Original Article

Orohanditest: A new method for orofacial damage assessment

Inês Morais Caldas^{1,2}, Teresa Magalhães²⁻⁵, Eduarda Matos⁵, Américo Afonso^{1,2}

¹Faculdade de Medicina Dentária (Faculty of Dental Medicine, Forensic Dentistry Department) da, ²Centro das Ciências Forenses (Center of Forensic Sciences) – CCF/FCT, ³Instituto Nacional de Medicina Legal e Ciências Forenses–Delegação do Norte (National institute of Legal Medicine and Forensic Sciences – North branch) Portugal, ⁴Faculdade de Medicina (Faculty of Medicine, Forensic and Legal Medicine Department) da, ⁵Instituto de Ciências Biomédicas "Abel Salazar" (Biomedical Sciences Institute "Abel Salazar", Forensic and Legal Medicine Department) da, Universidade do Porto (University of Porto), Portugal

ABSTRACT

Background: Currently, orofacial sequelae are recognized as very influential on the qualityof-life for a victim of orofacial damage. Therefore, correct forensic assessment for indenisation purposes is mandatory. However, orofacial damage is frequently reduced to organic components, which results in a forensic assessment process, which are inadequate. This study aims to improve the orofacial damage assessment through the development of an auxiliary tool, the orohanditest. **Materials and Methods:** A preliminary inventory was constructed, using relevant bibliographic elements and retrospective study of forensic examinations reports concerning orofacial trauma. This inventory was then utilized in the assessment of 265 orofacial trauma victims for validation. Validity was studied by analyzing the internal construct validity (exploring factorial validity and assessing internal consistency) and the external construct validity (assessing convergent validity and discriminant validity). The level of significance was defined as P < 0.05.

Received: September 2012 Accepted: March 2013

Address for correspondence: Prof. Inês Morais Caldas, Faculdade de Medicina Dentária da, Universidade do Porto, Rua Dr. Manuel Pereira da Silva, 4200 - 393 Porto, Portugal. E-mail: icaldas@fmd.up.pt **Results:** The final inventory (orohanditest) was comprised of the three components of body (8 items), functions (10 items) and situations (24 items), which were found to be statistically reliable and valid for assessment. The final score (orofacial damage coefficient) reflects the orofacial damage severity. **Conclusion:** Orohanditest provides a reliable, precise, and complete orofacial damage description and quantification. Therefore, this method can be useful as an auxiliary tool in the orofacial damage assessment process.

Key Words: Forensic dentistry, maxillofacial injuries, maxillofacial sequelae

INTRODUCTION

Orofacial injuries are common^[1-5] and several studies have reported that prevalence has increased in the past few years.^[2,6-8] Regarding the aetiology of orofacial injuries, road accidents^[9-13] and interpersonal violence^[14-19] are the most common mechanisms of trauma, but these injuries can also occur as a result of seizures,^[20] domestic accidents,^[8,21,22] sports

Access this article online		
	Website: http//:drj.mui.ac.ir	

injuries,^[2,5,23-25] work-related accidents,^[2,26,27] and animal injuries,^[9,28] as well as iatrogenic^[29-31] or selfproduced injuries,^[32,33] which are rare. In Portugal, there is a similar prevalence of orofacial injuries in road accidents and inter-personal violence,[15,34] with the former producing more severe injuries. However, as road accident injuries are often life-threatening, even severe orofacial injuries may be regarded as minor and may rarely be correctly described in initial medical certificates. When physical damage is assessed for indenization purposes in these situations, orofacial sequelae are sometimes difficult to prove and the description and evaluation of these injuries is often neglected. Nevertheless, orofacial sequelae can be serious and disrupt some orofacial functions, impair social life, result in troubling relationships, or even adversely affect professional



Figure 1: The body sequel in the temporomandibular joint (limited mouth opening) causes a functional impairment (pain and difficulties in opening the mouth) and both results in situational sequelae (cannot eat)

activity^[34] [Figure 1]. Therefore, orofacial sequelae must be properly assessed from a three-dimensional perspective, considering the components of body, functions and life situations, in order to correctly assess road accident victims.

