

Loma Linda University
**TheScholarsRepository@LLU: Digital Archive of Research,
Scholarship & Creative Works**

Loma Linda University Electronic Theses, Dissertations & Projects

6-2017

A Retrospective Lateral Cephalometric Growth Study of Sagittal Airway Changes

Grace H. Woo

Follow this and additional works at: <http://scholarsrepository.llu.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Orthodontics and Orthodontology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Woo, Grace H., "A Retrospective Lateral Cephalometric Growth Study of Sagittal Airway Changes" (2017). *Loma Linda University Electronic Theses, Dissertations & Projects*. 359.
<http://scholarsrepository.llu.edu/etd/359>

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by TheScholarsRepository@LLU: Digital Archive of Research, Scholarship & Creative Works. It has been accepted for inclusion in Loma Linda University Electronic Theses, Dissertations & Projects by an authorized administrator of TheScholarsRepository@LLU: Digital Archive of Research, Scholarship & Creative Works. For more information, please contact scholarsrepository@llu.edu.

LOMA LINDA UNIVERSITY
School of Dentistry
in conjunction with the
Faculty of Graduate Studies

A Retrospective Lateral Cephalometric Growth Study of Sagittal Airway Changes

by

Grace H. Woo

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of
the requirements for the degree
Master of Science in Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopedics

June 2017

© 2017

Grace Hong Woo
All Rights Reserved

Each person whose signature appears below certifies that this thesis in his opinion is adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree Master of Science.

_____, Chairperson
James Farrage, Associate Professor of Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopedics

V. Leroy Leggitt, Professor of Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopedics

Gregory W. Olson, Associate Professor of Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopedics

R. David Rynearson, Associate Professor of Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopedics

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to Drs. Farrage, Olson, Rynearson, and Leggitt for their constant encouragement. They have challenged me to think and to question, and I have been blessed to be the recipient of their sincere generosity and care.

Thank you to the American Association of Orthodontists Foundation (AAOF) and the growth-study centers for creating this enriching database; to Dr. David Covell and Sean Curry from the AAOF, Kye Biedebach from Quick Ceph Studios, and Seth Myhre for helping me with the initial stages of this project; and to Udo Oyoyo, my statistician, for making numbers fun.

Thank you to my parents for standing by me the entire journey; to my husband, Ryan, for loving me even during the crazy times; and to Jesus for being my constant source of joy.

CONTENT

Approval Page.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
List of Figures.....	vii
List of Tables.....	viii
List of Abbreviations.....	ix
Abstract.....	x
Chapter	
1. Review of the Literature.....	1
2. A Retrospective Lateral Cephalometric Growth Study of Sagittal Airway Changes.....	4
Abstract.....	4
Introduction.....	5
Materials and Methods.....	7
Patient Selection.....	7
Image Acquisition and Data Collection.....	8
Statistical Analysis.....	12
Results.....	13
Discussion.....	21
Effect of Location on Sagittal Airway Dimension.....	21
Gender and Sagittal Airway Dimension.....	21
Age and Sagittal Airway Dimension.....	22
Significance of Mean Changes.....	23
Clinical Significance.....	23
Conclusions.....	25
References.....	26
3. Extended Discussion.....	28
Limitations of Study and Recommendations for Future Studies.....	28

References.....30

Appendices

A. Digital Tracing of Landmarks on Subject 121-1 at 12-years-old34

B. Sagittal Airway Dimension and Facial Type Measurements on Subject
121-135

C. Estimated Marginal Means and 95% Confidence Intervals of Sagittal
Airway Dimensions on Planes 1-5.....36

D. TFH Change Between Ages 7 and 16 years-old.....39

FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Landmarks and the 5 Sagittal Airway Dimension Measurements Along 5 Planes	11
2. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 1	18
3. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 2	18
4. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 3	19
5. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 4	19
6. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 5	20

TABLES

Table	Page
1. Demographic Subjects Derived from the Various Longitudinal Growth Studies.....	8
2. Cephalometric Landmarks	10
3. Sagittal Airway Dimension Measurements Along Five Planes	10
4. Intra-class coefficient	13
5. Post-Hoc Tamhane Test showing Differences in Measurements Based on Location	14
6. ANCOVA Showing Difference Between Males and Females.	15
7. ANCOVA Showing Change in Sagittal Airway Dimension with Increasing Age in Females.....	16
8. ANCOVA Showing Change in Sagittal Airway Dimension with Increasing Age in Males.	17

ABBREVIATIONS

SDB	Sleep-Disordered Breathing
OSA	Obstructive Sleep Apnea
UAR	Upper Airway Resistance
ADHD	Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder
CBCT	Cone Beam Computed Tomography
MRI	Magnetic Resonance Imaging
AAOF	American Association of Orthodontists Foundation
Po	Porion
Or	Orbitale
ANS	Anterior Nasal Spine
A-pt	Point A
Maxillary incisor tip	U1
B-pt	Point B
Pogonion	Pog
1A-1B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical through ANS
2A-2B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical through A-pt
3A-3B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical through U1
4A-4B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical through B-pt
5A-5B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical through Pog

ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

A Retrospective Lateral Cephalometric Growth Study of Sagittal Airway Changes by

Grace H. Woo

Master of Science in Orthodontics and Dentofacial Orthopedics
Loma Linda University, June 2017
Dr. James Farrage, Chairperson

Purpose: This study retrospectively examined the average sagittal dimensions in the pharyngeal airway from skeletal and dental Class I males and females from 7 to 16 years of age utilizing longitudinal data from the American Association of Orthodontists Foundation Craniofacial Growth Legacy Collection. The study evaluated whether average sagittal airway dimensions differed between males and females at each age, and whether the sagittal airway dimension changed with increasing age.

