



Volume 6, No. 4, Autumn 2017 Quarterly



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Quarterly

Review Articles

temporomandibular disorders

Assessing the questionnaires on perceived oral healthcare need: A systematic review Zahra Yaghoubi DDS, Tayebeh Malek-Mohammadi DMD, PhD, Mohammad Khajedaluee MD Maryam Salehi MD
Clinical decision support system, a potential solution for diagnostic accuracy improvement in ora squamous cell carcinoma: A systematic review Hamideh Ehtesham MSc, Reza Safdari PhD, Arash Mansourian DDS, MSc, Shahram Tahmasebian PhD Niloofar Mohammadzadeh PhD, Marjan Ghazisaeedi PhD, Azadeh Bashiri MSc
Original Articles
The association between growth factors and blood factors with early childhood caries Hoda Shamsaddin DDS, MSc, Fatemeh Jahanimoghadam DDS, MSc, Hamidreza Poureslami DDS, MSc Ali Akbar Haghdoost MD, PhD
A retrospective study of children and adolescents oral and maxillofacial lesions over a 20-year periorin Kerman, Iran Molook Torabi-Parizi DDS, MSc, Hamidreza Poureslami DDS, MSc, Soodabeh Torabi-Parizi DDS Mahsa Kalantari DDS, MSc
Human gingival fibroblasts culture in an autologous scaffold and assessing its effect on augmentatio of attached gingiva in a pilot clinical trial Moien Aramoon DDS, MSc, Saeed Rajabalian MSc, Mohammad Mohammadi DDS, MSc, Neda Khodarahm DDS, MSc, Maryam Farzadmoghadam DDS, MSc
Dental care satisfaction among adult population in Isfahan, Iran and its influencing factors Faezeh Eslamipour DDS, MSc, Bahareh Tahani DDS, PhD, Kamal Heydari DDS, MSc Hoda Salehi DDS
Sesame extraction gel as an agent for prevention of dental caries: An in-vitro study Mohammad Bagher Rezvani DDS, MSc, Mohammad Kamali-Nejad MSc, Mehrdad Karimi MD, PhD Hossein Raad DDS, Faezeh Hamze DDS, MSc
Association between clinical and cone-beam computed tomography findings in natients wit

Mahrokh Imanimoghaddam DDS, MSc, Azam Sadat Madani DDS, MSc, Ali Bagherpour DDS, MSc, Samaneh Gharekhani DDS, MSc, Hamed Ebrahimnejad DDS, MSc, Mona Alimohammadi DDS, MSc .. (231-238)

Journal of Oral Health & Oral Epidemiology

Official Journal of Kerman Oral and Dental Diseases Research Center

Online ISSN 2322-1372

http://johoe.kmu.ac.ir johoe@kmu.ac.ir

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Neville BW, Damm DD, Allen CM, Bouquot JE. Oral and maxillofacial pathology. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: W.B Saunders Co.; 2002. pp. 533–87.

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Table of Contents

Review Articles

Assessing the questionnaires on perceived oral healthcare need: A systematic review Zahra Yaghoubi DDS, Tayebeh Malek-Mohammadi DMD, PhD, Mohammad Khajedaluee MD, Maryam Salehi MD..(173-186) Clinical decision support system, a potential solution for diagnostic accuracy improvement in oral squamous cell carcinoma: A systematic review Hamideh Ehtesham MSc, Reza Safdari PhD, Arash Mansourian DDS, MSc, Shahram Tahmasebian PhD, Niloofar Mohammadzadeh PhD, Marjan Ghazisaeedi PhD, Azadeh Bashiri MSc(187-195) Original Articles The association between growth factors and blood factors with early childhood caries Hoda Shamsaddin DDS, MSc, Fatemeh Jahanimoghadam DDS, MSc, Hamidreza Poureslami DDS, MSc, Ali Akbar Haghdoost MD, PhD(196-202) A retrospective study of children and adolescents oral and maxillofacial lesions over a 20-year period in Kerman, Iran Molook Torabi-Parizi DDS, MSc, Hamidreza Poureslami DDS, MSc, Soodabeh Torabi-Parizi DDS, Mahsa Kalantari DDS, MSc(203-210) Human gingival fibroblasts culture in an autologous scaffold and assessing its effect on augmentation of attached gingiva in a pilot clinical trial Moien Aramoon DDS, MSc, Saeed Rajabalian MSc, Mohammad Mohammadi DDS, MSc, Neda Khodarahmi DDS, MSc, Maryam Farzadmoghadam DDS, MSc(211-217) Dental care satisfaction among adult population in Isfahan, Iran and its influencing factors Faezeh Eslamipour DDS, MSc, Bahareh Tahani DDS, PhD, Kamal Heydari DDS, MSc, Hoda Salehi DDS(218-225) Sesame extraction gel as an agent for prevention of dental caries: An in-vitro study Mohammad Bagher Rezvani DDS, MSc, Mohammad Kamali-Nejad MSc, Mehrdad Karimi MD, PhD, Hossein Raad DDS, Faezeh Hamze DDS, MSc(226-230) Association between clinical and cone-beam computed tomography findings in patients with temporomandibular disorders Mahrokh Imanimoghaddam DDS, MSc, Azam Sadat Madani DDS, MSc, Ali Bagherpour DDS, MSc, Samaneh Gharekhani DDS, MSc, Hamed Ebrahimnejad DDS, MSc, Mona Alimohammadi DDS, MSc(231-238)

Received: 04 Jan. 2017 Accepted: 23 Apr. 2017

Assessing the questionnaires on perceived oral healthcare need: A systematic review

Zahra Yaghoubi DDS¹, Tayebeh Malek-Mohammadi DMD, PhD², Mohammad Khajedaluee MD³, Maryam Salehi MD⁴

Review Article

Abstract

BACKGROUND AND AIM: Perception of the need for oral healthcare plays a key role in creating motivation and demand for utilization of oral healthcare services. Furthermore, people with perceived needs to oral healthcare, due to the higher profit potential of services, will be on higher priority for services. The aim of this study was to undertake a systematic review of the existing literature about questionnaires used for assessing the perceived oral healthcare needs.

METHODS: The search was conducted in PubMed, ISI and Scopus databases in March 2016. Questionnaire-based and the papers which aimed to determine the perceived need for any type of oral healthcare and dental treatment were included to this study. After determining the appropriate papers, related data were extracted and reviewed.

RESULTS: Out of 7069 records found, 190 questionnaire-based papers were included in the review. Ninety-four papers were related to the overall evaluation of oral healthcare need, which did not ask the need for types of oral healthcare service. Sixty-six papers studied the need for a specified dental service, and thirty papers recorded the types of oral healthcare service via asking the open or multiple choices questions. There were not comprehensive and standard questionnaires covering all the common types of oral healthcare services.

CONCLUSION: Despite the importance of considering the perception of needs for oral healthcare, there is a lack of the comprehensive and standard questionnaires. Studies aimed to assess perceived oral healthcare needs should use questionnaires which include appropriate items on common types of oral healthcare services based on the characteristics of the target group. Concordance with perceived and normative need is an issue that should be addressed in future researches.

KEYWORDS: Oral Health; Surveys and Questionnaires; Review; Need

Citation: Yaghoubi Z, Malek-Mohammadi T, Khajedaluee M, Salehi M. Assessing the questionnaires on perceived oral healthcare need: A systematic review. J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol 2017; 6(4): 173-86.

ral health is an important part of general health and life quality. ¹ Awareness of oral health needs in population can be useful for promoting the oral healthcare system. ² According to Oxford Dictionary definition, a need is circumstances in which something is necessary. Community health needs assessment is used in evaluating the burden of disease, quantified estimation of population healthcare needs, ascertaining

needs patterns in the population, emphasizing on populations priorities and areas with unmet needs, setting goals to respond to unmet needs, and making decision how to use resources.³

Although there is no generally agreed definition of need, the taxonomy suggested by Bradshaw (1972) is recommended. He defined healthcare need as three categories. Normative need is based on experts'

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opinions, perceived (felt) need is a self-evaluation of healthcare need, and the expressed need is a felt need which has led to action to get health services.³

The most commonly used methods of assessing the need for dental care are based solely on clinical criteria. The limitations associated with a total reliance on clinical indicators and normative need have been realized as lack of objectivity and reliability, negligence of quality of life concept and psychosocial aspects, lack of consideration for health behaviors and patient compliance, and neglect of consumer rights.^{3,4}

In addition, need evaluation should include the patients' perceptions, the effect of ill-health on individuals and dysfunction levels.⁵ However, to evaluate psychosocial aspects of oral health, oral health-related quality of life measures have been well developed,6 but less effort has been made to develop structured questionnaires comprehensively assess perceived healthcare needs. This is a necessity to develop a comprehensive and standard questionnaire which covers the perceived need for all the types of oral healthcare services. Therefore, the aim of this study was to carry out a systematic review of the literature on perceived existing healthcare need assessment in order to find standard and comprehensive questionnaires.

Methods

We conducted a systematic review of the available literature by searching PubMed, ISI and Scopus databases in March 2016 to find papers about the perceived need for oral healthcare. A broad search strategy by a wide range of terms was pursued to capture as many relevant studies as possible; and therefore, a sensitive electronic search strategy was designed using the following terms based on title and abstract: (subjective OR perceived OR expressed OR perception OR felt OR self-report* OR self-evaluate* OR self-assess* OR self-rate* OR reported OR unmet) AND (dental OR oral OR restorat*

OR prosth* OR denture OR implant OR orthodont* OR appliance OR gingiv* OR periodon*) AND (questionnaire OR interview OR survey) AND (Need). No date restriction was applied. Unpublished studies and non-English papers were not considered for inclusion in this systematic review. The adopted search strategy led to 7069 potentially relevant citations, which were transferred to the EndNote library. Papers were potentially suitable for inclusion which aimed to determine the perceived need for any types of oral healthcare and dental treatment by interview or questionnaire.

After elimination of duplicate references, the related papers were screened from the titles and abstracts. Full-texts were reviewed carefully. After determining related papers, the related data were imputed into an excel datasheet. Each paper data was extracted based on the name of first author, year of publication, target population, interview or self-administered questionnaire, if questionnaire validation was reported, and whether papers asked from perceived need to several or a specified type of oral healthcare services.

Results

Details of the identification, screening and selection process are presented in figure 1. We divided related papers into 3 categories. The first category included 186 papers related to the overall evaluation of perceived needs to oral healthcare, but in 92 citations the content of questions had not been mentioned clearly. Thus, these papers were excluded and 94 papers remained. The second category was 30 citations studied the perceived need for several types of oral healthcare services, and the third category included 66 citations evaluated the need for a specified type of oral healthcare services.

The first category was included 94 papers for the overall evaluation of perceived oral healthcare needs. Except for a study which used the specified score of an oral health- related quality of life measure as unmet oral healthcare need, these studies assessed the

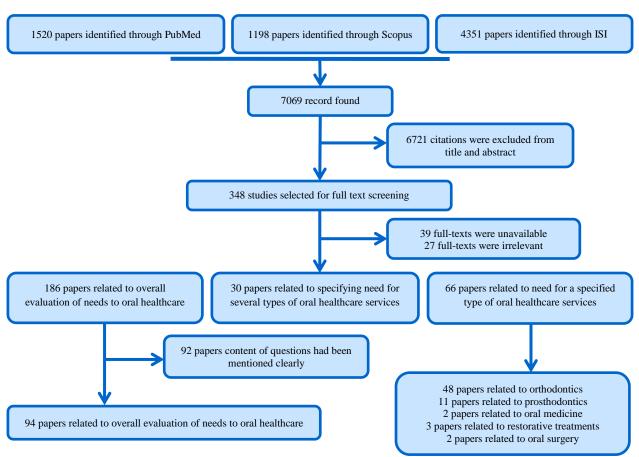


Figure 1. Flow diagram of studies on the perceived need for oral healthcare services

perceived needs by single question without asking the type of oral healthcare services. The

concept of different applied questions is presented in table 1.

Table 1. Types of questions applied for overall evaluation of perceived oral healthcare need

Types of questions in reviewed studies and study reference number	Absolute and relative frequency (%)
Determining the specified score of the oral health-related quality of life measures as unmet oral healthcare need ⁷	1-1.6
Estimation of perceived needs based on using of collection of variables (such as collection of self-reported general and oral health, self-perceived unmet need, and self-perceived pain) ^{8,9}	2-2.12
Rating the perceived needs based on an ordinal scale such as high or low need 10-14	5-5.31
Determining unmet needs as under-utilization of dental services 15	1-1.06
Considering need to dental services by asking perception of need for dental filling or extraction 16-20	5-5.31
Question of having unmet, feeling or perceived need for dental care ²¹⁻⁴⁸	28-29.7
Inability to get oral healthcare needed services during the specified period of time (18 and 24 months ⁴⁹ , one-year ⁵⁰⁻⁷⁵ , 6 months ⁷⁶⁻⁸² , 3 months ⁸³)	35-37.2
Determining unmet need as delay or failure to receive needed dental care 56,60,61,63,68,71-74,84	10-10.6
Inability to get oral healthcare needed services due to cost ^{50,84-86}	4-4.25
Asking if respondent gone to the dentist tomorrow do they think they would need any treatment or not 87-90	4-4.25
Unmet dental need defined as last visit to the dentist more than 1 year before the interview when the participant reports difficulty chewing hard foods ⁹¹	1-1.06
Considering need for check-ups and preventive services in the content of the question that majorities of these papers were applied for children 92-99 and one paper applied for adults 100	9-9.57

Table 2. Related items to each type of dental services

Types of dental service

Restorative treatment

filling, sensitive teeth, decayed teeth, broken teeth, esthetic problems, cosmetic dentistry, tooth cavities, dental caries, broken tooth, restoration, tooth that hurts, chipped tooth

Orthodontics

orthodontics, braces, need to improve appearance, teeth straightening, fill in gaps between teeth

Periodontics

gum disease, periodontics, scaling, gum surgeries, gum treatment, swollen gum, loose tooth, gum soreness, gingival bleeding, gum bleeding, tooth mobility, gum boil, infected gum, polishing, gingival inflammation, gum hurt Prosthodontics

difficulty chewing, crown, bridge, tooth replacement, denture, denture work, new denture, denture repair, partial denture, denture adjustment, prosthesis, missing, cap, grinding or clenching of teeth

Oral medicine

mouth sores, mouth ulcer, oral medicine, bad breath, dry mouth, halitosis, having white patch on the tongue, having cracks on the corners of the mouth, having white patch in the mouth, burning sensation in the mouth or on the tongue, care or assessment of specific problem (pain, infection, injury), current pain

Surgery

extraction, abscessed tooth, teeth pulled, implants

Endodontics

root canal, tooth or dental ache, endodontic, relief of pain, pain, oral pain

Prevention

cleaning, X-rays, check-up, hygiene, examination, preventive care

The second category was included 30 papers which had evaluated perceived need by asking types of oral healthcare services and applied for the adult population. In this category, common format of questions was asked in a close-ended format including a combination of questions by yes/no answers followed by multiple choices of items related to oral problems or dental treatments.

We extracted all proposed dental items and classified them to related dental services. Prosthetic services were the most frequent items which followed by restorative and periodontal services. Moreover, related items for assessment of the need for each type of dental services were asked by different terms. Items on restorative treatments had the most diversity. Related items to each type of dental service and different applied terms are presented in table 2.

In the third category, 66 citations were studied the perceived need for a specified type of oral healthcare services. A number of related papers to each dental service are presented in figure 2. Except for the papers related to perceived orthodontic treatment, other studies used limited items and applied to the adult population.

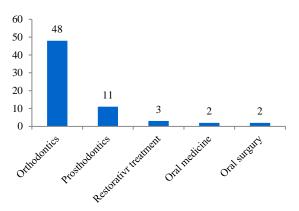


Figure 2. Numbers of related papers to each type of dental services

The prevailing target population of the orthodontic study was adolescents. For subjective assessment of orthodontic treatment, different items were used which presented in figure 3. Normative tools such as aesthetic component (AC) of the index of orthodontic treatment need (IOTN) were not included. Characteristics of the included papers in the second and third categories are presented in table 3.

59% of all the studies conducted by self-administered questionnaire. Characteristics of the included papers in the second and third categories are presented in table 3. Some papers

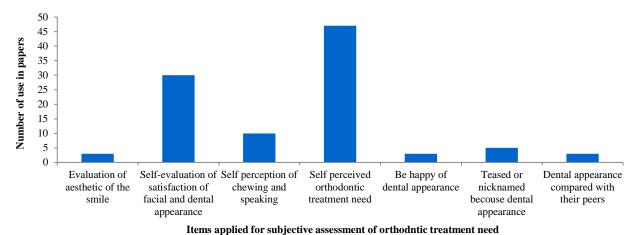


Figure 3. Number of items applied for subjective assessment of orthodontic treatment need

set in more than one category, so the sum of relative frequencies may be over 100%.

Discussion

For understanding perceived oral healthcare need, a valid and comprehensive questionnaire is one of the main prerequisites. In this study, we explored questions of the existing papers on perceived oral healthcare need to find standard, comprehensive and acceptable questionnaires.

Reviewing the literature showed a variety of measures has been used. Majority of included studies merely explored presence or absence of the perceived need for oral healthcare without asking a variety of oral healthcare services separately (the first category of included papers). For an overall assessment of perceived oral healthcare need, mostly two common formats of questions were used. Some of the papers asked the

current need for oral healthcare services, whereas the other papers, mostly evaluated the need for oral healthcare in terms of unmet need, were asked the inability to get oral healthcare needed services during the specified period of time. This time course was mostly a one-year period with this format: During the past 12 months, was a time you need dental care but could not get it? Yes, no.

It seems that this method of perceived need assessment may not give much information. In fact, by knowing the types of services required separately policy-makers will be capable of more accurate planning for oral healthcare services delivery. Papers, which evaluated several types of dental treatments, were widely varied in terms of the number and items related to each dental service. These items varied in terms of types of proposed items on oral healthcare services. However, there were some similarities between applied items.