The aim of this study was to present a threedimensional, validated methodology to assist in orofacial damage forensic assessment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

For selection of items to include in the comprehensive inventory, PubMed was used to perform a computerized literature search for publications on orofacial injuries and their consequences published in the last 10 years in English. The medical subject headings of "orofacial injuries," "maxillofacial injuries," "oral injuries," "orofacial sequelae," "maxillofacial sequelae," "oral sequelae," "orofacial functions," "maxillofacial functions" and "oral functions" were used in this search. The inclusion criteria included availability of the full-text article, format as a review article, written in the English language, publication in the last 10 years and limited to humans.

With the same purpose, a retrospective analysis of the final reports of forensic examinations was performed in the North Branch of the National Institute of Legal Medicine. The inclusion criteria included that the document be a road accident final report with a conclusion date between January 1998 and December 2002 and that the document refer to orofacial trauma and be written with expertise in common law.

Finally, an analysis of reports from the Faculty of Dental Medicine of University of Porto on orofacial trauma victims that were written between November 2002 and July 2003 was also performed.

This study was conducted according with the ethical standards of the responsible committee on human experimentation and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975 as revised in 1983; it was also approved by the Faculty of Dental Medicine of University of Porto ethics committee and the subjects who participated in this study had signed the informed consent form.

Selected publications and reports were reviewed and analyzed according to the nature of consequences associated with the orofacial injuries. These consequences or sequelae, were assessed for body, functional and situational impact as previously described in the "Bodily Damage Assessment Inventory".^[35]

A first inventory was constructed with the selected items and utilized in the orofacial damage assessment of 265 patients, which were sent from the North Branch of the National Institute of Legal Medicine to the Faculty of Dental Medicine of University of Porto between July 2003 and January 2007. Items were assessed using ordinal injury scales [Table 1].

Prior to the validation studies, a final item selection step was undertaken for functional and situational items only as all body items, except those that scored 0, were considered to be of the utmost importance, due to the descriptive nature of forensic assessment. The following rules were followed for functional and situational item selection:

- a. Items that scored 0 (not present in any participant) were excluded.
- b. Items of low relationship (r < 0.2) with the final grade, as analyzed using the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (rho), were excluded.
- c. Factor analysis with varimax factor rotation was applied and loadings inferior to 0.5 were excluded.
- d. The reliability of both scales was verified using Cronbach's alpha coefficient; items that scored

Body level	Capacities and situational level
0 — Without sequelae	0 — Without difficulties
1 — Minimal sequelae	 Minimal difficulties (pain, discomfort)
2 — Medium sequelae	 Medium difficulties (technical or pharmacologic aid needed)
3 — Important sequelae	3 — Serious difficulties (some human aided needed)
4 — Very important sequelae	 4 — Impossible or total human aid (replacement)

Table 1: Sequelae scales

less than 0.7 or caused a higher final alpha were removed.

The assessment of intra- and inter-observer reliability was checked using the kappa test. Validity was studied by analyzing the following:^[36]

- 1. The internal construct validity
 - a. Exploring factorial validity: The suitability of the data for factor analysis was verified using the Bartlett's test of sphericity (which should be significant P > 0.5) and the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (which should score 0.6 as a minimum value for a good factor analysis). Factor extraction was then performed. Factors were retained following Kaiser's criteria (eigenvalue of 1.0 or more) and a scree plot analysis. Factor interpretation was performed after varimax rotation.
 - b. Assessing internal consistency: Items that scored less than 0.7 or caused a higher final alpha were removed, as indicated by the Cronbach's alpha test. Mean inter-item correlation within each factor was calculated using Spearman's rho and analyzed considering Briggs and Cheek's recommendations^[37] (optimal range of inter-item correlation of 0.2-0.4).
- 2. The external construct validity
 - a. Convergent validity: The relationship between the final score for each level and orofacial disability was assessed using Spearman's rho (calculated using Le Concours medical)^[38]
 - b. Discriminant validity: Investigated by verifying if factors scored different grades under varying global scores; each sample was divided into extreme groups and the U or Mann-Whitney test was used to assess the difference.

Final results were analyzed and the functional and situational final grades were converted into a grade ranging from 0 to 4. These grades were added to the

highest score obtained at the body level and divided by three to yield the orofacial damage coefficient.