Materials and Methods: Sagittal airway dimension based on identifiable anatomical landmarks were digitally traced and measured from the longitudinal lateral cephalograms of 30 females and 32 males from the AAOF Growth Legacy Collection from ages 7 to 16. The distance from the anterior to posterior 2-D limit of the airway along a line perpendicular to Frankfort Horizontal and passing through the anterior nasal spine (ANS) (Measurement 1A-1B), through A-point (Measurement 2A-2B), through upper incisor tip (Measurement 3A-3B), through B-point (Measurement 4A-4B), and through Pogonion (Pog) (Measurement 5A-5B) was measured.

Results: ANCOVA showed that males had a statistically significant greater 3A-3B length than females at age 13 ($P = 0.02$), 15 ($P = 0.01$), and 16 ($P = 0.04$). In males, there

was a statistically significant increase in 2A-2B length ($P = 0.04$) and 5A-5B length ($P = 0.03$) between ages 7 and 16. No other comparisons were statistically significant.

Conclusions: No statistically significant difference was found in sagittal airway dimension between males and females. No statistically significant difference was found in change in sagittal airway dimension with increasing age. We were unable to establish normative values.

CHAPTER ONE

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The upper airway consists of the pharynx and nasal cavities. The pharynx is a muscular tube acting as a passageway for food and air. It is bounded anteriorly by the oral cavity and the nasal cavity; posteriorly by the pharyngeal constrictors; superiorly by the soft palate and parts of the cranial base; and inferiorly by the posterior tongue.¹ The pharynx can be divided into three parts: the nasopharynx, oropharynx, and laryngopharynx, which join the nasal cavity, oral cavity, and larynx, respectively, to the pharynx.¹

It is believed that the pharyngeal morphological changes are related to dentofacial growth, development, and form.^{2,3} According to Ceylan et al., Balters' philosophy suggests that a posteriorly-positioned tongue obstructing the upper region of the airway is the cause of Class II malocclusions, leading to mouth-breathing and impaired swallowing, while a more anteriorly-positioned tongue and over-development of the upper region of the airway cause Class III malocclusions.³ Despite some uncertainties regarding the exact relationship between mouth breathing, pharyngeal airway space, and the development of malocclusions,^{4,5} a number of studies suggest that a hyperdivergent facial growth pattern is associated with a pharyngeal airway impairment and mouth breathing.⁶⁻⁹

Upper airway dimension is also clinically relevant due to its relationship with sleep-disordered breathing (SDB).¹⁰ Among the clinical signs of SDB are snoring, upper airway resistance (UAR), and obstructive sleep apnea (OSA). Many of these clinical signs are often the result of anatomic constrictions, neuromuscular problems, craniofacial

morphology, or a combination of these factors.¹¹ Untreated OSA in adults was associated with cardiovascular disease and hypertension.¹² Studies suggest that untreated SDB in children is associated with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD), snoring, daytime sleepiness, and a relatively lower academic performance.^{2,13,14}

A common cause of anatomic constrictions of the airway is adenotonsillar hypertrophy, especially in children and adolescents with SDB.¹⁵ Since the majority of orthodontic patients are children and adolescents, orthodontists are in a primary position to screen patients for adenotonsillar hypertrophy and refer to an otolaryngologist as needed. Comprehensive orthodontic care includes growth modification to improve not only esthetics but also function.¹⁶

Additional research has suggested several treatment modalities such as extractions,^{17,18} headgear,^{19,20} and Class 2 functional appliances²¹ can also affect upper airway dimension. However, little evidence currently exists suggesting a definitive relationship between various treatments and airway dimension.²²

With the advent of CBCT imaging, the question of the usefulness and accuracy of 2-D cephalometrics in comparison to 3-D CBCT imaging has been raised. CBCT allows the clinician to visualize and analyze structures in different dimensions, while the conventional lateral cephalogram allows measurements limited to the sagittal view.

While several methods including nasal endoscopy, conventional 2-dimensional (2-D) lateral cephalograms, rhinomanometry, 3-dimensional (3-D) cone beam computed tomography (CBCT), and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), can be used to identify adenotonsillar hypertrophy, the conventional 2-dimensional lateral cephalogram is believed by some authors to be the most cost-effective, reproducible, and clear method to

determine adenotonsillar size.²³⁻²⁵ Lateral cephalograms have been found to be a valid and reliable initial screening tool for constricted airways. Conventional 2-D lateral cephalograms have been proven to be a reliable tool for determining decreased pharyngeal dimensions in OSA patients²⁶ and in the oropharynx.^{27,28} Vizzotto et al.²⁹ found that measurements made in the nasopharynx and oropharynx in a 2-D cephalogram correlated positively with the 2-D lateral cephalogram constructed from the CBCT. Thus, while measurements made on a 2-D conventional lateral cephalogram of upper airway assessment are limited given that it represents a 2-D image of a 3-D structure, the conventional lateral cephalogram is a reliable initial tool that can orthodontists can routinely use to assess sagittal airway dimension,³⁰ after which the orthodontist can determine whether the patient requires more rigorous follow-up.³¹

CHAPTER TWO

**A RETROSPECTIVE LATERAL CEPHALOMETRIC GROWTH STUDY OF
SAGITTAL AIRWAY CHANGES**

Abstract

Purpose: This study retrospectively examined the average sagittal dimensions in the pharyngeal airway from skeletal and dental Class I males and females from 7 to 16 years of age utilizing longitudinal data from the American Association of Orthodontists Foundation Craniofacial Growth Legacy Collection. The study evaluated whether average sagittal airway dimensions differed between males and females at each age, and whether the sagittal airway dimension changed with increasing age.