Table 3. Papers included in the second and third categories

Papers	Count of papers, number of references in the reference list	Year range of publication
Papers which asked types of oral healthcare services	I: 18 ¹⁰¹⁻¹¹⁸	1989-2013
	Q: 12 ¹¹⁹⁻¹³⁰	1997-2016
Prosthodontics	I: 2 ¹³¹⁻¹³²	2009-2013
	Q: 9 ¹³³⁻¹⁴¹	1983-2012
Orthodontics	I: 13 ¹⁴²⁻¹⁵⁴	1991-2015
	Q: 35 ¹⁵⁵⁻¹⁸⁹	1983-2015
Restorative treatment	Q: 3 ¹⁹⁰⁻¹⁹²	2001-2014
Oral medicine	I: 2 ¹⁹³⁻¹⁹⁴	1992-2016
Oral surgery	I: 1 ¹⁹⁵	1994
	Q: 1 ¹⁹⁶	2005

I: interview; Q: questionnaire

Most frequent items were related to prosthetic services which followed by restorative and periodontal services. Despite the importance of the prevention of oral problems, few items were about the need for prevention services. It may be due to the fact that people feel the need to dental services when feel the symptoms of oral problems. Furthermore, the utilization of oral healthcare services is influenced by socioeconomic factors so preventive cares may seem to be an unnecessary service. 197,198 Applied items for assessment of the need for each type of dental services were asked by different terms. The most variety was related to items on restorative treatments. For evaluating the need to prosthetic treatment, often same and common items were used. Most frequent items were full denture related treatments after that fixed prosthesis was asked in terms of bridge and crowns. Need for periodontal treatment was often examined by asking the gum related symptoms like gum bleeding.

Besides, few studies have evaluated treatment needs for some of the oral lesions and most of them were in HIV patients (white patches in the mouth, having cracks on the corners of the mouth, burning sensation) or older adults (dry mouth). Also, the majority of papers that used denture related items had been applied to older adults and elderly. It shows that the applied items must be selected according to the target group.

Some of the studies in the second category open questions and asked the respondent to specify all of their dental treatment needs. But this format may have problems. Response classification maybe after all, respondents may not remember all of their dental treatment needs or reluctant to respond to questions that it takes a long time. Therefore, the responses to the close-ended questions may be more valid and reliable. 199 It is reasonable that a standard comprehensive questionnaire evaluating all the common types of oral healthcare services should be included

questions in several domains restorative, prosthetic, endodontic, periodontal and preventive services. As mentioned previously, it is better to apply close-ended question. Moreover, because each dental service may probably need more multiple-choice single item questions seem more suitable. With limited items, not including important symptoms of oral and dental diseases, all the types of oral healthcare needs may not adequately be assessed, resulting in underestimation.

For each dental service, use of the perceptible symptoms which is highly correlated with clinical finding may be suitable items. For instance, some of the studies evaluated restorative needs by word of "filling" but it looks applying items about main dental caries symptoms like cavities or hypersensitivity are more accurate. Also, asking the gum related symptoms, like gum bleeding and tooth mobility which highly correlate with clinical findings, appear to be appropriate items. Prosthetic services include a wide range of treatment options. So a comprehensive questionnaire should include more items for prosthetic services like the presence of missing and functional problems (problems with chewing and talking), getting new full or partial denture, crown and bridge and dental implant. Asking about a toothache is a suitable item for evaluating endodontic Moreover, preventive services should be included in the questionnaire by asking items on dental examination and check-up.

The third category was papers on specified types of oral healthcare services. The most of the papers that assessed perceived need for orthodontic treatment applied for adolescents (12-15-year old) and tried to do a comprehensive subjective assessment by structured questionnaires. However, few studies, which assessed perceived the need for other specified types of oral healthcare services, used the limited items by one or two questions.

We can say except for the papers related to

orthodontic treatment, less effort has been made to develop standard and comprehensive questionnaires to assess perception of other specified oral healthcare needs. For more accurate need assessment, it may be better to design a unique and standard questionnaire for perceived need for each type of dental services.

Using of validation methods were not always described, but were not used in the exclusion process. In the majority of studies, there was not a report on validity and especially reliability of the questionnaires and the results of these studies may be less accurate. Totally, almost more than half of studies used self-administered questionnaire and others conducted by face to face or telephone interview. Perhaps the most advantage of applying mail questionnaire is lower cost, but there is no one available to explain and clarify questions may be problematic especially for children and elderly.²⁰⁰

This study was carried out by some limitations. In this study, there was the lack of access to some of the full-text papers and were excluded from the study. In some full-text papers, the questions were not available, so the items were extracted from the results

and tables. Also, we did not include non-English papers in the review.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we can say that despite the importance and necessity of considering the perception of needs for oral healthcare, there is a lack of the standard questionnaires. The difference in applied methods for perceived need assessment may make problems in generalizing of the result of these studies. Therefore, it is absolutely necessary to design standard questionnaires by considering the difference in needs of various age groups. Results of this systematic review can help researchers to design an appropriate and comprehensive questionnaire for assessment of the perceived need for oral healthcare services. For maximizing the accuracy of the results of these questionnaires, accordance with perceived and normative need is matters that should be addressed in future research.

Conflict of Interests

Authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by Kerman University of Medical Sciences, Kerman, Iran.

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Received: 14 Feb. 2017 Accepted: 21 May 2017

Clinical decision support system, a potential solution for diagnostic accuracy improvement in oral squamous cell carcinoma: A systematic review

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Review Article

Abstract

BACKGROUND AND AIM: Oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) is a rapidly progressive disease and despite the progress in the treatment of cancer, remains a life-threatening illness with a poor prognosis. Diagnostic techniques of the oral cavity are not painful, non-invasive, simple and inexpensive methods. Clinical decision support systems (CDSSs) are the most important diagnostic technologies used to help health professionals to analyze patients' data and make decisions. This paper, by studying CDSS applications in the process of providing care for the cancer patients, has looked into the CDSS potentials in OSCC diagnosis.

METHODS: We retrieved relevant articles indexed in MEDLINE/PubMed database using high-quality keywords. First, the title and then the abstract of the related articles were reviewed in the step of screening. Only research articles which had designed clinical decision support system in different stages of providing care for the cancer patient were retained in this study according to the input criteria.

RESULTS: Various studies have been conducted about the important roles of CDSS in health processes related to different types of cancer. According to the aim of studies, we categorized them into several groups including treatment, diagnosis, risk assessment, screening, and survival estimation.

CONCLUSION: Successful experiences in the field of CDSS applications in different types of cancer have indicated that machine learning methods have a high potential to manage the data and diagnostic improvement in OSCC intelligently and accurately.

KEYWORDS: Squamous Cell Carcinoma; Clinical Decision Support System; Neoplasm; Dental Informatics

Citation: Ehtesham H, Safdari R, Mansourian A, Tahmasebian S, Mohammadzadeh N, Ghazisaeedi M, et al. Clinical decision support system, a potential solution for diagnostic accuracy improvement in oral squamous cell carcinoma: A systematic review. J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol 2017; 6(4): 187-95.

ral cavity cancer refers to all malignancies of the lips, mouth and neck, among which oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) is the most common one.^{1,2} Etiology and biological behavior studies of OSCC have suggested that this carcinoma develops a more

aggressive behavior with poor prognosis.^{3,4}

In response to the need for early detection of OSCC, several diagnostic techniques have been developed over the years, mostly including vital staining, light-based detection systems, histological techniques, cytological techniques, molecular analyses and imaging

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techniques.^{5,6} One of the most considerable improvements in the healthcare area is a trend to the non-invasive interventions in the diagnosis and treatment of diseases.

In recent years, numerous studies have been conducted to identify and assess the diagnostic biomarkers for OSCC. Identification of reliable biological tumor markers showed high sensitivity, efficiency and specificity for oral cancer and can be an additional tool for diagnosis, prognosis and treatment monitoring of patients with cancer.⁷

Also, use of the computers to assist health professionals in their activities has become popular in recent decades. The first efforts focused on the development of diagnostic systems. Clinical decision support systems (CDSSs) are the most important diagnostic technologies used to help health professionals to analyze patient data and make decisions.⁸

high advent of information technology and dental devices has produced vast amounts of data. Moreover, the use of data mining algorithms and intelligence techniques in dental informatics has a great potential to manage new big data. However, few efforts have been made to apply these techniques and relatively little research has been conducted to retrieve meaningful information from dental data. Some studies have used k-means clustering methods to establish normative data on tooth size9 in order to categorize the patients with facial asymmetry into the groups with different characteristics.¹⁰ Detection of oral cancer by applying k-means clustering and principal component analyses was carried out the spectra obtained autofluorescence spectroscopy.¹¹

The use of expert systems also has been associated with successful experiences in dentistry. For example, an expert system has helped decision making and treatment of the most common periodontal conditions.¹² Another expert system has used neural artificial intelligence to test the accuracy of periodontal disease risk assessment.¹³

Moreover, another expert system has determined the diagnosis, disease severity and the treatment methods in periodontal diseases based on the patient clinical data and radiographic findings.¹⁴

The appearance of CDSS in dentistry has addressed the several major areas of dental practice. Different types of knowledge representation and different modalities have been used in its development. A prediction system was developed in orthodontics where extraction/non-extraction decisions are very important. This system has been successfully optimized to obtain the concise representation of the expertise knowledge elements with prediction accuracy.¹⁵ A triage tool was designed and successfully evaluated to determine the patient's examination waiting time by describing their clinical symptoms in the dental care unit.16 A study was conducted with the objective developing a decision support system for predicting the degree of color change after inoffice tooth whitening by using colorimetric values. The patients' post-treatment color was largely close to the system prediction.¹⁷

A comprehensive review of the literature on decision support applications in dentistry, grouped these systems into seven subareas of dentistry: dental emergencies and trauma, orofacial pain, oral medicine, oral radiology, orthodontics, pulpal diagnosis, and restorative dentistry.¹⁸

CDSSs have a great potential for providing the opportunities to improve patient care in various fields of oral medicine especially in oral cancer, through managing a large amount of data intelligently.

The present study aims to review the literature on the CDSS applications in cancer with special attention to oral cancer. Therefore, key questions in this study include: 1- What are the CDSS applications in the process of providing care for the cancer patient? 2- What applications have been used in oral cancer? 3- Have been CDSS applications used in OSCC?

A description with details of the CDSS

applications in health processes related to different types of cancer provides an appropriate model for highlighting their potentials for diagnostic accuracy improvement in OSCC.

Methods

This study was a systematic review to identify articles published in PubMed and focusing on CDSS applications in cancer. We searched the database in September 2016 with the following strategy: (("Neoplasms"[MeSH]) AND "Decision Support Systems, Clinical"[MeSH] AND Humans [MeSH] AND English [lang]) Filters: Humans; English.

After the identification step, we screened the titles and abstracts of the related articles according to the inclusion/exclusion criteria. Inclusion criteria included only original articles, designed and used clinical decision support system in different stages of providing care for the cancer patients. No date restriction was applied to the search. Due to the limitations of searching database alone and in order to avoid missing related articles, we focused on article citations and before-and-after studies. Studies excluded where they were not relevant to the key questions. The search was limited to journal articles written in the English language. Letters, reviews and conference proceedings also were excluded.

After screening the titles and abstracts of potential articles, remaining studies were subjected to the screening of their main content, which in turn, their full-texts were reviewed. Figure 1 shows the flow of the article selection procedure.

Data extraction and validity assessment were performed in two steps. First, a checklist was developed as an assessment tool with the aim of answering the key questions. Intended variables included references, objective, cancer type and result. Details from each article were extracted by two independent reviewers. In the second step and in order to have a systemic investigation, the variables collected in the data extraction form were classified into separate groups.

Results

A total of 414 potentially relevant titles, abstracts, and articles were found in MEDLINE/PubMed search. Non-pertinent papers were excluded according to inclusion and exclusion criteria after screening the titles and abstracts. We reviewed the full-texts of the remaining 82 articles. Finally, 17 articles met the inclusion criteria and considered as the final samples. Table 1 indicates the variable extracted from articles.

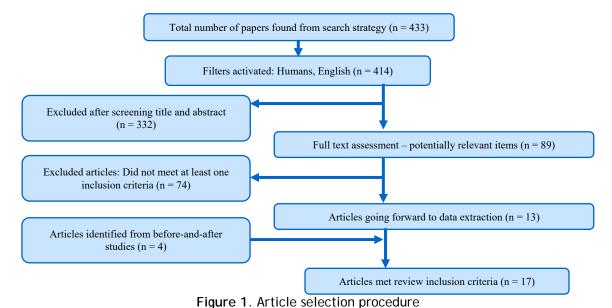


Table 1. Characteristics of included studies

D.C	Okiadia		
Reference	Objective	Cancer type	Result
Abernethy et al. 19	Educates clinical decision makers and healthcare professionals about the burden of cancer pain in their individual populations	ALL	Leads to improved pain control with modest increases in resource use
Finlayson et al. ²⁰	Providing an analytical engine and user interface that enables physicians to gain clinical insights by rapidly identifying and analyzing cohorts of patients similar to their own	Melanoma	The MRLU is an important component in building an RLS for data-driven precision medicine in melanoma treatment that could be generalized to other clinical disorders
Mi et al. ²¹	To select predictive features from clinical and PET-based features, in order to provide doctors with informative factors so as to anticipate the outcome of the patient treatment	ALL	Addition of prior knowledge improves the robustness and accelerates the convergence
Cakir and Demirel ²²	To help to oncology doctor for the suggestion of application of the treatment methods about breast cancer patients	Breast cancer	Data mining approach can be a useful tool for medical applications particularly at the treatment decision step
Bury et al. ²³	To assist with dosage adjustments during maintenance therapy for childhood ALL	Lymphobla stic Leukaemia	Improvement in time taken to manage each case; accuracy of dosage calculations
Gerbert et al. ²⁴	To determine whether decision support software can help primary care physicians proficiently triage lesions suggestive of basal cell and squamous cell carcinoma	Skin cancer	Use of decision support software could improve primary care physicians' triage decisions for lesions suggestive of non-melanoma skin cancer, and potentially reduce morbidity and health care costs
Emery et al. ²⁵	To evaluate the effect of an assessment strategy using the computer decision support system (the GRAIDS software), on the management of familial cancer risk	Familial breast or colorectal cancer	Improved practitioner confidence and had no adverse psychological effects in patients
Ozanne et al. ²⁶	Provides automated risk assessment and personalized decision support designed for collaborative use between patients and clinicians	Breast cancer	The ability to integrate risk assessment and decision support in real time will allow for informed, value-driven, and patient-centered breast cancer prevention decisions
Javan Amoli et al. ²⁷	Electronic risk assessment system as an appropriate tool for the prevention of cancer	ALL	Electronic pathways have been applied for clinical and genetic decision support, workflow management, update recommendation and resource estimates
Shelton et al. ²⁸	Implemented guidelines seeking to reduce PSA-based screening for prostate cancer in men aged 75 years and older	Prostate cancer	With this simple intervention, evidence-based guidelines were brought to bear at the point of care, precisely for the patients and providers for whom they were most helpful, resulting in more appropriate use of medical resources
Hills et al. ²⁹	Improving guideline-consistent cervical cancer screening practices in an urban safety net clinic	Cervical cancer	Patients screened according to guidelines nearly doubled while the number of underscreened patients was reduced by nearly half. Similarly, there was a threefold decrease in patients screened more frequently than recommended
Maserat et al. ³⁰	To detail engineering of information requirements and workflow design of CDSS for a colorectal cancer screening program	Colorectal cancer	A CDSS facilitates complex decision making for screening and has key roles in designing optimal interactions between colonoscopy, pathology and laboratory departments
Lundin et al. ³¹	To evaluate the accuracy of an Internet- based method for survival estimation in breast cancer	Breast cancer	A web-based case-match system can generate survival curves for user-defined prognostic factor combinations and identify patients with a varying risk for breast cancer recurrence

Table 1. Characteristics of included studies (continue)

Table 1. Ordinacteristics of included studies (continue)				
Reference	Objective	Cancer type	Result	
Sidiropoul	Supporting rare cancers decision making	Brain	Enables real-time, optimal design of a CDSS	
os et al. ³²	operates on a GPU and adjusting its design	cancer	for any user-defined clinical question for	
	in real-time based on user-defined clinical		improving diagnostic assessments, prognostic	
	questions in contrast to standard CPU		relevance and concordance rates for rare	
	implementations		cancers in clinical practice	
Exarchos	To identify the factors that dictate OSCC	Oral	The discrimination potential of each source of	
et al. ³³	progression and subsequently predict	squamous	data is initially explored separately, and	
	potential relapses (local or metastatic) of the	cell	afterward, the individual predictions are	
	disease	carcinoma	combined to yield a consensus decision	
			achieving complete discrimination between	
			patients with and without a disease relapse	
Nguyen	To classify automatically lung TNM cancer	Lung tumor	It was verified that the symbolic rule-based	
et al. ³⁴	stages from free-text pathology reports using		approach using SNOMED CT can be used for	
	symbolic rule-based classification		the extraction of key lung cancer	
			characteristics from free-text reports	
Nguyen	Development of a Web-enabled relational	Hematologi	This database shows significant improvement	
et al. ³⁵	database integrated with decision-making	c neoplasm	in diagnostic accuracy over our previous	
	tools for teaching flow cytometric diagnosis		database prototype	
	of hematologic neoplasms			

ALL: Acute lymphoblastic leukemia; MRLU: Melanoma rapid learning utility; RLS: Rapid learning system; PET: Positron emission tomography; PSA: Prostate-specific antigen; CDSSs: Clinical decision support systems; GPU: Graphics Processing Unit; CPU: Central processing unit; OSCC: Oral squamous cell carcinoma; TNM: Tumor-node-metastasis; SNOMED CT: Systematized nomenclature of medicine-clinical term

In order to answer the key questions, we categorized the articles according to CDSS applications in the different stages of providing care for the cancer patients, including diagnosis, treatment, risk assessment, screening and survival estimation.

CDSSs play an important role in different stages of cancer diagnosis and treatment. For example, some of these include a challenging decision making on chemotherapy protocols for a patient,36 supported the nurses' decision-making process about patients' needs and preparation of individual care plans.37 Another example application is to help with the diagnosis within a gastroenterology room during real examinations with endoscopy humansupport computer interaction (HCI) methodologies in order to identify interaction opportunities,38 and precise selection of meningioma brain histopathological image classification.³⁹ Also, it is used as a practical tool to improve the selection of protocols for monitoring, diagnosing, and treating cervical cancer in women and the patient-specific follow-up decision making for them.40 Some

decision support systems have examined drug interactions of various diseases and may lead to undesirable and sometimes life-threatening reactions.⁴¹

Furthermore, cancer screening programs have been run in different countries as a primary preventive measures in order to reduce damage and focus on the high-risk groups of cancer .7 In the screening process and to manage the cases with a positive test, especially for the patients at risk developing cancer, presenting the report of the follow-up referral with the aim of providing therapeutic suggestions can be very effective. CDSSs have an important role in this context and upgrade the quality of the screening programs significantly. Moreover, the time saving of 1 minute and 39 seconds per patient consultation for providers has been calculated.42

Few studies have examined the application of machine learning methods in OSCC. Only a multiparametric decision support system formulated for the prediction of OSCC reoccurrence. In this system, collected different type of data have included

clinical data, imaging and gene expression data in order to identify the factors that have potential involvement in OSCC progression and subsequently predict the possibility of a recurrence of the disease.⁴³ Table 2 shows some of the different applications of CDSS in the stages of cancer.

