



Tufts University

School of Dental Medicine

Cranio-facial pain Center

# **Association of tooth wear to temporomandibular joint disorders and sleep breathing disorders in Indian school children**

---

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of  
Science

Tufts University School of Dental Medicine 2014

Thesis submitted by

Dr Satish K Bhargat  
B.D.S.;PCAD

## **Abstract**

### **Aim:**

The aim of this study was to find if any association exists between the non- carious tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders in children.

### **Introduction:**

Tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders (TMD) and sleep breathing disorders (SBD) are some common disorders in adults as well as children. These conditions may be present either alone or in combination. Sometimes these disorders remain undiagnosed for a long time, especially in children as they may not realize that this discomfort is pathological. Early detection of these disorders may positively impact a child's growth and overall health.

**Methods:** This cross-sectional observational study included 1009 Indian school children. Validated indices like Helkimo Index and Sleep Disorder Scale for Children by Bruni for SBD were used to determine TMD and SBD respectively. A child was considered tooth wear positive if any of the tooth surfaces presented tooth wear.

Associations between these three conditions were evaluated using chi-square tests. All analyses were performed using SAS, Version 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC).

### **Results:**

1009 subjects, 405 girls and 604 boys between 10 years and 16 years of age formed the sample of the study. Mean (standard deviation) age was 12.8 (0.78) years. Of the 1009, 853 (84.5%) had tooth wear (661 mild and 192 severe), 356 (35.3%) had sleep breathing

disorders, 587 (58.2%) had clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders, and 371 (36.8%) had self-diagnosed temporomandibular disorders.

Of the 356 with sleep breathing disorders, 253 (71.1%) had clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders, compared to 334 of the 653 (51.1%) without sleep breathing disorders. This was a statistically significant difference.

Of the 853 with tooth wear, 492 (57.7%) had clinically diagnosed TMD as compared to 95 of the 156 (60.9%) with no tooth wear. This was not a statistically significant difference.

Of the 853 with tooth wear, 307 (36%) had sleep breathing disorders, compared to 49 of the 156 (31.4%) with no tooth wear. This was also not statistically significant difference.

**Conclusion:**

This study concludes that there is a high prevalence of tooth wear, sleep breathing disorders and temporomandibular disorders in Indian school children. There is statistically significant association between sleep breathing disorders and temporomandibular disorders and there may be no significant association between tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders and temporomandibular disorders.

## **Thesis committee**

Noshir Mehta; DMD, MDS, MS, FICD, FACD

Brijesh Chandwani; DMD, BDS

Paul Stark; MS, ScD

Tofool Alghanem; BDS, MS

Ronald Kulich; PhD

## **Acknowledgments**

Accomplishing this Masters was my DREAM COME TRUE. This was accomplished with the support and contribution from:

**My family**, as most of the time required for this study was derived from my family time.

- My wife, Sangeeta encouraged me to complete assignments on weekends
- My children, Dr Sanket and Dr Sanchit inspired me.
- My parents, Sushila and Kantilal whose enthusiasm in their 8<sup>th</sup> decade made me feel, I am a teenager

**My guide**, Dr Noshir Mehta and the advisory committee for guiding me to bring my work at par with international standards.

**My statistician**, Dr Paul Stark for various statistical analyses and presenting the results which present in depth understanding of epidemiology of the mixed sample size.

**My guardian** of this program, Dara Mehta, for coordinating and encouraging me through this wonderful journey.

**My research team** for enthusiastically participating in the research to examine the large sample size.

- Dentists, Dr Sanket, Dr Archana, Intern Anuj Mehta\
- Office staff, Padma Iyer and Asma Khan

**My colleague** Dr Sharat Shetty, a passionate academician and clinician for being with me through the process of compiling my thesis.

**My DDE group**, their camaraderie was a great incentive to visit Boston for forthcoming modules

## **Table of contents**

Abstract .....	ii
Thesis committee .....	iv
Acknowledgments.....	v
Table of contents.....	vi
List of tables.....	viii
List of figures .....	x
Introduction.....	1
Tooth wear.....	1
Mechanical tooth wear .....	2
Tooth wear due to parafunctional habits.....	4
Chemical tooth wear .....	5
Pathological tooth wear.....	6
Prevalence of tooth wear .....	6
Measurement of tooth wear.....	7
Temporomandibular disorders .....	8
Prevalence of temporomandibular disorders.....	9
Measurement of temporomandibular disorders.....	9
Sleep breathing disorders .....	10
Prevalence of sleep breathing disorders .....	10
Measurement of sleep breathing disorders.....	11
Specific Aims and Hypothesis .....	12
Research Design and Methods.....	12
Study population .....	12
Inclusion and exclusion criteria.....	13
Questionnaires.....	13
Assessment for temporomandibular disorders .....	13

Assessment for sleep breathing disorders .....	14
Assessment of tooth wear.....	14
Clinical examination .....	14
Extra-oral examination.....	15
Intraoral examination .....	16
Recruitment .....	16
Statistical analysis .....	17
Results.....	17
Discussion.....	18
Prevalence of tooth wear .....	20
Prevalence of temporomandibular disorders.....	21
Prevalence of sleep breathing disorders .....	22
Limitation .....	23
Conclusion .....	23
Appendix A: Tables .....	24
Appendix B: Figures .....	33
Appendix C: Survey instruments .....	44
REFERENCES .....	60

## **List of tables**

Table 1 : Age distribution of study cohort

Table 2 : Gender distribution of study cohort

Table 3 : Age distribution by gender of study cohort

Table 4 : Distribution of tooth wear of study cohort

Table 5 : Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders of study cohort

Table 6 : Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders of study cohort

Table 7 : Distribution of sleep breathing disorders of study cohort

Table 8 : Distribution of tooth wear according to age of study cohort

Table 9 : Distribution of tooth wear according to gender of study cohort

Table 10: Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to  
age

Table 11: Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to  
gender

Table 12: Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to age

Table 13: Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to gender

Table 14: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders according to age

Table 15: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders according to gender

Table 16: Association of tooth wear and clinically diagnosed temporomandibular  
disorders

Table 17: Association of tooth wear and self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders

Table 18: Association of tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders



Table 19: Association between clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders

Table 20: Association between self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders

Table 21: Analysis to compare self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders

## **List of Figures**

Chart 1: Age distribution of study cohort

Chart 2: Gender distribution of study cohort

Chart 3: Age distribution by gender of study cohort

Chart 4: Distribution of tooth wear of study cohort

Chart 5: Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders of study cohort

Chart 6: Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders of study cohort

Chart 7: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders of study cohort

Chart 8: Distribution of tooth wear according to age of study cohort

Chart 9: Distribution of tooth wear according to gender of study cohort

Chart 10: Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to age

Chart 11: Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to gender

Chart 12: Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to age

Chart 13: Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to gender

Chart 14: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders according to age

Chart 15: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders according to gender

Chart 16: Association of tooth wear and clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders

Chart 17: Association of tooth wear and self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders

Chart 18: Association of tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders

Chart 19: Association between clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders

Chart 20: Association between self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders

Chart 21: Analysis to compare clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders

## **Introduction**

Tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders (TMD) and sleep breathing disorders (SBD) are some common disorders in humans.<sup>1-3</sup> People may experience these conditions either alone or in combination.<sup>4</sup> At times these disorders remain undiagnosed for a long time, especially in children as they may not realize that this discomfort may be pathological. Early detection of these disorders can have a positive impact on a child's growth and hence, overall health. Epidemiological studies have reported signs and symptoms of these disorders in children and adolescents to be as common as in adults.<sup>5-8</sup>

Tooth wear may lead to loss of vertical dimension of masticatory system and thus cause imbalance in oral tissues. This may lead to temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders.<sup>9</sup> Temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders affect the physical, physiological, psychological and mental growth and development of a child.<sup>10-12</sup> Day time sleepiness, irritability, hyperactivity, lack of concentration, etc are some of the consequences of these conditions.<sup>5</sup> Examining and analyzing tooth wear may provide vital information for clinicians to screen for otherwise hidden disorders and thus change the destiny of the child towards a normal and healthy life pattern.

## **Tooth wear**

Tooth wear is a collective term, commonly used for loss of tooth structure. Various terms like tooth surface loss (TSL)<sup>13</sup> occlusal wear and tooth surface wear<sup>14</sup> have been used in the literature. Until recently, tooth wear was considered a non significant, physiologic phenomenon; however studies reveal that this condition is on the rise.<sup>15</sup> Perceptions about tooth wear are now changing and more studies are being conducted.<sup>15</sup> Based on factors like dietary habits, cultural variation, psychological behavior, economic status, social

status, among others, tooth wear may be presented differently and can be considered physiologic or pathological.<sup>3</sup>

Tooth wear is a common finding in children as well as adults. In fact, tooth matter loss is more severe in deciduous dentition due to differences in physical and chemical properties as compared to permanent dentition.<sup>16</sup> The mineral content responsible for hardness is less in deciduous teeth.<sup>17</sup> Smaller size and different anatomical structure also result in more tooth wear in deciduous teeth when compared with permanent teeth.<sup>15</sup> Tooth wear can cause loss of vertical dimension of masticatory system thus creating imbalance in oral tissues which in turn may lead to temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders.<sup>9,18,19</sup>

Tooth wear is an irreversible damage and has multifactorial etiological aspects.<sup>3</sup> Although the terminology is being widely used, the clinical appearance and their interpretations vary amongst the clinicians.<sup>3,11,14,15,20-26</sup> According to recent knowledge, there may be several factors that can cause tooth wear.<sup>20</sup> They are referred to as abrasion, demastication, attrition, abfraction, resorption and erosion.<sup>24</sup> It may be appropriate to understand the different terminologies used for factors responsible for tooth wear. The clinical presentation of tooth wear varies depending on the main cause of tooth wear.

#### *Mechanical tooth wear*

Abrasion is a mechanical process like rubbing, grinding or scraping that result in the wearing of a substance. The clinical term, dental abrasion, is used to describe the mechanical wear of enamel and dentin through abnormal mechanical processes involving foreign objects or substances ingested in the mouth and contacting the teeth. Based on the

etiology, the pattern of wear can be generalized or localized. Factors causing abrasion may be material or patient related.<sup>24</sup>

Materialistic factors include the type of dentifrice used, its abrasiveness and pH as well as the amount of dentifrice. Patient related factors may include the duration of the dentifrice used, the stiffness of the brush, force applied during brushing and the technique of brushing. Occupational factors may include working in an abrasive dust atmosphere, holding nails between teeth and biting thread.<sup>23,27,28</sup>

Dental attrition is defined as the physiologic wearing of teeth resulting from tooth to tooth contact without any food or during mastication.<sup>29,30</sup> Occlusal and proximal surfaces of opposing and neighboring teeth rub with each other during various activities like mastication, swallowing, speech and exercising in gymnasium. Clinically, the first presentation of attrition is in the form of small polished facets on cusp tips or marginal ridges or incisal edges.<sup>24,28</sup> Dental attrition is considered physiologic and its presentation may vary according to the age. It may be hastened by external factors like type of diet, culture and occupation.<sup>27</sup>

Seligman and Pullinger described attrition as a result of multi-factorial etiologies including age and canine guidance. Parafunctional activities, dental crowding, occlusal slides, crossbites, chewing habits, and diet may also contribute to tooth wear. Studies also show that enamel wear is affected by changes in lubricating conditions, acidity, and loads.<sup>31</sup> Tooth wear due to above factors clinically differs from progressive dentin wear associated with increasing load.<sup>32</sup>

### *Tooth wear due to parafunctional habits*

Parafunctional habits like clenching and bruxism may also cause attrition.<sup>4,33</sup> Mechanical tooth wear may also occur due to normal masticatory function and parafunctional habits like bruxism and clenching of teeth either during day or night.<sup>34</sup>

The prevalence of bruxism in school going children is about 25 -30%<sup>4</sup> and tooth wear is one of the main outcomes of this parafunction.<sup>35</sup> The forces exerted on the molars are several times greater in parafunctional activities as compared to normal masticatory forces.<sup>36</sup> Studies by Mehta *et al.* have shown that maxillary and mandibular teeth contact each other for about 20 to 25 minutes in 12 hours for mastication where as they may grind against each other up to 40 minutes in one hour during parafunctional activities. Also, the forces during parafunction are much higher.<sup>4,36</sup> This may lead to various changes in dental structures and tooth wear can be one of the most common findings.<sup>37</sup> Bruxism is considered one of the main factors for mechanical tooth wear.<sup>37</sup> Studies by Carlson *et al.* show that bruxism is less common as the child turns adolescent.<sup>38</sup> Children should be diagnosed and treated for tooth wear as it can prevent pathological changes in their masticatory system.

Abfraction is the result of eccentrically applied occlusal forces that cause the tooth to flex and may not be due to abrasion alone.<sup>20,39</sup> Based on the tooth flexure theory, masticatory or parafunctional forces in areas of eccentric-occlusion or malocclusion may affect one or several teeth to strong stresses like tensile, compressive or shearing stresses. These forces may cause micro fractures in enamel and dentin at the CEJ. Gradually, these microfractures may result in further breakdown of enamel and dentin. These resulting wedge-shaped defects look different from abrasion cavities and have sharp rims.<sup>20</sup> More

studies need to be explored to establish the scientific base of the tooth flexure theory and it is not yet sufficiently explored. More research is needed for a better understanding of this process.

### *Chemical tooth wear*

Dental erosion is a term used to define loss of tooth structure due to nonbacterial chemical processes.<sup>29</sup> If the pH of saliva drops below 5.5 then enamel will dissolve and breakdown resulting in erosive lesions.<sup>40</sup> Erosive wear also depends on length and frequency of acidic attack. The longer the duration and more frequent the exposure, the effect may be more severe.<sup>15</sup>

Clinical presentation of dental erosion varies from carious wear. Erosive lesions present as concave and rounded defects whereas carious lesions present as rough margins.<sup>41</sup>

There have been several studies on dental erosion and the basic nomenclature of dental erosion is based on etiology, clinical severity, activity of progression and location of lesion.<sup>2,15,20,22,25,26,28,42,43</sup> Classification of dental erosion is based on its etiological factors.

It is termed as extrinsic, intrinsic or idiopathic, implying that from the case history (anamnesis) the source of acid may be exogenous, endogenous or unknown.<sup>24,25,44</sup>

Extrinsic erosion is caused by exogenous acids like dietary acids (principal source), industrial acid fumes in work environment, chlorinated water in swimming pools and some medicaments like iron tonics.<sup>20,45</sup> The most commonly consumed dietary acids are colas (carbonic acid), fruit acids, vinegar and sports drinks.<sup>20</sup> Most recently ascorbic acid present in many cold drinks and candies has been identified as one of the most significant cause of dental erosion.<sup>45,46</sup> Life style changes like dieting and striving for a healthy life have prompted greater intake of fruits and diet drinks that are acidic. Appropriate dental



hygiene and frequent brushing of teeth immediately after an attack of acids has been shown to cause greater tooth wear.<sup>45</sup>

Intrinsic erosion is caused by endogenous acid sources. Gastric acid formed in the stomach finds its way back in the mouth during vomiting, regurgitation or reflux.<sup>20,31</sup> This could be due to several disorders like nervous vomiting, bulimia, pregnancy, alcoholism, GI disorders like Hiatus hernia, GRD.<sup>47,48</sup>

Idiopathic erosion refers to erosion when the cause of erosion is unknown and precise etiology cannot be related.

