

Review

An Overview of Mouth Breathing Syndrome and its Effect on Dental Development

Roaa AlDomyati ^{1*}, Zahra Alkhawaja ², Yousef Alharthi ³, Lubna Aljumaah ⁴, Amal Al Aladalah ⁵, Zainab Alhazoom ⁶, Suzan Sangoura ⁷, Hana Alorabi ⁸, Turki Albalawi ⁹, Abdulrahman Alazwary ¹⁰, Renad Tallab ¹¹

¹ Department of Pediatric Dentistry, East Jeddah Hospital, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

² College of Dentistry, Alfarabi Colleges, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

³ General Dentist, Ministry of Health, Al-Kharj, Saudi Arabia

⁴ General Dentist, Prince Sultan Military Medical City, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

⁵ General Dentist, Garden Clinic, Abha, Saudi Arabia

⁶ General Dentist, Ministry of Health, Bisha, Saudi Arabia

⁷ Staff Dentist, Ibn Sina National College, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

⁸ General Dentist, Ministry of Health, Mecca, Saudi Arabia

⁹ College of Dentistry, King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

¹⁰ College of Dentistry, Majmaah University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

¹¹ General Dentist, Andalusia Dental Center, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Correspondence should be addressed to **Roaa AlDomyati**, Department of Pediatric Dentistry, East Jeddah Hospital, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Email: dr.raldomyati@hotmail.com

Copyright © 2022 **AlDomyati**, this is an open-access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Received: 4 January 2023, Accepted: 9 January 2023, Published: 12 January 2023

Abstract

Mouth breathing syndrome is a major harmful oral condition in children that causes them to switch from exclusively nasal breathing to mouth breathing or mixed breathing. It frequently happens as a result of an obstruction of the upper airway, which forces all or part of the air to enter through the mouth. Serious morphological and quality-of-life alterations are brought on by it. There are a number of causes for mouth breathing, but allergic rhinitis may be the most widespread, affecting more children. The second reason for this breathing pattern is palatine tonsils and adenoids. This multifactorial condition jeopardizes the balance of stomatognathic functions such as chewing, swallowing, breathing, and phonation, as well as creating conditions that influence the individual's development. Uncontrolled mouth breathing can have an adverse impact on the dentofacial system's health as well as aberrant dental and maxillofacial development. Based on the cause of mouth breathing, mouth breathers may demonstrate various dental development patterns, malocclusions, and maxillofacial development consequences. Furthermore, breathing through the mouth might harm dental health and raise the risk of periodontal and caries disorders. Because mouth breathers have several problems, a thorough and interdisciplinary clinical assessment is required to identify this syndrome early and reduce its negative effects on dentofacial development. This review finds that a multidisciplinary approach to these issues needs to make significant progress.

Keywords: mouth breathing syndrome, mouth breathing, dental, dentofacial

Introduction

Mouth breathing syndrome is characterized by a switch from exclusively nasal breathing to mouth breathing or mixed breathing. The involvement of this syndrome includes postural, functional, occlusion, biomechanical, and behavioral aspects (1). Even if it is still debatable, >50% of children have been found to be mouth breathers so far (2).

There has been much discussion in the orthodontic literature on how breathing patterns, whether nasal or oral, affect the growth and development of the craniofacial structure. Mouth breathing in children is a sign of underdeveloped oral function and has an adverse effect on the dentofacial morphology and oral environment (3, 4). For the balanced development of craniofacial features, normal nasal breathing is crucial (5). Nasal obstruction leading to mouth breathing is known as obstructive mouth breathing, which can be caused by enlargement of the nasal turbinates and pharyngeal lymphoid tissue (tonsils and adenoids). Unlike habitual mouth breathing, which has no underlying cause other than mouth breathing itself. Anatomical anomalies in the oral and nasal anatomy can also result in mouth breathing, which is referred to as anatomical mouth breathing. Ineffective lip seals resembled mouth breathers physically and were linked to disorders of the nose and throat, dental conditions including caries and gingivitis, and oral activities like eating and drinking (6). Nasal breathing causes an asymmetrical development of the maxillary bones as well as the dysfunction of the entire intra- and perioral musculature. Numerous studies have been conducted on the dentofacial anatomy and characteristics of mouth breathers. While most of the studies discovered significant alterations in the facial morphology of mouth breathers, other investigations found no proof of an association between particular malocclusions or changes in the facial skeleton (7-9).

