes conditions that appear in high prevalence in the general population, such as pulpal or periodontal processes, sinusitis, trigeminal neuralgia, muscle pain and temporomandibular disorders (TMD) (2,3). Some authors consider chronic pain, those that persist for more than 12 months (4,5). However, the International Association for the Study of Pain (IASP, 1986) advocates that pain is considered chronic when it persists for at least 3 to 6 months, which is widely followed in clinical research (5,6). One of the frequently found subtypes of Orofacial Pain, TMD, is defined according to the American Dental Association (ADA), as a result of changes affecting temporomandibular joint (TMJ), masticatory muscles and / or associated structures (6-9 , 15-19), being manifested as pain in the pre-auricular region, the temporomandibular joint or the masticatory muscles, limitation or deviation of mandibular movements, articular noises during mandibular function and palpation (20-26).

DTM is one of the main causes of non-dental pain in the orofacial region. Some epidemiological studies show that TMD affects 10% to 15% of the adult population (27-32), with a higher incidence in women between the ages of 20 and 40 years (33,34), occupying the third place in the prevalence of chronic pain after headache and neck pain.

Other studies show that the three main clinical indicators of TMD (pain, limitations in opening of the jaw and joint noises) are present in 5 to 50% of the population at any particular moment of their lives, but they are not always related to the presence of dysfunction (35). TMD is understood as an entity belonging to multisystem problems, with overlapping comorbidities of physical signs and symptoms, as well as behavioral changes in the emotional environment and in social interactions recognized as manifestations of central nervous system dysregulation (37-41), capable of generate health expenditures of up to 60% more than normal subjects (42,43), affecting the subject's quality of life in relation to psychological or social / financial aspects (44-48).

Studies in Brazil have evaluated the impact of orofacial pain on the quality of life of patients with temporomandibular disorder (TMD). For that, 83 individuals, of both genders, ranging from 15 to 70 years of age, were evaluated of orofacial pain compatible with TMD (49-53). Patients were interviewed by a single examiner using the OHIP 14 form, which was calculated by the standard method, assigning specific weights to each question (54-57). The OHIP 14, which can present values between 0 and 28, presented a variation from 0 to 23,24 points and an average of 11.44 points. The OHIP 14 dimensions that presented the highest averages were physical pain and psychological discomfort (2.66 and 2.60), respectively (58-62). The lowest averages were 1.02 and 1.08, corresponding respectively to the functional limitations and disability dimensions. Only in the functional limitations dimension, women had a significantly higher impact on quality of life than men (63-65). Patients with group I (muscle) and group III (arthralgia, arthritis and arthrosis) disorders of the RDC / TMD index presented greater impacts on quality of life than patients who did not present these diagnoses. Patients with diagnosis of group II (disc displacement) reported impact on quality of life similar to those without disc displacement. Therefore, the author concluded that orofacial pain was capable of generating a great impact on the quality of life of patients with TMD (66-69).

In addition, it is known that chronic pain generates costs, sometimes high, for both the patient and the public health service. They underwent a randomized clinical trial to assess the cost of a biopsychosocial intervention with patients who were at high risk of progressing from acute pain to chronic TMD (70-73). 96 patients with acute TMD (duration less than six months), with the risk of progression according to the predictive and randomized algorithm for early intervention (IP (patients undergoing chiropractic treatment, massage therapists, physician, oral surgeon, physiotherapist, or ophthalmologist)) or non-intervention (NI) in the group (73). The NI group received biopsychosocial treatment, which includes cognitive training of behavioral skills and biofeedback. During one year, the groups were followed up and DTM cost data were collected. In terms of values (dollars) spent on health care related to treatment with pain in the jaw region, only the PI group presented a significant reduction compared to the first visit (768.27 average / dollars until the one-year follow-up visit (131.67 mean). The authors suggest that a biopsychosocial intervention is an effective method of treating TMD-related pain, which often involves high and unnecessary costs. It is now believed that stress is the sum of biological reactions to any adverse physical, mental, emotional, internal or external stimulus that tends to disrupt the body's homeostasis. Pain in the temporomandibular region

and chronic pain related to TMDs (78-80). They are more prevalent in young adults, who show high levels of somatic symptomatology and decrease in frequency in the elderly (81). Neither recent norms have shown that there is an interference of emotional factors in the TMD symptomatology. The study by Okino *et al.* (53) evaluated 48 patients diagnosed with TMD and observed that 89.6% of these patients required psychological care, leading to the belief that there is a strong relationship between psychological aspects and chronic pain such as TMD. Others published a study where the group of younger patients (18-35 years) showed a higher incidence of chronic orofacial pain when compared to the older group (64-75 years). This can be explained by the difference caused by the difference in pain perception at different ages (75-79). There is a strong relationship between the degree of disability caused by pain in patients with TMD and the levels of depression and somatization, and the patients who are most incapacitated by pain are those with the highest levels of depression and somatization (80).