#### *Pathological tooth wear*

The word 'resorption' is derived from the Latin verb *resorberc'* (to suck back) and describes the process of biological degradation and assimilation of substances or structures previously produced by the body.<sup>20</sup> Clinical terms like root resorption, dental resorption, tooth resorption are used to explain the biological loss of dental hard tissue by cementoclasts, dentinoclasts and ameloclasts.<sup>20</sup> Resorption may be considered a physiologic process when the roots of deciduous teeth resorb before shedding or may be considered a pathological process when tooth structure is degraded due to trauma, cysts or neoplasms.<sup>20</sup> Mention of resorption is included here for the sake of completeness of information related to non-carious causes of destructive processes affecting the teeth.

#### **Prevalence of tooth wear**

Studies on the prevalence of tooth wear in children, young adults and old age subjects have not been consistent with regards to methodology. The literature mentions several indices used to classify the severity of tooth wear.<sup>3,11,14,15,20-26</sup> Van't Spijker *et al.*,

reviewed articles published between 1980 and 2007 and compiled a systematic data on the prevalence of tooth wear.<sup>3</sup>

There is evidence that the presence of tooth wear due to non carious lesions is growing steadily and one of the main factors is dietary changes.<sup>13</sup> However, there was also a study that compared the status of tooth wear in children born during 1950s and 1990s.<sup>30</sup> This study has found that abrasive tooth wear is less in children born in 1990s.<sup>30</sup> It did not consider erosive tooth wear. Jaeggi and Lussi reviewed the data on the prevalence of tooth wear and found the results by different researchers fall in a broad range. Six to fifty percent of preschool children between 2 and 5 years of age showed erosion on deciduous teeth.<sup>15</sup> About 14% school children (aged 5-9 years) had erosive lesions on permanent teeth.<sup>15</sup> Eleven to 100% of children in the adolescent group (aged between 9 and 17 years), showed some amount of erosion.<sup>15</sup> Results vary greatly because the studies were performed in different parts of the world which have different dietary habits and socio-economic status. Also, some studies included few teeth surfaces and analyzed the data using different indices. Overall, the incidence of tooth wear seems to be high and hence, it is important that tooth wear be detected early to initiate adequate preventive measures.

### **Measurement of tooth wear**

There are many methods used to measure tooth wear and they are broadly divided into quantitative and qualitative in nature. Tooth wear can be measured by clinical evaluation, physical methods, chemical methods, microscopy, micro-radiography, digital image analysis and profilometry and surface mapping.<sup>21</sup> In this study, tooth wear was evaluated clinically by visual examination.

Several indices have been used to analyze clinical tooth wear.<sup>11,21</sup> Unfortunately, the results presented by these indices are not comparable as the parameters in different studies vary and lack international standardization.<sup>11,14,22,43,49</sup>

Of the different indices, the Tooth Wear Index (TWI) developed by Smith and Knight has been validated and used by many researchers.<sup>14</sup> Some researchers have used the TWI with modifications pertaining to the particular age group being studied. Bardsley *et al.* modified the TWI to be used in an epidemiological study of 14 year old children in London. This version of the TWI was used in this study as it was suitable for the analysis of tooth wear of subjects included in the present study.<sup>7</sup> (see Appendix C)

### **Temporomandibular disorders**

Temporomandibular disorders is an umbrella term which encompasses several chronic pain disorders including masticatory muscle dysfunction, joint disorders and headache disorders.<sup>12</sup> Temporomandibular disorders have generally been presumed to be conditions that affect only adults; however, epidemiological studies have reported signs and symptoms in children and adolescents to be as frequent as in adults but, because the signs and symptoms are milder they may not be recorded.<sup>50</sup> Like most other chronic pain disorders, the exact cause of temporomandibular disorders is often a matter of debate. Genetics, morphology, environmental factors, oral parafunctional activities, erosion and trauma may be possible etiological factors. Also, any factors that can cause muscle fatigue and micro trauma may also be responsible for temporomandibular disorders.<sup>51</sup> There are several studies which have shown an association between the dental anatomy of teeth, masticatory muscles and temporomandibular disorders.<sup>12,19,52-54</sup> Headache and

temporomandibular disorders are the most common orofacial pain complaints that lead to significant suffering and absenteeism from work or school.<sup>12,55</sup>

### **Prevalence of temporomandibular disorders**

Torsdatter and Sorli (2011) reviewed different articles and found inconsistent results about the prevalence of these disorders. However, they found that prevalence of temporomandibular disorders is higher in women than in children and incidence increases as age increases.<sup>56</sup>

The prevalence of temporomandibular disorders in children varies widely in the literature. An article in the literature mentions the prevalence of temporomandibular disorders may vary from 16% to 90% in children with mixed dentition.<sup>57</sup>

### **Measurement of temporomandibular disorders**

The most prevalent clinical signs of temporomandibular disorders are temporomandibular joint sounds (upon palpation), limitation of mandibular movements, temporomandibular joint tenderness and masticatory muscle tenderness. Reported symptoms of temporomandibular disorders may include headache, temporomandibular joint sounds, bruxism, difficulty in opening the mouth, jaw pain and facial pain.<sup>50</sup>

Several methods have been used by clinicians to study temporomandibular disorders in adults however; very few studies have been done on children. Among many indices the Helkimo index is one of the most widely used and studied index. It is a three section index including an anamnestic, a clinical dysfunction and an occlusal index. This study used the anamnestic questionnaire and the clinical dysfunction index to measure temporomandibular disorders (see Appendix C)<sup>50,58</sup>

### **Sleep breathing disorders**

Sleep is a significant physiologic process in human beings. Humans normally spend about one third of a lifetime in sleep. The sleep quality of children is directly related to their physical health, emotional health and development of intelligence.<sup>59</sup> Sleep breathing disorders are usually caused due to inadequate space in the upper respiratory tract and may range from mild snoring to severe obstructive sleep apnea. Studies have shown that sleep breathing disorders affect the day time concentration of the child which in turn may affect the physiological and mental growth of the child.<sup>60</sup> The causes of sleep breathing disorders may likely be the combination of several factors such as structural abnormalities along the airway tract, soft tissue hypertrophy (adenotonsillar), craniofacial dysmorphology like micrognathia or macrognathia, neuromuscular or neuromotor dysfunction.<sup>61</sup> In addition, genetic, psychological and environmental factors may influence the imbalance and cause airway disruption.<sup>62</sup> A study by Carlson *et al* showed that excessive tooth wear was one of the most common sign of sleep breathing disorders<sup>38</sup> The first step in determining the likelihood of sleep breathing disorders in pediatric patients should be to screen for possible symptoms, especially in high-risk groups like - patients with adenotonsillar hypertrophy, obesity and attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. Children with sleep breathing disorders usually exhibit daytime manifestations of poor sleep, such as sleepiness, inattention, or irritability.<sup>62</sup> Thus, it is incumbent on primary care clinicians to know the potential signs and symptoms of sleep breathing disorders.

### **Prevalence of sleep breathing disorders**

The prevalence of sleep breathing disorders in children vary due to non-standardized research criteria related to frequency, time of onset and chronicity. Overall most studies

presented the prevalence of sleep breathing disorders in children to be about 20 to 30%.<sup>63</sup> Sleep breathing disorders affect approximately 25% of all children at some point during childhood. They may present as short-term difficulties in falling asleep and night waking or may be more serious like obstructive sleep apnea.<sup>64</sup> A study done on school children in Turkey showed the prevalence of sleep breathing disorders to be about 7% in children.<sup>60</sup> No studies were found to be done on Indian children. A study done by Ng on Indian adults staying in Singapore found a prevalence of 10.9 %.<sup>65</sup>

### **Measurement of sleep breathing disorders**

Several questionnaires have been developed to diagnose sleep breathing disorders in children. In general, clinician's diagnosis is based on anamnestic reports given by parents. Spruyt *et al.* stated that the scale should be reliable, reproducible, psychometrically robust and validated. They presented the 'dos and don'ts' for designing a practical, pragmatic and reproducible questionnaire.<sup>6</sup> There have been several scales and questionnaires used in the past and her group reviewed several questionnaires and found that very few were validated and standardized.<sup>66</sup> The Sleep Disturbance Scale for Children (SDSC) by Bruni is one of the two validated scales meeting all the ideal requirements given by Spruyt<sup>67</sup> and hence, this scale was used in this study. The SDSC is a 26 item, Likert - type rating scale designed to precisely perform psychometric analyses. It is reliably reproducible and hence validated to be used in children. The scale was administered at four randomly selected public schools in Rome and consistent results were found.<sup>67</sup> Few modifications were done based on the statistical analysis and the final scale was found to be easy to collect data and the scores were consistent even when tested and retested. The other salient feature of this scale is that it can help the clinician to focus on the six factors representing the most

common areas of sleep breathing disorders in childhood and adolescence. Hence, this would help the clinician to focus towards a specific area of dysfunction that would require detailed investigation.<sup>67</sup> Current literature review does not show if any clinicians have studied the sleep breathing disorders in Indian children using the SDSC.<sup>67</sup> (see Appendix C)

### **Specific Aims and Hypothesis**

The aim of this study was to test if an association exists between non- carious tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders in Indian children. We hypothesized there would be a positive association between tooth wear and temporomandibular joint disorders; a positive association between tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders in children and a positive association between temporomandibular joint disorders and sleep breathing disorders.

### **Research Design and Methods**

This study was a cross-sectional observational study on Indian school children. The protocol was reviewed and approved on July 16<sup>th</sup> 2012 by the Institutional Review Board – Ethics Committee (IRB-EC) of the Yerala Medical Trust and Research Centre. YMTRC Dental College and Hospital P.G. Institution institutional area, Sector 4, Kharghar, Navi Mumbai, India. 410210

### **Study population**

Children between the ages of 10 and 16 years were approached for participation in the study. They represented a cross- section of Indian school children.

**Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

English speaking children with mixed or permanent dentition were accepted in the study. Potential subjects were excluded if they had cleft lip or palate or extensive tooth structure loss due to caries.

**Questionnaires**

Modified Helkimo Index questionnaire<sup>50,58</sup> for temporomandibular disorders and Sleep Disorder Scale for Children by Bruni for sleep breathing disorders<sup>67</sup> were used in the study. Both questionnaires were designed to be completed by parents in collaboration with the children. (see Appendix C). The questions were reworded to collect observations and self-reported problems instead of being completed by clinical examiners. The answers to the questions were dichotomized to detect the presence or absence of any symptom with subsequent detailed answers in the case of the positive response to any question. Responses to the eight questions were used to measure the self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders. Scores of 0, 1 and 5 were given as follows: (0) for no symptoms, (1) for mild symptoms, and (5) for moderate to severe symptoms. The presence and absence of temporomandibular disorders and the severity was assigned based on the total score of the index.

**Assessment for Temporomandibular disorders**

A child was considered to have clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders, during oral examination, if the incisal edge distance with mouth open was below the age-specific 2.5<sup>th</sup> percentile or if they were found to have the presence of temporomandibular joint sounds, temporomandibular joint tenderness to palpation, or if masticatory muscles



viz. temporalis, masseter or medial pterygoid muscle were tender. A child was considered to have self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders based on the health history form.

#### **Assessment for sleep breathing disorders**

A child was considered to have a sleep breathing disorder if the score of the response to the SDSC questionnaire was equal to or more than 39. The answers, “Never”, “Occasionally”, “Sometimes”, “Often”, or “Always” to the 26 questions were scored as 1,2,3,4 and 5, respectively. Severity of sleep breathing disorders was considered directly proportional to the score.

Since, the aim of this study was to examine the potential association between tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders; subjects were classified as normal or affected by sleep breathing disorders.

#### **Assessment of tooth wear**

A child was considered to have tooth wear if, during an oral examination, it was determined that any surface on the tooth included in the study, experienced any wear. The severity of the wear was considered “mild” if the surfaces were scored 1, but no surfaces were scored 2 or 3, and the wear was considered “severe” if any surface had a score of 2 or greater.

Since, the aim of this study was to find an association between tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders; subjects were classified as normal or affected by tooth wear.

#### **Clinical examination**

Three associate dentists, two interns and one office secretary comprised the team for this study. All team members were CITI certified before initiating the enrollment process for

the study. Prior to the start of the study, the team was calibrated by the principal advisor of the project in order to maintain uniformity of scores. Each team member was assigned a specific section of clinical examination.

The primary investigator clinically examined the temporomandibular joint and the muscles of mastication of every child for temporomandibular disorders. The second team member examined every child's tooth wear and the third clinician examined the range of mouth opening as well as dental health status. Each child was examined while seated on a regular chair under normal day-light and was serially transferred from one examiner to next examiner. All the findings were recorded in form 2 (see Appendix C).

To ensure accuracy of readings to calculate tooth wear, dental models of ten children were scored by the investigators and the results were analyzed by the advisor. Common consensus was reached to confirm the exactness of the readings. However, to maintain uniformity and minimize bias, one examiner was specifically assigned for recording tooth wear. To further maintain uniformity most children were examined at a specific time of the day to ensure similar light conditions.

### **Extra-oral examination**

Clinical examination of temporomandibular disorders was done by the primary researcher to maintain the uniformity of palpation pressure and to study the temporomandibular joint sounds. The following parameters were examined:

1. The presence of temporomandibular joint sounds, which were either clearly audible or felt using the index finger during opening and closing of the mouth. Only those sounds that were detected in at least two out of three consecutive opening/closing actions were considered positive and recorded.

2. The presence of temporomandibular joint sensitivity to palpation was checked using index fingers.

3. The presence of tenderness of masticatory muscles was assessed using palpation of the masseter (deep and superficial, left and right sides), the temporalis (anterior portion, left and right sides) and the medial pterygoid inner side of the angle of mandible (left and right sides) was checked. In the case of the positive findings, the child was asked to specify the level of tenderness as mild, moderate or severe.

### **Intraoral examination**

The presence of wear facets on teeth were assessed according to modified Tooth wear Index (TWI) scale by Bardsley<sup>14</sup>. Scores were calculated as: follows:

Grade 0 = no wear,

Grade 1 (mild) = enamel wear only,

Grade 2 (moderate) = low enamel and dentin wear and

Grade 3 (severe) = significant enamel and dentin wear.

The assessed teeth included the incisal, labial and lingual (palatal) surfaces of maxillary and mandibular permanent or deciduous anterior teeth and occlusal surface of maxillary and mandibular permanent molars. Fractured teeth and extremely carious teeth were not scored.

### **Recruitment**

A verbal communication was initiated in secondary schools and a scholastic training institute in Ghatkopar, a central suburb of Mumbai, India. Formal letters explaining the nature of study were sent to the students and their guardians. Parents and children who signed the informed consent form and assent forms respectively were included in the

study. (see Appendix C) Introductory sessions were conducted for the parents to explain the observations to be collected by parents. Children were either examined in the school or private institution. The same protocol for examination was followed in both locations. On the day of examination the duly signed consent forms by the parent (or surrogates) and the assent forms by the child along with the completed questionnaire were collected. All the parts of the study (including the clinical examination) were carried out only on those children who expressed their willingness to be examined and had signed the assent forms and whose guardian had duly signed the informed consent forms.