RESULTS

The computerized literature search using the PubMed yielded 207 publications. The retrospective analysis of forensic examination final reports (n = 693) for road accidents resulted in 108 usable reports. In total, 70 reports from the faculty of Dental Medicine of University of Porto were analyzed. As such, preliminary items related to the three components could be defined as followed:

- a. The body level was comprised of 9 items that were defined according to the quoted anatomic location in the selected publications and forensic reports: Teeth and periodontal tissue, oral mucosa, upper and lower lip, tongue, soft oral tissues (including blood vessels and nerves), facial bones, mandibles, temporomandibular joint as well as salivary glands and ducts.
- b. The functions level was comprised of 16 items that were selected from quotation in the studied publications and forensic reports: Chewing, swallowing, vomiting, digestion, perception of stimuli, word articulation, facial mimic capabilities, sense of taste, analysis of mouth content, maintaining content inside the mouth, spiting, gripping teeth, gripping with lips, breathing, velopharyngeal competence and blowing.
- c. The life situation level was comprised of 28 items that were chosen as described previously: Eating, drinking, performing oral hygiene, retaining a prosthetic device, undergoing implant placement, having dental treatment, biting (self-defence), biting nails, chewing gum, licking ice cream, smoking, speaking, smiling and laughing, using a telephone, making a speech, diving, playing an instrument, singing, whistling, using a computer (instead of hands), eating in workplace/school, relating in workplace/school, having a meal in public, relating with husband/wife/companion, relating with family, relating socially, kissing, as well as having sexual and love life.

After final selection of these items, salivary glands and ducts was excluded from the body sequelae, since this item was not a site of sequelae in any of the studied victims. All other body items were considered essential to a correct medico-legal assessment. For the 16 initial items at the functional sequelae level, the following 6 items were excluded:

- a. Spitting, vomiting, digestion and breathing were excluded, since these did not apply to any victims.
- b. Velopharyngeal competence and blowing were excluded, since Spearman's rho demonstrated a weak correlation of these items with the global score (r < 0.2, P = 0.023 and P = 0.007, respectively).
- c. Factorial analysis did not result in the exclusion of any item, since all analysed items presented significant loadings (>0.5).
- d. Reliability was verified using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and no item was removed, since every item scored over 0.7.

In the situational sequelae level of 28 initial items, the following 4 items were excluded:

- a. Using a computer, using a phone and diving, since these items did not apply to any victim.
- b. Having dental treatment was excluded, since Spearman's rho demonstrated a weak correlation of this item with the global score (r < 0.2, P = 0.0001).
- c. Factorial analysis after varimax rotation demonstrated that 3 items (retaining a prosthetic device, chewing gum and relating with co-workers, colleagues) had no significant loadings (0.463, 0.416 and 0.469, respectively); however, these items were kept in the analysis, since all were well-defined in a component factor.
- d. Reliability was checked using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and no item was removed, since every item scored over 0.7.

Reliability of intra- and inter-observer was confirmed for the three scales (Kappa > 0.81).

Owing to the special characteristics of the medicolegal examination process at the body sequelae level, validation of each item at this level was described in a single dimension (the orofacial area that the sequelae occurs). Therefore, only the Spearman's rho of the body sequelae level score with the orofacial disability was studied. These results indicated a strong correlation (r = 0.558, P < 0.001).

For the functional and situational sequelae levels, the overall validity was confirmed by analysis of the factorial validity. Internal consistency was verified using Cronbach's alpha, resulting in a good correlation of scale items ($\alpha = 0.611$ for the functional scale and $\alpha = 0.567$, for the situational scale). The correlations of item at each level for each factor and between factors were also studied, since the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined to be good rather than great. The results obtained did correspond to the Briggs and Cheek recommendations,^[37] which indicate that the optimal correlation value should be between 0.2 and 0.4.

Convergent validity was confirmed with a high Spearman's rho between the scores at the functional and situational levels and orofacial disability (r = 0.660, P < 0.001 and r = 0.534, P < 0.001).

Discriminant validity was also confirmed with the U or Mann-Whitney test, which demonstrated a good differentiation in extreme groups (P < 0.009).