Materials and Methods: Sagittal airway dimension based on identifiable anatomical landmarks were digitally traced and measured from the longitudinal lateral cephalograms of 30 females and 32 males from the AAOF Growth Legacy Collection from ages 7 to 16. The distance from the anterior to posterior 2-D limit of the airway along a line perpendicular to Frankfort Horizontal and passing through the anterior nasal spine (ANS) (Plane 1A-1B), through A-point (Plane 2A-2B), through upper incisor tip (Plane 3A-3B), through B-point (Plane 4A-4B), and through Pogonion (Pog) (Plane 5A-5B) was measured.

Results: ANCOVA showed that males had a statistically significant greater 3A-3B length than females at age 13 ($P = 0.02$), 15 ($P = 0.01$), and 16 ($P = 0.04$). In males, there was a statistically significant increase in 2A-2B length ($P = 0.04$) and 5A-5B length ($P = 0.03$) between ages 7 and 16. No other comparisons were statistically significant.

Conclusions: No statistically significant difference was found in sagittal airway dimension between males and females. No statistically significant difference was found in change in sagittal airway dimension with increasing age. We were unable to establish normative values.

Introduction

Determining average values for sagittal upper airway dimension in adolescents is critical for recognizing deviations from normative values, which may aid in the early diagnoses of constricted airways. Early diagnosis and treatment of constricted airways may help promote normal facial development.¹ In addition, as patients age, they may become more predisposed to constricted airways due to weight gain and other factors associated with aging; thus, early diagnosis and treatment in pre-adolescence or adolescence may help minimize airway constriction in adulthood.^{2,3}

Several non-longitudinal studies have determined average sagittal upper airway dimensions for adolescents in different populations, including Turkey, Switzerland, and Brazil.^{3,4 5} However, this study was longitudinal and thus controlled for confounding variables caused by inter-subject variability.

In addition, literature on average sagittal dimensions for the pharyngeal airway is lacking.³ There is a scarcity of studies regarding the development of the sagittal airway dimension in children and sagittal airway dimension in relation to age and gender.³

The American Association of Orthodontists Foundation (AAOF) Craniofacial Growth Legacy Collection provides a database for lateral cephalograms from several locations around the United States of America. The Case Western Bolton-Brush,

University of Oklahoma Denver, Michigan, and Oregon Growth Study populations were utilized for this study. Past cross-sectional studies have analyzed the sagittal airway dimensions of different subjects in different age groups. However, the populations in each AAOF Growth Study consisted of serial cephalometric radiographs taken for each patient, with the majority having taken radiographs either annually or bi-annually, during active growth periods between the 1930s to 1970s.⁶

This population provided standardized data, allowing the measurement of the sagittal upper airway dimensions every year from 7-16 years-old. The aims of this retrospective longitudinal study were 1) to provide average values for sagittal upper airway dimensions and 2) to determine the presence of any growth trends in sagittal upper airway dimensions between 7 and 16 years-old. No studies have been published on sagittal upper airway dimensions for subjects with lateral cephalograms taken yearly or bi-annually during growth between 7-16 years of age.

Null hypotheses: 1) No statistically significant difference exists in sagittal upper airway dimension (nasopharynx and oropharynx) between males and females in each age group between 7 to 16 years old, and 2) No statistically significant change exists in sagittal upper airway dimension (nasopharynx and oropharynx) with increasing age.

Material and Methods

Patient Selection

The online AAOF Craniofacial Growth Legacy Collection for the Bolton-Brush, Denver, Michigan, and Oregon Growth Study populations were queried for male and female dental Angle Class I patients that had readable lateral cephalograms. Exclusion criteria were:

- Missing more than one cephalogram in the series between 7 and 16-years-old inclusive
- Missing one cephalogram at either 7 or 16-years-old
- Not being Angle Class I dental relationship
- Fixed appliances at any point along the longitudinal series
- Not being skeletal Class 1 relationship (ANB less than 1° or greater than 5°) at age 7
- First molars not occluding either due to delay of eruption or open bite at age 7 or 16
- Cephalogram with poor resolution after digitally adjusting the image at age 7 or 16
- Cephalogram with landmarks cut off at age 7 or 16

The study included the subject if he or she had at most one cephalogram that had poor resolution, an indistinguishable landmark, was not in occlusion, or was missing a cephalogram that was not taken at age 7 or 16. 32 male and 30 female patients were included in this study, resulting in exactly 620 cephalograms as some subjects had at

most one cephalogram missing in the series. Table 1 shows the number of males and females that were included for the study from each location.

All subjects were orthodontically untreated Caucasians, and cephalograms were taken no more than 6 months before or after their birthdays.^{7,8} When more than one cephalogram was taken within 6 months of the patient’s birthday, the cephalogram taken closest to the birthday was used.

