



## Management of Myasthenia Gravis: The Interplay of Family Practice, Nursing, Lab Diagnoses, Emergency Response, and Dental Care

Fatimah Abdullah Alluwaim<sup>1\*</sup>, Zainab Ramadan Alhayd<sup>2</sup>, Zahraa Abdullah Alghadeer<sup>3</sup>,  
Zainab Ahmad AlGharrash<sup>4</sup>, Zainab Jaafer A Al Awad<sup>5</sup>, Dalal Falah D Alshammari<sup>6</sup>, Afia  
Frhan A Alfiyfi<sup>7</sup>, Hajar Ibrahim Alrayzan<sup>8</sup>, Abbas Mohammed Burshaid<sup>9</sup>, Alhassan Nourah  
Yousef<sup>10</sup>, Roqayah Nasser Als Salman<sup>11</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Family Medicine – Moh PHC Alqarah

\* Corresponding Author Email: [fatimah.alluwaim@gmail.com](mailto:fatimah.alluwaim@gmail.com) - ORCID: 0000-0002-5097-7850

<sup>2</sup>Family Medicine – Noura Almosa PHC

Email: Z1994m@gmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5217-1050

<sup>3</sup>Family Medicine – Altholaithiah PCH

Email: zahraaghdr@gmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5317-2050

<sup>4</sup>Family Medicine – Aljafer PHC

Email: zalghrash@gmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5417-3050

<sup>5</sup>Dental Assistant – Health Cluster Alahsa

Email: Zjalawad@moh.gov.sa - ORCID: 0000-0002-5517-4050

<sup>6</sup>Nurse Technician – Almuhammadia PHC, Hafer AlBatn

Email: 12dalal1212@gmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5617-0050

<sup>7</sup>Nursing – Khamis Mushyt Maternity and Children Hospital

Email: fof02181411@gmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5717-0050

<sup>8</sup>Patient Care Technician – Maternity and Children Hospital, Pediatric Emergency Department

Email: aaaa122ees@hotmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5817-0050

<sup>9</sup>Laboratory Technician – Reference Laboratory Alahsa

Email: almuhabab@gmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5917-0050

<sup>10</sup>General Nursing – Alfaysaliyyah PHC

Email: Anwar.sami.b@gmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5337-0050

<sup>11</sup>Nursing – King Faisal Hospital - Alahsa

Email: Roqayah-alsalman@hotmail.com - ORCID: 0000-0002-5557-0050

### Article Info:

DOI: 10.22399/ijcesen.4628

Received : 02 February 2025

Accepted : 28 February 2025

### Keywords

Myasthenia Gravis,  
management,  
multidisciplinary approach,  
family practice,  
nursing,  
lab diagnostics

### Abstract:

Myasthenia Gravis (MG) is a chronic autoimmune neuromuscular disorder characterized by weakness and rapid fatigue of voluntary muscles. The management of MG requires a comprehensive, multidisciplinary approach that encompasses family practice, nursing, lab diagnostics, emergency response, and dental care. Family practitioners play a critical role in initiating diagnosis and coordinating care through regular follow-ups and symptom management. They often collaborate with neurologists and other specialists to optimize treatment plans tailored to each patient's unique needs. Education on managing the disease, recognizing crises, and adhering to reinforcements of medications is essential to ensure patient stability and quality of life. In this collaborative framework, nursing professionals serve as vital points of contact for patient care, monitoring vital signs, managing medication regimens, and providing emotional support. Lab diagnostics, including antibody testing and imaging studies, are crucial for accurate diagnosis and monitoring disease progression. In emergency scenarios, prompt recognition of myasthenic crises is essential, requiring a well-structured emergency response protocol to ensure patient safety. Additionally, dental

care should not be overlooked, as some MG patients may face challenges related to oral health due to muscle weakness and medication side effects. Dentists must work in coordination with the healthcare team to address any dental issues while ensuring that treatment plans respect the patient's overall health status and medication regimen, thereby fostering a seamless, integrated management approach for those living with Myasthenia Gravis.