Contrary studies also found no coefficient of interaction between the scales used to measure chronic pain, somatization, and depression (81). Similarly, the duration of pain for more than or less than six months did not influence the degree of depression or somatization, only the level of pain-related disability was influenced, demonstrating that chronic pain becomes more incapacitating with time, being more patients with more than 6 months of pain were incapacitated when compared to patients with pain less time, through the application of specific questionnaires in 207 patients diagnosed with TMD. These aspects were analyzed in isolation in patients with chronic TMD and patients with acute TMD (81). When analyzed in a multidimensional manner, depression, anxiety, somatization and comorbidities presented significant differences between the pain groups, as well as depression and somatization alone. No significant differences were found for anxiety and comorbidities alone, suggesting that both may influence pain processes with less expression than depression and somatization processes (82). Psychosocial factors were associated with chronic pain in general and TMD. 1633 control subjects and 185 TMD patients were evaluated through several instruments, evaluating personality, affective suffering, psychosocial stress, somatic awareness, catastrophic and pain coping, so that the probability of the onset of TMD was associated with higher levels of alterations psychosocial, affective distress, catastrophic and somatic pain awareness (1-4). The authors concluded that psychosocial factors are significantly present in TMD subjects when compared to controls, but future prospective analyzes will determine whether the presence of these factors predicts an increased risk of developing TMD (4-7).

As early as 2013, the same author researched the risk factors for TMD and, also if catastrophic, perceived stress and previous negative experiences predicted the onset of TMD. The authors found that general psychological and somatic symptoms (somatization, hypochondriasis, hypervigilance and somatic perception) were considered the greatest predictors of TMD. The presence of general psychological and somatic symptomatology was the major predisposing factor for the appearance of TMD in the two younger groups studied (18-24 years and 25-34 years). However, the oldest group (35-44 years) was the group with the highest incidence of TMD. Stress and negative psychological conditions only reached the level of significance in the appearance of TMDs in situations

where general psychological and somatic symptoms were low but not moderate or high. These results indicate that stress and negative psychological conditions are potential risk factors for the onset of TMD, only in the absence of global symptomatology (5,6). One study evaluated the association between psychological and socio-demographic factors (somatization, depression, stress, anxiety, daytime sleepiness, optimism, gender and age) and pain in patients with TMD, through the follow-up of 320 patients. The psychological status of each patient was assessed with questionnaires, including the Symptom Checklist-90 (SCL-90), Epworth Sleeping Scale (ESS), stress questionnaire and Life-Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R). Pain related to TMD, including pain-related disability intensity, was assessed with characteristic pain intensity (CPI) and disability score scales. The level of pain intensity was significantly associated with severe anxiety ($p = 0.004$), more severe somatization ($p < 0.001$), severe depression ($P < 0.001$), higher levels of stress ($P = 0.001$), and lower optimism ($P = 0.025$). However, a multiple regression analysis showed that only somatization was significantly associated with pain intensity ($p < 0.001$). Concerning the level of pain-related disability, this was significantly associated with severe anxiety ($p < 0.001$), severe somatization ($p < 0.001$), severe depression ($p < 0.001$), high stress levels ($p < 0.001$), and optimism ($p = 0.003$). However, in multiple regression analysis, only depression was significantly associated with pain-related disability ($p = 0.003$). Among the psychological and sociodemographic factors in this study, somatization was the greatest predictor of pain intensity, whereas depression was the greatest predictor of pain-related disability (7).

