



Assessment of the relationship between oral health and adenoid hypertrophy in children aged 8 to 15 years

Zahra Farahzadi¹⁰, Effat Khodadadi^{2*0}, Farida Abesi³⁰, Hemmat Gholinia⁴

¹School of Dentistry, Babol University of Medical Sciences, Babol, Iran

²Oral Health Research Center, Health Research Institute, Babol University of Medical Sciences, Babol, Iran

³Dental Material Research Center, Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Radiology, Babol University of Medical Sciences, Babol, Iran

⁴Health Research Institute, Babol University of Medical Sciences, Babol, Iran

*Corresponding Author: Effat Khodadadi, Email: Dr_ekhodadadi@yahoo.com

Abstract

Background: The oral health of children is adversely affected by mouth breathing. One of the main reasons for mouth breathing in children is adenoid hypertrophy. Consequently, this study aimed to assess the relationship between oral health and adenoid hypertrophy among children aged 8–15 years in the city of Babol.

Methods: This case-control study was conducted on 100 children. The case group included 50 children with adenoid hypertrophy. An Ear, Nose, and Throat (ENT) specialist examined the children clinically and referred them to the oral and maxillofacial radiology clinic. The study control group included 50 healthy children. To assess the size of the adenoidal tissues and the dimensions of the upper airways, we assessed the linear cephalometric measurement Ptm-ad₂. The evaluations consisted of the decayed, missing, and filled teeth (DMFT and dmft for permanent and primary teeth, respectively) index, mean periodontal pocket depth, plaque index (PI), and papillary marginal attached (PMA) index.

Results: Fifty samples had adenoid hypertrophy. The prevalence of dental caries was significantly higher in children with adenoid hypertrophy compared to healthy children (DMFT was 4.10 ± 2.09 and 2.06 ± 0.97 , and dmft was 3.52 ± 3.34 and 1.48 ± 1.24 , in the case and control groups, respectively). Furthermore, the periodontal indices of the case group were significantly greater than those of the control group (periodontal pocket depth was 2.93 ± 0.35 and 1.98 ± 0.23 , Pl was 2.73 ± 0.26 and 1.13 ± 0.29 , and the PMA index was 5.71 ± 0.82 and 2.55 ± 0.48 , in the case and control groups, respectively).

Conclusion: In the case group, there was a statistically higher prevalence of dental caries and gingival inflammation than in the control group. Therefore, periodical dental visits and preventive dental procedures are recommended for children with adenoid hypertrophy.

Keywords: Adenoids, Hypertrophy, Children, Dental caries, Gingivitis

Citation: Farahzadi Z, Khodadadi E, Abesi F, Gholinia H. Assessment of the relationship between oral health and adenoid hypertrophy in children aged 8 to 15 years. *J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol*. 2024;13(1):6–12. doi: 10.34172/johoe.2112.1437

Received: January 8, 2022, Accepted: September 22, 2023, ePublished: March 27, 2024

Introduction

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines oral health as the absence of chronic oral pain, infections, periodontal disease, or tooth decay.¹ Mouth breathing is defined as inhalation and exhalation through the mouth instead of the nose.²

Saliva's antimicrobial properties and mechanical cleansing effects are reduced in children with mouth breathing, so the risk of dental caries and gingival inflammation increases.^{3,4} Previous studies have identified adenoid hypertrophy and allergic rhinitis as the two main causes of mouth breathing in children.⁵ The adenoids are part of the lymphatic system and are located in the superior portion of the pharynx (behind the nose). The adenoid tissues facilitate respiratory air purification

by trapping microbes. These tissues shrink after age 5, and their importance is reduced due to the development of the immune system. Adenoid hypertrophy, especially in children, occurs due to bacterial infections, leading to the narrowing or obstruction of the nasal airways.⁶ One important factor in determining the breathing mode is the size of the nasopharynx airway (nasal or mouth breathing). Lateral cephalometric radiographs are used to evaluate the relationship between the adenoids, the nasopharyngeal airway, and nasal resistance due to adenoid hypertrophy.⁷ Some previous research reports gingival inflammation in mouth-breathing children. According to the study by Sharma et al,⁸ gingival index (GI), plaque index (PI), and bleeding on probing (BOP) were significantly greater in mouth-breathing adolescents



© 2024 The Author(s); Published by Kerman University of Medical Sciences. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

compared to healthy adolescents. Also, Tamasa et al⁹ reported that the prevalence of dental caries was greater among children with sleep disorders and mouth breathing compared to healthy children (60% and 20%, respectively).