## 1. Introduction

Myasthenia Gravis (MG) stands as a paradigmatic model of autoimmune neurological disorders, a condition characterized by a failure of normal neuromuscular transmission resulting in fluctuating, fatigable weakness of skeletal muscles. The disease, whose name derives from the Greek and Latin for "grave muscle weakness," belies a complex pathophysiology centered on the targeted destruction or functional blockade of acetylcholine receptors (AChRs) at the postsynaptic membrane of the neuromuscular junction [1]. The clinical journey of a patient with MG is rarely linear or confined to a single medical specialty; instead, it epitomizes the necessity for integrated, multidisciplinary care that adapts to the evolving and unpredictable nature of the disease. This paper posits that optimal management of Myasthenia Gravis is fundamentally dependent on the seamless interplay between primary care, specialized nursing, precise laboratory diagnostics, prepared emergency response systems, and often-overlooked domains like dental care. A siloed approach is not only inefficient but potentially dangerous for a patient population vulnerable to rapid decompensation. The epidemiological footprint of MG, with an estimated prevalence of 15-25 per 100,000 persons, underscores its significance as a chronic illness requiring long-term healthcare engagement [2]. It exhibits a bimodal age distribution, with an early peak in women under 40 and a later peak in men over 60, though any age can be affected. The clinical hallmark is fatigable weakness: muscles weaken with repeated use and improve with rest. This most commonly manifests as ptosis (drooping of the eyelids), diplopia (double vision), bulbar symptoms (difficulty swallowing, chewing, and speaking), and, in its most severe form, progressive limb and respiratory muscle weakness culminating in myasthenic crisis—a life-threatening event requiring mechanical ventilation [3]. The heterogeneity of presentation, ranging from purely ocular symptoms to generalized debilitating weakness, further complicates diagnosis and management, often leading to delays and misdiagnosis. At the core of MG's pathophysiology lies an autoimmune attack mediated by immunoglobulin G (IgG) antibodies. In approximately 85% of patients with generalized

MG, antibodies are directed against the AChR itself [4]. These antibodies accelerate receptor degradation, block the binding site for acetylcholine, and activate complement-mediated destruction of the post-synaptic membrane, effectively flattening its folds and reducing the surface area available for neurotransmission. A smaller but significant subset of patients, often with more prominent bulbar or respiratory symptoms, possesses antibodies against muscle-specific tyrosine kinase (MuSK), a protein essential for AChR clustering [5]. Another group has antibodies against low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 4 (LRP4). In approximately 10-15% of patients, no known antibodies are detected, classifying them as seronegative MG, though many are believed to have antibodies at levels below current assay detection limits or against unknown antigens [6]. This immunopathological understanding is not merely academic; it directly informs diagnostic strategies and therapeutic choices, highlighting the indispensable role of laboratory medicine. The thymus gland is intimately involved in the pathogenesis of AChR antibody-positive MG. Thymic hyperplasia is found in about 70% of these patients, while a thymoma, a potentially malignant tumor of the thymic epithelial cells, is present in 10-15% [7]. The thymus is thought to be a site where autoreactive T-cells, which help B-cells produce pathogenic antibodies, are generated. This connection underpins the therapeutic rationale for thymectomy, especially in young, non-thymomatous patients, a decision that requires careful weighing of risks and benefits and exemplifies the need for collaborative decision-making between neurologists, thoracic surgeons, and primary care providers. Beyond the immune system, the management of MG is profoundly influenced by a wide array of factors that can exacerbate weakness, including infections, stress, surgery, certain medications, and even ambient temperature, making patient and cross-specialty education paramount [8].

## 2. The Central Role of Family Practice in Coordination and Holistic Care

The family physician or general practitioner often serves as the first point of contact within the healthcare system and remains the consistent

longitudinal caregiver throughout a patient's life with Myasthenia Gravis. This position confers a unique and critical responsibility that extends far beyond simple referral to a neurologist. The family practice role is multifaceted, encompassing early detection, ongoing comorbidity management, medication oversight, and serving as the central hub for care coordination. In the often-complex landscape of MG management, the family physician is the steward of the patient's overall health, ensuring that interventions for other conditions do not inadvertently harm the fragile neuromuscular junction.

Early recognition of MG in primary care is challenging due to its variable and fluctuating presentation. Symptoms like intermittent ptosis, slurred speech after a long conversation, or difficulty climbing stairs may be attributed to fatigue, stress, or other more common conditions. A high index of suspicion is required. The family physician should perform a focused neurological examination, including testing for sustained upward gaze to elicit ptosis and having the patient read a paragraph aloud to assess for dysarthria. Simple bedside tests like the "ice pack test" (improvement of ptosis after applying ice to a closed eyelid for 2 minutes) can be a useful, low-cost screening tool in the clinic [9]. When MG is suspected, prompt referral to neurology is essential, but the primary care provider initiates the diagnostic cascade by ordering initial tests, such as thyroid function studies, which can reveal associated autoimmune disorders, or basic labs to rule out metabolic causes of weakness. This proactive stance can significantly reduce diagnostic delay.