In addition, studies show that suicidal thoughts are also present in patients with TMD, such as where 1241 patients diagnosed with muscle or joint TMD were evaluated by specific demographic and psychometric instruments for association with suicidal ideation, depression and anxiety. The prevalence of suicidal ideation was 8.4% for "thoughts of ending their life", 28.5% for "feeling hopeless about the future" and 20.5% for "having thoughts of death". The overall prevalence of depression was 30.4% and the overall prevalence of anxiety was 28.9%. Patients with muscular TMD had the highest prevalence of suicidal ideation, just as they were more depressed and anxious than patients with joint TMD and mixed TMD. To conclude, the authors emphasized the need for follow-up of these patients with chronic TMD and suicidal ideals, in addition to other comorbidities associated with TMD (8). A study in China assessed the relationship between psychic suffering and TMD, as well as sleep disorders and psychological distress as predictors of risk for such dysfunction. A number of specific instruments were used to assess the 755 patients with participating TMDs who were divided according to the RDC / TMD diagnostic groups. The prevalence of moderate to extremely severe psychological distress and psychological distress was significantly higher in the myofascial pain group (27.1%, 28.7%, 60.8% and 32.0%) than in the non-myofascial pain group (disc displacement and arthralgia or degenerative joint disease, 11.1%, 10.1%, 27.4% and 11.0%, $p < 0.05$). Self-reported sleep disturbance and psychological distress was significantly higher in patients with myofascial pain than those without myofascial pain ($p < 0.05$) (12). A progressive analysis of the logistic regression showed that subjective sleep quality and sleep disturbance, anxiety and stress were possible risk indicators for myofascial pain and the

results were still significant, even after controlling for age, sex, level ($p < 0.05$), respectively ($P < 0.05$).

DISCUSSION

The temporomandibular joint (TMJ), as part of the stomatognathic system, is considered a complex joint of the human body, being responsible for stability. When changes arise, the physiological limit can lead to pain, alteration and / or movement restriction, generating a clinical condition called Temporomandibular Disorders (TMD) (14). The American Academy of Orofacial Pain defines TMD as a set of disorders involving masticatory muscles, TMJ and associated structures (15,16). Pain from these regions is considered musculoskeletal, and may be of muscular origin, joint origin or both (mixed TMD). It presents difficult diagnosis, since it has a multifactorial origin, and may be related to postural alterations, muscular hyperactivity, occlusal interference, traumatic and / or degenerative TMJ injuries, psycho-behavioral or psychosocial factors such as anxiety, stress and depression (17-22). It is estimated that the three main clinical indicators of TMD (pain, limitations in jaw opening and joint noise) are present in 5.0 to 50.0% of the population at any particular time in their lives, but they are not always related to the presence of dysfunction (23). Other studies show that 75.0% of the population have at least one TMD signal, the simplest being the lack of coordination in mandibular movements or articular noises and 35.0% at least one symptom, such as the presence of pain in the orofacial region or associated structures, limitation in mandibular movements and difficulty in masticatory function (24). In Brazil, the most recent study regarding the prevalence of these disorders, performed in significant community samples, pointed out a prevalence of 36.2% of painful TMD (27).

Chronic TMD has a considerable negative impact on the psychosocial function and well-being of the subjects involved (40,41), as demonstrated by Barros *et al.* (2009), where the orofacial pain was able to generate a significant impact on the subjects' quality of life ($n = 83$) assessed through OHIP-14 (mean score = 11.44). In the same way, using OHIP version 49 questionnaires, comparing four different conditions of orthopedic pain: TMD, acute dental pain (DDA), trigeminal neuralgia (NT) and persistent dentoalveolar pain disorder (DPDD) observed that DPDD and TMD had higher levels of impact on quality of life, 69.8 and 62.3, respectively (42). Many explanations for differences in pain with regard to genders have been proposed and supported by evidence ranging from experimental (eg, because women present a different perception of "worse possible pain" than men, which would affect the use of EVA for both in the same study) to sociocultural (referring for example to the moral principles of man, where he must be stronger to tolerate pain) (4) and the purely biological, involving a differentiated activation of the system of endogenous analgesia between men and women and in the central processing of nociceptive stimuli (5). Generally, men demonstrate strong activation of cognitive areas, central sympathetic area and inhibition of the limbic region, while women exhibit great activation of the affective region and autonomic regions (6). Fluctuations in sex hormone levels play a role in pain sensitivity. Estrogen is considered a risk factor for TMD and other conditions of craniofacial pain, and may have peripheral and central action on pain modulation (10-14). The literature suggests that fluctuating levels of this hormone intensifies musculoskeletal pain. In addition, a probable