All the completed forms were filed in locked cabinet and were accessible to only to members of the research team.

Clinical findings which demanded urgent attention were highlighted and briefly discussed with the guardians so that the child's dental health would improve.

### **Statistical Analysis**

Associations between the presences of each of the three conditions were evaluated using chi-square tests. Any p-values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. All analyses were performed using SAS, Version 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC).

### **Results**

Questionnaires were distributed to 1500 children (627 girls and 873 boys) aged 10 to 16 years. A total of 1009 (67.3%) subjects, 405 (40.1%) girls and 604 (59.9%) boys who submitted the consent forms and questionnaires comprised the final study sample. Thus, a response rate of 67.3 % was reached. The minimum age was 10 years and the maximum age was 16 years. Mean (standard deviation) age was 12.8 (0.78)years. Of the 1009, 853

(84.5%) had tooth wear (661 had mild tooth wear and 192 had severe tooth wear), 356 (35.3%) had sleep breathing disorders, 587 (58.2%) had clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders, and 371 (36.8%) had self-diagnosed temporomandibular disorders.

Of the 356 with sleep breathing disorders, 253 (71.1%) had temporomandibular disorders, compared to 334 of the 653 (51.1%) without sleep breathing disorders. This was a statistically significant difference ( $p < 0.0001$ ). Also, of the 371 with self-diagnosed temporomandibular disorders, 188 (50.67%) had sleep breathing disorders, compared to 168 of the 638 (26.33%) without self-diagnosed temporomandibular disorders and this was also statistically significant difference ( $p < 0.0001$ ).

Of the 853 with tooth wear, 492 (57.7%) had temporomandibular disorders, compared to 95 of the 156 (60.9%) without tooth wear. This difference was not statistically significant ( $p = 0.454$ ).

Of the 853 with tooth wear, 307 (36%) had sleep breathing disorders, compared to 49 of the 156 (31.4%) without tooth wear. This difference was not statistically significant ( $p = 0.2710$ ).

## **Discussion**

The current study was carried out in school children to evaluate the association between tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders. The selected sample of 1009 children was representative of the population of that age group with diverse socioeconomic status. An adequate number of boys and girls were present in this prevalence study and the findings reflect the general trend of oral and facial pathology.

Most studies on children have focused on age groups between 10 and 16 years because the index teeth present in the mouth are exposed to possible factors for tooth wear for about 4 - 6 years. Most children selected for this study were aged 12 to 14 years and the mean age was 12.8 years. The sample was felt to be sufficiently large to be representative of an urban community in India. The epidemiological study was simple to conduct since it was undertaken in a school and a private educational institution.

This study found statistically significant association between temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders. Sleep breathing disorders were more common in those with temporomandibular disorders than those without temporomandibular disorders (Table 19 and 20).

The results of our study also present that association between tooth wear and temporomandibular disorders as well as tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders is not statistically significant. (Table 15 -18)

This may be in keeping with the concept of a “Weak link theory” as described by Mehta *et al* in a study of adults. The study concluded that the association between bruxism and breakdown of the masticatory system often depends on that individual’s most compromised “weakest” structure. Based on a weak link theory the weakest component of the masticatory system will breakdown first and the other areas will not show any evidence of breakdown.<sup>4</sup> In our present study the results also tend to support this concept in children as well.

This study also found high prevalence of tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders in the subject population. The results match several studies in current literature.<sup>3,8,50,56,68,69</sup>

### **Prevalence of tooth wear**

Studies present a wide range of estimates of prevalence of tooth wear in children ranging from 0 – 82%<sup>3,68,69</sup> Most data are from European studies with only a few epidemiological studies from developing countries<sup>68,70,71</sup>. The range is vast probably due to the use of different indices, different diagnostic methods and different inclusion criteria among other factors by different researchers. The results of the present cross sectional study showed that the prevalence of tooth wear was 84.5%. (Table 8 -9) Six hundred and sixty one (65.5%) children had mild tooth wear and one hundred and ninety two children (19.0%) had severe tooth wear. When comparing the present findings with other studies conducted in developing countries, the prevalence of tooth wear in this study was found to be higher than the 74.1% in 12-14 year-old Sudanese<sup>70</sup> and much less than the 95% prevalence in 12-14 year-old Saudi Arabian boys<sup>68</sup>. The prevalence of tooth wear found in this study may be high as compared to many studies although fewer studies have found higher prevalence rates. This may also be due the selection criteria that even, if one surface out of 40 surfaces of the determined 16 teeth showed even mild wear, the child was considered to be affected. Since this study was focused on association between tooth wear, temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders, the analysis for mild and severe tooth wear has not been further analyzed. The clinical findings of high tooth wear prevalence need to be monitored and investigated further as its progression may become a matter of serious concern. Many possible causes like the parafunction, consumption of food with strong acidity, gastro-esophageal reflux and inadequate salivary buffering may attribute to tooth wear. Clinical presentation of different etiologies is different and usually an experienced clinician can differentiate them.

### **Prevalence of temporomandibular disorders**

Temporomandibular disorders are defined as a group of disorders affecting the masticatory muscles and temporomandibular joints. They are associated with joint sounds, jaw locking, and or jaw pain. They are a set of chronic degenerative disorders, which may go unnoticed and worsen over a period of time. Self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders are an effective screening test of detecting temporomandibular disorders early. The findings of this study demonstrate that 50% of these patients also have sleep breathing disorders whereas only 26% of the children without self-diagnosed temporomandibular disorders had sleep breathing disorders. (Table 19) This difference was statistically significant. The presence of temporomandibular disorders and sleep breathing disorders in 50% of young school going children is clinically significant.

The prevalence of temporomandibular disorders among children and adolescents varies considerably. Out of 1009 subjects, this study found 587 (58.2%) had clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders, and 371 (36.8%) had self-diagnosed temporomandibular disorders. (Table 19 -20) However, the result of this study are much less than a study done with Turkish children, where the prevalence was found to be 68 %.<sup>50,56,68</sup> However, it is likely that a subject may present signs and symptoms of temporomandibular disorders without ever developing temporomandibular disorders. Also, the presence of these symptoms by themselves does not imply the need for treatment as they could signify a predisposition as well as an underlying condition.<sup>56,68</sup> In the current study, the percentage is much higher than many other studies, probably because a subject was considered to have temporomandibular disorders even if one of the signs of discomfort were present. This criterion was considered as we were studying only the association between tooth



wear and temporomandibular disorders. A disadvantage of screening for temporomandibular disorders in this manner is the risk of over-diagnosing as well as overtreatment.

### **Prevalence of sleep breathing disorders**

International studies show the prevalence of sleep breathing disorders varies between 1 - 43%<sup>8</sup>. Prevalence of sleep breathing disorders in children in this study was found to be 35.3%. This result is similar to another study carried out on Chinese children in Beijing<sup>72</sup>. Several studies have analyzed different symptoms of sleep breathing disorders whereas this study has summarized different symptoms as it was focused on studying the correlation between tooth wear, sleep breathing disorders and temporomandibular disorders. Sleep breathing disorders (SBD) have been reported in literature to have serious impact on the growth of children, inappropriate development of many higher cognitive functions, neural damage and many diseases like the cardiovascular diseases, hypertension and diabetes. Early detection of the sleep breathing disorders will help to prevent adverse effects on the growth, development and behavior of the child. The results show that about 36% of children with tooth wear demonstrate sleep breathing disorders and about 31% of children with no tooth wear demonstrated sleep breathing disorders. Statistically the findings of sleep breathing disorders in children with or without tooth wear were not significant. But the high percentage of tooth wear in the study and that more than one third of them have sleep breathing disorders is suggestive of some association of tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders. Considering the long-term ill effects of sleep breathing disorders, it is imperative that dentists should identify sleep breathing disorders in children and suspect their presence when tooth wear is evident. Further investigations may present

data to identify whether tooth wear is a symptom of sleep breathing disorders or a cause of sleep breathing disorders. However, the presence of these symptoms by themselves does not imply the need for treatment as they could signify a predisposition or an underlying condition.

### **Limitation**

The limitation of this study may be the finding of high prevalence of tooth wear and temporomandibular disorders. This may be due to the fact that even a single surface wear out of the forty surfaces examined was considered for tooth wear and even a single symptom of temporomandibular disorders was considered as positive for temporomandibular disorders. However, studies have shown that every symptom may not be pathological.

### **Conclusion**

This study concludes that there is high prevalence of tooth wear, sleep breathing disorders and temporomandibular disorders in Indian school children. There is a statistically significant association between sleep breathing disorders and temporomandibular disorders. There may be no significant association between tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders and temporomandibular disorders.

## Appendix A: Tables

**Table 1: Age distribution of study cohort**

Age distribution of study cohort		
Age	N	Percent
10	4	0.4%
11	31	3.1%
12	320	31.7%
13	492	48.8%
14	158	15.7%
15	3	0.3%
16	1	0.1%
Total	1,009	100 %

**Table 2: Gender distribution of study cohort**

Gender distribution of study cohort		
Gender	N	Percent
Female	405	40.1%
Male	604	59.9%
Total	1,009	100 %

**Table 3: Age distribution of study cohort by gender**

Age distribution by gender					
Age	Female		Male		Total
	N	Percent	N	Percent	
<b>10</b>	3	0.74%	1	0.2%	4
<b>11</b>	23	5.68%	8	1.3%	31
<b>12</b>	93	22.96%	227	37.6%	320
<b>13</b>	205	50.62%	287	47.5%	492
<b>14</b>	77	19.01%	81	13.4%	158
<b>15</b>	3	0.74%	0	0.0%	3
<b>16</b>	1	0.25%	0	0.0%	1
<b>Total</b>	405	40.1%	604	59.9%	1,009

**Table 4: Distribution of tooth wear of study cohort**

Distribution of tooth wear		
Tooth wear	Frequency	Percent
None	156	15.5 %
Mild	661	65.5 %
Severe	192	19.0 %
Total	1,009	100 %

**Table 5: Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders (TMD)**

Distribution of clinically diagnosed TMD		
<b>Clinically diagnosed TMD</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
No	422	41.8 %
Yes	587	58.2 %
Total	1,009	100 %

**Table 6: Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders (TMD)**

Distribution of self diagnosed TMD		
<b>Self diagnosed TMD</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
No	638	63.2%
Yes	371	36.8 %
Total	1,009	100 %

**Table 7: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders (SBD)**

Distribution of sleep breathing disorders		
<b>SBD</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
No	653	64.7 %
Yes	356	35.3 %
Total	1,009	100 %

**Table 8: Distribution of tooth wear according to age**

Distribution of tooth wear according to age								p-value < 0.0001
<b>Tooth wear</b>	<b>10 years</b>	<b>11 years</b>	<b>12 years</b>	<b>13 years</b>	<b>14 years</b>	<b>15 years</b>	<b>16 years</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Absent</b>	2 (50.0%)	8 (25.8%)	42 (13.1%)	78 (15.9%)	26 (16.5%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	156
<b>Mild</b>	2 (50.0%)	8 (25.8%)	193 (60.3%)	342 (69.5%)	112 (70.9%)	3 (100.0%)	1 (100.0%)	661
<b>Severe</b>	0 (0.0%)	15 (48.4%)	85 (26.6%)	72 (14.6%)	20 (12.7%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	192
<b>Total</b>	4	31	320	492	158	3	1	1,009

**Table 9: Distribution of tooth wear according to gender**

Distribution of tooth wear according to gender				p-value = 0.0803
<b>Tooth wear</b>	<b>Absent</b>	<b>Mild</b>	<b>Severe</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Female</b>	56 (13.8%)	259 (64.%)	90(22.2%)	405
<b>Male</b>	100 (16.6%)	402 (66.6%)	102(16.9%)	604
<b>Total</b>	156	661	192	1,009

**Table 10: Distribution of clinically diagnosed TMD according to age**

Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to age								p-value = 0.0133
<b>TMD</b>	<b>10 years</b>	<b>11 years</b>	<b>12 years</b>	<b>13 years</b>	<b>14 years</b>	<b>15 years</b>	<b>16 years</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Absent</b>	2	22	157	198	41	1	1	422
<b>Present</b>	2	9	163	294	117	2	0	587
<b>Total</b>	4	31	320	492	158	3	1	1,009

**Table 11: Distribution of clinically diagnosed TMD according to gender**

Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to gender					p-value = 0.3362
<b>C- TMD</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Female %</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Male %</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Absent</b>	169	41.7%	253	41.9%	<b>422</b>
<b>Present</b>	236	58.3%	351	58.1%	<b>587</b>
<b>Total</b>	405		604		1,009

**Table 12: Distribution of self diagnosed TMD according to age**

Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to age							p-value = 0.0925	
<b>S - TMD</b>	<b>10 years</b>	<b>11 years</b>	<b>12 years</b>	<b>13 years</b>	<b>14 years</b>	<b>15 years</b>	<b>16 years</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Absent</b>	2	25	200	321	88	2	0	638
<b>Present</b>	2	6	120	171	70	1	1	371
<b>Total</b>	4	31	320	492	158	3	1	1,009

**Table 13: Distribution of self diagnosed TMD according to gender**

Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to gender			p-value = 0.7812
<b>S - TMD</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Absent</b>	254 (62.7%)	384 (63.6%)	638
<b>Present</b>	151(37.3%)	220 (36.4%)	371
<b>Total</b>	405	604	1,009

**Table 14: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders according to age**

Distribution of sleep breathing disorders according to age								p-value = 0.0773
<b>SBD</b>	<b>10 years</b>	<b>11 years</b>	<b>12 years</b>	<b>13 years</b>	<b>14 years</b>	<b>15 years</b>	<b>16 years</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Absent</b>	1	20	212	329	90	1	0	653
<b>Present</b>	3	11	108	163	68	2	1	356
<b>Total</b>	4	31	320	492	158	3	1	1,009

**Table 15: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders according to gender**

Distribution of sleep breathing disorders according to gender			p-value = 0.0423
<b>SBD</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Absent</b>	247 (61.0%)	406 (67.2%)	653
<b>Present</b>	158(39.0%)	198 (32.8%)	356
<b>Total</b>	405	604	1,009

**Table 16: Association of tooth wear and clinically diagnosed TMD**

Association of tooth wear and clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders			p-value = 0.454
	<b>TMD - Clinical absent</b>	<b>TMD - Clinical present</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Tooth wear absent</b>	61(14.5%)	95 (16.2%)	156
<b>Tooth wear present</b>	361 (85.5%)	492 (83.8%)	853
<b>Total</b>	422	587	1,009



**Table 17: Association of tooth wear and self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders**

Association of tooth wear and self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders			p - value = 0.0910
	<b>TMD – self absent</b>	<b>TMD – self present</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Tooth wear absent</b>	108 (16.9%)	48 (12.9%)	156
<b>Tooth wear present</b>	530 (83.1%)	323 (87.6%)	853
<b>Total</b>	638	371	1,009