The final orohanditest consisted of 42 items [Table 2], with each graded from 0 to 4, resulting in an orohanditest final score that varied from 0 to 168. Since the scores of the Tables of Permanent Disability used to assess physical damage in Europe vary between 0 and 100, an orohandistest final grade can be transformed using this formula:

$$\frac{\text{Orohanditest final grade} \times 100}{168}$$

Finally, orofacial damage severity can be easily comprehended using the orofacial damage coefficient. As in the procedure adopted by Magalhães,^[35] a 0-5 final grade was created to represent the severity of the orofacial damage suffered. Therefore, the body sequelae scale score is represented by the highest item score obtained. Functional and situational sequelae scores were calculated by adding the scores of each item and dividing by the total scale item number (10 for the functional scale and 24 for the situational scale). Then, all final scores were added and divided by three, resulting in a number that represents the orofacial damage coefficient.

DISCUSSION

Orofacial damage can be defined as the consequence of orofacial injuries. Traditionally, these consequences have been strictly evaluated based on organic components. In fact, though many classifications have been proposed for assess dental traumatic injuries,^[1,39-41] most of them focus on classifying traumatic dental injuries on the basis of etiology, anatomy, pathology, therapeutic considerations and degree of severity. For instances, the first classification, we have found dates from 1936 and was proposed by Brauer (Loomba *et al.*^[1]) and classified only anterior tooth fractures. Ellis, in 1961,^[40] proposed a classification

Table 2: Final orohanditest

Body sequelae level	Prior	After
	0 1 2 3 4	0 1 2 3 4
Teeth and periodontal tissues	1	2
Oral mucosa	3	4
Lips	5	6
Tongue	7	8
Soft orofacial tissues	9	10
Facial bones	11	12
Mandible	13	14
Temporomandibular joint	15	16
Functional sequelae level		
Chewing	19	20
Swallowing	21	22
Analyzing mouth content	27	28
Sense of taste	29	30
Perception of stimuli	31	32
Maintaining oral content inside mouth	33	34
Articulating words	35	36
Performing facial mimic	37	38
Gripping with teeth	39	40
Gripping with lips	41	42
Situational sequelae level		
Eating	47	48
Drinking	49	50
Retaining a prosthetic device	51	52
Performing oral hygiene	53	54
Undergoing implant placement	57	58
Biting (self-defense)	59	60
Biting nails	61	62
Chewing gum	63	64
Licking ice cream	65	66
Speaking	67	68
Whistling	69	70
Smoking	71	72
Having a meal in public	81	82
Making a speech	83	84
Smiling and laughing	85	86
Singing	89	90
Playing a musical instrument	91	92
Relating socially	93	94
Relating with family	95	96
Relating with husband/ wife/companion	97	98
Kissing	99	100
Having sexual and love life	101	102
Eating in workplace/school	103	104
Relating in workplace/school	105	106

in six groups: Enamel fracture, dentin fracture, crown fracture with pulp exposure, root fracture, tooth luxation and tooth intrusion. This classification, still used nowadays,^[42] only addresses the body injury. The García-Godoy classification^[43] dates from 1981, but it still is widely used^[44,45] and is a classification

that again, is based in the organic component of the injury. The same happens with the Berman *et al.*^[39] classification, that divides tooth injuries in three groups: Crown fractures, root fractures and luxation injuries. Another classification is proposed by Loomba et al.,^[1] and they also underline the organic component, proposing a tooth fracture classification based on the treatment needed. Heithersay and Moule^[41] gave a classification of subgingival fractures in relation with various horizontal planes of the periodontum and thus, referring mainly to the body injury. The most known and probably most used classification is the one proposed by Andreasen,^[46] who modified the previous world health organization classification.^[47] A study on dental trauma classifications showed that among the 54 distinct classification systems identified Andreasen classification was selected in 32% of the papers studied.^[42] Guvonnet and Soulet^[48] underlined the necessity of orofacial damage assessment, but only indicated that a detailed organic sequelae examination was required. Muller et al.,^[49] Christophersen et al.,^[50] and Parguel et al.[51] have all have studied body orofacial sequelae in children, but none of the resulting studies refer to potential non-physical outcomes, specifically the effects on social consequences or ability to learn. Garbin et al.[14] studied the types of traumatic dental injuries in situations of domestic violence, not referring the potential functional and social impairment that these injuries can cause. Similarly, many epidemiological studies^[2,20,23-25,52-59] reduce orofacial sequelae to the associated organic component. Other authors present classifications that focus on the injury treatment^[46,60,61] or in the association between dental injuries and global injury severity.[61]