influence of the immune system has been proposed (15). It is still important to relate aspects such as catastrophic pain and kinesiophobia, where studies show that patients with a high tendency to catastrophize pain may present higher levels of kinesiophobia, aggravating the individual's fear and behavior in relation to the condition (4,5) and some authors also observed that catastrophizing and kinesiophobia may, in addition to aggravate, act as predictors of chronic pain (12-15). However, it is believed that more controlled studies with long-term follow-up are necessary, evaluating the causal relationship between the biopsychosocial factors discussed and the painful TMD pictures, even to better describe the role of these factors in the transition between acute and chronic pain.

Conclusion

The involvement of psychosocial factors as predictors, perpetuating and / or aggravating painful TMD pictures seems to be indisputable, and it is necessary to improve the acting professional, to distinguish the biological mechanism of pain and the involvement of these aspects, often involving the performance of a multiprofessional team for diagnosis and treatment of psychosocial factors, seeking success in the treatment for pain relief.

Conflict of interest

There is no conflict of interest between authors.

REFERENCES

1. Aggarwal, V. R., Macfarlane, G. J., Farragher, T. M., McBeth, J. 2010. Risk factors for onset of chronic orofacial pain – Results of the North Cheshire oro-facial pain prospective population study. *The Journal of the International Association for the Study of Pain*. 149, pp. 354-359.
2. Ambalavanar R., Mountanni A., Dessem D. 2006. Inflammation of craniofacial muscle induces widespread mechanical allodynia. *Neurosc Lett*, 399: 249-254.
3. Bertoli E, de Leeuw R. 2016. Prevalence of Suicidal Ideation, Depression, and Anxiety in Chronic Temporomandibular Disorder Patients. *J Oral Facial Pain Headache*, 30(4):296-301.
4. Barros VdeM, Seraidarian PI, Córtez MI, de Paula LV. 2009. The impact of orofacial pain on the quality of life of patients with temporomandibular disorder. *J Orofac Pain*. 23:28-37.
5. Barros VM. 2005. Impacto da dor orofacial na qualidade de vida dos pacientes com desordem temporomandibular. Belo Horizonte. 1-136.
6. Bayat M, Abbasi AJ, Noorbala AA, Mohebbi SZ, Moharrami M, Yekaninejad MS. 2017. Oral health-related quality of life in patients with temporomandibular disorders: A case-control study considering psychological aspects. *International Journal of Dental Hygiene*, 1-6; doi: 10.1111/idh.12266
7. Basi DL, Velly AM, Schiffman ELS, Lenton PA, Besspiata DA, Rankin AM *et al.* 2012. Human temporomandibular joint and myofascial pain, biochemical profiles: a case-control study. *Journal of Oral Rehabilitation*, 39: 326-337.
8. Benoliel, R., Eliav, E., Sharav, Y. 2010. Classification of chronic orofacial pain: applicability of chronic headache criteria. *Oral Surgery, Oral Medicine, Oral Pathology,*