Table 1. Demographics of Subjects Derived from the Various Longitudinal Growth Studies

	M	F	Total
Bolton-Brush	3	6	9
Denver	9	6	15
Michigan	13	4	17
Oregon	7	14	21
Total	32	30	62

Image Acquisition and Data Collection

Quick Ceph Studio® (Version 3.9.1; Quick Ceph Systems, Inc, San Diego, Calif) was used to digitally trace all landmarks and make measurements. Before tracing, each image was scaled in Quick Ceph Studio® based on the instructions given by the AAOF. The brightness, contrast, and gamma of each image were digitally manipulated to increase the clarity of a given landmark.

A vertical line perpendicular to Frankfort Horizontal (line from mechanical Porion to Orbitale) through Orbitale was drawn, called Orbitale Vertical. The mid-point of the ear-rod was established as the mechanical Porion in order to eliminate a potential

error caused by different-sized ear-rods based on location and by an inability to distinguish between the right vs. left Porion.

The nasopharynx is bounded superiorly by the mucosa overlying the posterior part of the body of the sphenoid and the basilar part of the occipital bone posteriorly to the pharyngeal tubercle.⁹ The floor of the nasopharynx consists of the nasal upper surface of the soft palate.⁹ The oropharynx is bounded superiorly by soft palate and inferiorly by the upper border of the epiglottis.⁹

Five horizontal lines perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical were digitally traced through each of the following five landmarks: ANS, A-pt, U1, B-pt, and Pog (Table 2). The cephalometric analysis of the Arnett-Gunson FAB surgery was applied, with the addition of ANS. The sagittal dimension of the airway was measured along the five horizontal lines from the most anterior to the most posterior limit of the airway (Table 3). In addition, Total Face Height (TFH), Facial Axis (FA), and Mandibular Plane Angle (MPA) were measured for each cephalogram.

Table 2. Cephalometric Landmarks

Landmarks for Orientation	Abbreviation	Definition
Mechanical Porion	Po	The center of the ear-rod
Orbitale	Or	The most inferior point on the margin of the orbit
Landmarks for Measurement		
Anterior Nasal Spine	ANS	The anterior limit of the anterior nasal spine
Point A	A-pt	The most concave point of the anterior maxilla
Maxillary incisor tip	U1	The incisal tip of the most prominent maxillary incisor
Point B	B-pt	The most concave point on the mandibular symphysis
Pogonion	Pog	The most anterior point of the mandibular symphysis

Table 3. Sagittal Airway Dimension Measurements Along Five Planes

Plane	Definition
1A-1B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical and through ANS
2A-2B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical and through A-pt
3A-3B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical and through U1
4A-4B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical and through B-pt
5A-5B	Distance from most anterior to posterior limit of airway, along line perpendicular to Orbitale Vertical and through Pog