Discussion

The advent of information technology in the field of medicine, and in particular the application of artificial intelligence, has led to significant progress in the data management especially in chronic diseases such as cancer. Discovering the patterns and relationships between them from the multiple and complex data sets have facilitated the effective prediction of future outcomes of cancer.⁴⁴ In recent years, many studies have used molecular, clinical or population-based data to predict cancer susceptibility,⁴⁵ recurrence⁴³ and survival.^{46,47}

Due to the nature of medical data, the success of any intelligent system largely depends on the input data optimality; therefore, using data mining approaches are essential in order to reduce the data dimension, optimal choice and Increase in accuracy.⁴⁸

Understanding of tumorigenesis can have a positive effect on the diagnosis and treatment process and also designing the more effective CDSSs. Different studies indicated that the following stages are required for cancer to form: 1- Acquisition of autonomous proliferative signaling, 2- Inhibition of growth inhibitory signals, 3- Evasion of programmed cell death, 4- Immortalization, 5- Acquisition of a nutrient blood supply (angiogenesis) and 6- Acquisition of the ability to invade tissue. 44,49,50

Although significant progress has been made in the treatment of cancer, survival rate remains unchanged and oral cancer remains a life-threatening illness with a poor prognosis.⁵¹

OSCC is a rapidly progressive disease, although it can be a slower process by using several mechanisms, including defective

antigen presentation, interference with tumor-T cell interaction and production of immunosuppressive factors.⁵²

Various studies have been conducted about the potentials and limitations of microarrays for the prediction of OSCC outcome, based on gene expression signatures. 53,54 The bioinformatics method that can be used to distinguish OSCC and normal tissues is gene ontology (GO). GO analysis was used to investigate the critical genes in the progression of OSCC and protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks. Moreover, pathway enrichment analysis was performed to estimate the significant pathways.55 Studies that examine the impact of proteins on development and metastasis of OSCC through regulation of transcriptional responses, differentiation, angiogenesis, proliferation, and apoptotic programs can help researchers identify crucial targets for the prevention and treatment of OSCC.56

The importance of early diagnosis, the prognosis of cancer type, classifying cancer patients into high or low-risk groups, also an improvement in screening uptake by a combination of risk factors including genetic, environmental and behavioral risk factors in primary care led to an interest in the use of information technology and artificial intelligence in this area.⁵⁷

Various surveys on the system development process have indicated the significant evolutions toward an effective improvement with regards to the patient, attention to organizational and economic issues and use of standard models for knowledge representation.⁵⁸ Dentists positive attitudes at the outset of a system change can help organizational administrators with the adoption of evidence-based dentistry tools such as a CDSS system.⁵⁹

Efficiency and usability in CDSSs have a significant impact on users' adoption,⁶⁰ but designing a system with a multitude of warnings and suggestions and alarms is misleading and ambiguous.⁶¹ Therefore, special attention has to be paid to these

points to design a convenient and functional system. Obviously, artificial intelligence analysis of health data and clinical decision support system must be employed along with clinicians. 62,63 Improving the capabilities of the CDSS and presenting it as an intelligent web service and providing access to dentists, as well as medical researchers, is an effective step in managing new and tracking past patients.

Conclusion

With the advent of information technologies in the field of medicine, especially computer-based decision aids with embedded algorithms, there have been significant developments in the diagnosis and treatment of diseases.

Clinical decision support system can have an effective role in classifying the patients with OSCC into the higher/lower risk of reoccurrence groups and determine the optimal treatment protocols in a cost-effective manner at the point of caregiver. Furthermore, the significant performance of the CDSS in improving the accuracy of early detection can play a vital role in reducing invasive treatments.

The trend of diagnostic techniques of the oral cavity towards non-invasive methods and identification of reliable biological tumor markers for OSCC produces a large amount of data. CDSS can manage data intelligently and improve in diagnostic accuracy

Obviously, several studies can be programmed on the application of the CDSS in susceptibility and survivability prediction in OSCC patient.

Conflict of Interests

Authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the library staffs of Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Iran, for their sincere cooperation and contribution to get results via searching the articles.

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Received: 29 Nov. 2016 Accepted: 18 Mar. 2017

The association between growth factors and blood factors with early childhood caries

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Original Article

Abstract

BACKGROUND AND AIM: Early childhood caries (ECC) is a specific form of rampant dental caries affecting infants and young children. ECC is still a problem that threatens the health of the community and its management is important. It is believed that the majorities of children with ECC also suffer from malnutrition, anemia, low weight and altered physical growth patterns. This study was undertaken to compare blood indices [mean corpuscular volume (MCV), hemoglobin and serum ferritin] in a population of children in Kerman, Iran, and the association between growth factors, blood parameters, and ECC.

METHODS: In this cross-sectional study, 240 children were selected from Afzalipour Hospital of Kerman. The subjects consisted of 2 to 6-year children, who needed blood sampling for different diagnostic reasons. Data were collected through clinical oral examinations, anthropometric measures, blood indices measurement (MCV, hemoglobin and serum ferritin) and structured questionnaire in order to assess demographic characteristics, nutritional habits and the presence or absence of systemic conditions. Data were analyzed using SPSS software.

RESULTS: The mean age of subjects was 50.79 months. Of 240 children included in this study, 124 (52.1%) were girls and the rest (47.9%) were boys. Statistical test revealed that there were statically significant differences in weight as well as the height of children in experimental and control groups (P < 0.050). No significant differences were detected in the frequencies of low hematocrit levels between the groups with and without dental caries (P > 0.050).

CONCLUSION: No significant association was observed between ECC and blood indices (MCV, hemoglobin and serum ferritin), but the mean height and weight in the caries-free group were significantly higher.

KEYWORDS: Dental Caries; Iron Deficiency; Anemia; Preschool Child; Growth Factors; Blood Factors; Early Childhood Caries

Citation: Shamsaddin H, Jahanimoghadam F, Poureslami H, Haghdoost AA. The association between growth factors and blood factors with early childhood caries. J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol 2017; 6(4): 196-202.

ental caries is a transmissible infectious disease and its initiation and progression are affected by various factors.¹ It has been demonstrated that children with higher counts of Streptococcus mutans and Lactobacilli are 5 times more prone to have early childhood caries (ECC) as compared to those with lower

counts of these bacterial species.2

The American Academy of Pediatric Dentistry (AAPD) has defined ECC as the presence of one or several tooth surfaces (cavitated or non-cavitated) which have been lost or restored due to caries in any of the primary teeth in 71-month or younger children.³ It has been shown that children of

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J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol/ Autumn 2017; Vol. 6, No. 4

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families with low socioeconomic status, irrespective of culture and ethnicity, suffer from this condition more than other groups. In general and based on the studies carried out in almost all the countries, varying prevalence rates have been reported in different age groups.

ECC has been reported to be the most common chronic disease in children in the United States. Dental caries is five times more common than asthma and seven times more common than hay fever.⁴ Furthermore, the prevalence of ECC in Iran has been reported to be 3-44% in different parts of the country,⁵⁻⁷ which necessitates further research about the condition and evaluation of techniques to deal with it. The current knowledge on the effects of ECC on the nutritional status of children is not sufficient and it is believed that the majorities of children with ECC also suffer from malnutrition, anemia, low weight and altered physical growth patterns.⁸

Despite the epidemic nature of dental caries and iron deficiency, limited studies are available on the association between these two entities. ECC is still a problem that threatens the health of the community and its management is important. ECC might lead to malocclusion of permanent phonetic problems, and low self-confidence. Continuous and unbearable pain in young children, such as a toothache, have serious and sometimes irreversible effects on the growth and development of children.9 Moreover, caries is more prevalent in deciduous teeth. This phenomenon itself is one of the most important factors in shifting caries to newly erupted permanent teeth.¹⁰ The children's health affects their nutrition, sleep, smile, speech, and socialization. In addition, the facial appearance affects the children's mental health and, subsequently the establishment of social relationships.¹¹ Furthermore, clinicians have also found that attractive appearance and acceptance can help the person in achieving social success.12 Based on a research, weight gain and other parameters related to the

growth and development of children are normal when the teeth are healthy, which might be attributed to the efficacy of mastication and proper nutrition.¹³

ECC predisposes more severe dental conditions in future,14 and increases the sensitivity of children to somatic pains. Limitations in selecting food, decreased appetite, anorexia and a decrease in food enjoyment are complications that associate dental caries with weight loss, delayed growth and poor development.15-17 On the other hand, it has been demonstrated that the weight loss is compensated after the dental health has been improved.¹⁸ Therefore, identification malnutrition risk factors results in a decrease in its occurrence, which in turn improves the children's health-related indices.

The present study was undertaken to evaluate growth and blood factors in children with ECC.¹⁹ Therefore, the possible role of some factors relevant to malnutrition in this type of dental caries would be elucidated.

Methods

This cross-sectional study was undertaken using clinical examination. A checklist, including demographic characteristics (age, sex) and the presence or absence of systemic conditions, was completed by an examiner (a trained pedodontist) on 240 children. All the 2 to 6-year children in the pediatric department of Afzalipour Hospital of Kerman, south-east of Iran, who needed blood sampling for different diagnostic reasons, were included in this study through random sampling. The parents were asked about children's feeding pattern during infancy and birth weight. The ethical code (K/88/07) was allocated to this study by the Oral Diseases Research Center of Kerman. The parents signed an informed consent form for the participation of their children in the study.

Children with ECC were compared with a control group of caries-free children. Two groups of children were included in this study. The inclusion criteria were as follows: no specific physical or systemic condition related

to ECC or iron deficiency as reported by the parents, absence of severe renal insufficiency and hypothyroidism (anemia is one of the complications of these two medical conditions), an age range of 2 to 6 years. Children with systemic disease, severe renal insufficiency and hypothyroidism were excluded.

The children underwent a clinical examination under a 100-W light using disposable dental mirrors and explorers and placed in one of the following groups. G1: caries-free, G2: decalcification on the maxillary incisors, G3: cavity on the maxillary incisors, and G4: decalcification on some maxillary incisors and cavities on some others.²⁰

The clinical evaluation of the nutritional status involves several tests to correctly determine the presence of malnutrition. The clinical parameters of children including height, weight and the upper mid-arm circumference (MAC) were measured. The MAC was measured on the right side. A tape measure, with no capacity to be stretched, was used for such measurement. To this end, the examiner measured the distance between the acromion process of the scapula and the elbow, determined the middle point, and then measured the circumference of the arm at this point without exerting any pressure on the arm.²¹ The most important blood tests that might indicate iron deficiency are hemoglobin, ferritin sodium and to a lesser extent mean corpuscular volume (MCV),22 which were evaluated in the present study. Based on a definition by World Health Organization (WHO), a hemoglobin level under 11 or a hematocrit value under 33% in 6 to 59-month children, and hemoglobin levels under 11.5 or hematocrit levels under 34% in 5 to 11-year children indicate anemia.²³ If iron deficiency anemia is assessed based on serum ferritin levels, at ages under 5 and ages between 5 to 15 years, ferritin levels under 12 and 15 are considered abnormal, respectively.²⁴

Data were analyzed using SPSS software (version 20, IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA). Mean ± standard deviation (SD) and number (percentage) were used for data description. Analysis of variance (ANOVA), Student's independent t-test, and chi-square or Fisher's exact tests were used for data analysis. Statistical significance was set at P < 0.050.

Results

A total of 240 children were included in this cross-sectional study. 124 subjects (52.1%) were girls and the rest (47.9%) were boys. Table 1 shows frequency distribution of the children according to sex, feeding pattern, caries status, birth weight, and blood parameters. Demographic characteristics and selected blood tests between ECC and control groups have been shown in table 2. ANOVA test outcomes showed that only the mean height in the cariesfree group was significantly higher than that in other groups (Table 3).

Table 1. Distribution of the children according to sex, feeding pattern, caries, birth weight, and blood parameters

Parameter		n (%)
Sex	Female	124 (51.7)
	Male	116 (48.3)
Feeding pattern	Breastfeeding	166 (69.2)
	Bottle feeding	36 (15.0)
	Both	38 (15.8)
Blood test	Normal	84 (35.0)
	Decreased	156 (65.0)
Weight at birth time	Normal	220 (91.7)
	Low birth weight	20 (8.3)
Caries	Caries free	83 (34.6)
	Decalcification of anterior upper teeth	18 (7.5)
	Cavity on anterior upper teeth	126 (52.5)
	Decalcification in some teeth and cavity in others	13 (5.4)

Table 2. Demographic characteristics and selected laboratory tests among 2 to 6-year Iranian children

Characteristic	Cario	es
Characteristic	No (n = 83)	Yes (n = 159)
Ferritin (ng/ml) (mean ± SD)	34.63 ± 19.16	34.39 ± 24.93
Hb (g/dl) (mean \pm SD)	12.37 ± 1.02	12.50 ± 2.48
Height (cm) (mean \pm SD)	99.53 ± 14.15	96.94 ± 9.97
$MAC (mean \pm SD)$	15.09 ± 2.74	14.98 ± 1.66
MCV (mean \pm SD)	77.61 ± 4.59	76.80 ± 5.64
Weight (kg) (mean \pm SD)	16.34 ± 4.24	15.22 ± 3.29
Age (month) (mean \pm SD)	51.87 ± 16.45	50.23 ± 14.42

SD: Standard deviation; Hb: Hemoglobin; MAC: Mid-arm circumference; MCV: Mean corpuscular volume

The 4 groups were converted to two groups, with and without caries, and reanalyzed. Student's independent t-test analysis showed that only the mean weight of children who had no caries was significantly higher than children with any type of caries.

In addition, Fisher's exact test did not exhibit any significant differences in the frequencies of low hematocrit values and low birth weight between the different age groups with caries. Similarly, chi-square test did not show any significant differences in the frequencies of low hematocrit values and low birth weight between the two groups (Table 4).

Based on the results, the mean height of caries-free children was significantly higher than the children with caries. The mean caries-free children weight of significantly higher than that of children with caries. There were no significant differences in the frequencies of low hematocrit levels between groups with and without caries. The frequencies of low birth weight were not significantly different between groups with different caries rates. There were no significant differences in the frequencies of low birth rates between groups with and without caries.

Discussion

At present, there are insufficient data on the relationship between caries and iron deficiency. Meanwhile, the available data are contradictory. In this study, children with ECC and caries-free children were included to evaluate the relationship between MCV, hemoglobin, and serum ferritin levels and dental caries. Height, weight and MAC of all participants were measured.

To date, only a limited number of studies have assessed the nutritional status of young children with ECC. In a study, the clinical criterion used for the diagnosis of ECC was the presence of smooth surface caries on 4 maxillary incisors.²⁵ In the present study, the clinical criterion for the diagnosis of ECC was the presence of smooth surface caries with cavities or decalcification on 4 maxillary incisors. Initial studies have shown that children with ECC might have lower mean weight, compared to caries-free children.

Table 3. The comparison of measured parameter between four groups according to caries stages

Parameter	Caries free (n = 83)	Decalcification of anterior upper teeth (n = 18)	Cavity on anterior upper teeth (n = 126)	Decalcification in some teeth and cavity in others (n = 13)	\mathbf{P}^*
Weight (kg) (mean ± SD)	16.34 ± 4.25	14.07 ± 2.33	15.41 ± 3.26	15.03 ± 4.47	0.060
Height (cm) (mean \pm SD)	99.54 ± 14.15	93.28 ± 11.99	97.98 ± 9.43	91.65 ± 10.32	0.040
MAC	15.09 ± 2.74	14.36 ± 0.92	15.08 ± 1.66	15.00 ± 2.11	0.570
Hb (g/dl) (mean \pm SD)	12.38 ± 1.02	12.52 ± 1.04	12.27 ± 1.12	12.46 ± 0.95	0.710
Ferritin (ng/ml) (mean \pm SD)	34.63 ± 19.10	24.39 ± 13.93	35.62 ± 26.51	38.66 ± 18.78	0.240
MCV	77.61 ± 4.59	77.92 ± 6.28	76.58 ± 5.74	77.47 ± 3.87	0.480

Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

SD: Standard deviation; MAC: Mid-arm circumference; Hb: Hemoglobin; MCV: Mean corpuscular volume

Table 4. The comparison of measured parameters between two groups [with and without early childhood caries (ECC)]

Parameter	Cari	. P *	
1 at affecter	No (n = 83)	Yes (n = 157)	1
Weight (kg) (mean ± SD)	16.35 ± 4.25	15.23 ± 3.29	0.040
Height (cm) (mean \pm SD)	99.54 ± 14.16	96.91 ± 9.99	0.130
MAC	15.09 ± 2.75	14.99 ± 1.64	0.740
Hb (g/dl) (mean \pm SD)	12.38 ± 1.02	12.31 ± 1.10	0.660
Ferritin (ng/ml) (mean \pm SD)	34.63 ± 19.16	34.58 ± 25.01	0.980
MCV	77.61 ± 4.59	76.81 ± 5.66	0.260

*Student's independent t-test

SD: Standard deviation; Hb: Hemoglobin; MAC: Mid-arm circumference; MCV: Mean corpuscular volume

Therefore, it has been suggested that these children might not have received adequate calories.^{26,27} In this study, only the weight of children, who were caries-free, was significantly higher than that in children with caries.