**Table18: Association of tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders**

Association of tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders			p – value = 0.271
	<b>SBD absent</b>	<b>SBD present</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Tooth wear absent</b>	107 (16.4%)	49 (13.8%)	156
<b>Tooth wear present</b>	546(83.6%)	307 (86.2%)	853
<b>Total</b>	653	356	1,009

**Table 19: Association between clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders**

Association between clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders			p - value < 0.001
	<b>SBD absent</b>	<b>SBD present</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>TMD_Clinical absent</b>	319 (48.9%)	103 (28.9%)	485
<b>TMD_Clinical present</b>	334 (51.1%)	253 (71.1%)	524
<b>Total</b>	653	356	1,009

**Table 20: Association between self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders**

Association between self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders			p – value <0.001
	<b>SBD absent</b>	<b>SBD present</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>TMD_self absent</b>	470 (71.9%)	168 (47.2%)	638
<b>TMD_self present</b>	183 (28.1%)	188 (52.8%)	371
<b>Total</b>	653	356	1,009

**Table 21: Analysis to compare self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders**

Analysis to compare self diagnosed TMD to clinically Diagnosed TMD			p – value < 0.0001
	<b>TMD_Clinical absent</b>	<b>TMD_Clinical present</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>TMD_Self absent</b>	311((73.7%)	327 (55.7%)	638
<b>TMD_Self present</b>	111 (26.3%)	260 (44.3%)	371
<b>Total</b>	422	587	1,009

## Appendix B: Figures

Chart 1: Age distribution of study cohort

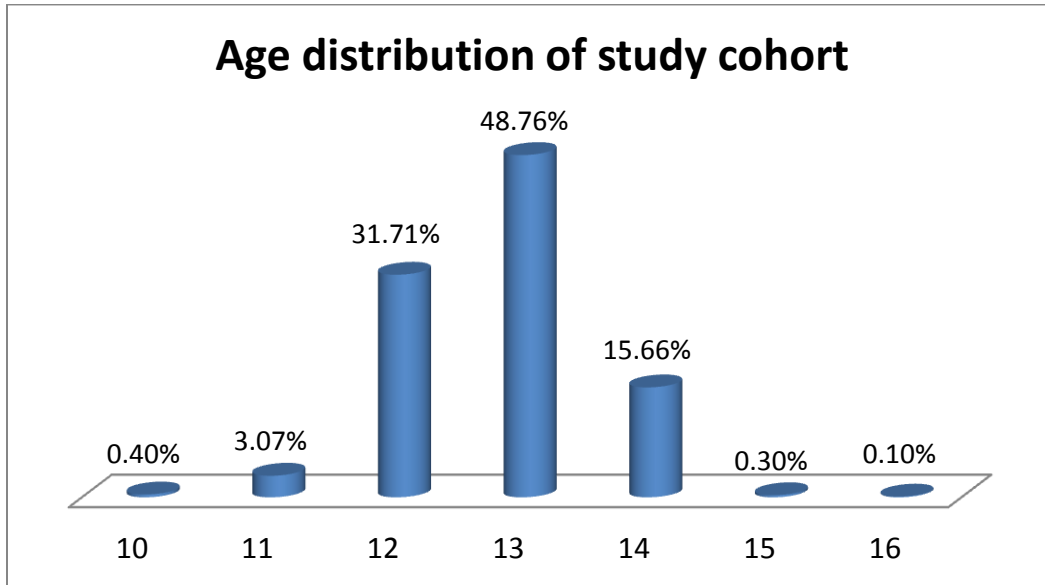


Chart 2: Gender distribution of study cohort

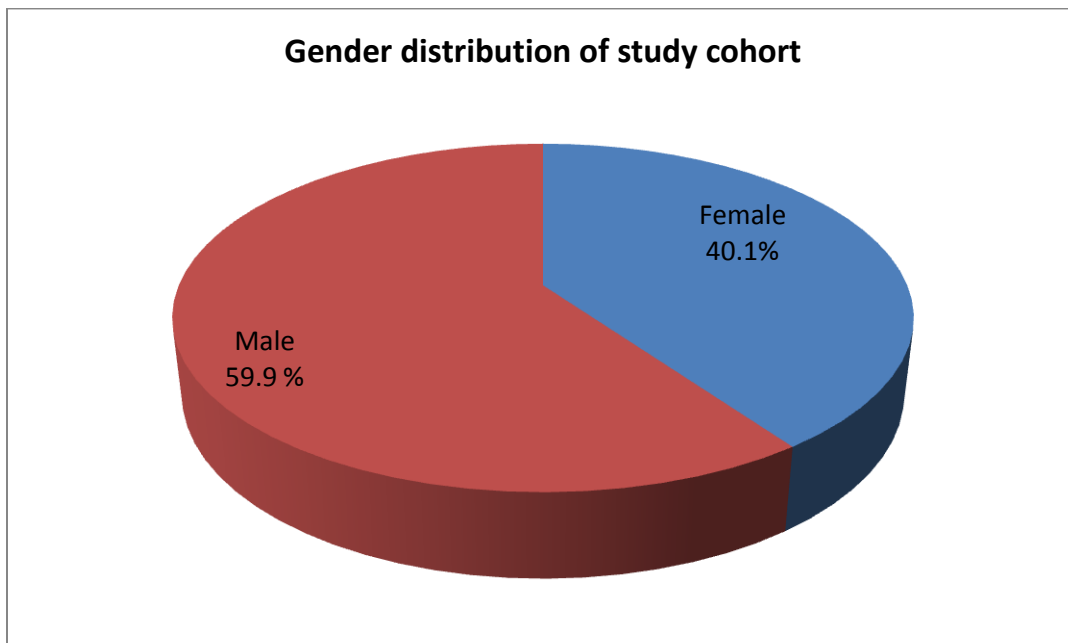


Chart 3 Age Distribution by gender

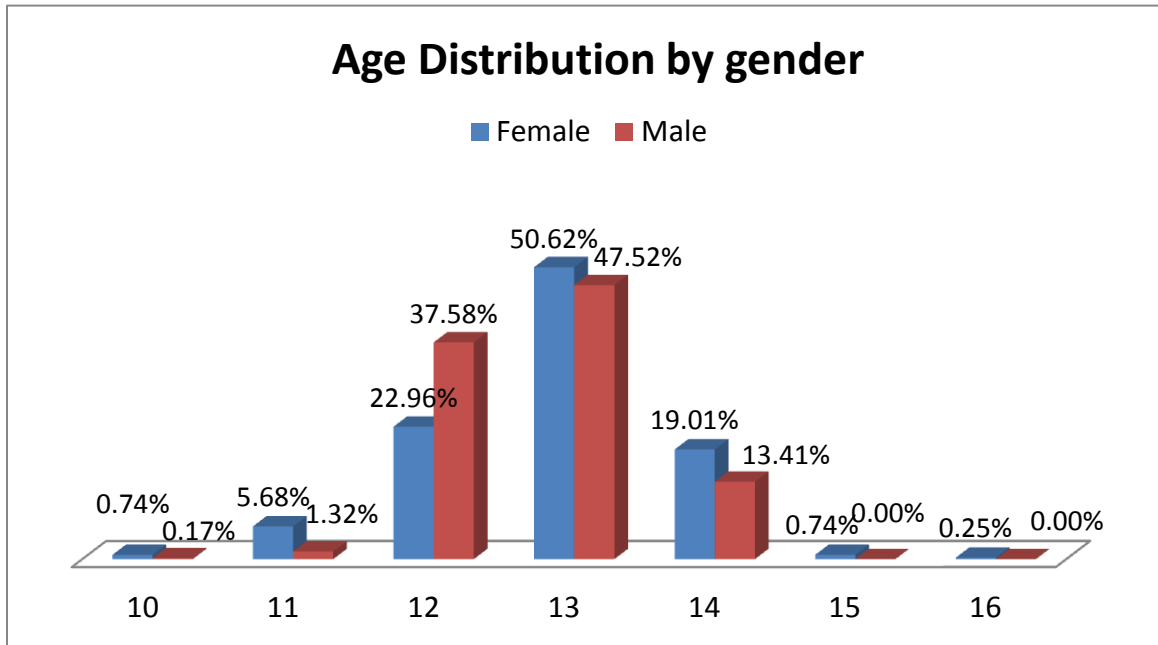


Chart 4: Distribution of Tooth wear

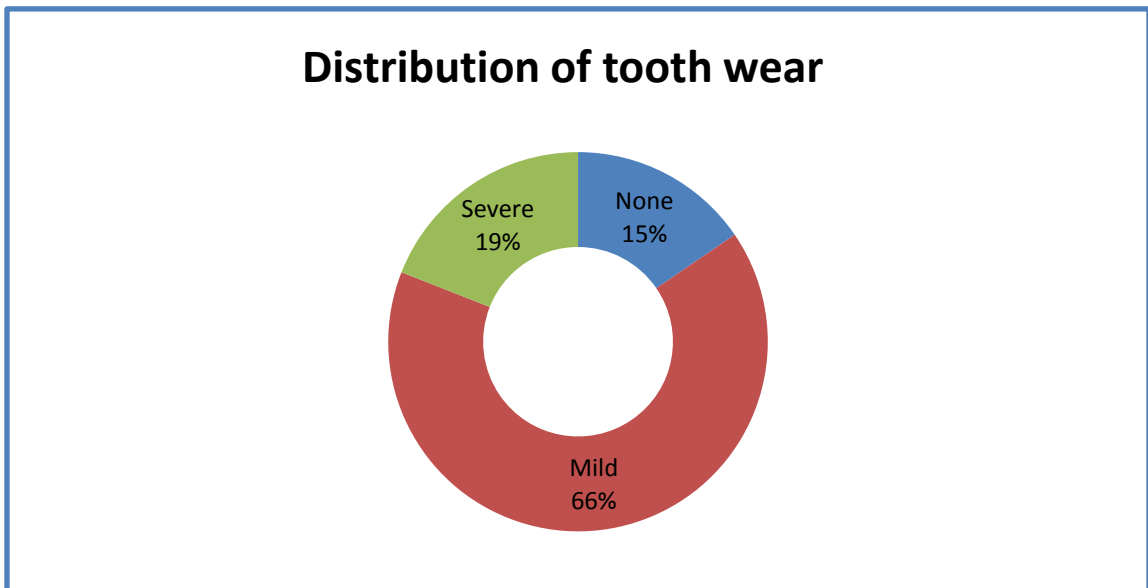


Chart 5: **Distribution of clinically diagnosed TMD**

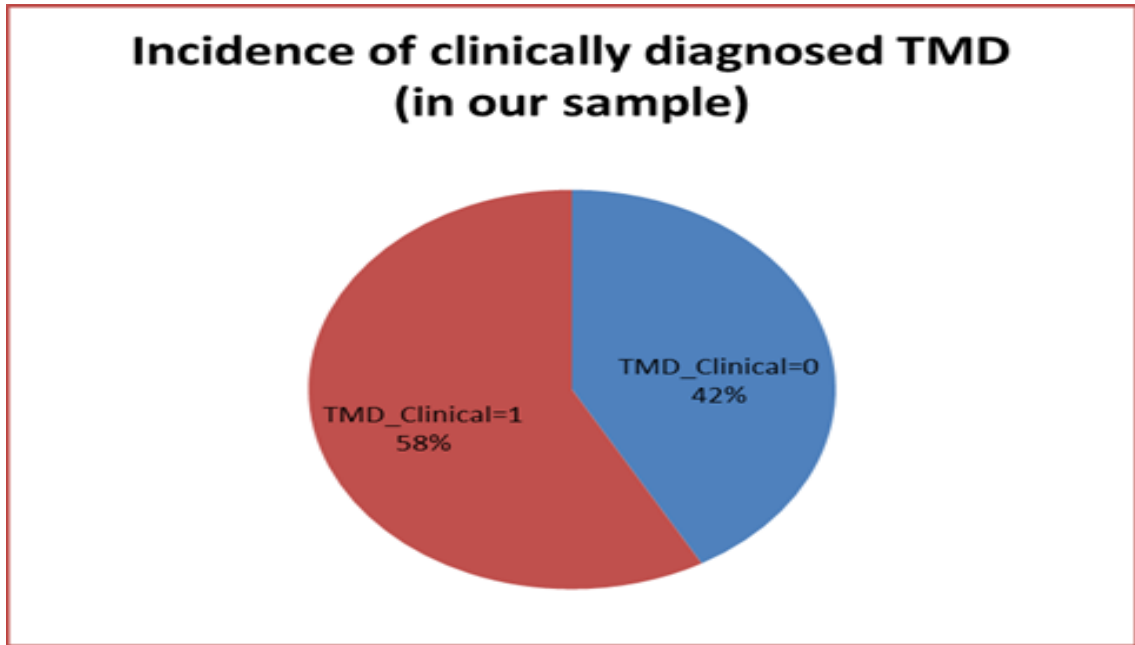
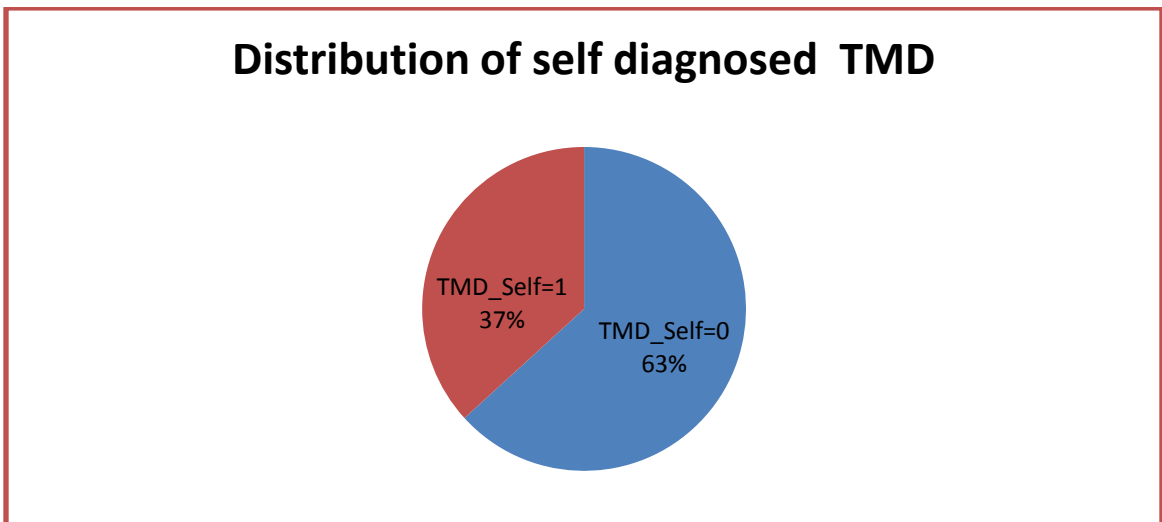
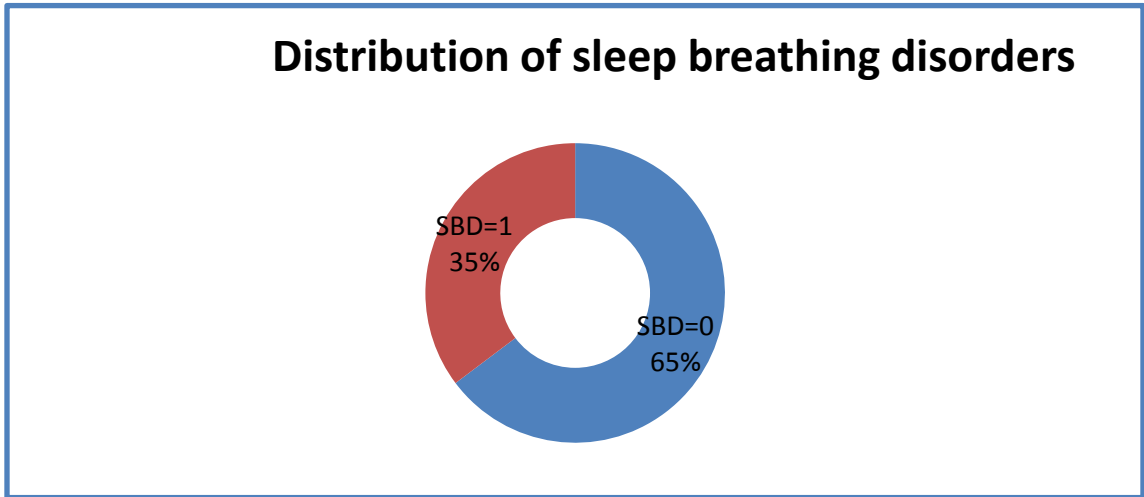