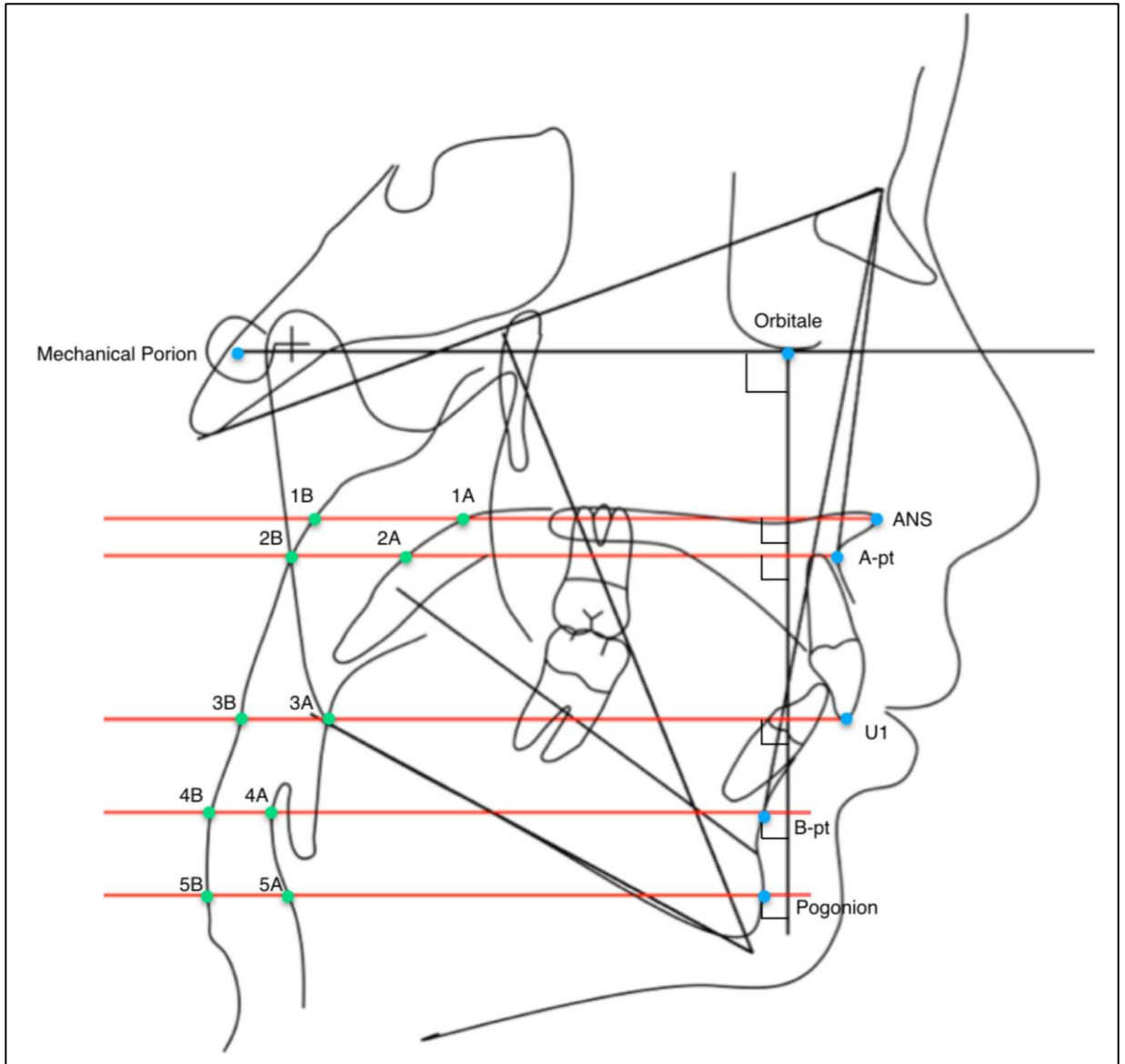


Figure 1. Landmarks and the 5 Sagittal Airway Dimension Measurements Along 5 Planes

Figure 1 illustrates the landmarks and sagittal airway dimensions measured.

Appendix A illustrates the digital tracing on a cephalogram using Quick Ceph Studio®.

Appendix B shows the numerical values of all measurements.

Deciduous incisors were traced when erupted permanent incisors were absent on a cephalogram. In instances when a patient had no erupted incisors, the tip of the developing incisor was traced. When incisors were not aligned, the most anterior incisor was traced. All distances and angles were measured to the nearest tenth of a millimeter and degree.

In summary, the values recorded were: imaging location, patient ID, gender, age, TFH, FA, MPA, ANB, 1A-1B, 2A-2B, 3A-3B, 4A-4B, 5A-5B.

Statistical Analysis

SPSS™ 23.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) and Microsoft® Excel were used for statistical analyses.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine normality of the data. Analysis of co-variance (ANCOVA) was run to ascertain any independent effect from multiple co-variates (age, gender, location of study) on the measurements. In all tests, a P-value less than 0.05 was set as statistical significance. The estimated marginal mean for each of the five airway measurements, was calculated.

Intra-observer reliability of measurements was performed using 17 randomly selected patients. Repeat measurements were conducted with a 2-week washout period. The Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) was used to determine whether there was intra-observer error associated with the digital tracings and measurements.

The average ICC was 94.9% with standard deviation 2.3%, and the median was 95.4% (Table 3). The lowest ICC was 4A-4B at age 10 (87.9%) and the greatest was 3A-

3B at age 12 (99.1%). The ICC demonstrated excellent agreement in all airway measurements (Table 4).

Table 4. Intraclass Correlation Coefficient

	Intraclass Correlation Coefficient
Average	0.949
Median	0.954
Min	0.879
Max	0.991
Standard Deviation	0.023

Results

A one-way ANOVA and post-hoc Tamhane test showed that location had statistically significant independent effects on the measurements (Table 5). Thus, location was controlled for in all the analyses.

The results of the ANCOVA demonstrating a mean difference in sagittal airway dimension between males and females within each age category for each of the five planes is shown in Table 6. Males had a statistically significant greater 3A-3B length than females at age 13 ($P = 0.02$), 15 ($P = 0.01$), and 16 ($P = 0.04$).

The ANCOVA showing the difference in sagittal airway dimension between each consecutive age category is shown in Table 7. In males, there was a statistically significant increase in 2A-2B ($P = 0.04$) and 5A-5B ($P = 0.03$) between ages 7 and 16.

Table 5. Post-Hoc Tamhane Test showing Differences in Measurements based on Location.

1=Bolton-Brush, 2= Denver, 3=Michigan, 4=Oregon

Plane	Group I	Group J	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P-value	
1A-1B	1	2	-1.8	0.4	0.00	*
		3	-2.4	0.4	0.00	*
		4	-1.3	0.4	0.01	*
	2	3	-0.7	0.4	0.51	
		4	0.4	0.4	0.80	
	3	4	1.1	0.4	0.05	
2A-2B	1	2	-1.6	0.4	0.00	*
		3	-1.1	0.4	0.05	
		4	-0.9	0.3	0.08	
	2	3	0.6	0.4	0.59	
		4	0.8	0.3	0.11	
	3	4	0.2	0.4	1.00	
3A-3B	1	2	-2.5	0.4	0.00	*
		3	-2.6	0.4	0.00	*
		4	-2.2	0.4	0.00	*
	2	3	0.9	0.5	0.27	
		4	1.3	0.4	0.02	*
	3	4	0.4	0.4	0.93	
4A-4B	1	2	-2.5	0.3	0.00	*
		3	-1.9	0.3	0.00	*
		4	-2.1	0.3	0.00	*
	2	3	0.6	0.3	0.47	
		4	0.4	0.3	0.76	
	3	4	-0.2	0.3	0.99	
5A-5B	1	2	-2.4	0.4	0.00	*
		3	-2.8	0.4	0.00	*
		4	-2.7	0.4	0.00	*
	2	3	-0.9	0.3	0.06	
		4	-0.3	0.3	0.92	
	3	4	0.6	0.3	0.37	
ANB	1	2	1.2	0.2	0.00	*
		3	1.1	0.2	0.00	*
		4	0.1	0.2	0.98	
	2	3	-0.2	0.1	0.77	
		4	-1.1	0.1	0.00	*
	3	4	-0.9	0.2	0.00	*
Facial Axis	1	2	1.5	0.4	0.00	*
		3	1.7	0.6	0.01	*
		4	3.7	0.5	0.00	*
	2	3	0.2	0.5	1.00	
		4	2.2	0.4	0.00	*
	3	4	1.9	0.5	0.00	*
MPA (mandibular plane angle)	1	2	1.4	0.9	0.56	
		3	-3.4	0.8	0.00	*
		4	-1.3	0.8	0.57	
	2	3	-3.2	1.0	0.00	*
		4	-2.7	1.1	0.08	
	3	4	3.1	0.9	0.01	*
TFH (total face height)	1	2	2.7	0.8	0.01	*
		3	2.3	1.1	0.19	
		4	0.6	0.7	0.93	
	2	3	-0.4	1.2	1.00	
		4	-2.1	0.9	0.12	
	3	4	-1.7	1.1	0.62	

*P<0.05.