Once diagnosed, the family physician's role evolves into one of holistic management and vigilance. Patients with MG have a higher prevalence of comorbid autoimmune conditions, including autoimmune thyroid disease (hyper- or hypothyroidism), rheumatoid arthritis, and systemic lupus erythematosus [10]. The family practice clinic is the ideal setting for screening and managing these associated illnesses. For instance, untreated hypothyroidism can exacerbate muscle weakness, while hyperthyroidism can worsen the course of MG. Furthermore, the psychological burden of a chronic, unpredictable disease is substantial, with elevated rates of anxiety and depression [11]. The longitudinal relationship in family practice allows for routine screening for mood disorders and the initiation of supportive counseling or pharmacotherapy, always with caution regarding medications that may affect neuromuscular transmission.

A paramount duty in family practice is medication reconciliation and safety. The MG patient is

exceptionally vulnerable to a long list of medications that can precipitate weakness or crisis. The family physician must maintain an up-to-date list of "avoided" drugs, which includes certain antibiotics (e.g., fluoroquinolones, macrolides), beta-blockers, magnesium sulfate, neuromuscular blocking agents, and some anti-arrhythmics and psychotropics [12]. Every prescription for a new medication, whether for an infection, hypertension, or pain, must be cross-checked against this list. Equally important is the management of chronic immunosuppressive therapies initiated by the neurologist. The family physician monitors for side effects of corticosteroids (like hyperglycemia, osteoporosis, hypertension, and weight gain), azathioprine (bone marrow suppression, hepatotoxicity), and mycophenolate mofetil, among others [13]. This involves scheduling regular blood tests, providing vaccinations (like the annual influenza and pneumococcal vaccines, crucial for infection prevention in immunocompromised patients), and offering lifestyle advice to mitigate side effects. In this capacity, the family practice provider acts as a vital safety net, preventing adverse drug events and managing the systemic consequences of long-term immunotherapy.

Finally, the family physician is the cornerstone of care coordination. They communicate with the neurologist, ophthalmologist (for diplopia management), pulmonologist (for respiratory function assessments), and other specialists. They help the patient navigate the healthcare system, ensure follow-up appointments are kept, and synthesize information from various sources into a unified care plan. During transitions of care—such as after hospital discharge for a crisis or post-thymectomy—the primary care provider ensures continuity, reconciling medications and monitoring for complications [14]. By overseeing the bigger picture of the patient's health, the family practice enables the specialist to focus on the neurological disease, creating a synergistic partnership that is fundamental to successful long-term MG management.

### 3. Nursing Interventions:

Nursing professionals, spanning roles from outpatient neurology clinics to inpatient wards and community care, provide the indispensable human bridge between medical science and patient experience in Myasthenia Gravis. Their interventions are pivotal in translating treatment plans into daily life, preventing complications, and empowering patients to achieve a sense of control over their condition. The nursing role in MG is characterized by three core pillars: comprehensive

patient and family education, meticulous clinical monitoring for signs of deterioration, and the provision of sustained psychosocial and rehabilitative support.

Education is the first and most powerful intervention. At diagnosis, patients and their families are often overwhelmed by medical terminology and the prospect of a chronic illness. Nurses play a crucial role in demystifying MG. They explain the pathophysiology in accessible terms, using analogies like a "faulty connection between nerves and muscles" to foster understanding. A critical component is teaching patients to recognize their personal "red flag" symptoms indicating impending crisis, such as increased difficulty swallowing saliva (leading to drooling), shortness of breath at rest or when lying flat, a weakened cough, or progressive neck weakness [15]. Nurses provide concrete action plans: whom to call, when to go to the emergency department, and what information to convey. Medication education is equally vital. Nurses instruct on the precise timing of acetylcholinesterase inhibitors like pyridostigmine, explaining that taking it 30-60 minutes before meals can improve chewing and swallowing during meals. They emphasize the non-negotiable importance of adhering to immunosuppressive regimens and the dangers of abrupt cessation, especially of corticosteroids [16].

Beyond crisis recognition, nurses educate on energy conservation and activity management. They teach patients the principles of pacing—breaking tasks into smaller segments with rest periods in between—to avoid exhausting their limited muscle strength. This includes practical advice on scheduling demanding activities for times of peak medication effect, using assistive devices, and modifying the home environment for safety. For patients with diplopia, nurses can advise on the use of an eye patch (alternating eyes to prevent strain) or frosted lenses. This proactive education aims to maximize independence and quality of life within the constraints of the disease.