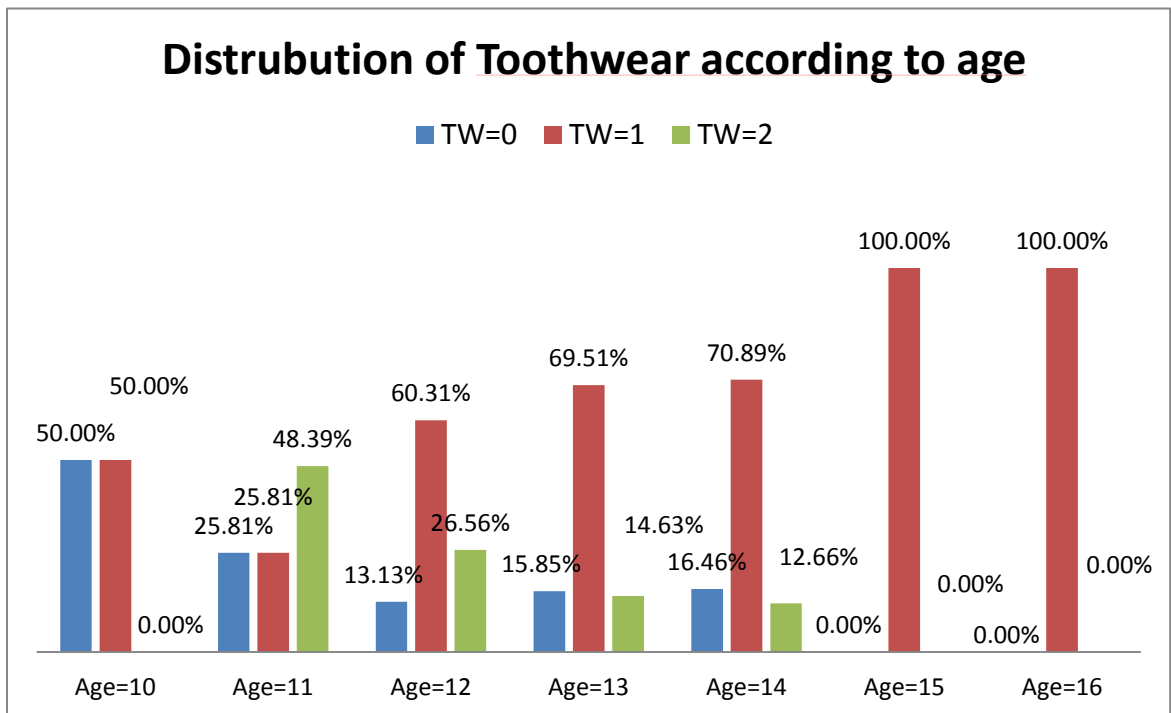
Chart 6 **Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular (TMD)**



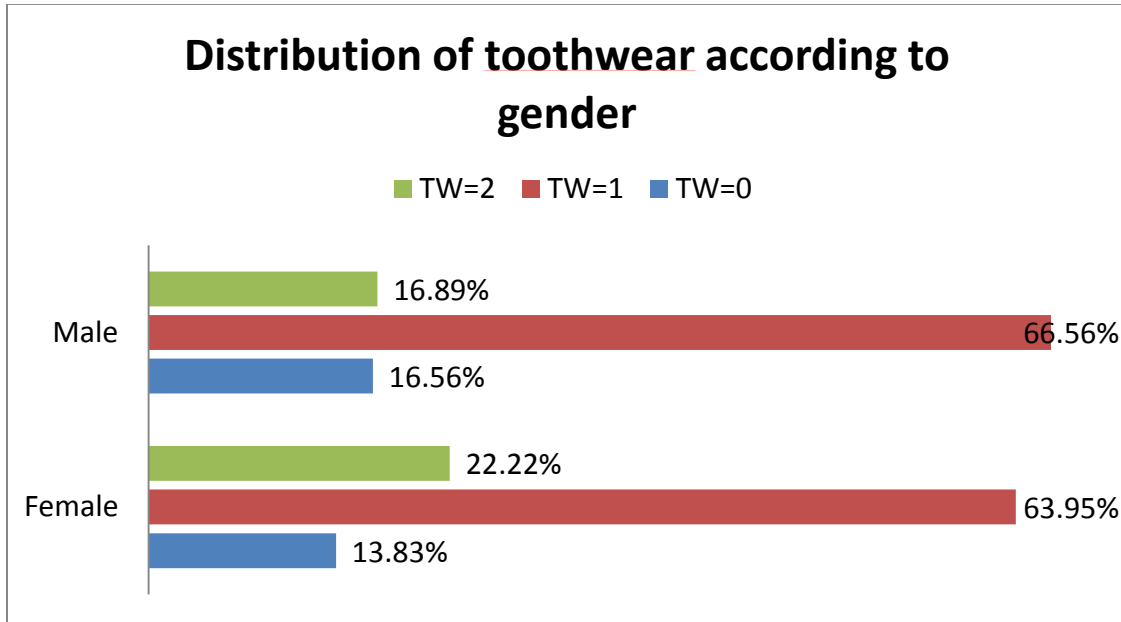
**Chart 7: Distribution of sleep breathing disorders**



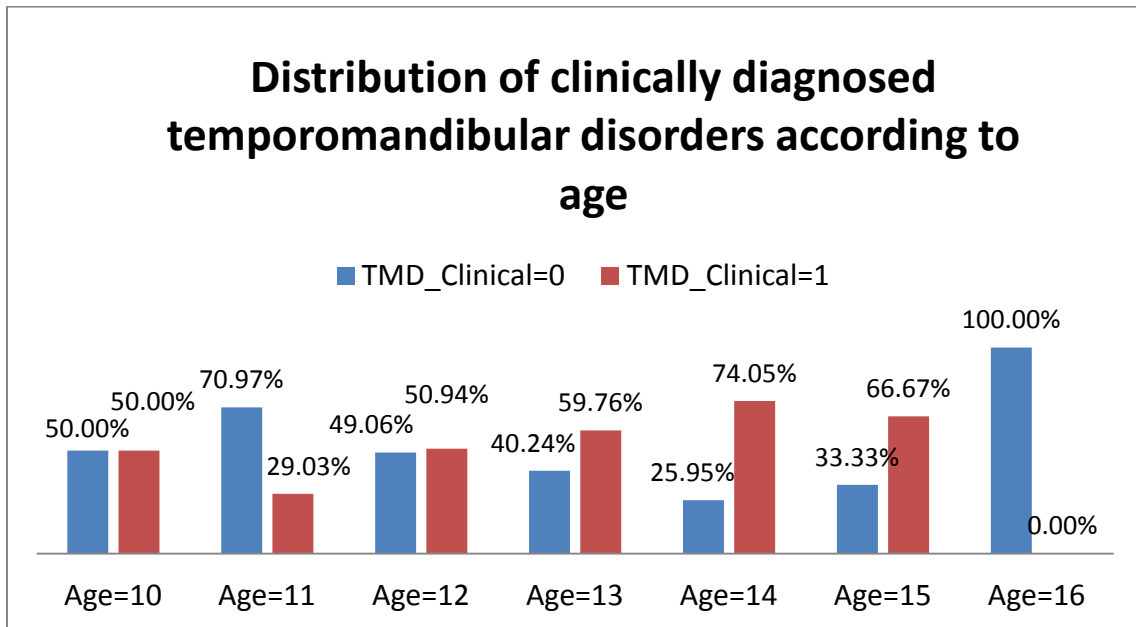
**Chart 8: Distribution of tooth wear according to Age**



**Chart 9: Distribution of tooth wear according to Gender**

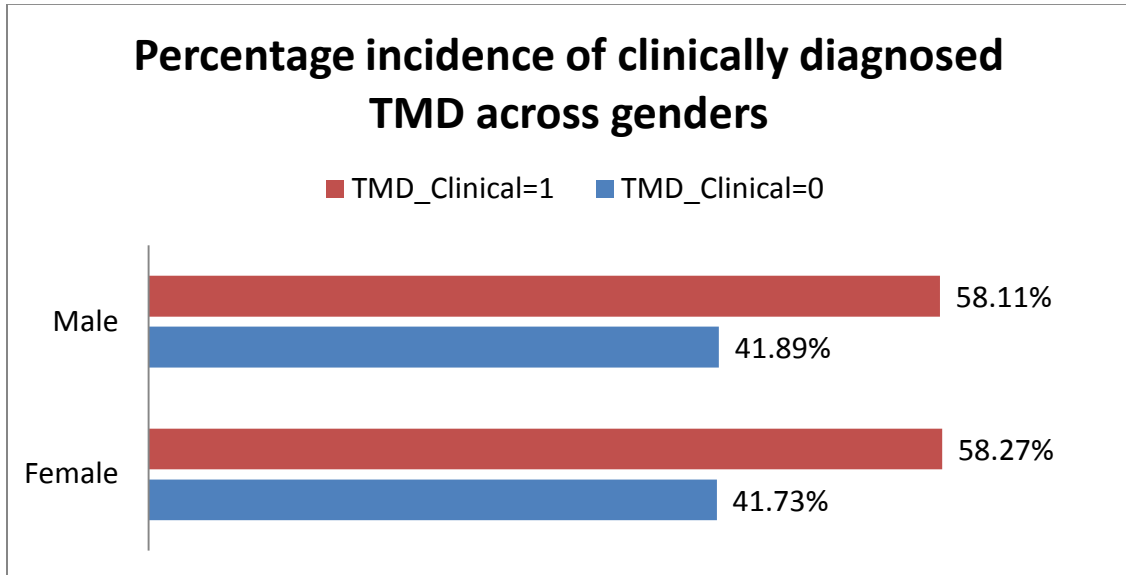


**Chart 10: Distribution of clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to age**

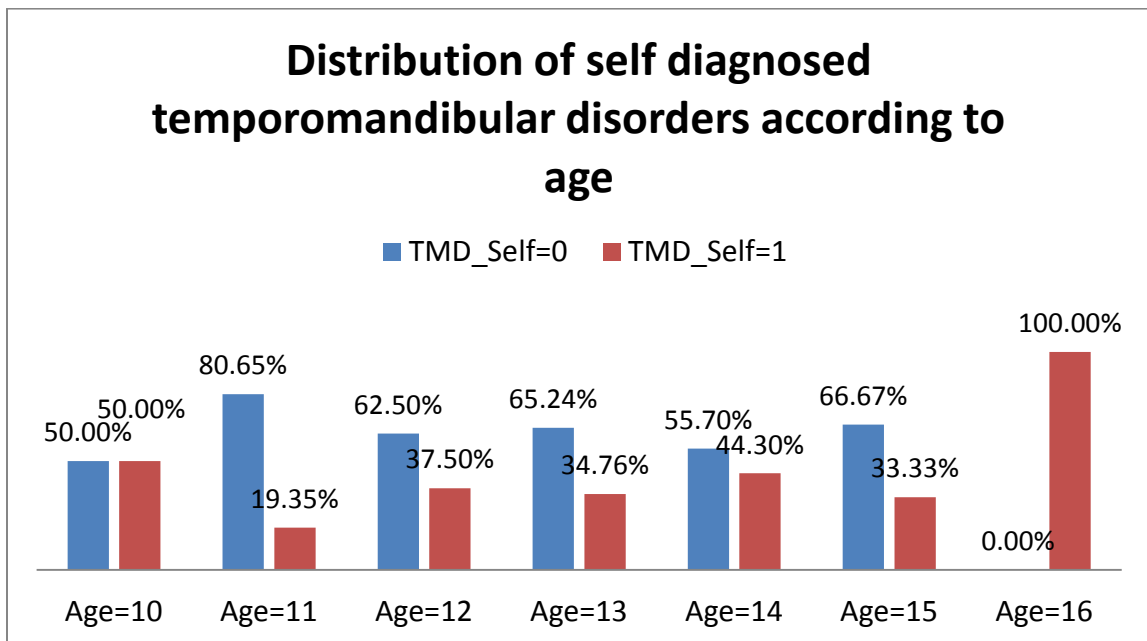




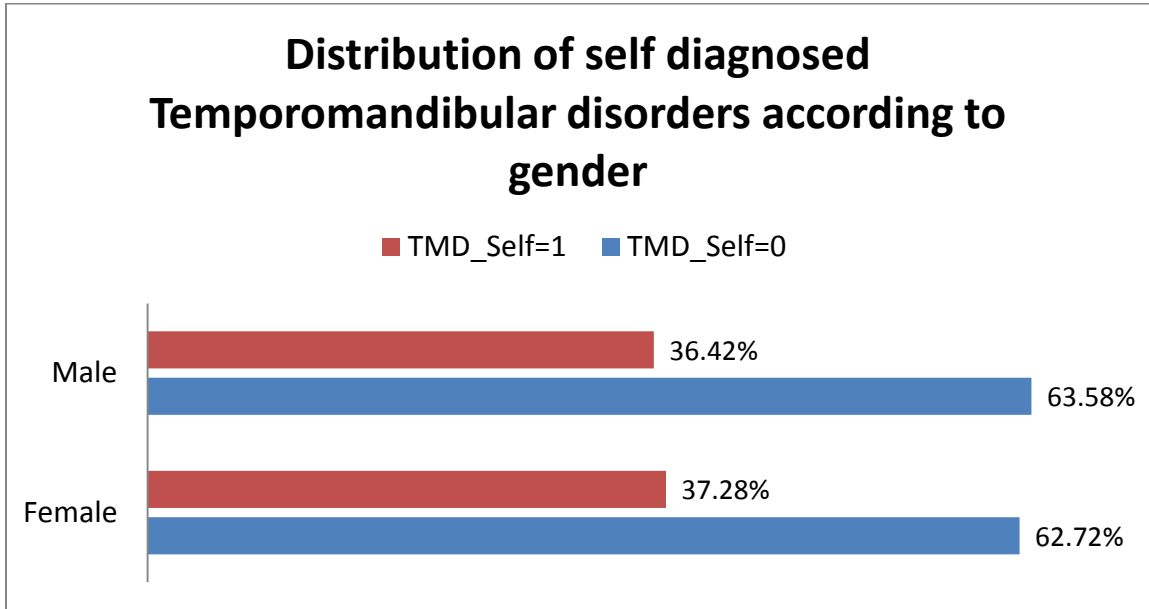
**Chart 11: Percentage incidence of clinically diagnosed TMD across genders**