Table 6. ANCOVA Showing the Difference Between Males and Females

Plane		1A-1B		2A-2B		3A-3B		4A-4B		5A-5B	
Age	Gender	Mean	P-value	Mean	P-value	Mean	P-value	Mean	P-value	Mean	P-value
7	F	13.9	0.12	12.1	0.09	11.3	0.11	7.7	0.95	11.3	0.96
	M	12.5		10.8		12.9		7.8		11.2	
8	F	13.2	0.99	11.9	0.73	11.3	0.20	7.6	0.76	11.3	0.38
	M	13.2		11.6		12.8		7.8		12.1	
9	F	14.7	0.12	12.7	0.38	11.2	0.43	8.3	0.95	11.7	0.45
	M	13.0		11.8		12.1		8.4		12.3	
10	F	15.4	0.14	13.0	0.52	12.1	0.97	7.4	0.35	11.8	0.54
	M	13.8		12.4		12.1		8.2		12.2	
11	F	15.1	0.66	12.5	0.67	11.6	0.46	7.8	0.81	12.4	0.73
	M	14.6		12.9		12.4		8.0		12.6	
12	F	14.6	0.91	12.4	0.41	11.0	0.37	7.2	0.44	12.2	0.87
	M	14.8		13.2		12.2		7.8		12.3	
13	F	15.8	0.52	13.1	0.62	11.2	0.02*	7.8	0.26	12.7	0.82
	M	15.1		13.6		13.8		8.7		12.9	
14	F	15.6	0.37	13.2	0.93	11.7	0.19	7.9	0.41	12.6	0.23
	M	14.7		13.1		13.0		8.6		13.6	
15	F	15.6	0.62	12.9	0.12	10.8	0.01*	7.9	0.26	12.9	0.19
	M	16.1		14.4		13.8		8.9		14.1	
16	F	16.0	0.93	13.2	0.35	11.8	0.04*	8.1	0.14	13.2	0.31
	M	15.9		14.0		14.0		9.1		14.2	

*P<0.05.

Table 7A. ANCOVA Showing Change in Sagittal Airway Dimension with Increasing Age in Females. Change is calculated as the difference between the younger age and the older age.

Females Plane	1A-1B			2A-2B			3A-3B			4A-4B			5A-5B		
Age	Mean	Change	P-value	Mean	Change	P-value	Mean	Change	P-value	Mean	Change	P-value	Mean	Change	P-value
7	13.9	0.7	1.0	12.1	0.2	1.0	11.3	0.0	1.0	7.7	0.1	1.0	11.3	0.0	1.0
8	13.2	-1.5	1.0	11.9	-0.8	1.0	11.3	0.1	1.0	7.6	-0.7	1.0	11.3	-0.4	1.0
9	14.7	-0.7	1.0	12.7	-0.3	1.0	11.2	-0.9	1.0	8.3	0.9	1.0	11.7	-0.1	1.0
10	15.4	0.3	1.0	13.0	0.5	1.0	12.1	0.5	1.0	7.4	-0.4	1.0	11.8	-0.6	1.0
11	15.1	0.5	1.0	12.5	0.1	1.0	11.6	0.6	1.0	7.8	0.6	1.0	12.4	0.2	1.0
12	14.6	-1.2	1.0	12.4	-0.7	1.0	11.0	-0.2	1.0	7.2	-0.6	1.0	12.2	-0.5	1.0
13	15.8	0.2	1.0	13.1	-0.1	1.0	11.2	-0.5	1.0	7.8	-0.1	1.0	12.7	0.1	1.0
14	15.6	0.0	1.0	13.2	0.3	1.0	11.7	0.9	1.0	7.9	0.0	1.0	12.6	-0.3	1.0
15	15.6	-0.4	1.0	12.9	-0.3	1.0	10.8	-1.0	1.0	7.9	-0.2	1.0	12.9	-0.3	1.0
16	16.0			13.2			11.8			8.1			13.2		
7 to 16		-2.1	0.66		-1.1	1.0		-0.5	1.0		-0.4	1.0		-1.9	0.53

*P<0.05.

Table 8. ANCOVA Showing Change in Sagittal Airway Dimension with Increasing Age in Males. Change is calculated as the difference between the younger age and the older age.