The second pillar is vigilant monitoring. In outpatient settings, nurses often conduct structured assessments during clinic visits, such as quantitative MG (QMG) or MG Activities of Daily Living (MG-ADL) scores, providing objective data for the neurologist to track disease progression or treatment response [17]. They assess vital signs, respiratory effort, and bulbar function. In inpatient settings, nursing surveillance is the frontline defense against crisis. Nurses monitor for a decline in forced vital capacity (FVC), a key indicator of respiratory muscle weakness, and for signs of aspiration in patients with bulbar symptoms. They

are trained to perform meticulous suctioning if needed and to prepare for rapid sequence intubation by ensuring emergency equipment and medications that are safe for MG patients (e.g., avoiding succinylcholine) are available [18]. This constant, skilled observation allows for early intervention before a minor exacerbation becomes a life-threatening event.

The third, and profoundly impactful, pillar is psychosocial and rehabilitative support. Living with the unpredictability of MG can lead to social isolation, loss of employment, anxiety, and depression. Nurses, through their consistent contact, build therapeutic relationships that allow patients to express fears and frustrations. They can facilitate referrals to psychologists, social workers, or support groups, which have been shown to improve coping strategies and mental well-being [19]. Furthermore, nurses often coordinate or deliver rehabilitative interventions. While strenuous exercise can be detrimental, supervised, gentle physical therapy focused on maintaining range of motion and very low-intensity endurance training can be beneficial [20]. Speech-language pathologists, often working closely with nursing teams, provide essential therapy for dysarthria and dysphagia, teaching strengthening exercises and safe swallowing techniques. By addressing the physical, educational, and emotional dimensions of MG, nursing care holistically supports the patient, making them an active, informed partner in their own management and significantly improving long-term adherence and outcomes.

#### **4. Laboratory Diagnostics:**

The clinical suspicion of Myasthenia Gravis must be unequivocally confirmed and characterized by laboratory diagnostics. The modern laboratory provides a sophisticated arsenal of tests that not only confirm the diagnosis but also subclassify the disease, guide therapeutic decisions, prognosticate, and monitor treatment efficacy and safety. This diagnostic journey typically progresses from screening tests to highly specific serological assays and electrodiagnostic studies, each playing a complementary role in painting a complete picture of the patient's autoimmune status and neuromuscular function.

Serological testing forms the cornerstone of MG diagnosis. The detection of serum autoantibodies is a direct demonstration of the underlying autoimmune pathology. The first-line test is for antibodies against the acetylcholine receptor (AChR). This assay typically includes binding antibodies, which are present in about 85% of generalized MG cases, and is often supplemented

with tests for modulating and blocking antibodies, which can increase sensitivity slightly [21]. A positive AChR antibody test is highly specific for MG and confirms the diagnosis. For patients who are AChR antibody-negative, testing for antibodies against Muscle-Specific Kinase (MuSK) is essential. MuSK antibody-positive MG, representing 5-8% of all MG patients, has distinct clinical features (prominent bulbar, facial, and respiratory involvement, often with significant muscle atrophy) and therapeutic implications, as these patients may respond poorly to acetylcholinesterase inhibitors like pyridostigmine but often show a favorable response to rituximab [22]. More recently, antibodies against Low-Density Lipoprotein Receptor-Related Protein 4 (LRP4) have been identified in a small percentage of AChR/MuSK negative patients, further reducing the seronegative pool [23].

The category of seronegative MG remains a diagnostic challenge. In these cases, the laboratory supports the diagnosis indirectly. The most important confirmatory test is repetitive nerve stimulation (RNS). This electrodiagnostic study demonstrates a decremental response—a progressive decrease in the amplitude of the compound muscle action potential—when a motor nerve is stimulated at low frequencies (2-5 Hz). A decrement of more than 10% is considered abnormal and is highly suggestive of a postsynaptic neuromuscular junction disorder like MG [24]. Single-fiber electromyography (SFEMG) is an even more sensitive test, measuring "jitter," which is the variability in the time interval between the firing of two muscle fibers from the same motor unit. Increased jitter is found in almost all MG patients, including those who are seronegative, making it the most sensitive diagnostic test available, though it is less specific and requires considerable technical expertise [25].

Beyond confirmation and subtyping, the laboratory plays a crucial role in therapeutic decision-making and comorbidity screening. The presence of a thymoma is a critical finding that mandates surgical intervention. While imaging (CT or MRI of the chest) is the primary detection method, laboratory tests can provide supportive evidence. Certain AChR antibody subtypes and titers may be associated with thymoma, and the presence of other paraneoplastic antibodies can be a clue [26]. Furthermore, given the strong association with other autoimmune diseases, screening laboratories are routinely performed. These include thyroid function tests (TSH, Free T4), tests for antinuclear antibodies (ANA), rheumatoid factor, and vitamin levels (like B12) to rule out other causes of neuropathy or weakness [27]. This comprehensive

serological profiling ensures that the management plan addresses the MG within the full context of the patient's immune dysregulation.