Thomas and Primosch compared the weight of children with ECC, with the reference norms for children, and concluded that children with ECC had no noticeable weight loss.²⁷ The limitation of that study and similar studies is the fact that they have used only the children's weight as a criterion for the evaluation of their nutritional status, which is not sufficient for the evaluation of the clinical nature of nutrition. On the other hand, Bagherian and Sadeghi evaluated the relationship between body mass index (BMI) and dental caries in preschool children, where they showed a higher rate of dental caries in overweight children. They attributed this problem to the possible relationship between a higher intake of high-calorie foodstuffs deficient in nutritive materials by these children.²⁸ Several studies support these findings.²⁹⁻³²

Similar to our results, Gaur and Nayak suggested that severe ECC negatively influenced the children weights. Awareness and parents' education may help in improving their weights.³³ Clarke et al.²² evaluated the nutritional status of children with ECC using different clinical criteria. The clinical measurements consisted of height, weight and MAC. In addition, they evaluated the blood samples of the subjects for hemoglobin, MCV and serum albumin and

ferritin levels. These measurements were compared with those in a control group. The results of the study suggested that ECC might be a risk maker for iron deficiency anemia. In their study, 80% of the subjects exhibited low serum levels of ferritin and in 28% of children, the hemoglobin levels were lower than the standard levels. Interestingly, after rendering dental treatments to children with ECC, their ferritin and hemoglobin levels were improved.²²

Shaoul et al. showed a significant relationship between ECC and low serum levels of ferritin.34 However, the mechanism of the relationship between iron deficiency and dental caries is unknown. Several hypotheses have been proposed in this regard to date. A hypothesis, based on a study by Gaur and Nayak,33 suggests that a decrease in hemoglobin levels can be associated with inflammatory responses in human body. The inflammatory responses in ECC might result in the production of cytokines that inhibit the synthesis of erythrocytes and decrease hemoglobin levels. A decrease in hemoglobin levels is common in many chronic diseases. Furthermore, severe ECC (S-ECC) is known as a chronic disease.

Schroth et al. reported that children with ECC have altered dietary habits that can predispose them to nutritional deficiencies such as iron deficiency.³ Fretham hypothesized that iron deficiency in children leads to a decrease in mental capacities, a decrease in motor skills and an increase in anxiety levels. Early diagnosis of such

deficiency, for example by detecting ECC in children, might result in the early initiation of treatment.³⁵ Unlike these studies, our result did not depict any association between ECC and blood parameters.

One of the shortcomings of the present study was the inability to match the samples completely. Although a consistent age range was considered for all the samples and the subjects were evaluated separately in relation to their sex, socioeconomic matching was not possible. S-ECC is more prevalent in children with lower socioeconomic status³⁶ and it is more difficult to find caries-free subjects in these socioeconomic levels. According to the important role of various factors in the induction of S-ECC, such as family income and the parents' educational levels, it is not possible to extend the results of this study to the whole community. Despite the limitations of this study, our results added the association investigation between ECC and blood parameters and developmental indices to the literature and provided additional evidence for the complexity of this relationship.

Conclusion

No significant associations between ECC and blood parameters were observed. However, lower height and weight were significant determinants of caries experience. Finally, it is suggested that height, weight, and diet of children with ECC should be more precisely evaluated periodically.

Conflict of Interests

Authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by the Research Committee of Kerman University of Medical Sciences, Iran.

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Received: 24 Aug. 2016 Accepted: 05 Mar. 2017

A retrospective study of children and adolescents oral and maxillofacial lesions over a 20-year period in Kerman, Iran

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Original Article

Abstract

BACKGROUND AND AIM: Oral and maxillofacial lesions vary in different geographic regions based on their clinical features. Until now, few investigations have studied these lesions in children and adolescents in Iran. The aim of this research was to study the clinicopathological manifestations of biopsied oral and maxillofacial lesions among children and adolescents in the south of Iran.

METHODS: In this retrospective cross-sectional study, all the cases referred to the Department of Pathology, Kerman faculty of Dentistry, and two treatment centers of Kerman University of Medical Sciences, Kerman, Iran during 1996-2015 were included. All demographic information including age, gender, anatomic location and histopathologic diagnosis of the oral and maxillofacial biopsies in patients under 18 years was extracted from patients' chart fields. SPSS was used for the data analysis.

RESULTS: Of 3196 oral and maxillofacial lesions, 326 cases (10.2%) occurred in the age group under 18 years. The most common group was inflammatory/reactive lesions (36.8%). The most common lesions were pyogenic granuloma (9.20%), peripheral giant cell granuloma (8.89%), and dentigerous cyst (8.28%). Gingiva was the main involved area and the female to male ratio was 1.1 to 1.

CONCLUSION: Our study revealed that almost 10.2% of oral and maxillofacial lesions occurred in children and adolescents. The majority of lesions were benign, and malignant lesions were rarely observed in the sample. The most prevalent biopsied lesions were inflammatory/reactive lesions. Unlike other studies, lower rates of mucocele were observed in this study. These findings can improve patient's management among dentists and surgeons.

KEYWORDS: Adolescent; Child; Oral Pathology; Biopsy; Prevalence

Citation: Torabi-Parizi M, Poureslami H, Torabi-Parizi S, Kalantari M. A retrospective study of children and adolescents oral and maxillofacial lesions over a 20-year period in Kerman, Iran. J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol 2017; 6(4): 203-10.

hildren and adolescents may show different oral lesions with different clinical features, signs and symptoms, behavior and prevalence compared to the adults. Although few investigations have been performed on the prevalence of these lesions among children and adolescents but these studies are mostly limited to epidemiological surveys on dental and

periodontal diseases like dental caries, periodontal disease, malocclusion, and dental traumas.^{3,5,6} In addition, there are some studies that only have identified and reported certain groups of diseases such as odontogenic lesions, bone diseases, and salivary gland lesions.¹⁻³

Because of environmental and racial characteristics and lifestyle of the population, there are significant differences between

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prevalence of oral and maxillofacial lesions in different populations. In addition, the other important factor is lack of age range classification standards for classifying patients in children and adolescents group.¹⁻⁷

The main aim of the study on the prevalence of oral and maxillofacial lesions in this age group is to determine the most common lesions in this population. In addition, the age ranges, signs symptoms, and the sites more affected by these lesions in this population are different from common lesions in adults.7 There are few studies with large sample that have analyzed the results of oral and maxillofacial biopsies in children and adolescents.8 In Iran, few studies have investigated oral lesions of this age range.9-11 Therefore, the aim of this retrospective study was to evaluate the clinicopathologic features of oral maxillofacial lesions diagnosed in children and adolescents (0-18 years).

Methods

In this retrospective cross-sectional study, of 134722 cases diagnosed during 1996-2015 in pathology laboratory of Kerman faculty of Dentistry and two treatment centers of Kerman University of Medical Sciences, Kerman, Iran including Bahonar and Shafa hospitals, about 3196 cases were diagnosed in oral and maxillofacial region. Among these cases, 326 cases (10.2%) were diagnosed in patients less than 18 years. Clinical data such as age, gender, site of involvement, and diagnosis were extracted from clinical patients' chart fields. The study confirmed by the Ethics Committee of Kerman University of Medical Sciences (Ethics code: IR.KMU.REC.1394.51). All slides were reviewed by an oral pathologist for definitive diagnosis. Since there were some cases that were not properly stained due to long-term filing or were not definitely diagnosed, new slides were prepared from paraffin-embedded tissue blocks examined. Immunohistochemical staining reaction in cases where it was necessary to reach a final diagnosis was performed.

The histopathological diagnoses were categorized in 9 groups as follows:

Inflammatory/reactive lesions, odontogenic cysts and tumors, pulp and periapical inflammatory lesions, salivary gland pathology, benign soft tissue lesions, benign epithelial lesions, non-odontogenic cysts, benign bone lesions, and premalignant and malignant lesions.

Data were analyzed using SPSS software (version 20, IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY, USA) and chi-square and t-test (P-value < 0.05 was considered statistical significant).

Results

The results of this study showed that in 20-year period (1996-2015), 3262 cases of oral and maxillofacial lesions were diagnosed in children and adolescents with 0-18 years of age. Of 326 cases, 154 cases (47.2%) were male with the average age of 12.5 ± 4.3 and 172 (52.8%) were female with the average age of 13.1 ± 4.7 . The female to male ratio was 1.1to 1 and was not statistically significant (P > 0.05). Chi-square test showed no significant statistical relationship between genders in the 9 lesion categories (P = 0.20). The overall incidence of lesions in the permanent dentition was significantly higher than primary and mixed dentitions (P = 0.01). The frequency of lesions considering their group is demonstrated in table 1.

The most prevalent group was Inflammatory/reactive lesions, and then, odontogenic cysts and tumors, and pulp and periapical inflammatory lesions were the most prevalent ones. The most prevalent lesion in this study was pyogenic granuloma (9.20%), and then peripheral giant cell granuloma (8.89%), dentigerous cyst (8.28%), and mucocele (7.97%). The frequency of lesions in inflammatory/reactive lesions and odontogenic cysts and tumors categories are listed in tables 2 and 3, respectively.

The frequency of pulp and periapical inflammatory lesions and salivary gland pathology are shown in table 4.

Table 1. Distribution of the lesions according to diagnosis categories

Categories	Gender		- Age (year) (mean ± SD)	n (%)	
Categories	Female	Male	- Age (year) (mean ± 5D)	11 (/0)	
Inflammatory/reactive lesions	68	52	14.34 ± 3.62	120 (36.80)	
Odontogenic cysts and tumors	30	31	13.07 ± 3.88	61 (18.71)	
Pulp and periapical inflammatory lesions	15	22	13.44 ± 3.37	37 (11.34)	
Salivary gland pathology	21	15	11.85 ± 4.72	36 (11.04)	
Benign soft tissue lesions	8	11	13.90 ± 3.58	19 (5.82)	
Benign epithelial lesions	10	7	12.29 ± 3.61	17 (5.21)	
Non-odontogenic cysts	8	5	12.54 ± 3.81	13 (3.98)	
Malignant lesions	6	6	11.51 ± 2.27	12 (3.68)	
Bone lesions	6	5	10.27 ± 2.18	11 (3.37)	

SD: Standard deviation

The most common lesions in these two groups were radicular cyst (6.74%) and mucocele (7.97%), respectively.

Benign soft tissue lesions were the fifth common category in this study. Hemangioma with 8 cases (2.45%) was the most prevalent lesion in this category followed by lipoma with 4 cases and granular cell tumor and vascular malformation each with 2 cases. Neuroma, chondromyxoid fibroma and neurofibroma each were diagnosed in 1 case.

In this study, benign epithelial lesions were found in 17 cases. Among them, squamous papilloma diagnosed in 10 cases (3.06%) was the most common lesion and then verruca vulgaris and multifocal epithelial hyperplasia (Heck disease), each with 2 cases and, compound nevus, blue nevus and white sponge nevus each with 1 case were the most common lesions.

Non-odontogenic cysts (3.98%) were the next common group in this study. Thyroglossal duct cyst (n = 7), epidermoid cyst (n = 3), dermoid cyst (n = 2), and traumatic bone cyst (n = 1) were the most

prevalent lesions in this category.

Bone lesions were diagnosed in 3.37% and central giant cell granuloma and fibrous dysplasia were diagnosed in 5 and 6 cases, respectively.

In this study, 3.68% of lesions (n = 12) were malignant tumors that burkitt lymphoma (n = 4), rhabdomyosarcoma, mucoepidermoid carcinoma, and Langerhans cell histiocytosis (n = 2) and esthesioneuroblastoma and fibrosarcoma (n = 1) were observed.

Discussion

Most studies on the prevalence of oral and maxillofacial lesions in children and adolescents have shown that 5.5% to 24.8% of all cases referred to the histopathology services were in patients under 18 years old. ^{1-3,5,7-13} In this study, 10.2% of oral and maxillofacial lesions were observed in ages 0-18 years and the prevalence of these lesions was less than similar studies in other parts of Iran (13.9% and 19.3%)^{9,10} and Thailand (15%),¹³ and higher than Taiwan (6% and 6.6%).^{3,14}

Table 2. Number of cases and the most common location of the inflammatory/reactive lesions

Inflammatory/reactive lesions	Number of cases	Percentage in relation to the group	Percentage in relation to the total	Most common location
Pyogenic granuloma	30	25.00	9.20	Gingiva
Peripheral giant cell granuloma	29	24.16	8.89	Gingiva
Irritation fibroma	22	18.33	6.74	Buccal mucosa
Peripheral ossifying fibroma	18	15.00	5.52	Gingiva
Acute and chronic inflammatory process	8	6.66	2.45	Gingiva
Unspecific ulcer	5	4.16	1.53	Tongue
Inflammatory gingival hyperplasia	4	3.33	1.22	Gingiva
Foreign body reaction	2	1.66	0.61	Gingiva
Idiopathic gingival fibromatosis	1	0.83	0.30	Gingiva
Fibro-epithelial hyperplasia	1	0.83	0.30	Buccal mucosa

Table 3. Number of cases and the most common location of the odontogenic cysts and tumors

Odontogenic cysts and tumors	Number of cases	Percentage in relation to the group	Percentage in relation to the total	Most common location
Dentigerous cyst	27	44.26	8.28	Mandible
Follicular hyperplasia	9	14.75	2.76	Mandible
Keratocystic odontogenic tumor	7	11.47	2.14	Mandible
Odontoma	5	8.19	1.53	Maxilla
Ameloblastoma	4	6.54	1.22	Mandible
Ameloblastic fibroma	3	4.91	0.92	Mandible
Ameloblastic fibro-odntoma	2	3.27	0.61	Mandible
Adenomatoid odontogenic tumor	2	3.27	0.61	Maxilla
Orthokeratinized odontogenic cyst	1	1.63	0.30	Mandible
Calcifying odontogenic cyst	1	1.63	0.30	Maxilla

Other studies have reported that the prevalence of these lesions in other countries were 6.6% and 13% in Brazil, 5,7,8 8.2% in the United Kingdom,¹ 25% in Nigeria,² and 12% in America. 15,16 The observed differences in the results of various studies may be due to different inclusion criteria. using have example, several studies been performed on children with different age ranges (under 15, 16, 18 and 19 years old). In addition, study period, location of lesions (oral/oral and maxillofacial), geographical region, genetic background of population, and the institute in which the study was performed could have affected the results of the studies. 1,7,8,15,16

In current study, the prevalence of the lesions was a little more in girls than boys (ratio 1.1 to 1) that is similar to the results of the studies of Vale et al.,⁷ Melo Mouchrek et al.,¹⁷ and Krishnan et al.,¹⁸ Some studies have reported no sex predilection^{1,3,9,10,12,13} while others reported more prevalence in boys.^{25,9,14,19}

Most of the lesions in this study were found in the permanent dentition period. Studies that examined oral and maxillofacial lesions in long-term, suggested that by increasing the age, the frequency of lesions increases as well.1,18-20 In similar studies in Turkey,19 Thailand¹³ the and prevalence of the lesions was found in mixed dentition period. Although the prevalence of these lesions in children and adolescents in some studies was approximately equal and it was 52% and 48%, respectively in the study of Jones and Franklin¹ and 48.2% and 51.8%, respectively in the study of Chen et al. 14

Similar to the most studies, inflammatory/reactive lesions (36.8 %) were the most common category in this study.^{3,7,9,10,14,16,19} However, similar studies conducted in oral pathology laboratories in the UK¹ and Thailand¹³ have reported that dental pathologies (22%) and cystic lesions (35%) were the most prevalent ones in children and adolescents, respectively.

Table 4. Number of cases and the most common location of the pulp and periapical inflammatory lesions and salivary gland pathology

Lesion	Number of cases	Percentage in relation to the group	Percentage in relation to the total	Most common location
Radicular cyst	22	59.45	6.74	Maxilla
Periapical granuloma	12	32.43	3.68	Mandible
Osteomyelitis	2	5.40	0.61	Mandible
Residual cyst	1	2.70	0.30	Maxilla
Mucocele	26	72.22	7.97	Lower lip
Sialadenitis	6	16.66	1.84	Parotid
Pleomorphic adenoma	3	8.33	0.92	Parotid
Warthin tumor	1	2.77	0.30	Parotid

On the other hand, as most of the neoplasms can be treated in medical hospital, a study in a surgical pathology service in Africa showed that benign neoplasms were the most prevalent lesions in this age range.² Other studies in Thailand,¹³ Nigeria,² and Uganda²¹ have reported inflammatory/reactive lesions as the second most common category.

Similar to the study of Saravani et al.⁹ and Kamulegeya and Lakor,²¹ we observed most of the inflammatory/reactive lesions in the permanent dentition period; while Dhanuthai et al.¹³ Gultelkin et al.,¹⁹ and Wang et al.,³ reported these lesions more often in mixed dentition period. In this study, these lesions were more frequent in female while some studies have reported higher prevalence in male.^{3,7,9,13,19}

In most studies on the occurrence of oral lesions in pediatric, mucocele have been reported as the most prevalent oral lesion. 1,3,5,7,9,14 In this study, pyogenic granuloma was reported as the most prevalent oral lesion (9.20%). Pyogenic granuloma was mostly observed in maxilla and more frequent in female. After that, peripheral giant cell granuloma (8.89%), dentigerous cyst (8.28%), and mucocele (7.97%) were the next more frequent lesions in this study. In the studies of Jaafari-Ashkavandi and Ashraf¹⁰ and Saravani et al.⁹ in Iran, peripheral giant cell granuloma and pyogenic granuloma were reported as the most prevalent lesions, respectively. Poor oral hygiene, abnormal tooth development, and taking certain medications have been reported as the etiologic factors of pyogenic granuloma. In addition, these lesions are seen more often in women and in the second decade of their life due to the increased vascular effects of female hormones.22 Dhanuthai et al.¹³ In their study in Thailand reported dentigerous cyst, mucocele, and pyogenic granuloma as the most prevalent lesions. Maia et al.23 in Brazil, reported dentigerous cyst and fibrous hyperplasia as the most common lesions. The difference between the results of this study with other

studies can be due to including 0-18 year-old children and adolescents while other studies included adolescents under 14 or 15 year-old. It also can be due to the type of institution in which the study is performed. In this study, most of the samples were obtained from the pathology laboratory of medical hospital.

Odontogenic cysts and tumors were the second most common category (18.71%) in this study. The prevalence reported in this study is lower than those reported in Africa, Thailand, and Taiwan (23%-25%),2,13,14 but more than those reported in Turkey (12%).19 Similar to most studies, dentigerous cyst was prevalent lesion category. 18,24,25 However, studies in the UK, Turkey, and North of Iran reported radicular cyst as the most cystic lesion in children. 1,11,19 In the study of Lei et al.26 that was performed in 2014 in Taiwan on head and neck lesions, of 298 cases with dentigerous cyst, 28 cases were observed in 0-10 year-old children and 65 cases in 10-19 year-old adolescents and dentigerous cyst was most common in ages 0-19 years. Similar to the study of Saravani et al.,9 Al Yamani et al.,27 Kamulegeya and Lakor,²¹ and Wang et al.,³ most of these lesions were observed in permanent dentition period but Dhanuthai et al.¹³ and Gultelkin et al.19 reported higher prevalence of cystic lesions in mixed dentition period.