Males	1A-1B			2A-2B			3A-3B			4A-4B			5A-5B		
Plane	Mean	Change	P-value	Mean	Change	P-value	Mean	Change	P-value	Mean	Change	P-value	Mean	Change	P-value
7	12.5	-0.7	1.0	10.8	-0.8	1.0	12.9	0.1	1.0	7.8	0	1.0	11.2	-0.9	1.0
8	13.2	0.2	1.0	11.6	-0.2	1.0	12.8	0.7	1.0	7.8	-0.6	1.0	12.1	-0.2	1.0
9	13	-0.8	1.0	11.8	-0.6	1.0	12.1	0	1.0	8.4	0.2	1.0	12.3	0.1	1.0
10	13.8	-0.8	1.0	12.4	-0.5	1.0	12.1	-0.3	1.0	8.2	0.2	1.0	12.2	-0.4	1.0
11	14.6	-0.2	1.0	12.9	-0.3	1.0	12.4	0.2	1.0	8	0.2	1.0	12.6	0.3	1.0
12	14.8	-0.3	1.0	13.2	-0.4	1.0	12.2	-1.6	1.0	7.8	-0.9	1.0	12.3	-0.6	1.0
13	15.1	0.4	1.0	13.6	0.5	1.0	13.8	0.8	1.0	8.7	0.1	1.0	12.9	-0.7	1.0
14	14.7	-1.4	1.0	13.1	-1.3	1.0	13	-0.8	1.0	8.6	-0.3	1.0	13.6	-0.5	1.0
15	16.1	0.2	1.0	14.4	0.4	1.0	13.8	-0.2	1.0	8.9	-0.2	1.0	14.1	-0.1	1.0
16	15.9			14			14			9.1			14.2		
7 to 16		-3.4	0.09		-3.2	0.04*		-1.1	1.0		-1.3	0.99		-3.0	0.03*

*P<0.05.

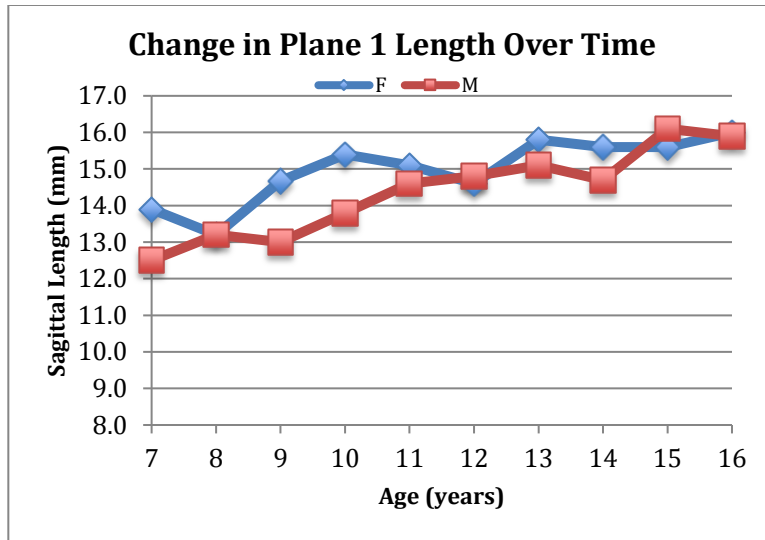


Figure 2. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 1.

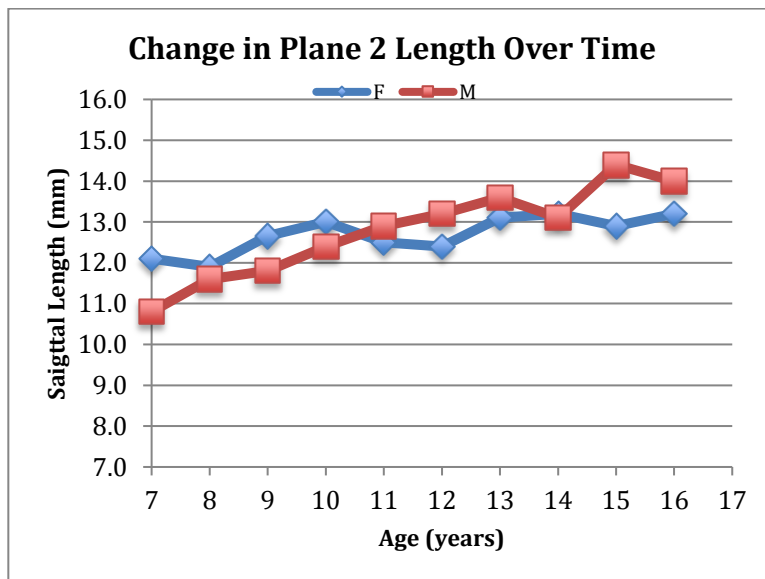


Figure 3. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 2.

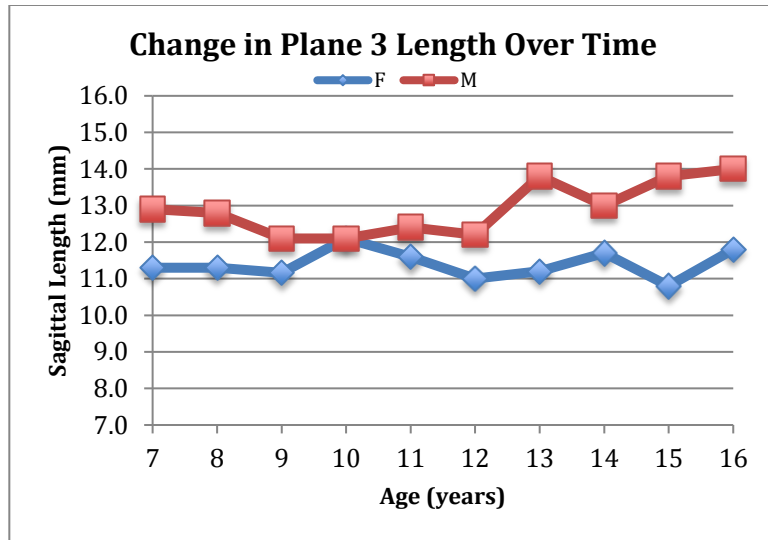


Figure 4. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 3.