Detection and treatment of mouth breathing at an early stage are advantageous for maintaining normal dentofacial function and structure, as well as preventing related health problems. The present investigation aimed to elucidate mouth breathing syndrome and its impact on dental development.

Methods

For the preparation of this paper, we used scientific articles published in scientific indexed journals identified from the databases PubMed, Google Scholar,

the Cochrane Library, and MEDLINE using the keywords "mouth breathing" and "mouth breathing syndrome." Inclusion criteria for the study were papers that addressed causative factors, prevalence, and dentofacial aspects of mouth breathing, published in the last ten years of the scientific article type, based on case-control, cohort, clinical trials, or systematic reviews, and conducted with samples of all ages and both sexes.

Discussion

Prevalence, Etiology, and clinical manifestations

The prevalence of mouth breathing syndrome among children ranges between 6.6% and 56.8% (2, 10). The diagnosis of mouth breathing syndrome is made by clinical investigation and diagnostic procedures, and the pediatrician, who generally has the initial contact with children who breathe through their mouths, should collect a complete patient history and give due weight to information on clinical manifestations to ensure early identification and appropriate care (11).

The etiology of mouth breathing may be multifactorial and attributable to anatomic factors. The foremost prevalent reason for mouth breathing is the presence of nasopharyngeal obstructions, which increase nasal resistance. Nasal obstruction may be the result of congenital or postnatal causes and may increase airflow resistance and impair sucking-swallowing responses, hence increasing the risk of aspiration or more severe and life-threatening respiratory distress situations. The most prevalent cause of mouth breathing is allergic rhinitis, followed by nasal morphological deformities that decrease nasal ventilation and airflow, hypertrophic adenoids, hypertrophic tonsils, and an obstructive deviated nasal septum (11). Mouth breathing syndrome can also be caused by nasal or facial abnormalities, nasal trauma, or nasal polyps. Some researchers assert that hyperplasia of the adenoids and tonsils is a leading cause of upper airway blockages in children. Multiple studies conducted in recent years have established that allergic rhinitis is one of the leading causes of chronic mouth breathing in children who are still growing. In addition to affecting the proper development of the facial skeleton, allergic rhinitis has a major negative impact on overall health, asthma control, and quality of life. It is an inflammatory process of the nasal mucosa that results in unilateral or bilateral nasal obstruction due to the expansion of the inferior, middle, or superior nasal conchae. Furthermore, the emergence of mouth breathing by Pacheco AB *et al.* and Theodoro E *et al.* (12, 13) that the emergence of mouth breathing coincides

with a drop in labial closure and nursing, as well as an increase in bottle and pacifier sucking. Additionally, mouth breathing can be caused by respiratory allergies, climate, and a bad sleeping position (7).

The most common clinical signs of mouth breathers determined by Abreu RR *et al.* were sleeping with the mouth open (86%), snoring (79%), an itchy nose (77%), drooling on the pillow (62%), nocturnal sleep disturbances or disturbed sleep (62%), nasal blockage (49%), and daytime irritability (43%) (11). The majority of guardians and parents will not voluntarily provide information on disorders such as these symptoms since they view them as insignificant or typical.

A timely diagnosis is essential for the treatment of mouth breathing and the prevention of related diseases. To correctly diagnose a habit of mouth breathing, a thorough case history, clinical examination, and diagnostic testing may be required. It is essential to diagnose a patient with a tendency to mouth breathe using all available clinical testing. The mirror test and the water retention test are two of the most commonly mentioned breathing tests in literature. The most often used test is the lip-seal test, followed by the mirror test and the water retention test (14). Depending on the cause and consequences for each patient, mouth breathing may be treated with medication, surgery, rehabilitation speech therapy, physical therapy, or orthodontics.