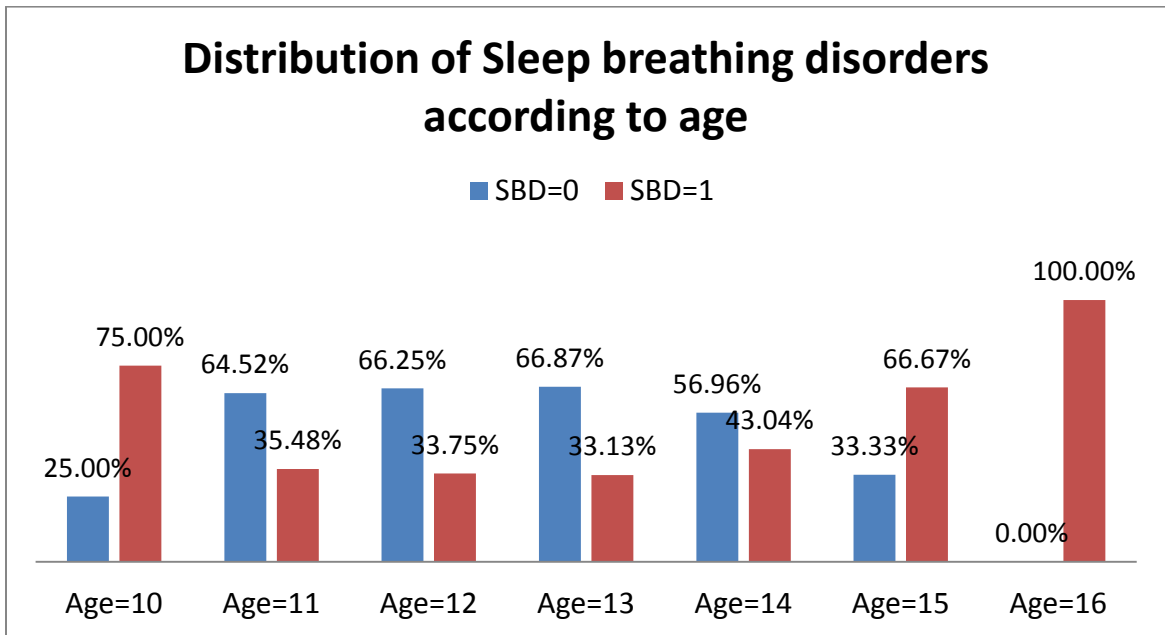
**Chart 12: Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to age**



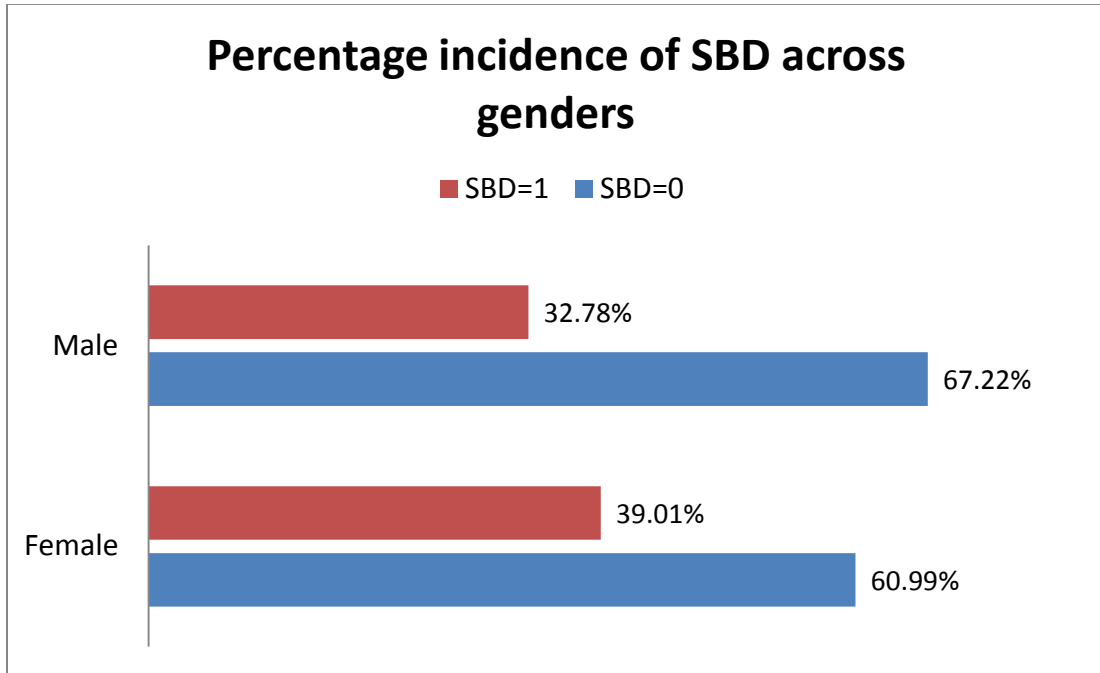
**Chart 13: Distribution of self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders according to gender**



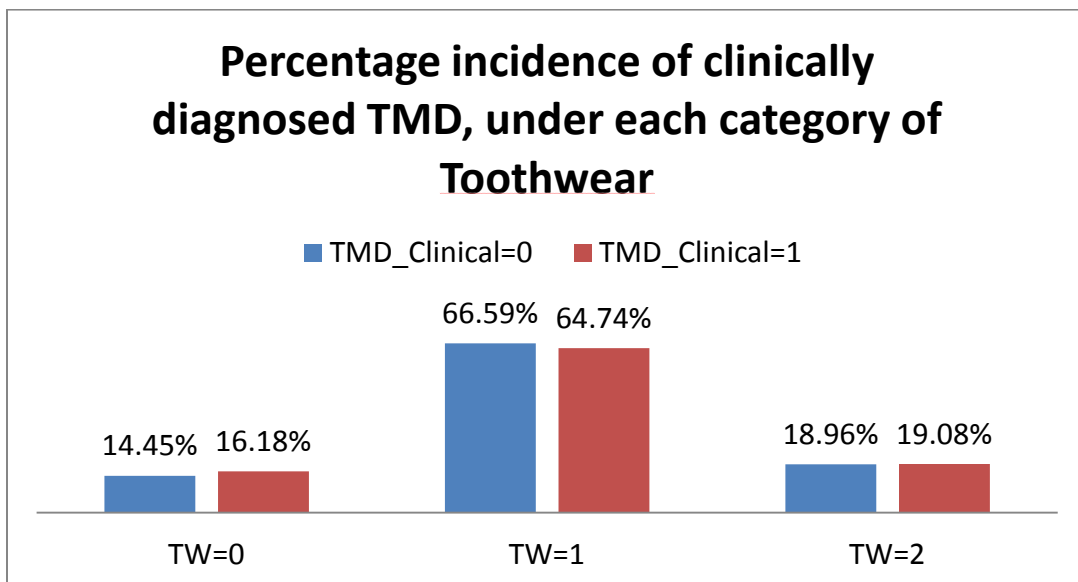
**Chart 14: Distribution of Sleep breathing disorders according to age**



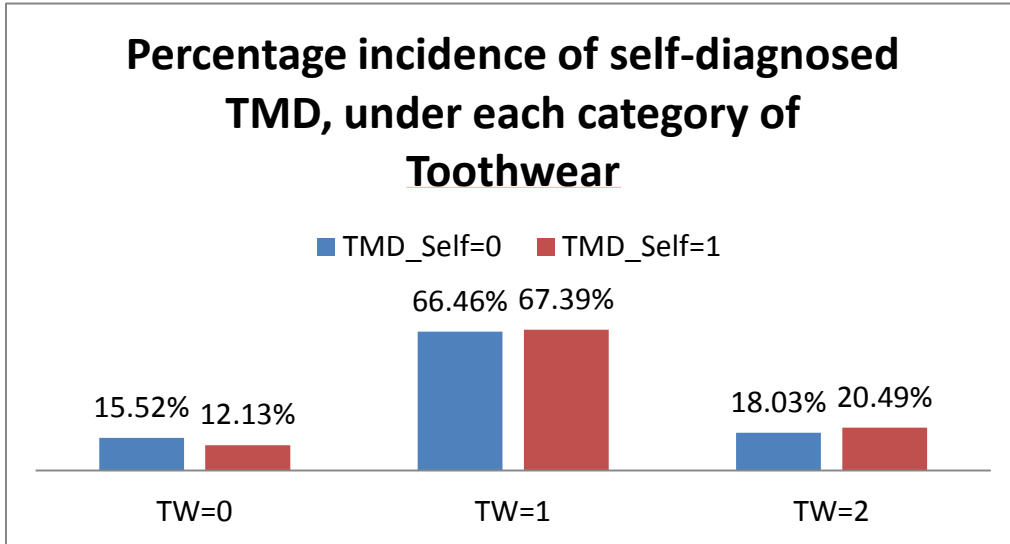
**Chart 15 Percentage incidence of SBD across genders**



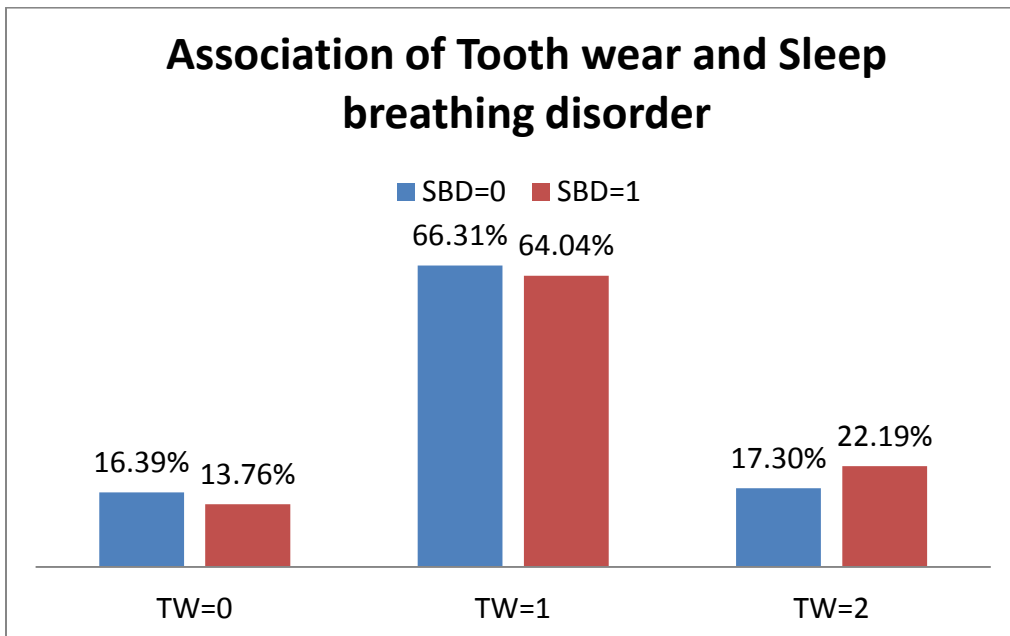
**Chart 16: Association of tooth wear and clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders**



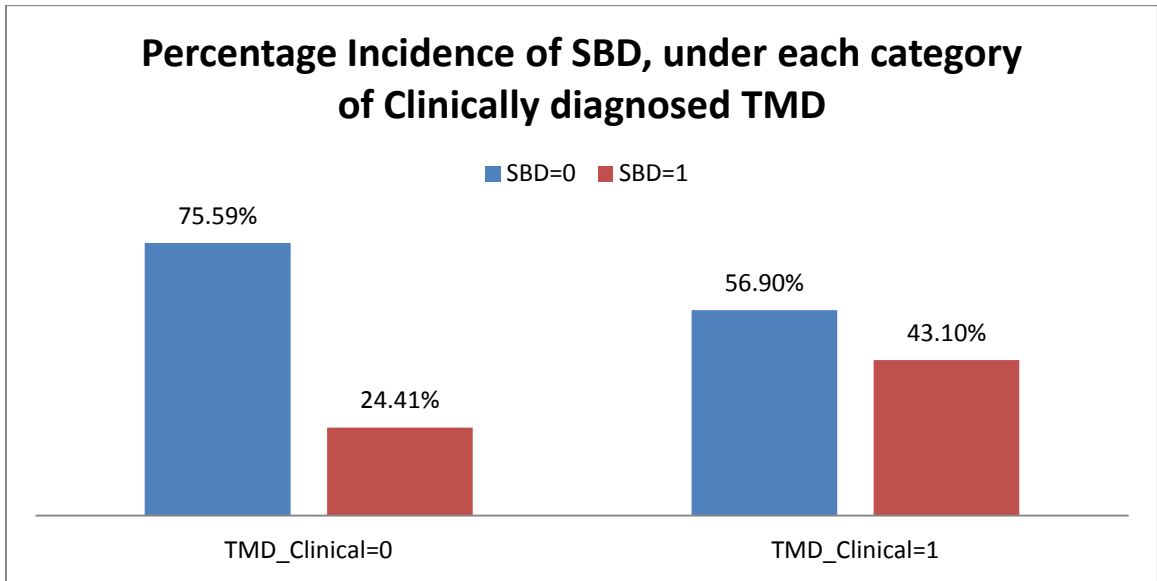
**Chart 17: Association of tooth wear and self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders**



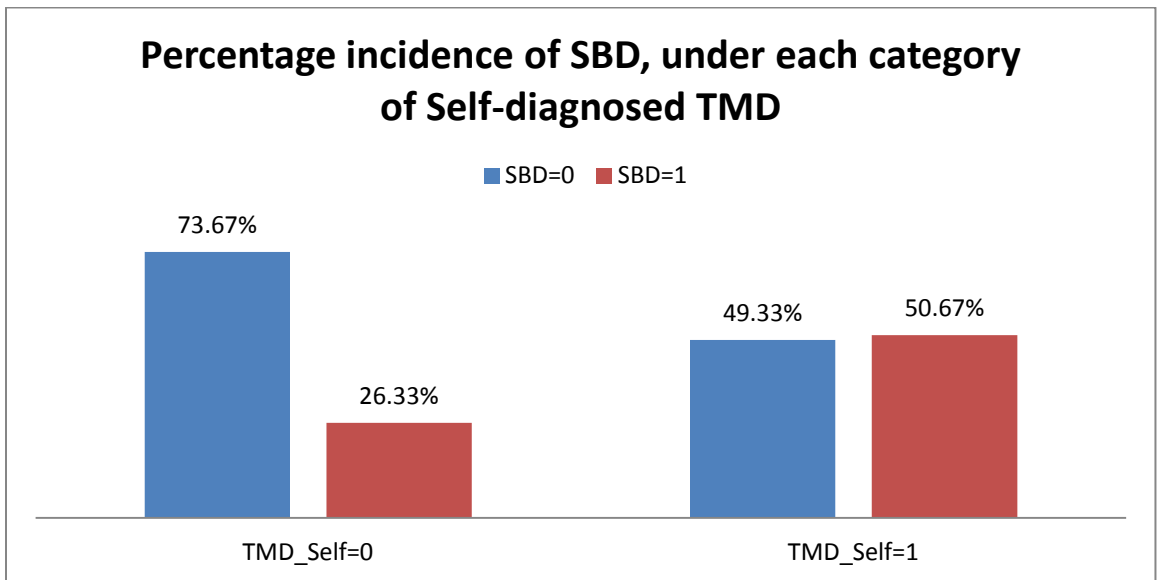
**Chart18: Association of tooth wear and sleep breathing disorders**