. İnönü-Sakallı et al¹⁰ compared 40 mouth-breathing with 40 nose-breathing children. They utilized flexible fiberoptic nasopharyngolaryngoscopy to determine palatal tonsil hypertrophy and concluded that adenotonsillar hypertrophy can be a risk factor for dental caries, periodontal disease, and halitosis.

Alqutami et al⁴ investigated whether the effects of oral ventilation on the prevalence of dental caries were related but did not find a relationship. In addition, the examination of the mandibular left central incisor and the maxillary right central incisor did not reveal any association between gingivitis and mouth breathing. Ahmed¹¹ reported that the severity of dental caries was higher in children with chronic tonsillitis than in healthy children. Ahmed concluded that similar microbial pathogens cause dental caries and peritonsillar infections.

He ignored the other risk factors of dental caries formation, such as tooth brushing frequency, whereas we considered this factor. Also, the sample size of our study was larger than that of his study.

In mouth-breathing children, the reduction in the cleansing effect of saliva and the openness of the mouth lead to the formation of dental caries, gingival and periodontal disease, and halitosis. Although adenotonsillar hypertrophy is one of the major causes of mouth breathing in children, few studies have been conducted to assess the severity of tooth decay and overall oral health outcomes for these children. The effect of adenoid hypertrophy on oral health status has not been sufficiently clarified.12 Considering the adverse effects of dental caries on the quality of life of children and their families, we investigated the relationship between dental health and adenoid hypertrophy in children aged 8-15 years in Babol city. By examining this association, it is possible to reduce the risk and severity of periodontal disease and dental caries through routine dental visits, preventive dental programs, and better oral health care in these patients.

Materials and Methods

This case-control study was conducted on 100 children (8–15 years old) in Babol city. The studied children with adenoid hypertrophy were randomly selected from the oral and maxillofacial radiology clinic in 2018 and 2019 after they were referred to the clinic by an Ear, Nose, and Throat (ENT) specialist. The ENT specialist diagnosed the children by taking a thorough history and performing a clinical examination. The most important symptoms of these patients were chronic mouth breathing, hyponasal voice quality, snoring, sleep disturbance, and halitosis.

Upper airway obstruction and adenoid enlargement were two significant features observable in the patient's lateral cephalometric radiographs. The control group included 50 healthy children.

Demographic data, including age, sex, and teeth brushing per day, were collected by face-to-face interview.

After the patient's consent was acquired, their lateral cephalometric radiographs were examined.

The inclusion criteria were age from 8 to 15 years, good general health, and teeth brushing at least once per day. Children with systemic or mental diseases were excluded from this study.

Our study group was divided into three age groups to reduce the error variance of the statistical results.

The lateral cephalometric radiographs of the children were collected, and the Ptm-ad₂ variable was measured in each of them. This parameter provides more useful information on the nasopharyngeal airway compared to aggressive methods such as nasoendoscopy. Ptm is defined as the intersection between the nasal floor and the posterior contour of the maxilla, and ad₂ refers to the intersection of the posterior nasopharyngeal wall and the Ptm-So line (the midpoint on the line joining the sella and the basion). Ptm-ad₂ is described as the linear distance from the Ptm point to the ad₂ point in millimeters. This parameter was significantly shorter in children with adenoid hypertrophy due to adenoidal tissue enlargement (Figure 1).¹³

The case group (Ptm- $ad_2 < 10 \text{ mm}$) and the control group (Ptm- $ad_2 > 15 \text{ mm}$) were clinically examined under the supervision of a pediatric dentist.¹³

We calculated the decayed, missing, and filled teeth (DMFT and dmft for permanent and primary teeth, respectively) index according to the WHO instructions.¹⁴

The gingival health of children was explored by measuring the mean periodontal pocket depth, PI, and papillary marginal attached (PMA) index for teeth