However, orofacial damage has several dimensions in regards to the body, functional and situational impact, which has been acknowledged by several authors. For instance, Porrit et al.[62] investigated a variety of clinical and demographic factors that may influence the quality of life impacts experienced by children after a dental injury and stated that functional limitations and school-related activities impairment could happen following dental injury. Fanghänel and Gedrange^[63] addressed some orofacial functions, describing a dimension beyond organic characterization. Eriksen and Dimitrov^[64] described orofacial functions, such as chewing and breathing and have also approached the social dimension of orofacial damage dimension. For instance, the consequences of orofacial damage could result

in a person that does not eat in restaurants due to teeth-related problems. Chan *et al.*^[65] recognized that orofacial trauma can have social and economic impacts with regard to the treatment required.

However, none of these previously published studies are clinical or epidemiological investigations, which refer to orofacial damage in a non-forensic perspective. In fact, only a few references could be obtained that include a forensic context for the three orofacial damage dimensions in Système d'Identification et de mesure des handicaps,^[66] which further justifies the need for further investigations in this area. With orohanditest, orofacial sequelae are assessed in a three-dimension way, reflecting the true impact they have in the victim's life.

In this study, orofacial injuries due to road accidents were chosen for analysis due to the importance of this etiologic factor in orofacial trauma. In fact, several other studies report that road accidents,^[9,58,59,67] together with the interpersonal violence^[16,17] are the main etiologic factors for orofacial trauma. Both causes were previously studied by our group in Portugal,^[34,68] and we found that these etiologic factors have a similar rate of incidence (15.8% and 11.6%, respectively). However, road accident injuries produced more severe orofacial sequelae.

Regarding the population studied, victims that were less than 14-year-old were excluded due to the specificity of orofacial sequelae at younger ages. Specifically, the coexistence of two dentitions and the natural growth process occurs at these ages.

Furthermore, some items were excluded regarding more severe sequelae, such as breathing or vomiting. The presence of such rare sequelae justifies another medical-legal approach, one that is outside the scope of orohanditest. In fact, this assessment should be made through a more detailed and meticulous description as for severe handicaps.

The orohanditest can be safely used, since this method has already been validated. In fact, Brace *et al.*^[69] stated that the most important considerations in such assessments are external and internal construct validity, even without definitive markers of validation. The orohanditest obtained appropriate results in both cases, which accounts for the safe utilization of this metric in orofacial damage assessment.

The orohanditest has been compiled to respond to the increasing demand for forensic evaluation and to meet

the primary goal of physical damage assessment to provide the victim with the means to obtain a situation that is similar to conditions prior to injuries. The orohanditest is comprised of several items that are divided into three scales, which prevents the reduction of orofacial damage to the body component alone, allowing for a global and personalized evaluation of all damages suffered. However, the orohanditest was not developed to be utilized as a single methodology, but as an additional tool in the whole physical damage assessment process that is based on detailed descriptions of all sequelae. The orohanditest can be utilized during an examination to enhance damage description and promote a more reliable, precise and complete orofacial damage assessment process.

In addition, the orohanditest can also be useful in orofacial damage quantification. Most Tables of Permanent Disability currently in use focus on the orofacial damage body component; however, the orohanditest considers all three levels and the final score can be converted to a value in the range of 0-100, which contributes to methodology harmonization and enables easy interpretation of data.

Our goal is to better assess orofacial trauma victims. The orohanditest is a useful tool for this purpose that provides:

- a. A personalized, uniform, sequential and detailed description of orofacial sequelae.
- b. A three-dimensional orofacial damage assessment, resulting in a global and personalized orofacial damage description.
- c. Utilization of simple and ordinal five-point severity scales with few categories, which allows for easier usage with clear distinctions for objective quantification.

The current methodology was also validated due to the inclusion of the following:

- a. Intra- and inter-examination reliability.
- b. Construct validity (factorial validity and internal consistency).
- c. External validity (convergent validity and discriminant validity).