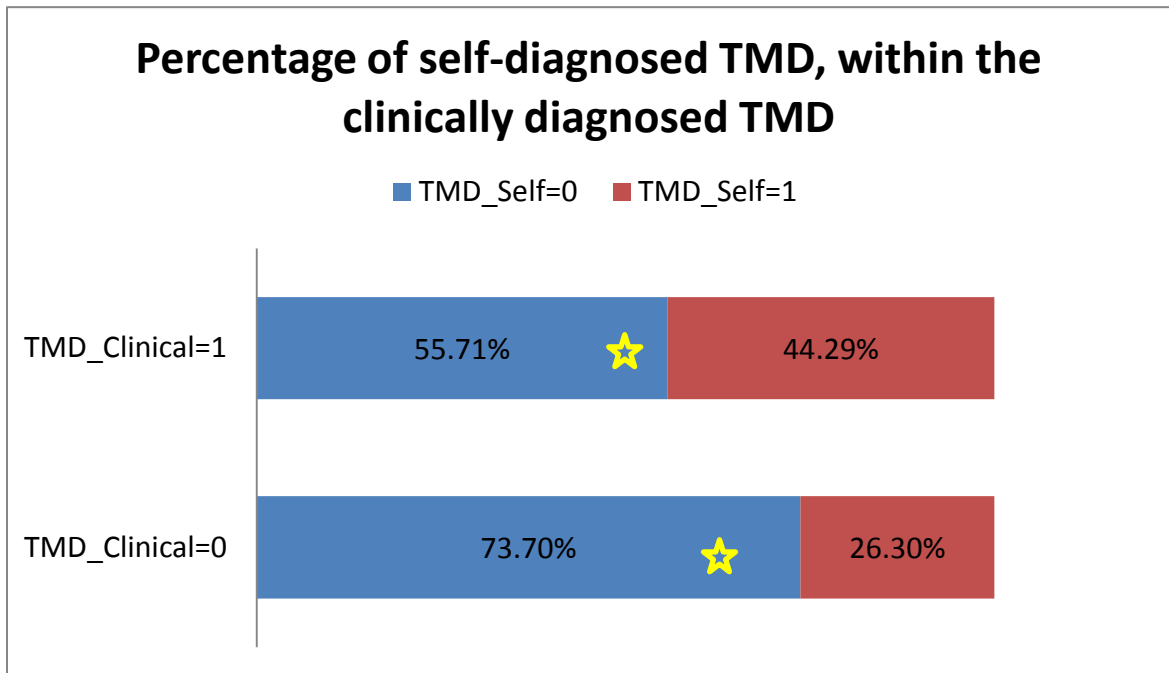
**Chart 19: Association between clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing disorders**



**Chart 20: Association between self Diagnosed Temporomandibular disorders to sleep breathing Disorders**



**Chart 21: Analysis to compare self diagnosed temporomandibular disorders to clinically diagnosed temporomandibular disorders**



In this graph, we would expect that the two boxes marked in yellow stars would have the highest possible percentage values, as these boxes indicate whether the self-diagnosis matches with the clinical diagnosis. We can make a rough analysis that these two measures (clinical v/s self diagnosis) are not very highly correlated.

It would be interesting to investigate whether our self-diagnosis test is well-defined or if it asks the patients to record some information that is not easy to recollect and note down.

## **Appendix C: Survey instruments**

Following forms were submitted to the parents. They were explained the details and were asked to fill in the forms.

### **Appendix C - 1: Consent to Participate in Research**

*Dear Parent,*

*I, Satish K Bhalgat, am a researcher and post-graduate student at the TUFTS University, Boston, USA and as a requirement of the course I am conducting this non clinical minimum risk research study. I earnestly request your permission for your child to participate in this study as he/she visits my study centre for scholastic training. I will briefly explain the study to the child and seek his/her agreement to participate in the study as well.*

*The subject of research paper is “Association of tooth wear with headaches, Sleep breathing disorders, and temporomandibular disorders in Indian school children”.*

*Participating children will be given brief questionnaires to answer regarding headaches, temporomandibular joint discomforts and sleep breathing disorders. Their teeth will be examined for positive findings of tooth wear and alginate impressions will be made for making models which will be used measuring the amount of tooth wear. All these clinical procedures are non-invasive, hence without risks. Though there will be no direct benefits to the child for participation in the study, the results of the study will help us to better understand association between some common discomforts which remain undiagnosed in children.*

*I will keep this information confidential by limiting individual's access to the research data and keeping it in a secure location. My research team and the Department at TUFTS University are the only parties that will be allowed to see the data, except as may be required by law. If a report of this study is published, or the results are presented at a professional conference, only group results will be stated, unless you have agreed otherwise.*

*If you have any queries about the research you may contact me at 022 2102 2111 or mail me on [satish.bhalgat@tufts.edu](mailto:satish.bhalgat@tufts.edu)*

*Your child's participation is voluntary and so he/she may not participate in the study if he/she does not wish to. If you agree now and later wish to withdraw, you may do so at any time. There are no untoward consequences if you do not participate in the study. Your child will not be ignored and will keep getting the same attention in the class.*

*The kind of study I have taken up will likely benefit your child by understanding any undiagnosed issues like headache, temporomandibular disorders or sleep breathing disorders. However, further investigations and consultations from the physician will be necessary for confirmation of probable diagnosis. This study may probably add value to knowledge and information to the medical science and hence benefit the society.*

*For participating in this study, your child will receive a free consultation for dental health and two radiographs will be taken at no cost, if required.*

*I request you to kindly sign the consent form and return it if you are willing to let your child participate. I greatly appreciate your support.*

*Yours sincerely,*

***Dr. Satish Bhalgat.***



**Parents Consent Form**

*I the undersigned, parent of Mast/ Miss \_\_\_\_\_ hereby  
consent to participate in the research study “Association of tooth wear with  
Temporomandibular and Sleep breathing disorders in Indian school children” that will be  
conducted by Dr. Satish Bhalgat and his team at his dental office.*

Name of child: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of child: \_\_\_\_\_

Name of the Parent/ Guardian: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of the Parent/ Guardian: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Place : \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix C – 2: Informed assent form**

**Child’s assent Form**

*I the undersigned, Mast/ Miss \_\_\_\_\_ hereby assent to participate in the research study “Association of tooth wear with Temporomandibular and Sleep breathing disorders in Indian school children” that will be conducted by Dr. Satish Bhalgat and his team at his dental office.*

*I am also informed that I can withdraw from the study at any time.*

Name of child:

\_\_\_\_\_

Signature of child:

\_\_\_\_\_

Date:

\_\_\_\_\_

Place :

\_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix C - 3: Health History Form**

Id. No \_\_\_\_\_

Name of the Parent \_\_\_\_\_

First name of child \_\_\_\_\_ M.I. \_\_\_\_\_ Last \_\_\_\_\_

Date of Birth: \_\_\_\_\_ Sex \_\_\_\_\_

Address: \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

City \_\_\_\_\_ Zip Code \_\_\_\_\_

Phone: Home: \_\_\_\_\_ Cell: \_\_\_\_\_

Email: \_\_\_\_\_

Circle **yes or no** in the following questions. Your answers are for our records only and will be considered confidential. You are answering on behalf of your child.

1. Do you feel healthy? \_ Yes \_ No

2. Has there been any change in your health within the past year? \_ Yes \_ No

3. Are you now under care of a physician? \_ Yes \_ No

If yes, what is the condition being treated?

\_\_\_\_\_

Name and Phone number of the physician:

\_\_\_\_\_

4. Have you ever had any serious illnesses/ operation or have been hospitalized?

\_ Yes \_ No

If yes, what was the illness or operation?

\_\_\_\_\_

5. Do you have any of the following: Allergy, asthma or dizziness

\_ Yes \_ No

If yes, which condition \_\_\_\_\_

6. Have you had surgery, x-ray or drug treatment for a tumor, growth or other conditions of your head and/or neck?  Yes  No

7. Are you taking any drugs, pills, or medications?  Yes  No

If yes, name them:

\_\_\_\_\_

**Dental History:**

1. How often do you brush your teeth (\_\_\_/day?) \_\_\_\_\_times

2. Do you use dental floss?  Yes  No

3. Do you use a mouth rinse or wash?  Yes  No

4. Do you chew gum?  Yes  No

5. Relating to Temporomandibular Joint disorders (TMJ Disorders), do you have or have had:

a. Difficulty and/ or pain opening your mouth, such as when yawning?  Yes  No

b. Your jaw getting “stuck”, “locked” or “going out?”  Yes  No

c. Difficulty and/ or pain when chewing, talking or using your jaws?  Yes  No

d. Noises in the jaw joints?  Yes  No

e. Pain in or about the ears, temples or cheeks?  Yes  No

f. Soreness of jaw muscles?  Yes  No

g. Clenching or grinding of your teeth?  Yes  No

h. An unusual or uncomfortable feeling bite?  Yes  No

i. Frequent headaches?  Yes  No

j. Recent injury to your head, neck or jaw?  Yes  No

k. Treatment for jaw/ joint problem? If yes, when?

\_ Yes \_ No

**Sleep History**

Weekdays schedule: Bed Time \_\_\_\_\_ Wake up \_\_\_\_\_

Weekends schedule: Bed Time \_\_\_\_\_ Wake up \_\_\_\_\_

**Trauma History:**

Have you been involved in accidents in the past in which your head was snapped as in whiplash auto accidents? If yes, please list every accident of this type.( you may use a separate sheet)

---

Have you received a blow to the face or jaw? If yes, list every accident or incident of this type.

---

I authorize the release of a full report of examination, findings and diagnosis and relevant information in your research report.

Child's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Parent's Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date : \_\_\_\_\_

#### **Appendix C - 4: Clinical examination form**

Clinical examination will include the extra-oral and intra-oral examination. The examination will be carried out in the dental office on subjects in reclined position under adequate lighting conditions using autoclaved/ disposable diagnostic instruments and air syringe.

##### *Extra-oral examination:*

- i) Range of mandibular movement: \_\_\_\_\_
- ii) TMJ sounds: Present \_\_\_\_\_, Absent \_\_\_\_\_
- iii) TMJ Tenderness to palpation: Yes \_\_\_\_, No \_\_\_\_
- iv) Masticatory muscle tenderness: absent, mild, moderate, severe
- Temporalis \_\_\_\_\_ Masseter \_\_\_\_\_ Medial pterygoid \_\_\_\_\_

##### *Intraoral examination:*

Each tooth will be wiped with clean and dry cotton rolls and dried with air syringe and following findings will be noted.

Number of teeth present: \_\_\_\_\_ Deciduous: \_\_\_\_\_ Permanent: \_\_\_\_\_

Carious: \_\_\_\_\_ Missing : \_\_\_\_\_

### Tooth wear examination

Tooth Number	3	6	7	8	9	10	11	14	19	22	23	24	25	26	27	30	
Incisal or Occlusal																	
Labial	X							X	X							X	
Lingual	X							X	X							X	
Total																	

### Score for tooth wear suggested by Bardsley *et al.*<sup>14</sup>

Score	Amount of wear on the surface of teeth
0	No wear into dentin
1	Dentin just visible (including cupping) or dentin exposed for less than a third of the surface
2	Dentin exposure greater than a third of the surface
3	Exposure of pulp or secondary dentin

**Appendix C - 5: Helkimo Index Questionnaire**

**Anamnestic questionnaire:** During the last five (5) years:

1. Do you experience headaches in temple area? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_

How often? \_\_\_Two or less per week \_\_\_More than two per week

Rate average severity:            1            5            10  
   mild            moderate            severe

2. Have you experienced noise (popping, clicking, or grating) in your jaw joints?

Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_

Painful\_\_\_ Not painful\_\_\_    1            5            10  
   mild            moderate            severe

3. Do your jaws frequently feel tired or stiff? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_

1            5            10  
mild            moderate            severe

4. Do your jaws lock open or closed? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_

1            5            10  
mild            moderate            severe

5. Do you have any difficulty opening wide? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_

1            5            10  
mild            moderate            severe

6. Do your jaws hurt when opening, closing, chewing, or yawning?

Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_

1            5            10  
mild            moderate            severe



7. Do you have pain in your jaw joint(s) or in front of your ear(s)?

Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_  
1 5 10  
mild moderate severe

8. Do you have pain in your temples or cheek muscles? Yes\_\_\_ No\_\_\_

1 5 10  
mild moderate severe

### Anamnestic Index Analysis

Ai-0	Made up of individuals free from dysfunction symptoms
Ai-I	Made up of individuals with mild dysfunction symptoms
Ai-II	Made up of individuals with severe dysfunction symptoms

The second is the clinical dysfunction index, which considers a functional evaluation of the masticatory system. In accordance with the presence and/or severity of these clinical symptoms, individuals are assigned a score of 0, 1, or 5 points.

The following items will be observed:

- a - Range of mandibular motion;
- b - TMJ function impairment;
- c - Muscle tenderness during palpation;
- d - TMJ pain during palpation;
- e - Pain during mandibular movement – only recorded when clearly identified.

### **Scores of Clinical dysfunction questionnaire**

According to the score attained, the individuals will be classified in four groups:

Table 5: Clinical Dysfunction Index Analysis

Di-0	0 points - Individuals clinically free from dysfunction symptoms
Di-I	1 to 4 points - Individuals with mild dysfunction symptoms
Di-II	5 to 9 points - Individuals with moderate dysfunction symptoms
Di-III	10 to 25 points - Individuals with severe dysfunction symptoms.

Based on the scores the child will be classified as Temporomandibular Disorders positive or negative.

### Appendix C – 6: Sleep Disturbances Scale For Children Questionnaire

**INSTRUCTIONS:** This questionnaire will allow your doctor to have a better understanding of the sleep-wake of rhythm of your child and of any problems in his/her sleep behaviour. Try to answer every question; in answering, consider each question as pertaining to the past 6 months of the child’s life. Please answer the questions by circling or striking the applicable term.. Thank you very much for your help.