 16
 11
 21
 26

 46
 41
 31
 36

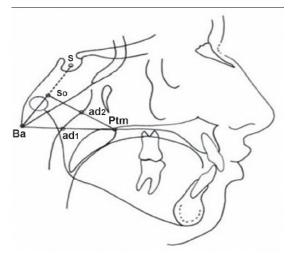


Figure 1. The Ptm-ad₂ parameter in the lateral cephalogram

The mean periodontal pocket depth was obtained by probing three surfaces (mesiobuccal, distobuccal, and buccal) of the teeth. A periodontal probe (Williams Periodontal Probe, Hu-Friedy, Chicago, IL, USA) was used.¹⁵

For each tooth, the PI developed by *Silness and Loe* was determined by inspecting the thickness of the plaque accumulated on its surfaces; then, a value in the range of 0-3 was assigned to it.¹⁶

The facial surface of the gingiva around the tooth is divided into three parts: papillary gingiva, marginal gingiva, and attached gingiva. By monitoring the signs of gingival inflammation, such as redness, swelling, bleeding, etc., a score was given to each of the three parts. Afterward, the sum of these three values was calculated as the PMA index proposed by *Schour and Massler*.¹⁷

Finally, the average of each of the above indices was calculated for the case and control groups to compare them.

The data were gathered and entered into SPSS 22 statistical software. The chi-square test assessed the relationship between the PI and the PMA index in children with adenoid hypertrophy. The t-test and the Mann-Whitney test were employed to investigate the relationship between adenoid hypertrophy and the prevalence of dental caries and the mean depth of periodontal pockets. The P value of 0.05 was set as the significance level in our analyses.

Results

This research was conducted on a case group of 50 children with adenoid hypertrophy (8–15 years old) and a control group of 50 children (8–15 years old). In this study, the children were divided into three groups based on age: 8–9, 10–12, and 13–15. The characteristics of these three groups are shown in Table 1.

Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to investigate the effect of adenoid hypertrophy on the DMFT index. The results show a significant relationship between these two variables (F = 84.33, df = 1, P < 0.001).

Based on the independent t test analysis for each of the study groups, a considerable discrepancy was noticed between the DMFT values of the case and healthy subjects, as shown in Figure 2A.

Using two-way ANOVA, a significant difference was

found between adenoid hypertrophy and the dmft index (F = 30.99, df = 1, P < 0.001). The mean dmft index of the children with adenoid hypertrophy was significantly greater than that of the healthy children (Table 2). Also, the independent *t* test examination showed a meaningful contrast between the case and control groups in each of the three age groups (8–9, 10–12, and 13–15) (Figure 2B). By assessing the mean periodontal pocket depth for the case and control groups, a significant relationship was found between this index and adenoid hypertrophy (F=276.71, df = 1, P < 0.001) (Figure 3A).

The mean periodontal pocket depth for the case and control groups was 2.93 ± 0.35 and 1.98 ± 0.23 , respectively (Table 3). Using two-way ANOVA, adenoid hypertrophy was found to influence PI significantly (F=835.20, df=1, P < 0.001). According to Table 3, the mean PI in children with adenoid hypertrophy was bigger than those without. Furthermore, the independent t-test examination showed a remarkable contrast between the case and control groups for the three age groups (Figure 3B). We measured the mean PMA index for the case and control groups. The obtained results were as follows (Table 3):

There was a significant relationship between adenoid hypertrophy and the PMA index (F=575.42, df=1, P<0.001).

Considering the three age groups, the mean PMA index of the children with adenoid hypertrophy was significantly higher than that of the healthy children (Figure 3C).

No factually noteworthy contrast was found among the bunches regarding sexual orientation conveyance (P=0.822) and tooth brushing frequency (P=0.262).

Discussion

In individuals with mouth breathing, dental and gingival health are adversely affected due to decreased antimicrobial properties and the mechanical cleansing effects of their saliva.¹⁸ Also, adenoid hypertrophy is one of the main reasons for mouth breathing in children.¹⁹ According to the results for all three age groups studied in this research, in children with adenoid hypertrophy, the prevalence of tooth decay was significantly greater than that in unaffected children. Besides, a significant relationship existed between gingival inflammation and adenoid hypertrophy because the mean periodontal