Dental development features and health problems of mouth breathing patients

The stomatognathic system can undergo structural and functional changes as a result of mouth breathing. Prior data indicates that nasal obstruction scores may serve as an indicator of such changes (15). Also, there is evidence that mouth breathing is connected with dental and cranial variables and that it worsens during adolescence (16). Patients diagnosed with mouth breathing syndrome typically exhibit an anterior open bite, atresia, posterior cross bite, and severe overjet. These malocclusions, a manifestation associated with the development of dentition, are mostly the result of an imbalance between the tongue, lips, and perioral muscles (17, 18). Children who breathe through their mouths have a higher incidence of a posterior cross bite than the overall population. During mixed and permanent dentitions, mouth breathers were far more probable to have an anterior open bite and a class II malocclusion (19). In a systematic review, it has been confirmed that the prevalence of malocclusion of Angle Class II, division 1, tends to be higher than Class I malocclusion in mouth-

breathing children (20). Burska *et al.* (21) showed in a recent case-control study that bigger palatine tonsils, higher scores on the Mallampati classification, and the presence of a cross bite, a short lingual frenulum, and a high-arched palate may indicate disordered breathing during sleep in children. In another cross-sectional observational study that investigated typologies of facial and dental asymmetries in a sample of children aged between 3 and 6 years, Vitale *et al.* (22) found a close correlation between the presence of dental malocclusions and the presence of oral breathing. Children with healthy breathing habits shut their mouths with their lips. The tongue contacts the palate and the lingual surface of the maxillary teeth. The development of a healthy upper dental arch requires a balance of muscular strength between the inner tongue, cheeks, and outer lips. According to the results of the aforementioned investigations, mouth breathing in children may be a risk element for the emergence of malocclusion.

If not treated on time, mouth breathing throughout childhood may negatively influence dentofacial development. As a result of decreased airflow in the nasal cavity, mouth breathing interfered with the anteroposterior position of the maxilla. This results in nasal and paranasal hypoplasia as well as a reduction in tongue pressure against the palate, which can lead to a deviation in vertical growth as the mandible remains downward and backward relative to the cranial base.

Mouth breathing inhibits dentoskeletal development and masticatory function, diminishes the magnitude and duration of vertical occlusal stress on developing children's posterior teeth, and decreases chewing activity, according to research (23). In children, adenotonsillar hypertrophy is a significant reason for mouth breathing. The adenoids and palatine tonsils are positioned at distinct locations in the upper airway. During the growth stage, varied sites and periods of obstruction may result in comparable face patterns. As a result, children with adenoid and tonsillar hypertrophy have dentofacial development that is extremely sophisticated (24). Mouth breathing impacts maxillofacial development in children as well. Frequently, mouth breathing is associated with a skeletal Class II orthodontic classification, characterized by mandibular retrusion and maxillary protrusion (41, 42). According to an analysis of cephalometric data, mouth breathers are more likely to have a retrognathic mandible and maxilla, downward and backward rotation of the mandible, a vertical growth pattern with a high mandibular plane angle, a decrease in posterior facial

height, and an increase in total and lower anterior facial height (25). Also, a high palatal vault is one of the most typical indicators of mouth breathing. The height of the palatal vault in the region of the molars was 11% greater in mouth-breathing children compared to nose-breathing children (26).

Choi *et al.* imply that mouth breathing during sleep is associated with a reduction in intraoral pH relative to normal breathing during sleep; this has been hypothesized as a cause of tooth erosion and caries (27). Mouth breathing can culminate in modifications to the saliva-mediated defense system and a diminished self-cleansing ability of the saliva, hence accelerating plaque buildup. Additionally, the reduction of epithelial cells that can defend against plaque and the dryness of the gingival area caused by airflow might lead to the development of severe oral diseases such as periodontal disease and gingivitis (28, 29). Nonetheless, their relationship has remained adversarial (30). Bakshae *et al.* found, however, that allergy rhinitis and oral breathing may have an effect on oral health and dental conditions, leading to an increase in tooth loss, oral fillings, and the development of dental caries (31). Chronic mouth breathing resulting from nasal adenoids and adenotonsillar hypotrophy has been shown to exacerbate gingival and periodontal disorders (28). The dental literature demonstrates the connection between nasal respiration, tongue protrusion, and an anterior open bite. Arch form and tooth placement are principally determined by the equilibrium of tongue and perioral muscle forces. The increased force from the tongue's musculature makes the anterior teeth more susceptible to periodontal and traumatic tooth loss in tongue-throwers (32). The condition of the temporomandibular joint and periodontal tissues may be affected by several complicating variables, including the correlation between mouth breathing and dental health. In addition, there may be a relationship between anomalies in the dentofacial regions, which merits additional studies.