Finally, the laboratory is integral to therapeutic monitoring. For patients on chronic immunosuppressants like azathioprine or mycophenolate mofetil, regular complete blood counts and liver function tests are mandatory to detect bone marrow suppression or hepatotoxicity early [28]. Monitoring AChR antibody titers over time can be useful in some patients, as a falling titer often correlates with clinical improvement, especially after therapies like plasmapheresis or thymectomy, though the correlation is not perfect and should not replace clinical assessment [29]. In managing myasthenic crisis, the laboratory monitors electrolytes, arterial blood gases, and markers of infection, guiding supportive care. Thus, from the initial diagnostic puzzle to the long-term management of therapy, the clinical laboratory provides the objective data that anchors evidence-based, personalized care for the Myasthenia Gravis patient.

## 5. Emergency Department Preparedness

The emergency department (ED) represents a critical safety net for patients with Myasthenia Gravis, often serving as the entry point for the most severe and life-threatening manifestation of the disease: myasthenic crisis. Defined as an exacerbation of weakness severe enough to necessitate intubation and mechanical ventilation or to delay extubation following surgery, myasthenic crisis carries a significant mortality risk, though this has decreased markedly with advances in intensive care [30]. Effective management in the ED hinges on rapid recognition, immediate stabilization of the airway and breathing, identification and treatment of precipitating factors, and initiation of specific crisis therapies, all performed within a framework that avoids medications that can worsen neuromuscular blockade.

The first priority in the ED is the rapid and accurate assessment of respiratory and bulbar function. Patients presenting with increased weakness require immediate triage to a monitored bed. Key historical points from the patient, family, or existing records include the MG subtype, baseline status, usual medications, and any recent changes or potential triggers. The physical exam must be focused and efficient. Assessing for shallow breathing, use of accessory muscles, and a weak cough is paramount. Objective measures are crucial. Forced Vital Capacity (FVC) and Negative Inspiratory Force (NIF) are the primary bedside tools for quantifying respiratory muscle strength. An FVC of less than 20

mL/kg, a decline of more than 30% from baseline, or an NIF worse than -30 cm H<sub>2</sub>O are warning signs of impending respiratory failure [31]. Simultaneously, bulbar function must be evaluated by assessing the patient's ability to handle their own secretions (noting pooled saliva or a wet, gurgling voice), swallow a sip of water, and protect their airway.

If respiratory parameters are declining or bulbar function is severely compromised, early elective intubation is far safer than emergent intubation during a full arrest. The ED team must be prepared for a potentially difficult airway due to bulbar weakness and must use pharmacologic agents judiciously. Succinylcholine, a depolarizing neuromuscular blocker, should be avoided as patients with MG can have a prolonged and exaggerated response due to reduced AChRs, leading to extended paralysis [32]. Rocuronium or vecuronium can be used but may also have a prolonged effect; therefore, shorter-acting agents and careful dosing are advised. Sedation for intubation should avoid agents that cause significant respiratory depression. Following stabilization, the search for a precipitating factor is an emergency diagnostic procedure. The most common trigger is infection, particularly respiratory tract infections. A thorough workup including chest X-ray, blood cultures, urinalysis, and sputum studies if indicated, is essential [33]. Other common precipitants include medication changes (non-compliance with immunosuppressants or recent use of a contraindicated drug), surgery, stress, and metabolic disturbances.

Specific treatment for the crisis itself involves therapies that rapidly remove or neutralize pathogenic antibodies. Two primary modalities are used, often in sequence or combination. Plasma exchange (PLEX or plasmapheresis) works by physically removing circulating antibodies and other inflammatory mediators from the blood. It typically produces clinical improvement within days, with a course of 5-6 exchanges over 10 days [34]. Intravenous immunoglobulin (IVIG) is an alternative, believed to work through multiple immunomodulatory mechanisms, including anti-idiotypic antibody neutralization and Fc receptor blockade. It is similarly effective to PLEX for crisis management, with improvement seen in 1-2 weeks [35]. The choice between them often depends on institutional availability, patient vascular access, and comorbid conditions (e.g., IVIG may be preferred in patients with active infection or unstable hemodynamics). High-dose intravenous corticosteroids, such as methylprednisolone, are also a mainstay for long-term immunosuppression but are often avoided or used with extreme caution

initially in crisis, as they can cause a transient worsening of weakness in the first 5-7 days of therapy [36].