 Table 1. Demographic factor distribution in the study population

	Group									
Age	Case group (%)				Control group (%)					
	Female	Male	Once per day toothbrushing	Twice per day toothbrushing	Female	Male	Once per day toothbrushing	Twice per day toothbrushing		
8–9	9 (18)	7 (14)	10 (20)	6 (12)	8 (16)	8 (16)	11 (22)	5 (10)		
10–12	10 (20)	11 (22)	14 (28)	7 (14)	9 (18)	12 (24)	15 (30)	6 (12)		
13–15	8 (16)	5 (10)	6 (12)	7 (14)	7 (14)	6 (12)	5 (10)	8 (16)		
Total	27	23	30	20	24	26	31	19		

Case

Contro

Table 2. Comparison of the decayed, missing, and filled teeth (DMFT and dmft for permanent and primary teeth, respectively) index between the case and
control groups

		DMFT index		dmft index			
Age	Case group (Mean±SD)	Control group (Mean±SD)	P value	Case group (Mean±SD)	Control group (Mean±SD)	<i>P</i> value	
8–9	2.31 ± 1.195	1.44 ± 0.964	0.03	6.50 ± 2.875	2.56 ± 0.727	< 0.001	
10–12	4.00 ± 1.378	2.14 ± 0.854	< 0.001	3.43 ± 2.441	1.57 ± 1.028	0.03	
13–15	6.46 ± 1.613	2.69 ± 0.751	< 0.001	-	-	-	
Total	4.10 ± 2.092	2.06 ± 0.978	< 0.001	3.52 ± 3.340	1.48 ± 1.249	< 0.001	

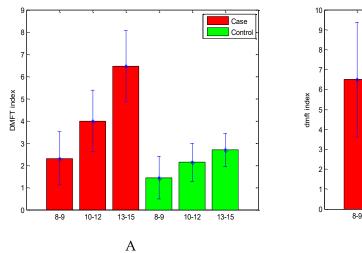


Figure 2. Comparison of the decayed, missing, and filled teeth (DMFT (A) and dmft (B) for permanent and primary teeth, respectively) index between the case and control groups

pocket depth, PI, and PMA index were significantly greater in the case group compared to the control group.

In children, Adenoid hypertrophy is more frequent than in adults.²⁰ One of the methods of evaluating the nasopharyngeal airway and determining the breathing mode is lateral cephalometric radiography.⁷ According to previous research,^{21,22} dental caries cause pain, inconvenience, early tooth loss, and disturbances in permanent tooth eruption. Furthermore, it leads to learning disorders, inadequate nutrition, decrement in academic performance, and reduction in confidence. Considering the prevalence of adenoid hypertrophy among children, we selected the age range of 8 to 15 years in this study.

Ballikaya et al¹² evaluated the oral health status of 150 children with adenoid hypertrophy. They assessed the GI, PI, DMFT/S, and dmft/s of these children. According to their results, 67.3% of the children had dental caries. Also, gingivitis was detected in 89.3% of the children. Motta et al²³ examined 14 children with nasal airway obstruction and 19 healthy children. They found that, compared to healthy children, the incidence of dental caries was significantly higher in the case group.

In the present study, the mean DMFT/dmft indices were significantly higher in the case group than in the control group. Consequently, it has been shown that adenoid hypertrophy is one of the factors associated with the prevalence of oral caries in children. Also, it must be emphasized that the findings of these three studies are consistent.

8-9

10-12

13-15

10-12

13-15

В

Tamasa et al⁹ reported that the incidence of dental caries was greater among children with sleep disorders and mouth breathing than among healthy children. Also, the mean periodontal pocket depth for mouth-breathing children and the controls were 2.1 ± 0 and 0 ± 0.7 , respectively. Tamasa et al focused on children with sleep disorders, whereas we concentrated on children with adenoid hypertrophy. In other words, our studies are not completely similar because of the differences in the types of diseases. Despite this difference, in both studies, the role of saliva in maintaining dental and gingival health was highlighted.

The results of our research were consistent with those of İnönü-Sakallı and colleagues' study.¹⁰ However, our method was more suitable because it used lateral cephalometric radiography as a less aggressive approach to diagnosing adenoid hypertrophy.

The data collected about the case group in Alqutami and colleagues' study⁴ were self-reported. In contrast, our approach was more precise because we used clinical examination and cephalometric radiographs to determine mouth breathing. Also, we assessed more periodontal indices to investigate gingival health.