This review emphasized the scarcity of studies on mouth breathing, particularly in adults, as well as the majority of studies focusing on the effects of mouth breathing rather than its causes and treatments. As long as these patients receive a global and timely response, it demonstrates the importance of health professionals becoming educated about mouth breathers.

Conclusion

Due to the numerous causes of mouth breathing syndrome, a comprehensive and multidisciplinary

treatment strategy is required to recognise it early and minimise its harmful effects on dentofacial development. This review suggests that a multidisciplinary approach to these individuals is required for all health practitioners to better comprehend the illness and prevent its complications. In addition, there is a need for high-quality evidence or clinical trial research explicating the impacts of mouth breathing on dental growth and health.

Disclosure

Conflict of interest

There is no conflict of interest

Funding

No funding

Ethical consideration

Non applicable

Data availability

Data that support the findings of this study are embedded within the manuscript.

Author contribution

All authors contributed to conceptualizing, data drafting, collection and final writing of the manuscript.

References

1. Barros JR, Becker HM, Pinto JA. Evaluation of atopy among mouth-breathing pediatric patients referred for treatment to a tertiary care center. *Jornal de pediatria*. 2006;82(6):458-64.
2. Felcar JM, Bueno IR, Massan AC, Torezan RP, Cardoso JR. [Prevalence of mouth breathing in children from an elementary school]. *Ciencia & saude coletiva*. 2010;15(2):437-44.
3. Juliano ML, Machado MAC, de Carvalho LBC, Zancanella E, Santos GMS, Fernandes do Prado LB, et al. Polysomnographic findings are associated with cephalometric measurements in mouth-breathing children. *Journal of Clinical Sleep Medicine*. 2009;5(6):554-61.
4. Lofstrand-Tidestrom B, Thilander B, Ahlqvist-Rastad O, Jakobsson E. Breathing obstruction In relation to craniofacial and dental arch morphology in 4 year-old children. *AMERICAN JOURNAL OF ORTHODONTICS AND DENTOFACIAL ORTHOPEDICS*. 2000;117(5):627-.