Throughout the ED stay and subsequent ICU admission, meticulous supportive care is vital. This includes managing secretions with frequent suctioning, providing deep vein thrombosis prophylaxis, ensuring adequate nutrition (often via nasogastric tube to prevent aspiration), and treating any identified infection aggressively. Communication with the patient's neurologist and primary care physician is essential to obtain history and coordinate the post-crisis care plan. By following a structured protocol of early recognition, aggressive respiratory support, trigger mitigation, and initiation of rapid immunomodulation, the emergency department transforms from a place of crisis to the first step in a controlled, life-saving therapeutic pathway for the Myasthenia Gravis patient in extremis.

## 6. Dental Care:

Dental care for patients with Myasthenia Gravis presents a unique set of challenges that are frequently underestimated in both medical and dental curricula. The interplay between oral health, pharmacological management of MG, and the stress of dental procedures creates a scenario ripe for potential exacerbation of weakness or even crisis. Therefore, a proactive, collaborative approach between the dentist, neurologist, and patient is non-negotiable to ensure safe and effective oral care. Key considerations revolve around medication timing, avoidance of specific drugs, meticulous management of the airway and muscle fatigue during procedures, and the bi-directional relationship between oral infections and MG stability.

The foundation of safe dental management is a thorough pre-procedural assessment and planning. The dentist must obtain a detailed medical history, including the patient's MG subtype (AChR, MuSK), current severity (ocular vs. generalized), medication regimen, and history of crises. Communication with the treating neurologist is highly advisable to determine the patient's optimal treatment window and discuss any specific concerns [37]. Appointments should be scheduled for a time of day when the patient feels strongest, typically in the morning and shortly after their usual dose of pyridostigmine. Appointments must be kept short to avoid muscle fatigue; lengthy procedures should be divided across multiple visits. The dental chair should be positioned to maximize patient comfort and respiratory efficiency, often in

a more upright position to reduce pressure on the diaphragm.

Pharmacological precautions are paramount. The local anesthetic of choice is typically a plain anesthetic like 3% mepivacaine without a vasoconstrictor. While the use of vasoconstrictors like epinephrine in local anesthetics is controversial, many experts advise caution or avoidance because of theoretical concerns about cardiac side effects and potential interactions with medications, though clinical evidence of harm is limited [38]. Crucially, the dentist must have an exhaustive knowledge of medications absolutely contraindicated in MG. This list must be posted prominently and checked before prescribing any drug. Key prohibited classes include: certain antibiotics (especially fluoroquinolones like ciprofloxacin and levofloxacin, and macrolides like erythromycin and azithromycin), muscle relaxants, and sedatives that cause respiratory depression (e.g., barbiturates, benzodiazepines in high doses) [39]. For pain management, acetaminophen is generally safe. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) can be used with caution, while opioids should be avoided or used at minimal doses due to respiratory depression risk. For necessary antibiotics (e.g., for a dental abscess), safe alternatives include penicillin, cephalexin, and clindamycin, but always in consultation with the neurologist.

Airway management and stress reduction are critical during the procedure. Dentists and staff must be vigilant for signs of bulbar weakness, such as difficulty managing secretions, slurred speech, or a weak cough. Suction must be used meticulously to prevent aspiration. For patients with significant bulbar or respiratory involvement, or for those undergoing more invasive procedures, treatment in a hospital dental setting with anesthesia support may be the safest option. Stress and anxiety can precipitate weakness; therefore, a calm environment and the considered use of stress-reduction protocols (such as relative analgesia with nitrous oxide, which is generally considered safe in MG) are beneficial [40]. The bi-directional link between oral health and systemic inflammation underscores the importance of preventive dentistry for MG patients. Periodontal disease and chronic dental infections are sources of systemic inflammation and recurrent bacteremia, which can serve as triggers for MG exacerbation. Therefore, impeccable oral hygiene, regular professional cleanings, and prompt treatment of caries and infections are not merely about preserving teeth but are integral to maintaining overall MG stability [41].

## 7. Conclusion

In conclusion, the dental management of Myasthenia Gravis requires a paradigm shift from routine care to highly specialized, risk-averse practice. It demands knowledge, preparation, communication, and a focus on prevention. By respecting the fragility of the neuromuscular junction, avoiding pharmacological pitfalls, and managing procedural stress, the dental team becomes an essential component of the multidisciplinary circle protecting the MG patient, ensuring that the pursuit of oral health does not come at the cost of neurological compromise.