One of the most common causes of gingivitis is dental

Age	Periodon	Periodontal pocket depth index			PI index			PMA index		
	Case group (Mean±SD)	Control group (Mean±SD)	P value	Case group (Mean±SD)	Control group (Mean±SD)	P value	Case group (Mean±SD)	Control group (Mean±SD)	P value	
8–9	3.02 ± 0.37	1.80 ± 0.11	< 0.001	2.81 ± 0.19	0.97 ± 0.19	< 0.001	5.86 ± 0.90	2.42 ± 0.53	< 0.001	
10-12	2.84 ± 0.40	2.00 ± 0.22	< 0.001	2.69 ± 0.30	1.19 ± 0.34	< 0.001	5.41 ± 0.88	2.66 ± 0.48	< 0.001	
13-15	2.98 ± 0.20	2.17 ± 0.18	< 0.001	2.68 ± 0.23	1.22 ± 0.26	< 0.001	6.01 ± 0.41	2.53 ± 0.39	< 0.001	
Total	2.93 ± 0.35	1.98 ± 0.23	< 0.001	2.73 ± 0.26	1.13 ± 0.29	< 0.001	5.71 ± 0.82	2.55 ± 0.48	< 0.001	

Table 3. Comparison of mean periodontal pocket depth, plaque index (PI), and papillary marginal attached (PMA) index between the case and control groups

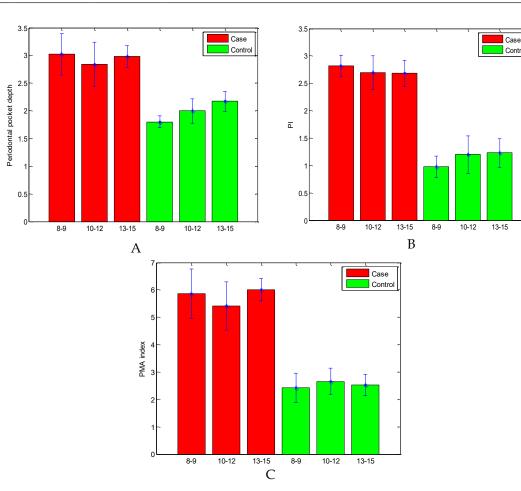


Figure 3. Comparison of (A) mean of periodontal pocket depth, (B) plaque index (PI), and (C) papillary marginal attached (PMA) index between the case and control groups

plaque. Consequently, any factor that favors plaque formation and accumulation, such as dry mouth in mouth-breathing individuals, will intensify gingival inflammation.²⁴ In the study by Mummolo et al,²⁵ PI and bacterial count were higher in the mouth-breathing adolescents compared to healthy subjects. However, between these two groups, there were no significant differences in saliva flow rates and buffer capacities. Also, according to the study by Sharma et al,⁸ GI, PI, and BOP were significantly greater in mouth-breathing adolescents compared to healthy cases.

In our study, the mean of PI and PMA index were significantly higher in the children with adenoid hypertrophy versus the control subjects. The findings of our study are consistent with those of the studies by Mummolo et al²⁵ and Sharma et al.⁸

Gingivitis is one of the primary and common etiological factors of periodontal diseases in children and adolescents. If the early signs of gingival inflammation are neglected, deep periodontal pocket formation, alveolar bone destruction, and progressive periodontitis will follow.²⁶ Keller et al²⁷ reported that the prevalence of chronic periodontitis was significantly higher in mouthbreathing people compared to healthy individuals (33.8% and 22.6%, respectively). Furthermore, the odds ratio of chronic periodontitis in the case group was 1.75 times bigger than that of healthy individuals.

Regarding the results of this study, the periodontal indices and the mean periodontal pocket depth were higher in the children with adenoid hypertrophy, so it can be concluded that adenoid hypertrophy in children has an adverse effect on gingival health.

Dental caries and periodontal diseases are multi-factor conditions, so detecting only one factor is insufficient.²⁸

Ignoring the socio-economic conditions of the children's families and the low number of samples are two restrictions of this research. It can be mentioned that we did not follow up with the studied children, so we cannot conclude the precise causal relationship between dental caries and gingival inflammation and adenoid hypertrophy, so more studies are recommended in order to find the precise mechanism of the effect of mouth breathing on oral health, especially multivariable analyses and prospective cohort studies.