- Oral Radiology and Endodontology*.110 (6), pp. 729-737.
9. Bergamo G. 2011. A luta contra a inimiga ancestral. *Revista Veja*.; Ed 2231 ano 44, (34): 92-99
 10. Berkley KJ. 1997. Sex differences in pain. *Behav Brain Sci.*, 20: 371-80.
 11. Borsbo B, Peolsson M, Gerdle B. 2008. Catastrophizing, depression, and pain: correlation with and influence on quality of life and health - a study of chronic whiplash-associated disorders. *J Rehabil Med.*, 40(7): 562-9.
 12. Chen H, Slade G, Lim PF, Miller V, Maixner W, Diatchenko L. 2011. Relationship between temporomandibular disorders, widespread palpation tenderness, and multiple pain conditions: A case-control study. *The Journal of Pain*. 13(10): 1016-1027.
 13. Calixtre LB, Grüniger BL da S, Chaves TC, de Oliveira AB. 2014. Is there an association between anxiety/depression and temporomandibular disorders in college students? *J Appl Oral Sci.*, 22(1):15-21.
 14. Conti PCR, Ferreira PM, Pegoraro LF, Conti JV, Salvador MCG. 1996. Disfunção temporomandibular (DCM). Parte II - Aspectos psicológicos e hiperatividade muscular. *Rev ABO Nac. abr./mai.*, 4(2):103-6.
 15. Conti PCR, Pinto-Fiamengui LMS, Cunha CO, Conti ACCF. 2012. Orofacial pain and temporomandibular disorders – the impact on oral health and quality of life. *Braz Oral Res.*, 26(1): 120-123.
 16. Costa YM, Porporatti AL, Stuginsky-Barbosa J, Bonjardim LR, Conti PCR. 2015. Additional effect of occlusal splints on the improvement of psychological aspects in temporomandibular disorder subjects: A randomized controlled trial. *Archives of Oral Biology*, 60:738-744.
 17. De Leeuw R, Klasser GD. 2013. Orofacial Pain: guidelines for assessment, diagnosis and management. Chicago: Quintessence, 301p.
 18. Dao TT, Knight K, Ton-that V. 1998. Modulation of myofascial pain by the reproductive hormones: a preliminary report. *J Prosthet Dent.*, 79 (6): 663-70.
 19. Dworkin, S. F. *et al.* 2002. Reliability, Validity, and Clinical Utility of the Research Diagnostic Criteria for Temporomandibular Disorders Axis II Scales: Depression, Non-Specific Physical Symptoms, and Graded Chronic Pain. *J of Orofac Pain*. 2002;., v. 16, n. (3):207-20.
 20. Dworkin, S. F. 2003. Impacto pessoal e social da dor orofacial. In: Friction, J. R., DUBNE, R. Dor orofacial e desordens temporomandibulares. FRICTON, J. R., DUBNE, R. São Paulo: SANTOSED. Santos., p. 15-31.
 21. De Leeuw R, Klasser GD. 2013. Orofacial pain: guidelines for assessment, diagnosis and management. Quintessence: Chicago.
 22. Eitner, S. *et al.* 2009. Biopsychosocial correlations in patients with chronic oro-facial pain. Part II. Experiences of pain and dramatic events before the 16th year of life. *J Oral Rehabil*. 2009;., v. 36, n.(6)., p. 408–414.
 23. Elliott AM, Smith BH, Penny KI, Smith WC, Chambers WA. 1999. The epidemiology of chronic pain in the community. 354: 1248-1252.
 24. Fillingim RB, Maisner W, Girdler SS, Light KC, Harris MB, SHEPS DS *et al.* 1995. Ischemic but not thermal pain sensitivity varies across the menstrual cycle. *Psychosom Med.*, 59 (5): 512-20.
 25. Fillingim RB, Ness TJ. 2000. Sex -related hormonal influences on pain and analgesic responses. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev*. 24: 419-25