REFERENCES

- Loomba K, Loomba A, Bains R, Bains VK. A proposal for classification of tooth fractures based on treatment need. J Oral Sci 2010;52:517-29.
- 2. Gassner R, Bösch R, Tuli T, Emshoff R. Prevalence of dental trauma in 6000 patients with facial injuries: Implications for

prevention. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod 1999;87:27-33.

- Rajab LD. Traumatic dental injuries in children presenting for treatment at the Department of Pediatric Dentistry, Faculty of Dentistry, University of Jordan, 1997-2000. Dent Traumatol 2003;19:6-11.
- Tapias MA, Jiménez-García R, Lamas F, Gil AA. Prevalence of traumatic crown fractures to permanent incisors in a childhood population: Móstoles, Spain. Dent Traumatol 2003;19:119-22.
- Nicolau B, Marcenes W, Sheiham A. Prevalence, causes and correlates of traumatic dental injuries among 13-year-olds in Brazil. Dent Traumatol 2001;17:213-7.
- Gábris K, Tarján I, Rózsa N. Dental trauma in children presenting for treatment at the Department of Dentistry for Children and Orthodontics, Budapest, 1985-1999. Dent Traumatol 2001;17:103-8.
- Traebert J, Peres MA, Blank V, Böell Rda S, Pietruza JA. Prevalence of traumatic dental injury and associated factors among 12-year-old school children in Florianópolis, Brazil. Dent Traumatol 2003;19:15-8.
- Caldas AF Jr, Burgos ME. A retrospective study of traumatic dental injuries in a Brazilian dental trauma clinic. Dent Traumatol 2001;17:250-3.
- Al-Khateeb T, Abdullah FM. Craniomaxillofacial injuries in the United Arab Emirates: A retrospective study. J Oral Maxillofac Surg 2007;65:1094-101.
- Goldschmidt MJ, Castiglione CL, Assael LA, Litt MD. Craniomaxillofacial trauma in the elderly. J Oral Maxillofac Surg 1995;53:1145-9.
- Khalil AF, Shaladi OA. Fractures of the facial bones in the eastern region of Libya. Br J Oral Surg 1981;19:300-4.
- Tanaka N, Tomitsuka K, Shionoya K, Andou H, Kimijima Y, Tashiro T, *et al.* Aetiology of maxillofacial fracture. Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg 1994;32:19-23.
- van Beek GJ, Merkx CA. Changes in the pattern of fractures of the maxillofacial skeleton. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg 1999;28:424-8.
- Garbin CA, Guimarães e Queiroz AP, Rovida TA, Garbin AJ. Occurrence of traumatic dental injury in cases of domestic violence. Braz Dent J 2012;23:72-6.
- Caldas IM, Grams AC, Afonso A, Magalhães T. Oral injuries in victims involving intimate partner violence. Forensic Sci Int 2012;221:102-5.
- Bakardjiev A, Pechalova P. Maxillofacial fractures in Southern Bulgaria-a retrospective study of 1706 cases. J Craniomaxillofac Surg 2007;35:147-50.
- Lee KH, Snape L, Steenberg LJ, Worthington J. Comparison between interpersonal violence and motor vehicle accidents in the aetiology of maxillofacial fractures. ANZ J Surg 2007;77:695-8.
- Levin L, Lin S, Emodi O, Gordon M, Peled M. Dento-alveolar and maxillofacial injuries — A survey of knowledge of the regimental aid providers in the Israeli army. Dent Traumatol 2007;23:243-6.
- Malara P, Malara B, Drugacz J. Characteristics of maxillofacial injuries resulting from road traffic accidents – A 5 year review of the case records from Department of Maxillofacial Surgery in Katowice, Poland. Head Face Med 2006;2:27.