Conclusion

Based on the results of this study, adenoid hypertrophy was found to be associated with impaired oral and dental health. To describe its mechanism of effect, it seems that the antimicrobial properties and the mechanical cleansing effects of saliva are reduced in mouth-breathing children compared to healthy children. It must be emphasized that there is an acid-base imbalance in the mouths of mouthbreathing children. Because oral and dental health influences a human's quality of life, preventive health care and periodic dental visits are advised for these children.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to appreciate the researches and technology assistance of Babol medical university due to the financial support. Special thanks to the families of studied children for their cooperation in our research.

Authors' Contribution

Conceptualization: Zahra Farahzadi, Effat Khodadadi, Farida Abesi. **Data curation:** Zahra Farahzadi.

Formal analysis: Hemmat Gholinia.

Funding acquisition: Zahra Farahzadi.

Investigation: Zahra Farahzadi, Effat Khodadadi, Farida Abesi.

Methodology: Zahra Farahzadi, Effat Khodadadi.

Project administration: zahra Farahzadi, Effat Khodadadi, Farida Abesi.

Resources: Zahra Farahzadi.

Software: Hemmat Gholinia.

Supervision: Effat Khodadadi, Farida Abesi.

Validation: Zahra Farahzadi.

Visualization: Zahra Farahzadi.

Writing–original draft: Zahra Farahzadi, Effat Khodadadi. Writing–review & editing: Zahra Farahzadi, Effat Khodadadi.

Competing Interests

None.

Ethical Approval

This study was approved by Babol Medical University (IR. MUBABOL.HRI.REC.1398.122).

References

 Piva F, de Moraes JK, Vieira VR, Silva AE, Hendges RM, Sari GT. Evaluation of the association between indicators of oral health and sociodemographic variables in children with orofacial clinical signs of chronic mouth breathing. Audiol Commun Res. 2014;19(3):236-42. doi: 10.1590/s2317-64312014000300006.

- Valcheva Z, Arnautska H, Dimova M, Ivanova G, Atanasova I. The role of mouth breathing on dentition development and formation. J IMAB. 2018;24(1):1878-82. doi: 10.5272/ jimab.2018241.1878.
- Demir UL, Cetinkaya B, Karaca S, Sigirli D. The impacts of adenotonsillar hypertrophy on periodontal health in children: a prospective controlled pilot study. Am J Otolaryngol. 2013;34(5):501-4. doi: 10.1016/j.amjoto.2013.04.013.
- Alqutami J, Elger W, Grafe N, Hiemisch A, Kiess W, Hirsch C. Dental health, halitosis and mouth breathing in 10-to-15 year old children: a potential connection. Eur J Paediatr Dent. 2019;20(4):274-9. doi: 10.23804/ejpd.2019.20.04.03.
- Triana BE, Ali AH, León IG. Mouth breathing and its relationship to some oral and medical conditions: physiopathological mechanisms involved. Rev Habanera Cienc Méd. 2016;15(2):200-12.
- Goeringer GC, Vidić B. The embryogenesis and anatomy of Waldeyer's ring. Otolaryngol Clin North Am. 1987;20(2):207-17.
- Grewal N, Godhane AV. Lateral cephalometry: A simple and economical clinical guide for assessment of nasopharyngeal free airway space in mouth breathers. Contemp Clin Dent. 2010;1(2):66-9. doi: 10.4103/0976-237x.68589.
- Sharma RK, Bhatia A, Tewari S, Narula SC. Distribution of gingival inflammation in mouth breathing patients: an observational pilot study. J Dent Indones. 2016;23(2):28-32.
- Tamasa B, Godfrey G, Nelson T, Chen M. Oral health status of children with high risk of sleep-disordered breathing. J Dent Sleep Med. 2018;5(2):31-8. doi: 10.15331/jdsm.7020.
- İnönü-Sakallı N, Sakallı C, Tosun Ö, Akşit-Bıçak D. Comparative evaluation of the effects of adenotonsillar hypertrophy on oral health in children. Biomed Res Int. 2021;2021:5550267. doi: 10.1155/2021/5550267.
- 11. Ahmed ZS. The relationship between severity of dental caries and chronic tonsillitis among Iraqi children. J Fac Med Baghdad. 2016;58(2):149-53.
- Ballikaya E, Guciz Dogan B, Onay O, Uzamis Tekcicek M. Oral health status of children with mouth breathing due to adenotonsillar hypertrophy. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol. 2018;113:11-5. doi: 10.1016/j.ijporl.2018.07.018.
- 13. de Vasconcellos Vilella O, de Souza Vilella B, Karsten A, Ianni Filho D, Monteiro AA, Koch HA, et al. Evaluation of the nasopharyngeal free airway space based on lateral cephalometric radiographs and endoscopy. Orthodontics. 2004;1:215-25.
- Babaei Hatkehlouei M, Tari H, Goudarzian AH, Hali H. Decayed, missing, and filled teeth (DMFT) index among firstgrade elementary students in Mazandaran province, northern Iran. Int J Pediatr. 2017;5(6):5069-77. doi: 10.22038/ ijp.2017.22650.1891.
- Goswami S, Saha S. The prevalence of gingivitis and periodontal diseases in preschool children in Kolkata. Indian J Multidiscip Dent. 2017;7(1):3-7. doi: 10.4103/ijmd. ijmd_31_16.
- Wambier LM, Dias G, Bittar P, Pochapski MT, Wambier DS, Chibinski AC, et al. The influence of tooth brushing supervision on the dental plaque index and toothbrush wear in preschool children. Rev Odontol UNESP. 2013;42(6):408-13.
- 17. Grellmann A, Zanatta F. Diagnosis of gingivitis: state of the art. J Dent Oral Disord. 2016;2(3):1-8.
- 18. Khalifa M, Abouelkheir H, Khodiar S, Mohamed G. Salivary composition and dental caries among children controlled