 26. Fillingim RB, Ohrbach R, Greenspan JD, Knott C, Dubner R, Bair E, *et al.* 2011. Potential psychosocial risk factors for chronic TMD: descriptive data and empirically identified domains from the OPPERA case-control study. *J Pain*. 12(11): T46-60. doi: 10.1016/j.jpain.2011.08.007.
 27. Fillingim, R. B., Ohrbach, R., Greenspan, J. D., Knott, C., Dubner, R., Bair, E., Baraian, C., Slade, G. D., Maixner, W. 2011. Potential Psychosocial Risk Factors for Chronic TMD: Descriptive Data and Empirically Identified Domains from the OPPERA CaseControl Study. *The Journal of Pain*. 12 (11/3), pp. T46-T60.
 28. Fillingim, R. B., Ohrbach, R., Greenspan, J. D., Knott, C., Diatchenko, L., Dubner, R., Bair, E., Baraian, C., Mack, N., Slade, G. D., Maixner, W. 2013. Psychological Factors Associated With Development of TMD: The OPPERA Prospective Cohort Study. *The Journal of Pain*. 14 (12/2), pp. T75-T90.
 29. Gui, M. S., Rizzatti-Barbosa, C. M. 2014. Chronicity factors of temporomandibular disorders: a critical review of the literature. *Brazilian Oral Research*.
 30. Gonçalves DA, Camparis CM, Speciali JG, Franco AL, Castanharo SM, Bigal ME. 2011. Temporomandibular disorders are differentially associated with headache diagnoses: a controlled study. *Clin J Pain.*, 27(7): 611-615.
 31. Guarda-nardini, L., Manfredini, D., Ferronato, G. 2008. Temporomandibular joint total replacement prosthesis: current knowledge and considerations for the future. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg*, v. 37:, p. 103–110., 2008.
 32. Gonçalves DAG, Dal-Fabbro AL, Campos JADB, Bigal ME, Speciali JG. 2010. Symptoms of Temporomandibular Disorders in Population: Na Epidemiological Study. *Journal of Orofacial Pain*. 24(3): 270-278.
 33. Garcia AR, Lacerda JrN, Pereira SLS. 1997. Grau de disfunção da ATM e os movimentos mandibulares em adultos jovens. *Rev Assoc Paul Cir Dent*. jan./fev., 51(1):46-51.
 34. Karacayli U, MumcuG, Cimilli H, Sisman N, Sur H, Gunaydin Y. 2011. The effects of chronic pain on oral health related quality of life in patients with disc displacement with reduction. *Community Dent Health*. 28(3):211-215.
 35. Kindler, S., Samietz, S., Houshmand, M., Grabe, H. J., Bernhardt, O., Biffar, R., Kocher, T., Meyer, G., Völzke, H., Metelmann, H.-R., Schwahn, C. 2012. Depressive and Anxiety Symptoms as Risk Factors for Temporomandibular Joint Pain: A Prospective Cohort Study in the General Population. *The Journal of Pain*. 13 (12), pp. 1188-1197.
 36. Kudrow L. 1975. The relationship of headache frequency to hormone use in migraine. *Headache*; 15(1): 36-40.
 37. Komiyama, O., Obara, R., Iida, T., Nishimura, H., Okubo, M., Uchida, T., Shimosaka, M., Narita, M., Niwa, H., Kubo, H., De Laat, A., Kawara, M., Makiyama, Y. 2014. Age Related association between psychological characteristics and pain intensity among Japanese patients with temporomandibular disorders. *Journal of Oral Science*. 56 (3), pp. 221-225.
 38. Kumar KL, Cooney, TG. 1994. Temporomandibular Disorders. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*. 9:106-112.