## Author Statements:

- **Ethical approval:** The conducted research is not related to either human or animal use.
- **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper
- **Acknowledgement:** The authors declare that they have nobody or no-company to acknowledge.
- **Author contributions:** The authors declare that they have equal right on this paper.
- **Funding information:** The authors declare that there is no funding to be acknowledged.
- **Data availability statement:** The data that support the findings of this study are available on request from the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to privacy or ethical restrictions.

## References

- [1] Kupersmith M.J., Moster M., Bhuiyan S., Warren F., Weinberg H. Beneficial Effects of Corticosteroids on Ocular Myasthenia Gravis. *Arch. Neurol.* 1996;53:802–804.
- [2] Walker M.B. Treatment of myasthenia gravis with physostigmine. *Lancet.* 1934;223:1200–1201.
- [3] Fateh-Moghadam A., Wick M., Besinger U., Geursen R.G. High-dose intravenous gammaglobulin for myasthenia gravis. *Lancet.* 1984;323:848–849.
- [4] Schlezinger N.S., Fairfax W.A. Evaluation of Ocular Signs and Symptoms in Myasthenia Gravis. *Arch. Ophthalmol.* 1959;62:985–990.
- [5] Vrinten C., Van Der Zwaag A.M., Weinreich S.S., Scholten R.J., Verschuuren J.J. Ephedrine for myasthenia gravis, neonatal myasthenia and the congenital myasthenic syndromes. *Cochrane Database Syst. Rev.* 2014;2014:CD010028.