Several studies have reported sexual predominance for cystic lesions^{18,19,25} but the present study showed equal prevalence in both genders which is consistent with the study of Saravani et al.⁹ and Bodner²⁴ Similar to the other studies, mandible was the most involved area in this study.^{7,9,19,25}

Among odontogenic tumors, odontoma and ameloblastoma were the most prevalent lesions involving the maxilla and mandible, respectively. Consistent with other studies, these lesions have been reported as the first and second most common odontogenic tumors.^{1,5,10,13,23}

In this study, pulp and periapical inflammatory lesions (11.34%) were the third most prevalent category, and similar to the

study of Jaafari-Ashkavandi and Ashraf¹⁰ and Maia et al.,²³ radicular cyst was the most prevalent lesion in this group which occurred more frequently in the maxilla. Lima et al.⁵ also reported radicular cyst (6.88%) as the most common cyst after dentigerous cyst. In the study of Siadati et al.¹¹ in Iran, radicular cyst was the most prevalent cystic lesion and the third most prevalent lesion in this study after mucocele and central giant cell granuloma. Many studies have classified radicular cyst in odontogenic cysts category, and have identified it as the second most prevalent cyst after dentigerous cyst.²⁴

In salivary gland pathology, mucocele was the most prevalent lesion which involved more frequently the lower lip and female gender. Nico et al.²⁸ and Jaafari-Ashkavandi and Ashraf¹⁰, also found a female predominance for this lesion. Most studies have classified mucocele in the inflammatory/reactive group and have reported it as the most prevalent lesion in pediatrics but its prevalence was lower in this study. Lima et al.⁵ reported that of 128 salivary lesions, 108 cases were mucocele but Shulman²⁹ in a study on patients under 17 years of age reported only 5 cases of mucocele.

In this study, hemangioma was the most prevalent soft tissue tumor (2.45%). In studies done by Wang et al.,3 Dhanuthai et al.,13 and Lima et al.⁵ the prevalence rates of 0.08%, 0.72%, and 0.96% were reported for hemangioma, respectively. Despite different hemangioma classifications, has been reported as the most common soft tissue tumor in most studies.3,5,12

In this study, only 17 cases of benign epithelial lesions were found. Although verruca vulgaris is known as a lesion that mostly occurs in children but the prevalence of this lesion was only 0.61%. Other studies have also revealed the prevalence of 0.19-2.04%. Les Consistent with the study of Jaafari-Ashkavandi and Ashraf¹⁰ squamous papilloma was the most prevalent benign epithelial lesion in this study and gingiva was reported as the most frequently affected site. Lima et al.⁵ and Vale et al.⁷ reported the

prevalence rate of 1.44% and 3.81% for this lesion, respectively which is consistent with the results of our study. Consistent with the study of Jaafari-Ashkavandi and Ashraf¹⁰ and Jones and Franklin¹, the present study showed female predilection for these lesions. In contrast, Wang et al.³ reported higher prevalence in male. However, due to the small sample size, these differences are reliable.

In this study, 13 cases of non-odontogenic cysts (3.98%) were observed. The occurrence of odontogenic cysts in this study was almost 3.6 times higher than non-odontogenic cysts. Most of the studies have reported that the prevalence of odontogenic cysts was higher than non-odontogenic cysts; 1,13,19,25 however, Kamulegeya and Lakor²¹ have reported similar prevalence of these lesions in their study.

In this study, the prevalence of bone lesions was 3.37%. The prevalence of these lesions have been reported from 3.2% to 4.8% in other studies.^{1,5} In the study of Jaafari-Ashkavandi and Ashraf¹⁰ this category constituted 10.3% of all lesions. Similar to many studies, this study also reported central giant cell granuloma and fibrous dysplasia as the most prevalent lesions of this category, and mandible and maxilla were the most involved areas.^{2,10} However, Maia et al. reported that both of these lesions mostly occurred in the mandible.²³

In this study, most of the diagnosed lesions were benign and only 3.68% were malignant. Albright et al.³⁰ showed that in a 23-year period, the prevalence of head and neck cancer in children under 15 years was increased. Sousa et al.¹² and Lima et al.⁵ in their studies on 0-14 year-old children in Brazil found malignity in 1.3% and 1.2% of all studied cases, respectively. Jones and Franklin¹ and Wang et al.³ reported that the frequency of these lesions were 1% and 5%, respectively.

Conclusion

The results revealed that about 10.2% of oral and maxillofacial lesions involved patients under 18 years. Inflammatory/reactive lesions were the most prevalent ones. Similar

to other studies, most of the diagnosed lesions were benign. However, comparing to the other studies, there were some differences and the frequency of mucocele in this study was lower than those reported in other studies. These findings can help dentists and surgeons for better management of their patients. However, similar studies in different patient groups should be designed to determine the exact prevalence and to get more accurate demographic information for

oral lesions.

Conflict of Interests

Authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank all the staff of the Pathology laboratories, Shafa and Bahonar hospitals, and Kerman University of Medical Sciences, for their contribution in this research.

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Received: 29 Oct. 2016 Accepted: 23 Apr. 2017

Human gingival fibroblasts culture in an autologous scaffold and assessing its effect on augmentation of attached gingiva in a pilot clinical trial

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Original Article

Abstract

BACKGROUND AND AIM: An important goal of periodontal plastic surgery is the creation of attached gingiva around the teeth. In this study, the aims were to culture gingival fibroblasts in a biodegradable scaffold and measure the width of attached gingiva after the clinical procedure.

METHODS: This study was carried out on 4 patients (8 sites), with inadequate attached gingiva next to at least two teeth in contralateral quadrants of the same jaw. A biopsy of attached gingiva (epithelial + connective tissue) was taken using a surgical blade. Following culture of gingival fibroblasts, 250×10^3 cells in 250 µl nutritional medium were mixed with platelet-rich in growth factor (PRGF). Periosteal fenestration technique was done on one side (control) and tissue-engineered mucosal graft (test) was carried out on the contralateral side in each patient. The width of keratinized tissue, probing depth (PD) and width of attached gingiva were recorded at baseline and 3 months after the operation.

RESULTS: An increased width of keratinized and attached tissue on all operated sites after 3 months was observed. These results showed the increased mean of the width of keratinized and attached gingiva to be 4.17 mm and 4.14 mm in test and 1.10 mm and 1.10 mm in control sites, respectively. The difference of keratinized and attached gingiva width between test and control sites was significant (P = 0.030, and P = 0.010 respectively).

CONCLUSION: According to the results of this study, PRGF can be used as a scaffold to transfer gingival fibroblasts to recipient sites with significant clinical results.

KEYWORDS: Tissue Engineering; Gingiva; Blood Platelet; Scaffold

Citation: Aramoon M, Rajabalian S, Mohammadi M, Khodarahmi N, Farzadmoghadam M. Human gingival fibroblasts culture in an autologous scaffold and assessing its effect on augmentation of attached gingiva in a pilot clinical trial. J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol 2017; 6(4): 211-7.

n important goal of periodontal plastic surgery is the regeneration of attached gingiva.¹ Several surgery techniques such as denudation,² periosteal retentions,³ periosteal fenestration,^{4,5} apically positioned flap,⁶ connective tissue grafts,⁷ free gingival grafts,⁸ and acellular dermal matrix allografts⁹ were proposed to increase the attached gingiva. At the present

time, connective tissue and free gingival grafts are usually used to augment the gingiva, because of the predictability of these procedures. However, some disadvantages are existed about masticatory mucosal grafts such as postoperative pain at the donor site, morbidity, reducing the size of a donor site, formation of exocytosis, poor color matching to the surrounding tissue, and increased

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procedure duration.9-11 Therefore, a technique with fewer disadvantages is preferred by the patients and clinicians. Tissue engineering technology is already being developed and applied in different medical fields to replace cartilage, bone, cardiovascular components, pancreas, and skin.12 According to this fact, tissue engineering could also be useful in periodontology. Cells, scaffolds and growth factors are the three principal components for preparation of a tissue-engineered construct.12 Epithelial cells and fibroblasts are used to develop the tissue engineered gingival grafts (TEGG).13-21 Benzyl ester hyaluronic acid, collagen, polyglactin mesh, and chitosan are the scaffolds used in periodontology aiming at gingival augmentation.15,19,20,22

Platelet-rich plasma (PRP) is autogenous concentration of platelets in which platelet counts should be 5 times more than the baseline number of platelets in whole blood.²³ PRP has been used clinically in human since the 1970s for its healing properties.²⁴ PRP is also called plasma rich in growth factors (PRGF), platelet concentrates (PCs), and autologous platelet gel (APG).25 Platelet activation in PRP results in releasing of growth factors such as platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), transforming growth factor-β (TGF-β), and insulin-like growth factor (IGF).25 All of which are proven beneficial to wound healing.26 PRP as a biogenic scaffold for tissue engineering have not been applied in the reconstruction of the oral mucosa. We used PRP as a scaffold in tissue engineering, because of the safety, low preparation cost, and existence of fibrin and growth factors in it.26

The aim of our research was to culture the human gingival fibroblasts in PRGF as a scaffold and investigate its influence on gingival augmentation.

Methods

This study was a pilot randomized controlled clinical trial. Four woman patients (8 sites), aged 32 to 46 years, with less than enough

attached gingiva surrounding at least two teeth in contralateral quadrants of the same jaw were included in this study. They were selected from the patients referred to Department of Periodontology of Kerman Dental School, Iran.

Inclusion criteria in this study were no pregnancy and lactation, no medication affecting on periodontium, no smoking, no periodontal diseases, no systemic diseases affecting on periodontium or contraindicating periodontal surgery, full mouth plaque index and full mouth bleeding index < 20% at the time of surgery.

Explanation regarding the aim and course of the study was given to patients and informed consent was obtained. This study was ethically approved by Ethics Committee of Kerman School of Medical and Dental Sciences, Iran. Kerman University approved the consent form and design of the present study with ethical code 96/86/K. This clinical trial was registered in IRCT website with number IRCT201108135305N2.

Clinical measurements: At baseline and 3 months after surgery, probing depth (PD), the width of keratinized and attached gingiva were measured and recorded. Williams's periodontal probe was used to measure the width of keratinized gingiva from the gingival margin to the mucogingival junction to the nearest millimeter. Roll test was used for detection of mucogingival junction. The PD was subtracted from the width of keratinized gingiva, and the width of attached gingiva was specified in the midbuccal region for each involved teeth. One clinician who was blind to this study measured all of the clinical parameters at baseline and 3 months after surgery and also allocated surgery sites. Another clinician who was not blind to the study performed all of the surgical procedures.

Biopsy and cell culturing: At the first visit, a biopsy ($\sim 3 \times 2 \times 1$ mm) was taken from a site with adequate attached gingiva under local anesthesia. The gingival biopsy (connective tissue and epithelium) in a

nutritional medium [Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI) 1640], (Gibco, Paisley, Scotland, UK) containing antibiotics [penicillin (Sigma- Aldrich, USA), 100 IU/ml, and streptomycin (Sigma- Aldrich, USA), 100 μ g/ml] was sent to the laboratory. The patients were required to use chlorhexidine digluconate 0.2% mouthwash for several days.

Each gingival biopsy was washed three times in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (Sigma- Aldrich, USA), and then transferred to a Petri dish. A scalpel was used to cut each sample into small pieces under sterile conditions. These pieces in a petri dish containing 0.25% trypsin (Sigma- Aldrich, USA) were incubated at 37 °C, 5% CO2 for 1 After incubation, the epithelium was separated from the gingival connective tissue and washed with PBS. A solution of 80 µl/ml type I collagenase (Sigma- Aldrich, USA) was added to digest the gingival connective tissue pieces in order to obtain gingival fibroblasts. After one night incubation, RPMI 1640 was added to the Petri dish and the suspension was centrifuged for 5 minutes to eliminate the collagenase enzyme. The fibroblasts were cultured in nutritional medium (RPMI 1640) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco, Paisley, Scotland, UK), and antibiotics (penicillin 100 IU/ml and streptomycin 100 μg/ml). The cells were cultured in a CO2 incubator at 37 °C and the nutritional medium was changed twice a week. When the culture reached 80-90% confluence for fibroblasts, trypsin-EDTA was used to detach the cells for 5 minutes. Then, detached fibroblasts were used to produce tissue engineered gingival graft (TEGG).

Preparation of TEGG: PRGF was used as a scaffold for production of TEGG. For the preparation of PRGF, 10 ml blood was taken from the patients. The blood was poured into two 5 ml tubes containing trisodium citrate 3.8% (BTI, Vitoria, Spain) and was centrifuged at 2600 rpm for 5 minutes. 0.5 ml of plasma which was in the red blood cell (RBC) layer (PRGF) in each of the tubes was gathered with

a micropipettor. 1 ml PRGF was poured into a 5 ml Petri dish. For activation of platelets in PRGF and neutralization of the effect of trisodium citrate, 50 µl 10% calcium chloride (BTI, Vitoria, Spain) was added. Then, 250 × 103 cells in 250 μl RPMI 1640 medium (count with hemocytometer) was added to PRGF. In order to set initially, it was put under the hood at room temperature for 10 minutes. After that, the TEGG was incubated for 30 minutes. After incubation, nutritional medium RPMI 1640 was added and incubated overnight to use in the clinic. Before transferring the graft to the clinic, it was rinsed with PBS several times (Figure 1). It was transferred to the dental clinic in a sterile situation, filled with RPMI 1640, and sealed with parafilm.



Figure 1. Plasma rich in growth factors (PRGF) containing the patient's cultured fibroblasts after 24 hours

Surgery and postoperative instructions: In this study, control (no graft) and test (TEGG) sites were selected randomly by a coin toss in each patient (simple randomization). The recipient bed preparation in control and test sites was the same. In order to prepare the recipient bed, after a local anesthesia with lidocaine 2% and epinephrine 1/80000, the mucogingival junction was horizontally incised (a submarginal incision) and two vertical releasing incisions were created apically for ~ 10 mm. The length of horizontal incision was about 15 mm. The bed was prepared by sharp dissection with a scalpel. Then, a periosteal fenestration was done about 7 mm apical to the horizontal incision. At the control site, on the partial thickness prepared bed, a gauze and aluminum foil in an appropriate size were placed on the bed, respectively. These components were stabilized with a 4-0 silk criss-cross horizontal mattress suture (Figure 2).



Figure 2. Control site A) Preoperative photograph, B) Periosteal fenestration technique is performed, C) A Vaseline gauze is placed on the recipient bed and a foil is adapted and fixed with a criss-cross horizontal mattress suture and D) At 3 months, tissue augmentation is obtained

At the test sites, after the TEGG was cut to an appropriate size, it was placed on the partial thickness bed. Gauze and aluminum foils in an appropriate size were adapted on the surface of the graft, respectively.²⁰ A 4-0 silk criss-cross horizontal mattress suture was used to fix these components (Figure 3).

During the first two weeks, the patients were asked not to use chlorhexidine mouthwash to prevent damage to the fibroblasts and discontinue toothbrush. After 2 weeks following surgery, sutures were removed. After the surgery, supragingival

tooth cleaning along with oral hygiene instructions were carried out once a week for the first 6 weeks and continued as once a month for up to 3 months post-surgery.



Figure 3. Test site A) Preoperative photograph, B) After preparation of bed tissue-engineered gingival graft is adapted to the recipient area, C) Vaseline gauze and foil are adapted and fixed with a criss-cross horizontal mattress suture and D) At 3 months, tissue augmentation is obtained

One-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to check the normal distribution of data. Because of the abnormal distribution of the data, Wilcoxon signed-rank test was utilized to compare the results before and after the surgery in the control and test groups.

Results

The results of this study revealed that the healing process took place without any complication in both control (4 sites) and test (4 sites) sites.

The data related to the probing pocket depth, the width of keratinized gingiva and width of attached gingiva at baseline and 3 months after surgery are presented in table 1.

Table 1. Baseline and post-surgery clinical parameters

Clinical parameter		Baseline (mm) (mean ± SD)	Post-surgery (mm) (mean ± SD)	\mathbf{P}^*
Probing pocket depth	Test	1.00 ± 0	1.00 ± 0	-
	Control	1.00 ± 0	1.00 ± 0	-
Width of keratinized gingiva	Test	0.83 ± 0.75	5.00 ± 0.63	0.001
	Control	1.50 ± 0.54	2.60 ± 1.50	0.030
Width of attached gingiva	Test	0.16 ± 0.40	4.30 ± 0.51	0.001
	Control	0.50 ± 0.54	1.60 ± 1.50	0.030

SD: standard deviation

*Wilcoxon signed-rank test

Table 2. Comparison of post-surgery clinical parameters between test and control groups

Clinical parameter	Post-surgery (n	\mathbf{p}^*	
Chincal parameter	Test	Control	_ 1
Probing pocket depth	1.00 ± 0	1.00 ± 0	-
Width of keratinized gingiva	5.00 ± 0.63	2.60 ± 1.50	0.030
Width of attached gingiva	4.30 ± 0.51	1.60 ± 1.50	0.010

SD: standard deviation

Also, the post-surgery clinical parameters of test and control groups are compared and shown in table 2. According to these results, mean of the increased width of keratinized and attached gingiva was 4.17 mm and 4.14 mm in test and 1.10 mm and 1.10 mm in control sites, respectively, 3 months after surgery. The difference between the width of keratinized gingiva in test and control sites was significant (P = 0.030). Likewise, the comparison of attached gingiva width between control and test site was also statistically significant (P = 0.010) (Table 2). The comparison between the width of keratinized and attached gingiva before and after surgery showed a significant difference in both test and control groups (P = 0.001, and P = 0.030 respectively) (Table 1).