5. Moss ML, Salentijn L. The primary role of functional matrices in facial growth. *American journal of orthodontics*. 1969;55(6):566-77.
6. Saitoh I, Inada E, Kaihara Y, Nogami Y, Murakami D, Kubota N, et al. An exploratory study of the factors related to mouth breathing syndrome in primary school children. *Archives of oral biology*. 2018;92:57-61.
7. Frasson JMD, de Araújo Magnani MBB, Nouer DF, de Siqueira VCV, Lunardi N. Comparative cephalometric study between nasal and predominantly mouth breathers. *Brazilian journal of otorhinolaryngology*. 2006;72(1):72-81.
8. Fields HW, Warren DW, Black K, Phillips CL. Relationship between vertical dentofacial morphology and respiration in adolescents. *American Journal of Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopedics*. 1991;99(2):147-54.
9. Vig KW. Nasal obstruction and facial growth: the strength of evidence for clinical assumptions. *American journal of orthodontics and dentofacial orthopedics*. 1998;113(6):603-11.
10. Kharbanda OP, Sidhu SS, Sundaram K, Shukla DK. Oral habits in school going children of Delhi: a prevalence study. *Journal of the Indian Society of Pedodontics and Preventive Dentistry*. 2003;21(3):120-4.
11. Abreu RR, Rocha RL, Lamounier JA, Guerra AF. Etiology, clinical manifestations and concurrent findings in mouth-breathing children. *Jornal de pediatria*. 2008;84(6):529-35.
12. Pacheco A, Silva A, Mezzomo C, Berwig L, Neu A. Relation between oral breathing and nonnutritive sucking habits and stomatognathic system alterations. *Revista CEFAC*. 2012;14:281-9.
13. Theodoro Neto E, Oliveira A, Barbosa R, Zandonade E, Fagundes Z. The influence of sucking habits on occlusion development in the first 36 months. *Dental press journal of orthodontics*. 2012;17:96-104.
14. Pacheco MC, Casagrande CF, Teixeira LP, Finck NS, de Araújo MT. Guidelines proposal for clinical recognition of mouth breathing children. *Dental press journal of orthodontics*. 2015;20(4):39-44.
15. Lemos CM, Wilhelmsen NS, Mion Ode G, Mello Júnior JF. Functional alterations of the stomatognathic system in patients with allergic rhinitis: case-control study. *Brazilian journal of otorhinolaryngology*. 2009;75(2):268-74.
16. Rossi RC, Rossi NJ, Rossi NJ, Yamashita HK, Pignatari SS. Dentofacial characteristics of oral breathers in different ages: a retrospective case-control study. *Progress in orthodontics*. 2015;16:23.
17. Luzzi V, Ierardo G, Viscogliosi A, Fabbrizi M, Consoli G, Voza I, et al. Allergic rhinitis as a possible risk factor for malocclusion: a case-control study in children. *International journal of paediatric dentistry*. 2013;23(4):274-8.
18. Jung MH, Yang WS, Nahm DS. Maximum closing force of mentolabial muscles and type of malocclusion. *The Angle orthodontist*. 2010;80(1):72-9.
19. Souki BQ, Pimenta GB, Souki MQ, Franco LP, Becker HM, Pinto JA. Prevalence of malocclusion among mouth breathing children: do expectations meet reality? *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol*. 2009;73(5):767-73.
20. Fraga WS, Seixas VM, Santos JC, Paranhos LR, César CP. Mouth breathing in children and its impact in dental malocclusion: a systematic review of observational studies. *Minerva stomatologica*. 2018;67(3):129-38.
21. Burska Z, Burghard M, Brożek-Mądry E, Sierdziński J, Krzeski A. Oral cavity morphology among children at risk of sleep disordered breathing. *European Archives of Paediatric Dentistry*. 2022;23(3):429-35.
22. Vitale MC, Barbieri F, Ricotta R, Arpesella M, Emanuelli MT. [Epidemiological study of dental and facial asymmetries in a sample of preschool subjects]. *Epidemiologia e prevenzione*. 2015;39(1):45-51.
23. Ikenaga N, Yamaguchi K, Daimon S. Effect of mouth breathing on masticatory muscle activity during chewing food. *Journal of Oral Rehabilitation*. 2013;40(6):429-35.
24. Lin L, Zhao T, Qin D, Hua F, He H. The impact of mouth breathing on dentofacial development: A concise review. *Frontiers in public health*. 2022;10:929165.
25. Zheng W, Zhang X, Dong J, He J. Facial morphological characteristics of mouth breathers vs. nasal breathers: A systematic review and meta-analysis of lateral cephalometric data. *Exp Ther Med*. 2020;19(6):3738-50.
26. Tang H, Liu Q, Lin J-H, Zeng H. [Three-dimensional morphological analysis of the palate of mouth-breathing

children in mixed dentition]. *Hua Xi Kou Qiang Yi Xue Za Zhi*. 2019;37(4):389-93.

27. Choi JE, Waddell JN, Lyons KM, Kieser JA. Intraoral pH and temperature during sleep with and without mouth breathing. *J Oral Rehabil*. 2016;43(5):356-63.

28. Ballikaya E, Guciz Dogan B, Onay O, Uzamis Tekcicek M. Oral health status of children with mouth breathing due to adenotonsillar hypertrophy. *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol*. 2018;113:11-5.

29. Nascimento Filho E, Mayer MP, Pontes P, Pignatari AC, Weckx LL. Caries prevalence, levels of mutans streptococci, and gingival and plaque indices in 3.0- to 5.0-year-old mouth breathing children. *Caries research*. 2004;38(6):572-5.

30. Alqutami J, Elger W, Grafe N, Hiemisch A, Kiess W, Hirsch C. Dental health, halitosis and mouth breathing in 10-to-15 year old children: A potential connection. *European journal of paediatric dentistry*. 2019;20(4):274-9.

31. Bakhshae M, Ashtiani SJ, Hossainzadeh M, Sehatbakhsh S, Najafi MN, Salehi M. Allergic rhinitis and dental caries in preschool children. *Dental research journal*. 2017;14(6):376-81.

32. Haralur SB, Al-Qahtani AS. Replacement of missing anterior teeth in a patient with chronic mouth breathing and tongue thrusting. *Case reports in dentistry*. 2013;2013:759162.