asthmatics. Egypt J Chest Dis Tuberc. 2014;63(4):777-88. doi: 10.1016/j.ejcdt.2014.05.003.

- Pacheco MC, Casagrande CF, Teixeira LP, Finck NS, de Araújo MT. Guidelines proposal for clinical recognition of mouth breathing children. Dental Press J Orthod. 2015;20(4):39-44. doi: 10.1590/2176-9451.20.4.039-044.oar.
- Rout MR, Mohanty D, Vijaylaxmi Y, Bobba K, Metta C. Adenoid hypertrophy in adults: a case series. Indian J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg. 2013;65(3):269-74. doi: 10.1007/s12070-012-0549-y.
- Abed R, Bernabe E, Sabbah W. Family impacts of severe dental caries among children in the United Kingdom. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2019;17(1):109. doi: 10.3390/ ijerph17010109.
- Gilchrist F, Marshman Z, Deery C, Rodd HD. The impact of dental caries on children and young people: what they have to say? Int J Paediatr Dent. 2015;25(5):327-38. doi: 10.1111/ ipd.12186.
- 23. Motta LJ, Bortoletto CC, Marques AJ, Ferrari RA, Fernandes KP, Bussadori SK. Association between respiratory problems

and dental caries in children with bruxism. Indian J Dent Res. 2014;25(1):9-13. doi: 10.4103/0970-9290.131047.

- 24. Murakami S, Mealey BL, Mariotti A, Chapple IL. Dental plaque-induced gingival conditions. J Clin Periodontol. 2018;45 Suppl 20:S17-27. doi: 10.1111/jcpe.12937.
- Mummolo S, Nota A, Caruso S, Quinzi V, Marchetti E, Marzo G. Salivary markers and microbial flora in mouth breathing late adolescents. Biomed Res Int. 2018;2018:8687608. doi: 10.1155/2018/8687608.
- Chauhan VS, Chauhan RS, Devkar N, Vibhute A, More S. Gingival and periodontal diseases in children and adolescents. J Dent Allied Sci. 2012;1(1):26-9.
- Keller JJ, Wu CS, Chen YH, Lin HC. Association between obstructive sleep apnoea and chronic periodontitis: a population-based study. J Clin Periodontol. 2013;40(2):111-7. doi: 10.1111/jcpe.12036.
- Wang X, Willing MC, Marazita ML, Wendell S, Warren JJ, Broffitt B, et al. Genetic and environmental factors associated with dental caries in children: the Iowa Fluoride Study. Caries Res. 2012;46(3):177-84. doi: 10.1159/000337282.