- 20. Adeyemo WL, Fajolu IB, Temiye EO, Adeyemi MO, Adepoju AA. Orofacial and dental injuries associated with seizures in paediatric patients in Lagos University Teaching Hospital. Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol 2011;75:670-2.
- Canakci V, Akgül HM, Akgül N, Canakci CF. Prevalence and handedness correlates of traumatic injuries to the permanent incisors in 13-17-year-old adolescents in Erzurum, Turkey. Dent Traumatol 2003;19:248-54.
- 22. Gassner R, Tuli T, Hächl O, Moreira R, Ulmer H. Craniomaxillofacial trauma in children: A review of 3,385 cases with 6,060 injuries in 10 years. J Oral Maxillofac Surg 2004;62:399-407.
- Gassner R, Ulmer H, Tuli T, Emshoff R. Incidence of oral and maxillofacial skiing injuries due to different injury mechanisms. J Oral Maxillofac Surg 1999;57:1068-73.
- Frontera RR, Zanin L, Ambrosano GM, Flório FM. Orofacial trauma in Brazilian basketball players and level of information concerning trauma and mouthguards. Dent Traumatol 2011;27:208-16.
- Caglar E, Kuscu OO, Calişkan S, Sandalli N. Orofacial and dental injuries of snowboarders in Turkey. Dent Traumatol 2010;26:164-7.
- Eggensperger NM, Danz J, Heinz Z, Iizuka T. Occupational maxillofacial fractures: A 3-year survey in central Switzerland. J Oral Maxillofac Surg 2006;64:270-6.
- Hächl O, Tuli T, Schwabegger A, Gassner R. Maxillofacial trauma due to work-related accidents. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg 2002;31:90-3.
- Ugboko VI, Olasoji HO, Ajike SO, Amole AO, Ogundipe OT. Facial injuries caused by animals in northern Nigeria. Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg 2002;40:433-7.
- 29. Ackerman Z, Eliakim R. Dental injury during upper gastrointestinal endoscopy. J Clin Gastroenterol 1996;23:72.
- Anastasio D, Giraud E. [Dental injuries during general anesthesia]. Clinic 2003;24:75.
- Caucanas D, Penneau M, Van Roomen J, Rogier A. [Dental damage during anesthesia]. Rev Franç Dommage Corp 1990;16:305-18.
- Croglio DP, Thines TJ, Fleischer MS, Anders PL. Self-inflicted oral trauma: Report of case. Spec Care Dentist 1990;10:58-61.
- Locker D. Self-reported dental and oral injuries in a population of adults aged 18-50 years. Dent Traumatol 2007;23:291-6.
- Caldas IM, Magalhães T, Afonso A, Matos E. Orofacial damage resulting from road accidents. Dent Traumatol 2008;24:410-5.
- Magalhães T. (Three-dimensional study of the bodily damage: Injury, Function and Situation]. Coimbra: Editora Almedina; 1998.
- Pallant J. SPSS: Survival Manual. Berkshire: Open University Press; 2005.
- Briggs SR, Cheek JM. The role of factor analysis in the development and evaluation of personality scales. J Pers 1986;54:106-48.
- Jourdain P, Chodkiewicz JP, Papelard A, Fournier C. [Indicative Scale of disability evaluation in Common Law: The Concours Médical]. Paris: Le Concours Médical; 2002.
- 39. Berman LH, Blanco L, Cohen S. A Clinical Guide to Dental Traumatology. St. Louis: Elsevier; 2007.