Discussion

In dentistry, the culture of epithelial cells for regeneration of oral soft tissue performed, at the first. 13,14 During the healing, the epithelial sheets are weak against mechanical trauma, and manipulation of them during surgery is difficult.¹⁴ Because of these disadvantages, culture of fibroblasts for preparation of tissue-engineered soft tissue grafts was indicated. 15,16,19-21 According to the study carried out by Karring et al., the morphogenetic stimuli of the underlying connective tissue control the keratinization of gingival epithelium.²⁷ Therefore, culture of the fibroblasts was performed to produce tissue-engineered soft tissue grafts in several studies. 15,19,20,22 In this study, we used fibroblasts and an autologous scaffold (PRGF) to augment the gingiva. Both control and test sites showed a significant increase of keratinized and attached gingiva width, 3 months after surgery. The average increase

in keratinized and attached gingiva was 4.17 mm and 4.14 mm, respectively. At control sites, the average increased width of keratinized and attached gingiva was 1.10 mm which was statistically significant. The difference between the control and test groups in regard to the width of keratinized and attached gingiva was 3.06 mm and 3.04 mm, respectively. In a study done by Prato et al., benzyl ester of hyaluronic acid was introduced as a scaffold.¹⁵

Gingival fibroblasts were cultured and seeded onto this scaffold and this prepared tissue was grafted onto a periosteal bed. The average increased keratinized tissue was 2.00 ± 0.41 mm. In this study, the keratinized gingiva increased about 2.17 mm more than study. aforementioned The difference between the type of scaffold and bed preparation (marginal incision in Prato et al. study and sub-marginal incision in our study) can explain this result. Another study evaluated a living human fibroblast-derived dermal substitute (HF-DDS) and compared it to a gingival autograph (GA).19 McGuire and Nunn used an absorbable polyglactin scaffold and allogeneic dermal fibroblasts. The average of increased keratinized gingiva around the teeth with inadequate attached gingiva was 2.72 mm after 3 months postsurgery. In this study, although the amount of increased keratinized tissue was less in test sites, the esthetic result was better than control sites.

Mohammadi et al. in a study, used a collagen type I (Zyderm) as a scaffold which human gingival fibroblasts were seeded into it.²⁰ Results showed mean increased width of keratinized and attached gingiva to be 2.8 mm in test (TEGG) and 1.9 and 2 mm in control sites (periosteal fenestration

^{*}Wilcoxon signed-rank test

technique), respectively, 3 months after surgery. When test and control groups were compared, the width of keratinized and attached gingiva clinically increased (0.9 mm and 0.8 mm, respectively). In the present study, about 1.37 mm keratinized gingiva and 1.34 mm attached gingiva was obtained more than the results of Mohammadi et al.²¹ study. In these two studies, bed preparation dimensions (periosteal fenestration), recipient bed, incisions, cells (fibroblast) were similar. Only, the difference between the scaffolds can infer these results. Mohammadi et al. in a case report, showed that using a cultured gingival graft (fibroblasts + collagen scaffold) can increase the width of priimplant keratinized tissue.²¹

In an animal study, chitosan was used as a carrier for transporting fibroblasts to the recipient bed prepared in the mouth of dogs, in order to gingival augmentation.²² At test sites (chitosan + fibroblasts), the width of keratinized gingiva showed a 2.13 mm increase in mid-buccal surface of teeth. At control sites (chitosan), the width of keratinized gingiva increased about 1 mm. The difference between test and control sites was not statistically significant. Scheyer et al. showed that application of living cellular sheet in the treatment of mucogingival defects resulted in better color, absence of scar, and better mucogingival junction alignment in comparison with free gingival graft.28

The present study showed the most increased keratinized and attached gingiva width among the studies performed in the field of soft tissue engineering. The reason which can explain this difference is the type

of scaffold used in this study (PRGF). As we know, PRGF is a combination of fibrin and platelets growth factors. Platelet growth factors existed in α-granules become activated after preparation of PRGF. Growth factors can affect angiogenesis, proliferation of fibroblasts, mutagenesis, extracellular matrix (fibronectin, glycosaminoglycan) and collagen synthesis which have key roles in regeneration of soft tissue.²⁷

The use of tissue-engineered gingival grafts has several advantages including requiring a small donor site, obtaining enough keratinized tissue, less complaint and discomfort emerges for patients, and being safe and less costly because an autologous scaffold is used. According to this study, these tissue-engineered materials effectively create keratinized gingiva. Of course, further controlled clinical trial is needed.

Conclusion

Results of this investigation show that the tissue-engineered gingival graft is able to generate keratinized tissue safely and with little complication. Our suggestions are using PRGF alone at control sites in the next studies, and increasing the sample size for enhancing the power of the study.

Conflict of Interests

Authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by a grant from Kerman Oral and Dental Diseases Research Center and Kerman Neuroscience Research Center, Kerman University of Medical Sciences.

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Received: 01 Nov. 2016 Accepted: 13 Mar. 2017

Dental care satisfaction among adult population in Isfahan, Iran and its influencing factors

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Original Article

Abstract

BACKGROUND AND AIM: The aim of this study was to assess the level of dental care satisfaction among Iranian adult population and to identify socio-demographic factors and factors related to dental service that affect satisfaction.

METHODS: A self-administrated valid and reliable 21-item questionnaire was designed and distributed among 1360 adult population living in Isfahan, Iran, using multi-stage proportional cluster sampling. It consisted of 5 main sections including demographic questions, perceived oral health status, oral health behaviors, barriers in receiving the demanded care and some 5-point Likert scale questions to assess the satisfaction level. Chi-square and analysis of variance were used to compare variables. People were classified as satisfied/dissatisfied based on their total score with score of 26 as the cut-off point. A logistic regression model was used to identify the factors affecting the level of satisfaction and to estimate their effect size.

RESULTS: The mean age of participants was 31.2 ± 11.3 and they mostly reported to have dental visits during the last year. The mean satisfaction score was 3.34 out of 5 (53% were satisfied) and the least and the most satisfaction was in regard to waiting time and the convenience to access, respectively. Logistic regression showed that participants in lower age group [odds ratio (OR) = 0.7], those who reported their oral health status as poor (OR = 0.8) and those who had to spend more time to reach dental care setting (OR = 0.6) and those who had to wait more (OR = 0.5) were less satisfied.

CONCLUSION: About 53% of participants were satisfied which was much lower than percentage of satisfied people in developed countries and the level of satisfaction was associated with socio-demographic, behavioral and also dental service.

KEYWORDS: Patient Satisfaction; Dental Care; Adult; Iran

Citation: Eslamipour F, Tahani B, Heydari K, Salehi H. Dental care satisfaction among adult population in Isfahan, Iran and its influencing factors. J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol 2017; 6(4): 218-25.

atient satisfaction is becoming an important field of research recently with the introduction of the concept of 'consumerism'.¹ Evaluating the patient satisfaction with health care could be considerable way of evaluating the quality of care and provider-patient relationships and has been considered an important indicator of the efficient utilization of health services. This concept assesses an individual's attitude to the health services received and, is progressively being used in dentistry like

other fields of medicine.2,3

Measuring patient satisfaction is a useful measure for evaluation of health systems, particularly evaluating the "process" of care or the professional activities associated with providing care.⁴ Patient satisfaction is believed to have dramatic influence on compliance and consequently treatment quality.² Dissatisfaction might be a reason for switching dental providers and to influence health-related behavior, health status and health outcomes of patients.^{5,6} Furthermore,

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dissatisfaction may result in raising complaints with dental care and inducting considerable levels of stress on dentists.⁷

Patient satisfaction is a multidimensional concept including the technical aspects of care or those related to the process of diagnosis and treatment, interpersonal, accessibility/availability, financial access, efficacy/outcomes, continuity of care, facilities, and general attitudes about overall care.⁷

In developing countries, ensuring adequate access to oral health care services and improving the level of oral health status are the major concerns for health policymakers.¹ In Iran, private practices provide more than 80% of dental services in cities (including about 60% of the population). Only a limited number of dentists (about 10% of 25000) are employed by the public sector, offering service to 45% of the population.⁸ Currently, national reports reveal that the dentist to population ratio is about 30 dentist per 100000 populations.⁹

In different parts of the world, the concerns and satisfaction of adult population about dental health care services have been studied. In a study conducted in Nigeria, high level of satisfaction was reported in 53% of patients which was related mostly to the communication skills and rapport of staff with the patients. In another study to determine dental care satisfaction among UK adult population, most of people (89%) were satisfied with the quality of care delivered to them and only 2% had raised complained.

Studies assessing adults' concerns regarding dental care services in Iran are scarce. Some limited sporadic studies have been undertaken to assess dental care satisfaction provided mostly by public providers which revealed a low level of satisfaction.¹²

Having information about public opinions and concerns about the oral health services provided to them is vital for planning an efficient and responsive dental health service. Therefore, this study aimed to determine the level of dental care satisfaction among the Iranian adult population with regards to public and private dental services,

and also to identify socio-demographic and some of the factors related to dental service that might have a predictable effect on satisfaction with dental care.

Methods

This study was a cross-sectional study carried out in Isfahan, Iran, in 2014. This study was approved by the ethics committee of Isfahan University of Medical Sciences (registration number 390045). Isfahan is the second biggest city in the country with about 900 active dentists and a lot of private and public dental clinics. Participants also signed informed consent to participate.

A self-administrated 21-item questionnaire was designed which consisted of 5 main demographic sections: questions (age, educational level, sex, region of living), perceived oral health status of the participants, oral health behaviors (such as their dental visits pattern, the site at which dental service were rendered to them, self-care behaviors), barriers and difficulties in receiving the demanded care (travel time, appointment and office waiting time, emergency waiting time, dental fears, insurance coverage, cost of services, ease to select a dentist) and finally 8 questions to assess the level of their satisfaction. Satisfaction was considered as a multi-dimensional concept including the quality of care, interpersonal relationship, accessibility, waiting time, office working time and distance to the care delivery (one question for each domain). sites Participants were asked to determine their level of satisfaction with each of these domains using 5-point Likert scale (ranging = strongly dissatisfied to 5 = strongly satisfied) resulting in a total score between 0-40 for each of the participants. The cut-off point of 26 was considered for separating the satisfied and dissatisfied groups based on the sum of satisfaction scores. This cut-off score was defined based on the recommendations about defining cut-off scores for Likert scales¹⁴ and also the opinions of the main investigators of this study.

Items for the questionnaire were

developed based on literature review of previous studies and the specific characteristics of oral health care system in Iran.8,15,16 A group of experts including two experts in oral public health, one in community medicine and five in health care centers confirmed the content validity of questionnaire; Experts were asked to give score to each question based on the relevance of questions with goals (questions with high relevancy = 1, moderate = 2 and low or uncertain = 3). Questions that scored 2 or 3 were deleted or were modified accordingly. For assuring the reliability of questions, a pilot study was carried out on a group of 100 persons. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was above 0.7. The face validity of questionnaire was also assured in the pilot study based on the opinion of participants.

According to sampling formula and considering 50% (maximum percent) for the percentage of satisfied patients with regards to dental services and considering 27% as the maximum error, it was estimated to need 1360 patients for the survey.

The included samples were patients between 15-64 years old living in Isfahan. Method of sampling was multi-stage proportional clustering; from the 17 geographic regions (clusters) in Isfahan (according to the available clustering map in Vice Chancellery of Health Affairs, Isfahan) and according to their average sex and age distribution, 80 participants were randomly selected in

each cluster. In each cluster, 13 women and 13 men in the age range 15-24 and 25 women and 27 men in the age range 25-64 years were considered.

Questionnaires were distributed among participants in selected clusters during August-October 2014 by 4 calibrated interviewers. Participants were chosen from population at social places such as parks, mosques, shopping centers and thoroughfares. They were asked to fill-out the questionnaires and return them in the place and not to consult with anyone else.

SPSS software (version 18, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used to summarize the main results using descriptive and analytical statistical tests. The frequency of responses for each questions were calculated. Chi-square and analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were used to compare variables. A logistic regression model was used to identify the potential factors affecting the level of satisfaction with dental services and to estimate their effect size. Statistical significant was set at 0.05 level for all the tests.

Results

Among the 1630 participants in this study, the mean age was 31.2 ± 11.3 and they were mostly in age range 25-64 years. About 12% had academic degrees and majority had diploma (i.e. graduated from high school) (Table 1). Women consisted 51.3% of participants (n = 697).

Table 1. Distribution (frequency and percentage) of participants and comparison between male and female according to socio-demographic and dental visit scheme

Variables	3 3 1	Total [n (%)]	Men [n (%)]	Women [n (%)]	P
Age group (year)	15-24	442 (32.5)	221 (50.0)	221 (50.0)	0.280
	25-64	918 (67.5)	442 (48.1)	476 (51.9)	
Sex			663 (48.8)	697 (51.3)	
Education	Illiterate	26 (1.9)	24 (23.5)	78 (76.5)	< 0.001
	Under diploma	519 (38.1)	260 (58.7)	183 (41.3)	
	Diploma	651 (47.9)	295 (45.3)	356 (54.7)	
	University degree (BSc, MSc and PhD)	164 (12.1)	84 (51.2)	80 (48.8)	
Last dental visit	< 1 years ago	683 (50.3)	314 (47.4)	369 (52.9)	0.060
	1-2 years ago	333 (24.5)	163 (48.9)	170 (51.1)	
	> 2 years ago	265 (19.5)	138 (52.7)	127 (51.1)	
	Never	78 (5.7)	47 (60.3)	31 (39.7)	
Reason for last visit	Regular visit for examination	203 (15.1)	100 (49.3)	103 (50.7)	0.320
	Visit upon pain and discomfort	920 (68.6)	438 (47.6)	482 (52.4)	
	Visit for other reasons (orthodontics, ulcers)	218 (16.3)	116 (53.2)	102 (46.8)	

Most of the participants reported to have dental visits during the last year and the most common reason was to receive treatment for pain and other discomforts not regular examination. There was no significant difference between men and women regarding their scheme of visits (Table 1).

Satisfaction with dental care: The mean score of satisfaction with dental care was 3.34 out of 5. The distribution of participants' satisfaction with different domains is shown in figure 1. Considering "strongly satisfied" and "satisfied" as one category, "strongly dissatisfied" and "dissatisfied" as another category, it was revealed that the least satisfaction was regarding waiting time for receiving dental services and the most satisfaction was about the convenience to access and followed by satisfaction about the hygiene of dental settings. Regarding the quality of received care, 43% were satisfied. Considering the cut-off point of 26 in sum of satisfaction scores as the threshold satisfaction/dissatisfaction, 53% were satisfied.

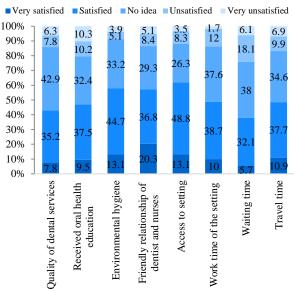


Figure 1. Distribution of participants' level of satisfaction with different domains of dental care satisfaction

Factors related to satisfaction with dental care: The frequency and distribution of factors with probable effects on participants'

satisfaction with dental services are shown in table 2. Most of the participants reported their oral health status as "excellent" and 12.9% reported it as "poor". The most common setting for receiving dental care was public clinics and private offices. Almost 30% of the participants determined that they could reach the dental services delivery centers in less than 15 minutes. Among the respondents, 70% identified the mean waiting time to receive non-emergency care less than 1 month and 86% reported that they encountered no problem transportation to dental care centers. Almost 52.6% of the population was covered by dental insurance and 58.0% reported to have a recognized dentist for their dental care.

Table 2. Distribution of self-perceived oral health status, dental service factors, dental fear and insurance coverage among participants (probable factors affecting dental satisfaction)

(probable factors affecting defital s	
Probable factors	n (%)
Self-perceived oral health status	
Poor	176 (12.9)
Moderate	574 (40.2)
Well	463 (34.1)
Very well	124 12.9 ()
Excellent	49 (6.10)
Setting of care receive	
Public clinic	425 (32.3)
Private clinic	250 (19.0)
Charity clinic	32 (2.40)
Private offices	427 (32.4)
Dental school clinic	19 (1.40)
Travel time	
< 15 min	389 (29.1)
15-29 min	588 (43.9)
30-59 min	318 (23.7)
> 1 hour	44 (3.30)
Need to emergency care	349 (25.7)
Waiting time to receive care	
< 1 month	882 (69.4)
1-3 month	251 (19.8)
> 3 month	137 (10.8)
Facing time limitation to set dental visit	556 (40.9)
Having dental fear	323 (23.8)
Having problems in payment (high costs	823 60.5 ()
of dental treatments)	
Insurance coverage	715 (52.7)

A multivariate regression model was designed to determine the factors with significant effect and the level of their association with level of satisfaction of participants (satisfied/dissatisfied). The binary satisfaction variable was considered as the dependent variable.

The prerequisite condition for factors to be considered in the regression model was their significant association with satisfaction level through Chi-square test. People with higher educational level (P = 0.001, χ^2 = 18.6) and those who evaluated their perceived oral health as good or excellent (P < 0.001, χ^2 =41), participants reported to have insurance coverage (P = 0.039, χ^2 = 4.3) and older participants (P = 0.017, χ^2 = 59.1) were more satisfied.

More travel time (P = 0.001, χ^2 = 140.4), more waiting time (P < 0.001, χ^2 = 108), facing time limitation (P < 0.001, χ^2 = 68.8), having payment problems (P = 0.001, χ^2 = 25) and having transportation problem (P = 0.001, χ^2 = 15) resulted in less satisfaction.

Also, setting of care (P < 0.001, χ^2 = 159.6), reason for last visit (P-value < 0.001, χ^2 =14.5), and having personal willingness to receive dental care (P < 0.001, χ^2 = 35.5) were significantly correlated with level of satisfaction. People who received their care in private settings and those whose reason for the last visit was regular examinations were more satisfied compared with those who attended for treatment. Gender, need for emergency care and sense of dental fear were not significantly associated with satisfaction.

By inputting the above potential factors in the logistic regression model (Backward Wald, $R^2 = 0.28$), it was revealed that participants in lower age group [Odds ratio (OR) = 0.7], those who reported their oral health status as poor (OR = 0.8) and those who had to spend more time to reach dental care setting (OR = 0.6) and had to wait more (OR = 0.5) were dissatisfied (Table 3). On the other hand, participants who were personally more willing to receive care (OR = 1.5) and those who reported to have no time limitation (OR = 2.4) were satisfied. Also, people who regularly attended private clinics were more satisfied (OR = 3.13, n = 108) compared to the individuals who attended public clinics.

Discussion

This study assessed the satisfaction with dentistry and its determinants among general population in Isfahan. Patient satisfaction is usually defined as healthcare users' reaction to main aspects of their health care service experience including context, process and outcomes of the services.17 In our study, 53% were satisfied with provided services which was much lower than percentage of satisfied people in developed countries.^{5,11} The most satisfaction among 8 domains was with access and environmental hygiene which is in agreement with other studies. 18-20 In a study conducted in Greece²¹ the patients' top priority about their expectations of the dental services was adherence to the protocols of antisepsis and sterilization.