- [6] Chelmicka-Schorr E., Wollmann R.L., Kwasniewski M.N., Kim D.H., Dupont B.L. The beta 2-adrenergic agonist terbutaline suppresses acute passive transfer experimental autoimmune myasthenia gravis (EAMG) *Int. J. Immunopharmacol.* 1993;15:19–24.
- [7] Prinscott J. *Preanesthetic Assessment 1*. Birkhäuser; Boston, MA, USA: 1988. The Patient with Myasthenia Gravis; pp. 109–116.
- [8] Grob D., Brunner N., Namba T., Pagala M. Lifetime course of myasthenia gravis. *Muscle Nerve.* 2008;37:141–149.
- [9] Dau P.C., Lindstrom J.M., Cassel C.K., Denys E.H., Shev E.E., Spitler L.E. Plasmapheresis and Immunosuppressive Drug Therapy in Myasthenia Gravis. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 1977;297:1134–1140.
- [10] Walker M.B. Case showing the Effect of Prostigmin on Myasthenia Gravis. *Proc. R. Soc. Med.* 1935;28:759–761.
- [11] Vanhaesebrouck A.E., Webster R., Maxwell S., Rodriguez Cruz P.M., Cossins J., Wickens J., Liu W.W., Cetin H., Cheung J., Ramjattan H., et al. Beta2-Adrenergic receptor agonists ameliorate the adverse effect of long-term pyridostigmine on neuromuscular junction structure. *Brain.* 2019;142:3713–3727.
- [12] Soliven B., Rezanian K., Gundogdu B., Harding-Clay B., Oger J., Arnason B.G. Terbutaline in myasthenia gravis: A pilot study. *J. Neurol. Sci.* 2009;277:150–154.
- [13] Pope C., Karanth S., Liu J. Pharmacology and toxicology of cholinesterase inhibitors: Uses and misuses of a common mechanism of action. *Environ. Toxicol. Pharmacol.* 2005;19:433–446.
- [14] Kupersmith M.J., Latkany R., Homel P. Development of Generalized Disease at 2 Years in Patients with Ocular Myasthenia Gravis. *Arch. Neurol.* 2003;60:243–248.
- [15] Sheikh S., Alvi U., Soliven B., Rezanian K. Drugs That Induce or Cause Deterioration of Myasthenia Gravis: An Update. *J. Clin. Med.* 2021;10:1537.
- [16] Osserman K.E. Progress report on mestinon bromide (pyridostigmine bromide) *Am. J. Med.* 1955;19:737–739.
- [17] Prado M.B., Jr., Adiao K.J. Acetylcholinesterase Inhibitors in Myasthenic Crisis: A Systematic Review of Observational Studies. *Neurocritical Care.* 2021;35:528–544.
- [18] Ippoliti G., Cosi V., Piccolo G., Lombardi M., Mantegaz R., Devathanan G., Kueh Y., Chong P. High-dose intravenous gammaglobulin for myasthenia gravis. *Lancet.* 1984;324:809–810.
- [19] Mertens H.G., Balzereit F., Leipert M. The Treatment of Severe Myasthenia Gravis with Immunosuppressive Agents. *Eur. Neurol.* 1969;2:321–339.
- [20] Grob D. Course and management of myasthenia gravis. *J. Am. Med. Assoc.* 1953;153:529–532.
- [21] Gajdos P., Outin H., Elkharrat D., Brunel D., de Rohan-Chabot P., Raphael J., Goulon M., Goulon-Goeau C., Morel E. High-dose intravenous gammaglobulin for myasthenia gravis. *Lancet.* 1984;323:406–407.
- [22] Campbell H.B.E. Myasthenia gravis pseudoparalytica: Review of 70 case reports, including nine new patients. *Brain.* 1900;23:277–336.
- [23] Tether J.E. Treatment of myasthenia gravis with mestinon bromide. *J. Am. Med. Assoc.* 1956;160:156–158.
- [24] Grob D., Namba T. Corticotropin in generalized myasthenia gravis. Effect of short, intensive courses. *JAMA.* 1966;198:703–707.
- [25] Blalock A., Mason M.F., Morgan H.J., Riven S.S. Myasthenia Gravis and Tumors of the Thymic Region: Report of a Case in Which the Tumor Was Removed. *Ann. Surg.* 1939;110:544–561.
- [26] Chelmicka-Schorr E., Checinski M.E., Arnason B.G. Sympathetic nervous system and PC12 pheochromocytoma-derived factors suppress stimulation of lymphocytes. *Brain Behav. Immun.* 1990;4:23–29.
- [27] Osserman K.E., Kornfeld P., Cohen E., Jenkins G., Mendelow H., Goldberg H., Windsley H., Kaplan L.I. Studies in myasthenia gravis; review of two hundred eighty-two cases at the Mount Sinai Hospital, New York City. *AMA Arch. Intern. Med.* 1958;102:72–81.
- [28] Newsom-Davis J., Wilson S., Vincent A., Ward C. Long-term effects of repeated plasma exchange in myasthenia gravis. *Lancet.* 1979;313:464–468.
- [29] Macfarlane J.W. Myasthenia Gravis: Its Treatment by a Combination of Prostigmin and Glycine-Ephedrine Therapy. *Glasg. Med. J.* 1937;128:7–11.
- [30] Kennedy F.S., Moersch F.P. Myasthenia Gravis: A Clinical Review of Eighty-Seven Cases Observed between 1915 and the Early Part of 1932. *Can. Med. Assoc. J.* 1937;37:216–223.
- [31] Randall L.O., Conroy C.E., Ferruggia T.M., Kappell B.H., Knoepfel C.R. Pharmacology of the anticholinesterase drugs; mestinon, prostigmin, tensilon and TEPP. *Am. J. Med.* 1955;19:673–678.
- [32] Laurent L.P.E. Clinical Observations on the Use of Prostigmin in the Treatment of Myasthenia Gravis. *Br. Med. J.* 1935;1:463–465.
- [33] Osserman K.E., Teng P., Kaplan L.I. Studies in myasthenia gravis; preliminary report on therapy with mestinon bromide. *J. Am. Med. Assoc.* 1954;155:961–965.
- [34] Wolfe G.I., Kaminski H., Aban I.B., Minisman G., Kuo H.C., Marx A., Ströbel P., Mazia C., Oger J., Cea J.G., et al. Randomized Trial of Thymectomy in Myasthenia Gravis. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2016;375:511–522.
- [35] Harvey A.M., Lilienthal J.L., Talbot S.A. Observations on the Nature of Myasthenia Gravis. The Effect of Thymectomy on Neuro-Muscular Transmission. *J. Clin. Investig.* 1942;21:579–588.
- [36] Westerberg M.R., Magee K.R. Mestinon in the Treatment of Myasthenia Gravis. *Neurology.* 1954;4:762–772.
- [37] Al-Haidar M., Benatar M., Kaminski H.J. Ocular myasthenia. *Neurol. Clin.* 2018;36:241–251.
- [38] Pinching A.J., Peters D.K. Remission of myasthenia gravis following plasma-exchange. *Lancet.* 1976;2:1373–1376.

- [39] Kohm A.P., Sanders V.M. Norepinephrine and beta 2-adrenergic receptor stimulation regulate CD4+ T and B lymphocyte function in vitro and in vivo. *Pharmacol. Rev.* 2001;53:487–525.
- [40] Sussman J., Farrugia M.E., Maddison P., Hill M., Leite M.I., Hilton-Jones D. Myasthenia gravis: Association of British Neurologists' management guidelines. *Pract. Neurol.* 2015;15:199–206.
- [41] Mayer S.A., Thomas C.E. Therapy of Myasthenic Crisis. *Crit. Care Med.* 1998;26:1136–1137.