39. Leresche L. 1997. Epidemiology of temporomandibular disorders: implications for the investigation of etiologic factors. *Crit Rev Oral Biol Med.*, 8 (3): 291- 305.
40. Lei J, Liu MQ, Fu KY. 2016. Disturbed sleep, anxiety and stress are possible risk indicators for temporomandibular disorders with myofascial pain. *Beijing Da Xue Xue Bao.* 48(1):692-696.
41. Lobato O. 1992. O Problema da dor. In: Melo Filho J, editor. *Psicossomática Hoje.* Porto Alegre: Artes Médicas; 1992. p. 165- 78.
42. Leresche, L. 1997. Epidemiology of temporomandibular disorders: implications for the investigation of etiologic factors. *Crit Rev Oral Biol Med* 8 (3): 291- 305.
43. Manfredini, D., Winocur, E., Ahlberg, J., Guardanardini, L., Lobbezoo, F. 2010. Psychological impairment in temporomandibular disorders patients. RDC/TMD axis II findings from a multicenter study. *Journal of Dentistry.* 38, pp. 765-772.
44. Maixner W, Filligim R, Booker D, Sigurdsson A. 1995. Sensitivity of patients with painful temporomandibular disorders to experimentally evoked pain. *Pain.* 63:341-35.
45. Maixner W, Filligim R, Booker D, Sigurdsson A, Kincaid S, SILVA S. 1998. Sensitivity of patients with painful temporomandibular disorders to experimentally evoked pain. *Pain.* 76. 71-81.
46. Manfredini D, Chiappe G, Bosco M. 2006. Research Diagnostic Criteria for Temporomandibular Disorders (RDC/TMD) axis I diagnoses in an Italian patient population. *Journal of Oral Rehabilitation.* 33(8):551-558
47. Miettinen, O., Lahti, S., Sipila, K. 2012. Psychosocial aspects of temporomandibular disorders and oral health-related quality-of-life. *Acta Odontologica Scandinavica.* 70, pp.331-336.
48. Moreira MMSM, Alencar FGP, Bussadori CMC. 1998. Fatores psicológicos na etiologia da disfunção craniomandibular. *Rev Ass Paul Cirurg Dent.*, 52(5):377-81.
49. Monteiro AZ, Rocha ARF. 2003. Associação entre fatores psicológicos e desordem temporomandibular. *Rev Serviço ATM;* 3(1):59-63.
50. Manfredini, D. et al. 2010. Psychosocial impairment in temporomandibular disorders patients. RDC/TMD axis II findings from a multicentre study. *J of dDentistry.*, 2010; v.38, n. (10);, p. 765-772.
51. Maixner W, Diatchenko L, Dubner R, Fillingim RB, Greenspan JD, Knott C, et al. 2011. Orofacial pain prospective evaluation and risk assessment study—the OPPERA study. *J Pain.*, 12(11 suppl):T4-T11.e1-2.
52. Martins, R. J. et al. 2008. Relação entre classe socioeconômica e fatores demográficos na ocorrência da disfunção temporomandibular. *Ciênc. saúde coletiva* (online). 2008; v.13, n. (supl.2):2089-96.
53. Okino MCNH, Gallo MA, Finkelstein L, Cury FN, Jacob LS. 1990. Psicologia e odontologia – atendimento a pacientes portadores de disfunção da articulação têmporo-mandibular (ATM). *RevInstCiênc Saúde.* jan./jun., 6(2):27-9.
54. Okeson JP. 2013. Tratamento das Desordens Temporomandibulares e Oclusão. 7ªEd. Elsevier, 2013.
55. Ohrbach R, Dworkin SF. The Evolution of TMD Diagnosis: Past, Present, Future. *J DEnt Res.* 2016; 95(10): 1093-110.
56. Okeson JP. 2000. Tratamento das desordens temporomandibulares e oclusão. 4. ed. Porto Alegre: Artes Médicas;. 500 p.
57. Ohrbach, R.B. Fillingim, F. Mulkey, Y. Gonzalez, S. Gordon, H. Gremillion, et al. 2011. Clinical findings and pain symptoms as potential risk factors for chronic TMD: descriptive data and empirically identified domains from the OPPERA case-control study. *J Pain.* 12 , pp. T27–T45.
58. Okamoto, K., Thompson, R., Katagiri, A., Bereiter, D. A. 2013. Estrogen status and psychophysical stress modify temporomandibular joint input to medullary dorsal horn neurons in a lamina-specific manner in female rats. *The Journal of the International Association for the Study of Pain.* 154, pp. 1057-64.
59. Okamoto K., Katagiri, A., Rahman, M., Thompson, R., Bereiter, D. A. 2015. Inhibition of temporomandibular joint input to medullary dorsal horn neurons by 5HT3 receptor antagonist in female rats. *Neuroscience.* (Em linha). Disponível em <<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2015.04.037>>. (Consultado em 20/05/2017).
60. Okino MCNH, Gallo MA, Finkelstein L, Cury FN, Jacob LS. 1990. Psychology and Dentistry: treatment of patients with dysfunction of temporomandibular joint (TMJ). *J. Health Sci.*, 8(1):27-9
61. Pasinato, F., CORRÊA, E. C. R., ALVES, S. J. 2009. Avaliação do estado e traço de ansiedade em indivíduos com disfunção temporomandibular e assintomáticos. *Saúde.* 2009; v. 35, n (1);, p. 10-15.
62. Progiante SP, Pattussi MP, Lawrence HP, Suzana G, Grossi PK, Grossi ML. 2015. Prevalence of Temporomandibular Disorders in an Adult Brazilian Community Population Using the Research Diagnostic Criteria (Axes I and II) for Temporomandibular Disorders (The Maringá Study). *The International Journal of Prosthodontics.*; 28(6): 600-609.
63. Reiter, S., Emodi-Perlman, A., Goldsmith, C., Friedman-Rubin, P., Winocur, E. 2015. Comorbidity Between Depression and Anxiety in Patients with Temporomandibular Disorders According to the Research Diagnostic Criteria for Temporomandibular Disorders. *Journal of Oral & Facial Pain/Headache.* 29(2), pp.135-143.
64. Rovner GS, Sunnerhagen KS, Bjorkdahl A, Gerdle B, Borsbo B, Johansson F, Fillanders D. 2017. Chronic pain and sex-differences: women accept and move, while men feel blue. *PLoS One.*; 12(4):e0175737. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0175737
65. Reissmann, D. R., John, M. T., Schierz, O., Seedorf, H., Doering, S. 2008. Stress Related Adaptative Versus Maladaptative Coping and Temporomandibular Disorder Pain. *Journal of Orofacial Pain.* 26 (3), pp. 181-190.
66. Sarlani E, Greenspan JD. 2012. Evidence for generalized hyperalgesia in temporomandibular disorders patients. *Pain.* 221-226, 2003.
67. Su N, Lobbezoo F, Van Wikk A, Van der Heijden GJ, Bisscher CM. 2017. Associations of pain intensity and pain-related disability with psychological and socio-demographic factors in patients with temporomandibular disorders: a cross-sectional study at a specialised dental clinic. *J Oral Rehabil.*; 44(3):187-196. doi: 10.1111/joor.12479
68. Sipilä K, Mäki P, Laajala A, Taanila A, Joukamaa M, Veijola J. 2013. Association of depressiveness with