Table 3. Multiple logistic regression model for factors related to being satisfied with dental care

Table 3: Mattiple togistic regression model for factors related to being satisfied with deflect care						
Variables	OR	P	959	% CI		
Age group	0.71	0.030	0.5	0.9		
Perceived oral health	0.83	0.020	0.7	0.9		
Travel time	0.60	< 0.001	0.5	0.7		
Waiting time	0.52	< 0.001	0.4	0.6		
Willingness to receive care	1.5	0.020	1.1	2.2		
Setting of care*						
Private clinic vs. public clinic	3.30	< 0.001	2.3	4.9		
Charity vs. public clinic	0.30	0.030	0.1	0.9		
Private office vs. public clinic	1.80	< 0.001	1.3	2.5		
Dental school vs. public clinic	4.10	0.012	1.4	12.5		
Facing time limitation	2.40	< 0.001	1.8	3.3		
Reason for last visit	1.50	0.070	0.9	2.2		

OR: Odds ratio; CI: Confidence interval

*Public clinic was considered as the reference category

The level of satisfaction in our study was also associated with socio-demographic (age), behavioral (perceived oral health status and their self-motivation to receive dental care) and also dental service factors (waiting and travel time and setting of care). Some other factors such as reason for attendance were correlated with satisfaction when assessed separately by bivariate analysis.

a similar study that evaluated satisfaction with the quality of dental care conducted on the adult population in UK,11 about 90% of people were satisfied with the quality of care. Dissatisfaction was more frequent among vounger participants [OR = 1.75, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.24, 2.48, P = 0.002], problem motivated (OR = 2.24, 95% CI 1.64, 3.05, P < 0.001) and irregular attendees. In our study, older population was more satisfied. However, Lahti et al. found that older patients were less satisfied since the oral health status of older people is usually lower than younger people that might result in negative experiences or that elderly might believe that their dentist was not as supportive as they expected.²²

In some of the studies gender participants were correlat4ed satisfaction. In these studies, women were generally more satisfied with dental care than men.²³⁻²⁵ It is suggested that such result could be due to their greater exposure to dental services that could likely moderate the expectations of women and increase the chance of being met by the providers.24 However, in our study there was no significant difference between men and women that could be described by the similar scheme of dental visits among them.

In a study conducted in 23 years old people in Norway, 14.6% of them were very satisfied with dental care and the gender difference was not also statistically significant. Multivariate linear regression showed that positive beliefs of the dentist, low/moderate dental anxiety, availability of dentists, and their last dental visit being not very painful/unpleasant explained 57.5% of

the variance of satisfaction.⁷ In another study conducted in Uganda on 1146 subjects (mean age 15.8 years) those who had painless experience in their dental visit attended dentistry more than once dentistry, evaluated their oral status positively, and those who were satisfied with their dentist's communication, expressed greater levels of satisfaction with the oral health services provided to them.²⁶

A national survey in Swiss including of 15-74 aged residents (n = 1129) showed that 47.9 % of participants were satisfied and 47.6% were very satisfied. In their study, women and those with higher education were more satisfied. The most common reasons inducing satisfaction with dentists were interpersonal communication skills of the dentist and the staff. Dental fear was also a significant predicting factor for dissatisfaction with the dentist.⁵

It seems dental fear and anxiety could influence the level of satisfaction negatively, however in our study dental fear was not significantly related to dissatisfaction. This difference could be explained by firstly small percentage of people who were afraid and secondly the overwhelming dental visit behavior of our participants. Most of them (about 70%) reported to visit dentists in case of pain and discomfort which could mask the real effects of dental fear. Armfield et al. indicated that the patterns of dental visit are significantly affected by dental fear; people with higher levels of dental fear are more likely to postpone their visits until they feel serious problems and dental pain.²⁷

In other studies the reason for last dental visit in more than 50% of people was regular examination.²⁸ On the other hand, attendance for receiving care instead of regular checkups could itself affect dental service satisfaction negatively. In a study conducted recently in Lithuania,²⁹ the logistic regression model showed that higher satisfaction with dental care level was more likely for those who were recognized as check-up-based regular dental attenders (OR = 1.7). In our

study also (bivariate analysis), people who reported their reason for last dental visit as "regular check-ups" were more satisfied.

Although the cost of health care services seems to be an important barrier to the health service utilization, some investigators have indicated that 'knowing in advance what the fee will be' and 'believing that the fees are appropriate' are among the less-important factors.³⁰ Newsome and Wright,2 based on their literature review, mentioned cost as the least important issue considered by patients when selecting a dentist. In our study, cost and payment problems were not significantly correlated to level of patients' satisfaction, although in bivariate analysis people who thought dental costs were high were less satisfied.

One of the other effective factors in predicting the satisfaction of participants in our study was the setting of care delivery; those attending private settings were 1.8 to 3.3 times more likely to be satisfied. It was clarified that about 51% of participants preferred to attend private clinic and offices versus 32% who preferred public clinics. In the study conducted in Lithuania,²⁹ stronger satisfaction was also reported by those visiting private practices (P < 0.001). In Iran, just about 10% of dentists are working in public settings⁸ and therefore the amount of attendance might be more than their capacity which could explain a part of this lower level of satisfaction.

In our study those who evaluated their perceived oral health as good or excellent were more satisfied. Ntabaye et al. showed that perceived oral health status was considered as an important predictive factor for satisfaction as all those who perceived their oral health status to be very good were satisfied with the provided care.³¹

Conclusion

In conclusion, in our study about half of the participants were satisfied with their received services which was much lower than percentage of satisfied people in developed countries and the level of satisfaction was with socio-demographic, associated behavioral and also dental service factors. This study represents one of the few documents to show variations in satisfaction with dental services by different levels of contributing factors in Iran. Some of these factors could be improved by considering appropriate policies such as educating public about the importance of regular check-up and improving the service quality in public dental care settings.

Conflict of Interests

Authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Vice Chancellery of Research in Isfahan University of Medical Sciences as this paper is based on the results of a project supported-financially and administratively-by this university.

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Received: 05 Dec. 2016 Accepted: 12 Mar. 2017

Sesame extraction gel as an agent for prevention of dental caries: An in-vitro study

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Original Article

Abstract

BACKGROUND AND AIM: Sesame has a high content of calcium. Regarding to the lack of adequate data about its remineralizing potential, we conducted this study to evaluate the surface hardness of enamel exposed to sesame extraction gel in comparison to artificial saliva and fluoride.

METHODS: After mounting and polishing twenty-four caries-free human premolars, the baseline microhardness was recorded. Subsequently, decalcification was accomplished by immersing into cola, after which the surface hardness was recorded again. Ultimately, the samples were divided into three groups, which were treated by either the sesame gel (SG), artificial saliva (AS) or the fluoride gel (FG). The final microhardness was assessed again. The repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed for comparison of baseline (B), decalcified (R) and remineralized (R) hardness while the one-way ANOVA followed by least significant difference test was used for comparison of different remineralizing agents.

RESULTS: There was significant difference among the teeth at baseline, after decalcification and after treatment by experimental solutions (P < 0.001 and P = 0.002 for pair wise comparison of B/D and D/R, respectively). Moreover, after remineralizing treatment, there was no significance difference between the solutions (P = 0.350, P = 0.150 and P = 0.610 for pair-wise comparisons of SG-FG, SG-AS, FG-AS, respectively). However, the mean microhardness value was increasing in that order.

CONCLUSION: Although treating the decalcified enamel by sesame extraction enhanced its microhardness, there was no significant difference between sesame, fluoride and artificial saliva when they were applied for just 15 min.

KEYWORDS: Sesame; Dental Enamel; Hardness

Citation: Rezvani MB, Kamali-Nejad M, Karimi M, Raad H, Hamze F. Sesame extraction gel as an agent for prevention of dental caries: An in-vitro study. J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol 2017; 6(4): 226-30.

ental caries, which is still a major public health problem and is the most frequent infectious disease in the human society, could lead to high morbidity rate. Dental treatments are often costly and painful which shift both practitioners and patients toward prevention instead of restoration of tooth caries. Carious lesion, which represents as cavitation, is the result of mineral loss from the tooth structure

due to production of acid by cariogenic bacteria.³ Therefore, any remineralizing agent that exposes the tooth surface to mineral rich saliva,⁴ could compensate and even prevent this process.³ Although fluoride has a rich successful history and serves as an inexpensive topical agent in dental clinics,² many investigations were accomplished seeking for new remineralizing materials to eliminate the drawbacks of fluoride including

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its toxicity.⁵⁻⁸ Accordingly, some innovative calcium phosphate materials such as bioactive glass, milk-derived protein and amorphous calcium phosphate were introduced recently.^{9,10} However, in view of their high cost and essential modern technology vehicles, their application is still limited in dental clinics despite their enormously proved remineralizing efficacy.^{2,6,8}

In recent years, the increased interest in alternative and complementary medicine has encouraged the dental researchers to explore the influence of various natural products against tooth caries,11-13 particularly due to their lack of side effects on body tissues beside their economic features.¹⁴ The oil pulling therapy has been extensively documented in traditional remedy in order to strengthen the tooth, jaw and gums as well as a useful management for prevention of tooth decay.¹⁵ While several herbal oils were prescribed for this therapeutic purpose in folk medicine, sesame oil was one of the most famous ones.¹⁵ contemporary investigations Nonetheless, revealed that sesame is one of the most reliable of calcium.16-19 herbal sources studies Consequently, some provided scientific evidence demonstrating that oil pulling therapy by sesame oil could be applied as a preventive strategy against dental caries. 16,20,21 However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no available data about the remineralizing capacity of sesame oil on tooth structure. Therefore, this study was conducted to evaluate the surface hardness of enamel exposed to sesame extraction gel in comparison to artificial saliva and fluoride gel.

Methods

This is an experimental in vitro study in which the blinded operators accomplished all process of preparing the samples and testing. All the teeth as well as solutions were coded and at the end of the statistical analysis, they were de-coded by the same person.

Preparation of sesame extract gel: The sesame gel was prepared by an expert professor at the Pharmacology School of the

Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran.

In order to prepare the extract, 200 gr of black sesame seed (which was purchased locally) were immersed in boiled water for 4 hours. Subsequently, they were filtrated, the solvent was evaporated and the residues were weighed that was roughly 20 g. Finally, it was admixed with 80 g of Carbomer 934 to produce an applicable 20% gel.

Preparation of the teeth: Twenty-four healthy human premolars extracted for orthodontic reasons were used in this study. The tap water was used as storage liquid and was replaced twice a week. In order to exclude unacceptable samples, the teeth were firstly cleaned with a low speed hand piece using brushes and slurry of pumice. At the next step, stereomicroscope was employed (40x magnification, Carton Optimal Industries Ltd, Thailand). The teeth that had crack were excluded and caries-free teeth were included. Thereafter, epoxy resin was used to mount the teeth before flattening and wet polishing of enamel by 5000-grit silicone paper.

Microhardness test: The baseline microhardness was assessed using a Vickers indenter (Shimadzu M g5037, Japan) at 50 g load. We made three indentations on each specimen.

It is noteworthy that all the microhardness tests (at the baseline, after de- and remineralization) were accomplished by a single operator at Amir-Kabir University of Industrial Sciences, Tehran.

Demineralization process: All of the specimens were exposed to an acidic cola based drink (Khoshgovar, Tehran, Iran) for 8 min that was replaced every 2 min in order to stabilize the PH (4.7). Thereafter, the microhardness of every sample was recorded again.

Remineralization process: The samples were randomly divided into three groups those were exposed to either artificial saliva (AS) (Hypozalix spray, Biocodex, France), fluoride gel (FG) (acidulated phosphate fluoride, Pascadental, USA) and the experimental sesame gel (SG) for 15 min.

Ultimately, the final microhardness value was measured.

After exploring the normal distribution of the data (Kolmogorov-Smirnov), the average hardness of the teeth at the baseline, and after demineralization and remineralization were compared using repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) test. Moreover, for comparison of the experimental solutions after remineralizing treatment, the one-way ANOVA test was incorporated followed by least significant difference and post hoc tests. The level of significance was determined as P = 0.05.

Results

Our analysis revealed that the microhardness value was diminished after soaking in the demineralizing solution while it was increased again roughly similar after incorporation of all remineralizing agents.

Figure 1 shows the mean value of microhardness related to all of the samples at the baseline, after immersing in acidic cola drink (decalcified) and after remineralization by experimental solutions (incorporating FG or SG). The baseline either AS, microhardness was significantly diminished after 8 min exposure to cola drink (P < 0.001) while it was significantly increased after 15 min treatment by remineralizing solutions (P = 0.002). Therefore, it was proved that the acidic cola drink had an adverse effect on the human enamel. However, all three remineralizing solutions compensated this damage.

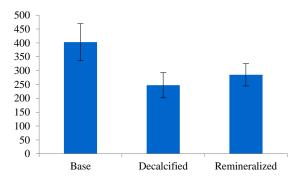


Figure 1. The mean value of microhardness \pm Standard deviation (SD) related to all tested teeth

On the other hand, figure 2 represents the microhardness value of remineralizing sub-groups. Obviously, the highest microhardness was recorded in SG followed by FG whereas the least was regarded to AS. However, statistical analysis revealed no significant difference among these subgroups (P = 0.35, 0.15 and 0.61 for pair-wise comparisons of SG-FG, SG-AS, FG-AS, respectively). Therefore, it was demonstrated that 15 min treatment by either SG FG or would increase microhardness of demineralized human enamel. Although the results were roughly similar to each other, the sesame was the most effective one.

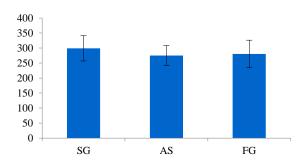


Figure 2. The mean value of microhardness \pm Standard deviation (SD) related to remineralizing subgroups

Discussion

The results of the current study revealed that sesame extraction could increase the surface hardness of tooth enamel after exposure to cola based drinks. This finding may prove the remineralization ability of sesame on tooth enamel.

Since most tooth remineralizing materials consist of calcium and phosphate,⁵⁻⁸ and sesame is rich in these minerals, it could be assumed that sesame could be used as tooth mineralizing agent. This theory is in consistent with Abebe et al.¹⁶ and Kamchan et al.¹⁸ who measured the mineral fractions of different foods and they reported the highest amount of calcium in sesame. In fact, in many previous publications, sesame was reported as one of the most drastic sources of calcium in nutrition.¹⁶⁻¹⁸ However, despite this

calcium enrichment, the bioavailability of sesame's calcium is quite limited. 16,18 This fact is related to other ingredients of sesame such as phytate, oxalate and dietary fiber content that inhibit the absorption of calcium in human gastrointestinal system. 16,18 It has been documented that these three compounds, especially the oxalate, has prompt negative effect on the calcium dialysability. 18

However, our investigation hypothesized that the sesame's calcium could precipitate on the tooth surface leading to enhancement of surface hardness and it is the first time that the surface hardness of human tooth enamel is reported after incorporation of sesame extraction.

Nonetheless, the benefits of sesame oil have been frequently proved in oil pulling therapy for prevention of plaque formation. Actually, some studies were carried on the anti-cariogenic potential of sesame oil^{15,20,21} and they proposed two mechanisms. Firstly, sesame oil was introduced as an effective agent against biofilm formation on tooth surface that could be attributed to its oily structure, which is the base of oil pulling theory for prevention of dental plaque. 15,20,21 Moreover, sesame has anti-bacterial potential against main cariogenic bacteria including Streptococcus mutans. Thaweboon et al. claimed that sesame could significantly inhibit the growth of S. mutans.²¹ Therefore, sesame could be quite favorable in dentistry especially that this natural gift does not have any side effect on human body. Moreover, it could be considered as an economic material.

It should be noted that we did not used fresh sesame seed in our experiment because in previous documentations it was reported that different ingredients of sesame are resistance to oxidation and their stability over time is trustable.¹⁷

The surface hardness test was incorporated in many articles as a quite reliable test exploring the mineral content of tooth surface. In fact, as the calcium substance of the enamel increase, its surface

hardness would increase dramatically. Among various hardness tests including Vickers, Barcol's, Knoop, etc., the Vickers is frequently used in enamel investigations due to the brittle structure of enamel.

According to our statistical analysis comparing the Vickers surface harness, after remineralizing procedure, there was no significant difference among either of the groups. It means that in statistical point of view, there was no significant difference between artificial saliva, sesame gel and fluoride gel. However, the exact mean value was highest in sesame group followed by fluoride and the least one was in artificial lack saliva. Thus, this of significant difference could be possibly explained by the short exposure time, which was 15 min in all subgroups. Therefore, prolonged treatment intervals are strongly suggested in future studies.

Sesame extraction had the potential of increasing the surface hardness of human enamel that was decalcified by an acidic beverage. Hence it could be assumed that the incorporated gel had possible remineralizing effect.

Conclusion

It was revealed that exposing the human enamel to an acidic cola based drink would diminish its surface hardness while treating with the sesame or fluoride gel would enhance this property. However, by 15 min incorporation of experimental gels, no statistically significant difference was obtained among the groups compared to artificial saliva.

Conflict of Interests

Authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to acknowledge the Dental Research Center of Shahed Dental School, Tehran, for financial support of the study.

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Received: 13 Jan. 2017 Accepted: 27 May 2017

Association between clinical and cone-beam computed tomography findings in patients with temporomandibular disorders

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Original Article

Abstract

BACKGROUND AND AIM: The aim of this study was to assess the association between the clinical and cone-beam computed tomography (CBCT) findings in relation to bony changes in patients with temporomandibular disorders (TMD).

METHODS: According to the research diagnostic criteria for temporomandibular disorder (RDC/TMD), forty-one patients with type II TMD (42 TM joints) and type III TMD (40 TM joints) were recruited for this study. Condylar position and bony changes including flattening, sclerosis, osteophytes, resorption, and erosion of joint were evaluated by CBCT and compared with clinical findings. Data were analyzed by SPSS software.

RESULTS: Condylar flattening, sclerosis, resorption, and erosion were not significantly associated with joint/masticatory muscles pain or crepitus sound. The vertical or horizontal position of the condyle showed no significant relationship with the clinical findings. Condylar osteophyte was significantly associated with pain in masticatory muscles and crepitus (P = 0.030 and P = 0.010, respectively). There was no association between the condylar range of motion and pain in joint or masticatory muscles.