- 40. Ellis RG. The Classification and Treatment of Injuries to the Teeth of Children. 4th ed. Chicago: Year Book Publisher; 1961. p. 1-229.
- 41. Heithersay GS, Moule AJ. Anterior subgingival fractures: A review of treatment alternatives. Aust Dent J 1982;27:368-76.
- Feliciano KM, de França Caldas A Jr. A systematic review of the diagnostic classifications of traumatic dental injuries. Dent Traumatol 2006;22:71-6.
- 43. García-Godoy F. A classification for traumatic injuries to primary and permanent teeth. J Pedod 1981;5:295-7.
- 44. Garcia-Godoy F, Murray PE. Recommendations for using regenerative endodontic procedures in permanent immature traumatized teeth. Dent Traumatol 2012;28:33-41.
- Bakland LK, Andreasen JO. Dental traumatology: Essential diagnosis and treatment planning. Endod Top 2004;7:14-34.
- Andreasen JO. Traumatic Injuries of the Teeth. 2nd ed. Copenhagen: Munksgaard; 1981. p. 19-24.
- Organization WH. Application of the International Classification of Diseases to Dentistry and Stomatology, ICD-DA. 2nd ed. Geneve: WHO; 1978.
- 48. Guyonnet JJ, Soulet H. [The medical legal damage assessment in dentistry]. Rev Franç Dommage Corp 1993;19:5-12.
- Muller M, Quadrehomme G, Bolla M, Jasmim JR, Ollier A. [The dento-alveolar trauma in primary dentition. Evaluation in Common Law]. Rev Franç Dommage Corp 1996;22:41-57.
- Christophersen P, Freund M, Harild L. Avulsion of primary teeth and sequelae on the permanent successors. Dent Traumatol 2005;21:320-3.
- Parguel P, Goldsmith MC, Geider EP. [Dental trauma in children and adolescents]. Rev Franç Dommage Corp 1994;3:243-50.
- 52. Guedes OA, de Alencar AH, Lopes LG, Pécora JD, Estrela C. A retrospective study of traumatic dental injuries in a Brazilian dental urgency service. Braz Dent J 2010;21:153-7.
- 53. Moule AJ, Moule CA. Minor traumatic injuries to the permanent dentition. Dent Clin North Am 2009;53:639-59, v.
- 54. Altun C, Ozen B, Esenlik E, Guven G, Gürbüz T, Acikel C, *et al.* Traumatic injuries to permanent teeth in Turkish children, Ankara. Dent Traumatol 2009;25:309-13.
- Noori AJ, Al-Obaidi WA. Traumatic dental injuries among primary school children in Sulaimani city, Iraq. Dent Traumatol 2009;25:442-6.
- Hohlrieder M, Hinterhoelzl J, Ulmer H, Lang C, Hackl W, Kampfl A, *et al.* Traumatic intracranial hemorrhages in facial fracture patients: Review of 2,195 patients. Intensive Care Med

2003;29:1095-100.

- Iida S, Kogo M, Sugiura T, Mima T, Matsuya T. Retrospective analysis of 1502 patients with facial fractures. Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg 2001;30:286-90.
- 58. Batista AM, Marques LS, Batista AE, Falci SG, Ramos-Jorge ML. Urban-rural differences in oral and maxillofacial trauma. Braz Oral Res 2012;26:132-8.
- Epstein JB, Klasser GD, Kolbinson DA, Mehta SA, Johnson BR. Orofacial injuries due to trauma following motor vehicle collisions: Part 1. Traumatic dental injuries. J Can Dent Assoc 2010;76:a171.
- 60. Seo DG, Yi YA, Shin SJ, Park JW. Analysis of factors associated with cracked teeth. J Endod 2012;38:288-92.
- Veire A, Nichols W, Urquiola R, Oueis H. Dental trauma: Review of common dental injuries and their management in primary and permanent dentitions. J Mich Dent Assoc 2012;94:41-5.
- Porritt JM, Rodd HD, Ruth Baker S. Quality of life impacts following childhood dento-alveolar trauma. Dent Traumatol 2011;27:2-9.
- Fanghänel J, Gedrange T. On the development, morphology and function of the temporomandibular joint in the light of the orofacial system. Ann Anat 2007;189:314-9.
- Eriksen HM, Dimitrov V. The human mouth: Oral functions in a social complexity perspective. Acta Odontol Scand 2003;61:172-7.
- Chan YM, Williams S, Davidson LE, Drummond BK. Orofacial and dental trauma of young children in Dunedin, New Zealand. Dent Traumatol 2011;27:199-202.
- Hamonet C, Magalhães T. [Measurement and identification system for handicaps]. Paris: Eska; 2001.
- Ansari MH. Maxillofacial fractures in Hamedan province, Iran: A retrospective study (1987-2001). J Craniomaxillofac Surg 2004;32:28-34.
- Caldas IM, Magalhães T, Afonso A, Matos E. The consequences of orofacial trauma resulting from violence: A study in Porto. Dent Traumatol 2010;26:484-9.
- Brace N, Kemp R, Snelgar R. SPSS for Psychologistes. Hampshire: Palgrave MacMillan; 2006.

How to cite this article: Caldas IM, Magalhães T, Matos E, Afonso A. Orohanditest: A new method for orofacial damage assessment. Dent Res J 2013;10:752-9.

Source of Support: Nil. Conflict of Interest: None declared.