- chronic facial pain: a longitudinal study. *Acta Odontol Scand.* 71(3-4):644-9
69. Suvinen, T. I., Reade, P. C., Kemppainen, P., Könönen, M., Dworkin, S. F. 2005 .Review of aetiological concepts of temporomandibular pain disorders: towards a biopsychosocial model for integration of physical disorders factors with psychological and psychosocial illness impact factors. *European Journal of Pain.* 9, pp. 613-633.
70. Scrivani SJ, Keith DA, Kaban LB. 2008. Temporomandibular disorders. *N Engl J Med.*, 359(25):2693-2705.
71. Shueb SS, Nixdorf DR, John MT, Alonso BF, Durham J. 2015. What is the impact of acute and chronic orofacial pain on quality of life?. *J Dent.*, 43(10):1203-1210. doi: 10.1016/j.jdent.2015.06.001.
72. Schlenk EA, Erlen JA, Jacob JD, Mcdowell J, Engberg S, Sereika SM, *et al.* 1998. Health-related quality of life in chronic disorders: a comparison across studies using the MOS SF-36. *Quality of Life Research.* 7: 57-65.
73. Stowell AW, Gatchel RJ, 2007. Wildensteinl. Cost-effectiveness of treatments for temporomandibular disorders: Biopsychosocial intervention versus treatment as usual. *JADA.* 138: 202-208.
74. Seger L. 2002. Psicologia & Odontologia – uma abordagem integradora. In: Psicologia Aplicada à Disfunção da Articulação Temporomandibular (ATM). São Paulo: Santos;. p. 202- 40.
75. Scrivani SJ, Keith DA, Kaban LB. 2008. Temporomandibular disorders. *N Engl J Med.*, 359(25): 2693-2705
76. Siqueira JTT, Teixeira MJ. 2002. Dor Orofacial: diagnóstico, terapêutica e qualidade de vida. 2. ed. Curitiba: Maio; 673 p.
77. Scrivani SJ, Keith DA, Kaban LB. 2008. Temporomandibular disorders. *N Engl J Med.*, 359(25):2693-2705.
78. Tosato JP, Caria PHF. 2006. Prevalência de DTM em diferentes faixas etárias. *RGD. jul./set.*, 54(3):221-4
79. Toledo, B. A. S., Capote, T. S. O., Campos, JADB. 2008. Associação entre disfunção temporomandibular e depressão. *Cienc. Odontol. Bbras.*, v.11, n.(4):, p. 75-79, 2008.
80. Teixeira MJ. 2006. Dor: manual para o clínico. São Paulo: Atheneu, 562 p.
81. Turp J.C., Kowalski C.J., Olairy, N. Stohler C.S. 1998. Pain maps from facial pain patients indicate a broad pain geography *J dent Res*, 77: 1465-1472.
82. Velly AM, Gornitsky M, Philippe P. 2003. Contributing factors to chronic myofascial pain: a case- control study. *Pain.* 104(3):491:499
83. Wieckiewicz, M., Grychowska, N., Wojciechowski, K., Pelc, A., Augustyniak, M., Sleboda, A., Zietek, M. 2014. Prevalence and Correlation between TMD Based on RDC/TMD Diagnosis, Oral Parafunction and Psychoemotional Stress in Polish University Students. *BioMedResearchInternational.*