Name: ----- Age: ----- Date: -----

1. How many hours of sleep does your child get on most nights?	1 9-11 h	2 8-9 h	3 7-8 h	4 5-7 h	5 Less than 5 h
2. How long after going to bed does your child usually fall asleep?	1 Less than 15’	2 15-30’	3 30-45’	4 45-60’	5 More than 60’

3. The child goes to bed reluctantly	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
4. The child has difficulty getting to sleep at night	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
5. The child feels anxious or afraid when falling asleep	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
6. The child startles or jerks parts of the body while falling asleep	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
7. The child shows repetitive actions such as rocking or head banging	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always

while falling asleep					
8. The child experiences vivid dream-like scenes while falling asleep	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
9. The child sweats excessively while falling asleep	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
10. The child wakes up more than twice per night	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
11. After waking up in the night, the child has difficulty to fall asleep again	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
12. The child has frequent twitching or jerking of legs while asleep or often changes position during the night or kicks the covers off the bed.	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
13. The child has difficulty in breathing during the night	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
14. The child gasps for breath or is unable to breathe during sleep	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
15. The child snores	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
16. The child sweats excessively during the night	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
17. You have observed the child sleepwalking	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
18. you have observed the child talking in his/her sleep	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always

19.The child grinds teeth during sleep	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
20.The child wakes from sleep screaming or confused so that you cannot seem to get through to him/her, but has no memory of these events the next morning	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
21.The child has nightmares which he/she doesn't remember the next day	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
22.The child is unusually difficult to wake up in the morning	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
23.The child awakes in the morning feeling tired	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
24.The child feels unable to move when waking up in the morning	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
25.The child experiences daytime somnolence	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always
26.The child falls asleep suddenly in inappropriate situations	Never	Occasionally	Sometimes	Often	Always

### Score analysis of Sleep Disturbances Scale For Children

Disorders of initiating and maintaining sleep (sum the score of the items 1,2,3,4,5,10,11)
Sleep Breathing Disorders (sum the score of the items 13, 14,15)
Disorders of arousal (sum the score of the items 17, 20,21)
Sleep-Wake Transition Disorders (Sum the score of the items 6,7,8,12,18,19)
Disorders of excessive somnolence (Sum the score of the items 22,23,24,25,26)
Sleep Hyperhydrosis (Sum the score of the items 9,16)
Total score (sum 6 factors' scores)

Total scores above 39 are considered to be sleep breathing disorder positive and may be classified from mild to moderate to severe based on the score.

## REFERENCES

1. Spruyt K, O'BRIEN LM, Cluydts R, Verleye GB, Ferri R. Odds, prevalence and predictors of sleep problems in school-age normal children. *J Sleep Res.* 2005;14(2):163-176.
2. Millward A, Shaw L, Smith A, Rippin J, Harrington E. The distribution and severity of tooth wear and the relationship between erosion and dietary constituents in a group of children. *International Journal of Paediatric Dentistry.* 1994;4(3):151-157.
3. Van't Spijker A, Rodriguez JM, Kreulen CM, Bronkhorst EM, Bartlett DW, Creugers NH. Prevalence of tooth wear in adults. *Int J Prosthodont.* 2009;22(1):35-42.
4. Mehta NR, Forgione AG, Maloney G, Greene R. Different effects of nocturnal parafunction on the masticatory system: The weak link theory. *Cranio.* 2000;18(4):280-286.
5. Lavigne G, Kato T, Kolta A, Sessle B. Neurobiological mechanisms involved in sleep bruxism. *Critical Reviews in Oral Biology & Medicine.* 2003;14(1):30-46.
6. Spruyt K, Gozal D. Development of pediatric sleep questionnaires as diagnostic or epidemiological tools: A brief review of dos and don'ts. *Sleep Med Rev.* 2011;15(1):7-17.
7. Bardsley P, Taylor S, Milosevic A. Epidemiological studies of tooth wear and dental erosion in 14-year-old children in north west england. part 1: The relationship with water fluoridation and social deprivation. *Br Dent J.* 2004;197(7):413-416.

8. Ipsiroglu OS, Fatemi A, Werner I, Tiefenthaler M, Urschitz MS, Schwarz B.  
[Prevalence of sleep disorders in school children between 11 and 15 years of age]. *Wien Klin Wochenschr.* 2001;113(7-8):235-244.
9. Restrepo C, Pelaez A, Alvarez E, Paucar C, Abad P. Digital imaging of patterns of dental wear to diagnose bruxism in children. *International Journal of Paediatric Dentistry.* 2006;16(4):278-285. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-263X.2006.00756.x.
10. Antonio AG, da Silva Pierro VS, Maia LC. Bruxism in children: A warning sign for psychological problems. *Journal-Canadian Dental Association.* 2006;72(2):155.
11. Bardsley PF. The evolution of tooth wear indices. *Clin Oral Investig.* 2008;12:15-19.
12. Bernhardt O, Gesch D, Schwahn C, et al. Risk factors for headache, including TMD signs and symptoms, and their impact on quality of life. results of the study of health in pomerania (SHIP). *Quintessence Int.* 2005;36(1):55-64.
13. Kelleher M, Bishop K. Tooth surface loss: Tooth surface loss: An overview. *Br Dent J.* 1999;186(2):61-66.
14. Smith B, Knight J. An index for measuring the wear of teeth. *Br Dent J.* 1984;156(12):435.
15. Jaeggi T, Lussi A. Prevalence, incidence and distribution of erosion. 2006.
16. Hunter M, West N, Hughes J, Newcombe R, Addy M. Erosion of deciduous and permanent dental hard tissue in the oral environment. *J Dent.* 2000;28(4):257-263.
17. Wilson P, Beynon A. Mineralization differences between human deciduous and permanent enamel measured by quantitative microradiography. *Arch Oral Biol.* 1989;34(2):85-88.



18. Egermark-Eriksson I, Carlsson GE, Ingervall B. Prevalence of mandibular dysfunction and orofacial parafunction in 7-, 11-and 15-year-old swedish children. *The European Journal of Orthodontics*. 1981;3(3):163-172.
19. Troeltzsch M, Troeltzsch M, Cronin RJ, Brodine AH, Frankenberger R, Messlinger K. Prevalence and association of headaches, temporomandibular joint disorders, and occlusal interferences. *J Prosthet Dent*. 2011;105(6):410-417.
20. Imfeld T. Dental erosion. definition, classification and links. *Eur J Oral Sci*. 1996;104(2):151-155.
21. Azzopardi A, Bartlett DW, Watson TF, Smith BG. A literature review of the techniques to measure tooth wear and erosion. *Eur J Prosthodont Restor Dent*. 2000;8(3):93-97.
22. Bartlett D, Ganss C, Lussi A. Basic erosive wear examination (BEWE): A new scoring system for scientific and clinical needs. *Clin Oral Investig*. 2008;12:65-68.
23. Bartlett DW, Shah P. A critical review of non-carious cervical (wear) lesions and the role of abfraction, erosion, and abrasion. *J Dent Res*. 2006;85(4):306-312.
24. Litonjua LA, Andreana S, Bush PJ, Cohen RE. Tooth wear: Attrition, erosion, and abrasion. *Quintessence Int*. 2003;34(6):435-446.
25. Milosevic A. Toothwear: Aetiology and presentation. *Dent Update*. 1998;25(1):6-11.
26. Young A, Amaechi BT, Dugmore C, et al. Current erosion indices--flawed or valid? summary. *Clin Oral Investig*. 2008;12(Suppl 1):S59-63.
27. Addy M, Shellis R. Interaction between attrition, abrasion and erosion in tooth wear. 2006.

28. Barbour ME, Rees GD. The role of erosion, abrasion and attrition in tooth wear. *J Clin Dent*. 2006;17(4):88-93.
29. Shafer WG, MK Levy B. A textbook of oral pathology. 1983.
30. Marinelli A, Alarashi M, Defraia E, Antonini A, Tollaro I. Tooth wear in the mixed dentition: A comparative study between children born in the 1950s and the 1990s. *Angle Orthod*. 2005;75(3):340-343.
31. Scheutzel P. Etiology of dental erosion—intrinsic factors. *Eur J Oral Sci*. 1996;104(2):178-190.
32. Seligman DA, Pullinger AG. The degree to which dental attrition in modern society is a function of age and of canine contact. *J Orofac Pain*. 1995;9(3):266-275.
33. Yip KH, Smales RJ, Kaidonis JA. The diagnosis and control of extrinsic acid erosion of tooth substance. *In Vitro*. 2003;24:25.
34. Glaros AG, Melamed BG. Bruxism in children: Etiology and treatment. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*. 1992;1(4):191-199.
35. Auvenshine RC. Temporomandibular disorders: Associated features. *Dent Clin North Am*. 2007;51(1):105-127.
36. Park B, Tokiwa O, Takezawa Y, Takahashi Y, Sasaguri K, Sato S. Relationship of tooth grinding pattern during sleep bruxism and temporomandibular joint status. *CRANIO-CHATTANOOGA TN*-. 2008;26(1):8.
37. Sillanpaa M, Anttila P. Increasing prevalence of headache in 7-year-old schoolchildren. *Headache*. 1996;36(8):466-470.

38. Carlsson GE, Egermark I, Magnusson T. Predictors of bruxism, other oral parafunctions, and tooth wear over a 20-year follow-up period. *J Orofac Pain*. 2003;17(1):50-57.
39. Grippo JO. Abrasions: A new classification of hard tissue lesions of teeth. *Journal of Esthetic and Restorative Dentistry*. 1991;3(1):14-19.
40. Meurman J, Gate J. Pathogenesis and modifying factors of dental erosion. *Eur J Oral Sci*. 1996;104(2):199-206.
41. Moss S. Dental erosion\*. *Int Dent J*. 1998;48(6):529-539.
42. Holbrook WP, Ganss C. Is diagnosing exposed dentin a suitable tool for grading erosive loss?. *Clin Oral Investig*. 2008;12(Suppl 1):S33-9.
43. Berg-Beckhoff G, Kutschmann M, Bardehle D. Methodological considerations concerning the development of oral dental erosion indexes: Literature survey, validity and reliability. *Clin Oral Investig*. 2008;12(Suppl 1):S51-8.
44. Dugmore C, Rock W. The prevalence of tooth erosion in 12-year-old children. *Br Dent J*. 2004;196(5):279-282.
45. Zero DT. Etiology of dental erosion—extrinsic factors. *Eur J Oral Sci*. 1996;104(2):162-177.
46. Giunta J. Dental erosion resulting from chewable vitamin C tablets. *J Am Dent Assoc*. 1983;107(2):253-256.
47. HELLSTRÖM I. Oral complications in anorexia nervosa. *Eur J Oral Sci*. 1977;85(1):71-86.
48. Smith B, Robb N. Dental erosion in patients with chronic alcoholism. *J Dent*. 1989;17(5):219-221.

49. Fares J, Shirodaria S, Chiu K, Ahmad N, Sherriff M, Bartlett D. A new index of tooth wear. *Caries Res.* 2009;43(2):119-125.
50. Sonmez H, Sari S, Oksak Oray G, Camdeviren H. Prevalence of temporomandibular dysfunction in turkish children with mixed and permanent dentition. *J Oral Rehabil.* 2001;28(3):280-285.
51. Camparis CM, Formigoni G, Teixeira MJ, Bittencourt LRA, Tufik S, Siqueira JTT. Sleep bruxism and temporomandibular disorder: Clinical and polysomnographic evaluation. *Arch Oral Biol.* 2006;51(9):721-728.
52. Abu-Arefeh I, Russell G. Prevalence of headache and migraine in schoolchildren. *BMJ.* 1994;309(6957):765-769.
53. Emodi-Perlman A, Eli I, Friedman-Rubin P, Goldsmith C, Reiter S, Winocur E. Bruxism, oral parafunctions, anamnestic and clinical findings of temporomandibular disorders in children. *J Oral Rehabil.* 2012;39(2):126-135. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2842.2011.02254.x>.
54. Toscano P, Defabianis P. Clinical evaluation of temporomandibular disorders in children and adolescents: A review of the literature. *European Journal of Paediatric Dentistry.* 2009;10(4):188-192.
55. Sternbach RA. Survey of pain in the united states: The nuprin pain report. *Clin J Pain.* 1986;2(1):49-53.
56. Sørli IKB, Torsdatter K. Temporomandibular disorders (TMD) in children and adolescents: Prevalence, risk factors and diagnostics of TMD in children and adolescents. 2011.

57. Barbosa TdS, Miyakoda LS, Pocztaruk RdL, Rocha CP, Gavião MBD. Temporomandibular disorders and bruxism in childhood and adolescence: Review of the literature. *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol*. 2008;72(3):299-314.
58. Helkimo M. Studies on function and dysfunction of the masticatory system. II. index for anamnestic and clinical dysfunction and occlusal state. *Sven Tandlak Tidskr*. 1974;67(2):101-121.
59. Smaldone A, Honig JC, Byrne MW. Sleepless in america: Inadequate sleep and relationships to health and well-being of our nation's children. *Pediatrics*. 2007;119(Supplement 1):S29-S37.
60. Ersu R, Arman AR, Save D, et al. Prevalence of snoring and symptoms of sleep-disordered breathing in primary school children in istanbul. *Chest Journal*. 2004;126(1):19-24.
61. Huang J, Karamessinis LR, Pepe ME, et al. Upper airway collapsibility during REM sleep in children with the obstructive sleep apnea syndrome. *Sleep*. 2009;32(9):1173.
62. Witmans M, Young R. Update on pediatric sleep-disordered breathing. *Pediatr Clin North Am*. 2011;58(3):571-589. doi: 10.1016/j.pcl.2011.03.013; 10.1016/j.pcl.2011.03.013.
63. Owens JA, Mindell JA. Pediatric insomnia. *Pediatr Clin North Am*. 2011;58(3):555-569. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.pcl.2011.03.011>.
64. Mindell JA, Owens JA. *A Clinical Guide to Pediatric Sleep: Diagnosis and Management of Sleep Problems*. 2nd ed. Philadelphia: Wolters Kluwer/Lippincott Williams & Wilkins; 2010.

65. Ng T, Seow A, Tan W. Prevalence of snoring and sleep breathing-related disorders in chinese, malay and indian adults in singapore. *European Respiratory Journal*. 1998;12(1):198-203.
66. Spruyt K, Gozal D. Pediatric sleep questionnaires as diagnostic or epidemiological tools: A review of currently available instruments. *Sleep Med Rev*. 2011;15(1):19-32.
67. Bruni O, Ottaviano S, Guidetti V, et al. The sleep disturbance scale for children (SDSC) construction and validation of an instrument to evaluate sleep disturbances in childhood and adolescence. *J Sleep Res*. 1996;5(4):251-261.
68. Al-Majed I, Maguire A, Murray JJ. Risk factors for dental erosion in 5–6 year old and 12–14 year old boys in saudi arabia. *Community Dent Oral Epidemiol*. 2002;30(1):38-46.
69. Kreulen CM, Van 't Spijker A, Rodriguez JM, Bronkhorst EM, Creugers NH, Bartlett DW. Systematic review of the prevalence of tooth wear in children and adolescents. *Caries Res*. 2010;44(2):151-159.
70. Sanhoury NM, Ziada HM, Ahmed GI, Kamis AH. Tooth surface loss, prevalence and associated risk factors among 12-14 years school children in khartoum state, sudan. *Community Dent Health*. 2010;27(4):206-212.
71. de Carvalho Sales-Peres S, Goya S, de Araújo J, Sales-Peres A, Lauris JRP, Buzalaf MA. Prevalence of dental wear among 12-year-old brazilian adolescents using a modification of the tooth wear index. *Public Health*. 2008;122(9):942-948.
72. Liu X, Ma Y, Wang Y, et al. Brief report: An epidemiologic survey of the prevalence of sleep disorders among children 2 to 12 years old in beijing, china. *Pediatrics*. 2005;115(Supplement 1):266-268.