CONCLUSION: Condylar osteophyte was significantly associated with both masticatory muscles pain and crepitus sound. No significant relationship was found between the other temporomandibular joint (TMJ) radiographic and clinical findings in patients with TMD.

KEYWORDS: Cone-Beam Computed Tomography; Mandibular Condyle; Temporomandibular Joint Disorders

Citation: Imanimoghaddam M, Madani AS, Bagherpour A, Gharekhani S, Ebrahimnejad H, Alimohamadi M. Association between clinical and cone-beam computed tomography findings in patients with temporomandibular disorders. J Oral Health Oral Epidemiol 2017; 6(4): 231-8.

emporomandibular disorder (TMD) is the term used to include all functional disturbances of the masticatory system. TMDs are identified by a triad of clinical symptoms such as pain, jaw sounds and limitation/deviation on mouth opening.¹ TMDs are diagnosed as frequently as 33%, with a predilection for women.² This disorder

has been found to be associated with psychosocial factors such as depression and anxiety disorders and parafunctional activities such as clenching and bruxism.³

Both clinical and radiographic examinations of temporomandibular joint (TMJ) are needed to diagnose TMD. A comprehensive clinical examination should be performed based on the research

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diagnostic criteria for TMD (RDC/TMD) considering both physical and psychological etiologic factors of TMD. The RDC/TMD criteria are based on the physical symptoms including three categories of muscular disorders (group 1), disk displacement (group 2), and arthralgia, osteoarthritis or osteoarthrosis (group 3). Group-2 includes displacement with and without reduction.4 The RDC/TMD criteria for disk displacement with reduction are known as reciprocal clicking (click on vertical opening and closing that happens at 5 mm greater interincisal space on opening than closing and is omitted on protrusive opening), repeatable on 2 out of 3 sequential attempts, or clicking on vertical range of motion (either opening or closing), repeatable on 2 out of 3 sequential attempts, and click during lateral movement or protrusion which reproducible on 2 out of 3 consecutive trials. The RDC/TMD criteria for disk displacement without reduction are known considerable limitation in the opening, maximum unassisted opening ≤ 35 mm, passive stretching increasing opening by ≤ 4 mm more than the maximum unassisted opening, contralateral excursion < 7 mm and/or uncorrected deviation to the same side on opening. The RDC/TMD criteria for TMD type III include pain on palpation for one or two joints, coarse crepitus and self-reported pain of the ioints radiographic signs of arthritis.5

Radiographic examination of TMJ is usually necessary to differentiate these pathologic conditions. Advanced radiographic methods, such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), are used to evaluate the soft tissue of disk and its dislocation, whereas Cone-Beam computed tomography (CBCT) is the gold standard method to assess the bony changes of TMJ.^{6,7}

There are few number of studies evaluating the relationship between clinical and radiographic findings of TMD by CBCT.³ Among these, an association was found between functional pain and radiographic

bony changes on the articular surface of condyle by Kurita et al.² However, several other studies have found no relationship between the intensity of pain and range of mandibular motion on the one hand and the degree of condylar bony changes on the other.^{3,8-10}

Considering the divergent results in this field, the current study was conducted to assess the association between clinical and radiographic findings in patients with TMJ disk displacement and osteoarthritis.

Methods

All patients with symptoms of type II and III **TMD Prosthodontics** attending the Department of Mashhad Dental School, Iran, from April 2013 to April 2014, were recruited for this cross-sectional study. The inclusion considered criteria were based RDC/TMD. The exclusion criteria were congenital craniofacial disorders, history of TMJ therapeutic interventions (surgery, laser therapy, and medication), those receiving orthodontic treatment, pregnancy, systemic diseases involving TMJ (e.g. rheumatoid arthritis) and pyogenic arthritis.5

The research protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Mashhad University of Medical Sciences (Code: 920112) and written consent was obtained.

Clinical examination was performed by an expert prosthodontist and history of TMJ trauma or parafunctional habits were also recorded.

The maximum mouth opening was assessed by a tape measure and patients were classified into normal (35-50 mm) and limited (< 35 mm) groups.⁴ Myofascial pain was characterized by any symptom of ache in the jaw, face, temples, preauricular region or inside the ear during rest or function. Moreover, the pain on palpation of masseter or temporalis muscles, posterior region of the mandible, submandibular site, lateral pterygoid and tendon of temporalis was also registered. Additionally, TMJ pain elicited by palpation at rest or during function alongside

jaw sounds including click and crepitus was recorded.⁵

Bilateral CBCT images were taken by Promax 3D (Planmeca, Helsinki, Finland) from the TMJ in opened and closed mouth states [field of view (FOV) = 80×80 mm, kilovoltage peak (kVP) = 64-68, mA = 6-10, slice thickness = 0.16 mm, slice interval = 1 mm)].

Three-dimensional images of coronal, sagittal and axial planes were constructed by multi-planar reconstructions of CBCT, using Romexis 3.1.1 (Planmeca, Helsinki, Finland). The sagittal slices were reconstructed perpendicular to the panoramic line that was drawn on the axial plane. The slice corresponding to the center of the condyle was considered as the reference. All of the images were interpreted by two expert oral and maxillofacial radiologists under blinded condition. Divergent interpretations were discussed and the final agreement was reached in all cases.

To assess the vertical condylar position, the distance between the uppermost region of the condyle and deepest area of the joint fossa was measured. The distance between 1.5-4 mm was considered as normal.¹² In order to evaluate the horizontal position of the condyle, anterior and posterior joint spaces were determined by the method of Kinzinger et al.¹³ The shortest distance between the most anterior region of the condyle to the articular eminence (anterior joint space) and the most posterior region of the condyle to the tympanic process of the temporal bone (posterior joint space) were measured. The joint space index (JSI) was estimated as follows: ISI = [(Post - Ant) / (Post + Ant)] × 100, where Ant is anterior joint space, and Post is posterior joint space. The index values were interpreted as follows, 0: central location of the condyle, > 0: anterior location of the condyle, and < 0: posterior location of the condyle.

If the most superior region of condyle was located around 5 mm posterior and 8 mm anterior to the most inferior region of articular eminence, it was considered normal.

If the condyle moved posteriorly more than this range, it was considered a limitation in motion and anteriorly, out of this range, was named hypermobility or subluxation.¹⁴

Bony changes, including flattening, sclerosis, osteophytes, resorption, and erosion were also identified in at least two consecutive cross-sections of CBCT images (Figure 1).



Figure 1. The sagittal CBCT (Cone-Beam computed tomography) appearance of normal mandibular condyle (A), flattening of condylar head (B), sclerosis (C), erosion (D), resorption (E) and osteophyte (F)

The Fisher's exact test was used to assess the association between the clinical and CBCT findings using SPSS (version 18, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and the significance level was set at P < 0.050.

Results

A total of 41 patients (22 women and 19 men) fulfilled the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The mean age of the patients was 42.5 ± 27.5 years. The sex did not have any influence on the study parameters. The association between clinical and CBCT findings were evaluated as follows:

Erosive changes and TMJ/muscular pain: Of 82 joints evaluated, 1 joint was characterized by pain and erosive changes of the glenoid fossa. 8 joints were identified with erosive changes in the region of articular eminence, and 3 joints were reported as joint pain. Among 44 cases with the erosion of the

Table 1. Association between temporomandibular joint (TMJ) pain and bony changes of joint

Bony change		TMJ	$ \mathbf{P}^*$	
Dony change		Yes [n (%)]	No [n (%)]	_ 1
Erosion of condylar head	Yes (n = 44)	21 (47.8)	23 (52.2)	> 0.999
	No $(n = 38)$	19 (50.0)	19 (50.0)	
Sclerosis of condylar head	Yes (n = 3)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	> 0.999
	No $(n = 37)$	21 (56.8)	16 (43.2)	
Osteophyte of condylar head	Yes (n = 12)	9 (75.0)	3 (25.0)	0.179
	No $(n = 28)$	14 (50.0)	14 (50.0)	
Resorption of condylar head	Yes (n = 1)	1 (100)	0 (0)	> 0.999
	No $(n = 39)$	22 (56.4)	65 (43.6)	
Fattening of condylar head	Yes (n = 12)	8 (66.7)	4 (33.3)	0.505
	No $(n = 28)$	15 (53.6)	13 (46.4)	

*Fisher's exact test

TMJ: Temporomandibular joint

condylar head, 11 cases were identified with disk displacement signs and 33 cases with osteoarthritis. There was no significant association between condylar erosion and joint or masticatory muscles pain (Tables 1 and 2).

Sclerosis and TMJ/muscular pain: 3 of 82 joints exhibited sclerosis of the glenoid fossa, 2 of which had joint pain but none of them had pain in masticatory muscles. In addition, 4 joints had articular eminence sclerosis with joint pain, but only 1 of them showed pain in masticatory muscles. No significant association was found between condylar sclerosis and joint or muscular pain (Tables 1 and 2).

Osteophyte and TMJ/muscular pain: No osteophyte was found in the region of glenoid fossa or articular eminence in the patients with type III TMD. 12 joints showed condylar osteophyte. There was no

significant association between condylar osteophyte and joint pain; however, the relationship between condylar osteophyte and masticatory muscles pain was significant (P = 0.039) (Tables 1 and 2).

Resorption and TMJ/muscular pain: No joint exhibited resorption of the glenoid fossa or articular eminence in the subjects with type III TMD. Condylar resorption was observed in only one joint. There was no association between condylar resorption and joint or masticatory muscles pain (Tables 1 and 2).

Flattening and TMJ/muscular pain: No flattening was detected in the region of glenoid fossa or articular eminence. However, 66 cases of condylar flattening were detected. No significant association was found between condylar flattening and joint or masticatory muscles pain (Table 1).

Condylar erosion/sclerosis/osteophyte/resorption/flattening and crepitus: No

Table 2. Association between muscular pain and bony changes of joint

Bony changes		Muscular pain		$ \mathbf{P}^*$
		Yes [n (%)]	No [n (%)]	- P
Erosion of condylar head	Yes (n = 44)	9 (20.4)	35 (79.6)	0.605
	No $(n = 38)$	10 (26.3)	28 (73.7)	
Sclerosis of condylar head	Yes (n = 3)	0 (0)	3 (100)	> 0.999
	No $(n = 37)$	8 (21.6)	29 (78.4)	
Osteophyte of condylar head	Yes (n = 12)	5 (41.7)	7 (58.3)	0.039
	No $(n = 28)$	3 (10.7)	25 (89.3)	
Resorption of condylar head	Yes (n = 1)	0 (0)	1 (100)	> 0.999
	No $(n = 39)$	8 (20.5)	31 (79.5)	
Fattening of condylar head	Yes (n = 66)	14 (21.2)	52 (78.8)	0.509
	No $(n = 16)$	5 (31.2)	11 (68.8)	

*Fisher's exact test

Table 3. Association between crepitus and bony changes of joint

Bony changes		Crep	$ \mathbf{P}^*$	
		Yes [n (%)]	No [n (%)]	- r
Erosion of condylar head	Yes $(n = 40)$	29 (72.5)	11 (27.5)	0.170
	No $(n = 42)$	37 (88.1)	5 (11.9)	
Sclerosis of condylar head	Yes (n = 3)	2 (66.7)	1 (33.3)	0.090
	No $(n = 79)$	14 (17.7)	65 (82.3)	
Osteophyte of condylar head	Yes $(n = 12)$	6 (50.0)	6 (50.0)	0.010
	No $(n = 70)$	10 (14.3)	60 (85.7)	
Resorption of condylar head	Yes (n = 1)	0 (0)	1 (100)	> 0.999
	No $(n = 81)$	16 (19.8)	65 (80.2)	
Fattening of condylar head	Yes $(n = 66)$	13 (19.7)	53 (80.3)	> 0.999
	No $(n = 16)$	3 (18.7)	13 (81.3)	

*Fisher's exact test

association was found between crepitus sound and condylar head erosion, sclerosis, resorption, and flattening. A significant relationship was established between crepitus and condylar osteophytes (P = 0.010) (Tables 1 and 3).

Condylar position in closed mouth and TMJ/muscular pain: The horizontal position of condyle was centric in 23 patients, whereas in 18 and 41 subjects it was located anteriorly and posteriorly, respectively. The vertical position of condyle was normal in 55 cases. However, 27 subjects exhibited increased vertical joint space. There was no association between the horizontal or vertical position of condyle and pain in joint or masticatory muscles (Tables 4 and 5).

Condylar range of motion and TMJ/muscular pain: From the 82 evaluated joints, 48 condyles were in the normal range on mouth opening. Limitation in motion was noticed in 25 joints, whereas 9 ones showed hypermobility. There was no association between the condylar range of motion and pain in joint or masticatory muscles (Table 6).

Discussion

This study was designed to evaluate the relationship between clinical and CBCT findings in patients with TMD according to the RDC/TMD criteria. The efficacy of CBCT has been demonstrated by previous studies.^{12,15,16}

Larheim et al. reported that 35% of patients with disk displacement had no pain.¹⁷ Some authors proposed pain as a multi-dimensional experience, the origin of which, joints or muscles, might not be identified by patients.^{18,19} Joint pain was not significantly associated with TMD in the current study. This finding was consistent with other studies.^{3,20-22}

In a CBCT study on a symptomatic TMD group of Korean children and adolescents, multiple cases of erosion and posterior position of condyle were reported. Sclerosis was the most frequent finding in the asymptomatic group.

Erosion occurred more frequently in patients with pain and limited mouth

Table 4. Association of the horizontal position of the condyle and pain in joint or masticatory muscles

Pain		Horizontal position of condyle			
		Anterior [n (%)]	Centric [n (%)]	Posterior [n (%)]	P
Jaw pain	Yes $(n = 40)$	13 (32.5)	7 (17.5)	20 (50.0)	0.060
	No $(n = 42)$	5 (11.9)	16 (38.1)	21 (50.0)	
Masticatory muscle pain	Yes $(n = 19)$	4 (21.0)	5 (26.3)	10 (52.7)	0.885
	No $(n = 63)$	14 (22.2)	18 (28.6)	31 (49.2)	

*Fisher's exact test

Table 5. Association of the vertical position of the condyle and pain in joint or masticatory muscles

Pain -		Ver	. P *		
		High [n (%)]	Normal [n (%)]	Low [n (%)]	
Jaw pain	Yes $(n = 40)$	12 (30.0)	28 (70.0)	0 (0)	0.582
	No $(n = 42)$	15 (35.8)	27 (64.3)	0 (0)	
Masticatory muscle pain	Yes $(n = 19)$	5 (26.3)	14 (73.7)	0 (0)	0.484
	No $(n = 63)$	22 (34.9)	41 (65.1)	0 (0)	

*Fisher's exact test

opening.²³ In another study, patients with erosive changes reported more pain and dysfunction.²⁴ The present results showed no association between erosive changes and pain. The different clinical and radiological approaches may justify the difference.

Palconet et al. demonstrated a weak association between radiographic findings of condyle (erosion, flattening and osteophyte) in CBCT and pain in joint or masticatory muscles or other clinical findings.³ These findings were similar to the current results. However, a significant association was found between osteophytes and pain in masticatory muscles. This might be due to the fact that the presence of osteophytes and pain upon function gradually leads to limited function and consequently splinting and fatigue of muscles.

Wiese et al. found no association between bony changes in TMJ tomograms and painrelated variables, including pain in joint and muscles palpation, masticatory upon duration of pain perception and chronic pain.²⁵ Clinical symptoms may appear 6 months prior to the appearance of radiologic bony changes and radiographic images may seem normal in the early stages of osteoarthritis. When the radiographic structural changes appear, but the patients have no pain, osteoarthritis is probably present. In this case, the inflammatory reactions and pain gradually abate, the suitable range of motion is restored, and joint sounds decrease, but the regenerative processes continue in the condyle and fossa.²⁶

Kurita et al. demonstrated a positive relationship between pain and radiographic evidence of osteoarthritis.² This incoherence might be explained by different case selection, pain determination criteria and radiographic methods.

In the present study, condylar flattening was found in patients with signs of disk displacement. However, some authors found no association between osteophytes, erosion, flattening and disk displacement.²⁷ In addition, in Sener and Akganlu's study, degenerative changes in joints were not suggested as a special finding of disk displacement.²⁸

Joint sounds are often considered as an indicator of internal derangement of TMJ. However, it should be noted that the absence of joint sounds is not essentially associated with normality.²⁹ In the present study, consistent with the Wiese's et al. study,²⁶ crepitus was shown to be associated with osteophytes. Moreover, similar to another survey, crepitus was not associated with other radiographic changes.²⁷

In the present research, no association was found between the horizontal or vertical position of condyle and pain in the TMJ or muscles. The condyles were commonly observed in the posterior position.

The clinical significance of the horizontal position of the condyle is controversial. Many

Table 6. Association between maximum mouth opening and pain in joint or masticatory muscles

Pain		Maximum m	\mathbf{P}^*	
ram		Limited [n (%)]	Normal [n (%)]	r
Jaw pain	Yes (n = 40)	17 (42.5)	23 (57.5)	0.550
	No $(n = 42)$	17 (40.5)	25 (59.5)	
Masticatory muscle pain	Yes (n = 19)	8 (42.1)	11 (57.9)	0.550
·	No $(n = 63)$	26 (41.3)	37 (58.7)	

*Fisher's exact test

researchers found no association between the horizontal position of the condyle and clinical findings. ^{26,30,31} However, several studies showed that the posterior position of the condyle was common in TMD patients. ^{32,33}

No association was found between the vertical position of condyle and pain in joint or masticatory muscles. The association of vertical position of the condyle with clinical findings was not previously studied. The current results showed an insignificant association between the condylar position in opened mouth and pain. In the study by de Senna et al., no association was found between the position of the condyle and disk with clinical symptoms.³⁴ In agreement with us, Hirsch and John did not find any changes in the jaw motion with the presence of TMD symptoms.³⁵

Future studies could replicate the current results using a larger sample, MRI assessment,

and quantitative clinical evaluations.

Conclusion

Condylar osteophyte was significantly associated with both masticatory muscles pain and crepitus sound. No significant relationship was found between the radiographic and clinical findings in patients with type II and type III TMD.

Conflict of Interests

Authors have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

This study was made possible by the generous support rendered by the Vice Chancellor for Research of Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, in the form of grant No 920112, for which the authors are very grateful.

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