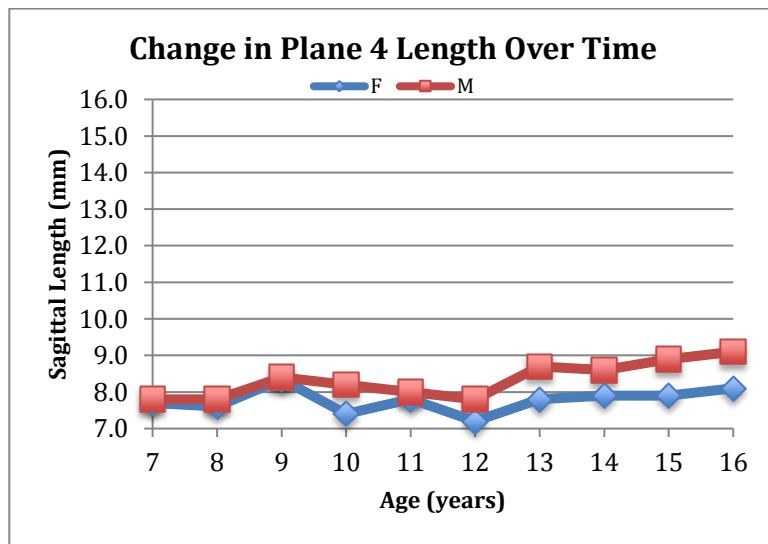


Figure 5. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 4.

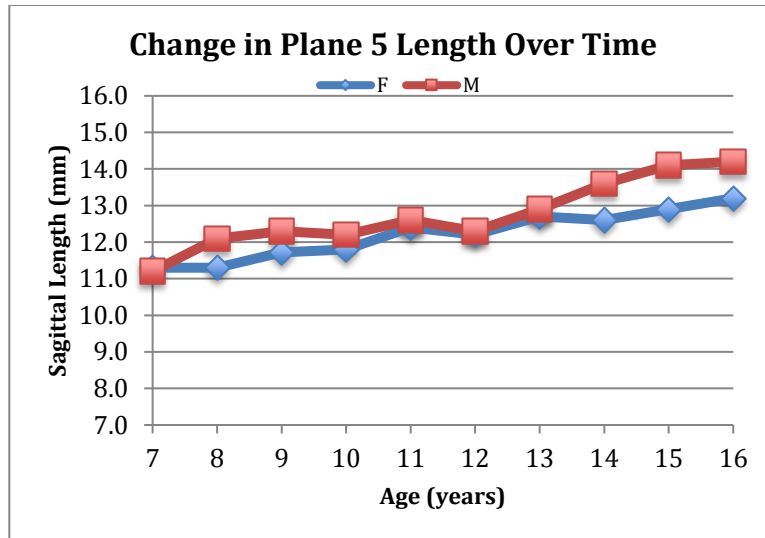


Figure 6. Estimated Marginal Means of Sagittal Airway Dimension on Plane 5.

The estimated marginal means with 95% confidence intervals and standard error for each sagittal airway dimension at each of the five planes, after controlling for location, are shown in Appendix C and Figures 2-6. In all five planes, there was an increase in sagittal dimension with increasing age.

The total change in TFH between age 7 and 16 is shown in Appendix D. The greatest change between age 7 and 16 was 2.8°. Facial type did not change by more than 1 standard deviation for any patient.

Discussion

Effect of Location on Sagittal Airway Dimension

Epigenetic effects may have partially accounted for statistically significant differences in sagittal airway dimensions among the four locations. All patients in this study were Caucasian, but the country of origin was not specified. Genetics can be a

strong etiological factor in upper airway soft tissue dimensions and thus sagittal upper airway dimension.^{10,11}

The time at which each study collected cephalograms differed among locations. The Bolton-Brush study was conducted between 1930-1950, the Denver study between 1927-1967, the Michigan study between 1953-1970, and the Oregon study between early 1950s-mid-1970s. The environment, which includes air pollutants, allergens, and irritants, can affect upper airway soft tissue dimensions.^{12,13} Therefore, it is possible that the environment changed with time.

All radiographs were scaled according to the AAOF Scaled Measurements Guide, but differences in radiographic technique may have contributed to the differences in sagittal airway dimensions based on location. The AAOF accounted for the mid-sagittal plane to film distances among the different locations accordingly with location-specific magnification factors, but it is difficult to ensure that the position of every subject was standardized and consistent throughout the collection of all cephalograms.

Gender and Sagittal Airway Dimension

While some studies have shown differences in dentofacial and craniofacial growth characteristics between males and females,^{14,15} this study showed that there was generally no statistically significant difference between males and females in sagittal airway dimension at any given age, with the exception of males having greater 3A-3B than females at ages 13, 15, and 16. This supports other airway studies having shown that little to no difference between males and females at any age.^{3,5,10,16} This lack of sexual dimorphism between males and females in sagittal airway dimension may explain why

females have a lower incidence of obstructive sleep apnea than males. Since females are generally smaller in stature than males yet have equal sagittal airway dimension, females might have a relatively larger sagittal airway dimension when compared to their general body size.³ More studies are needed to test this observation. The comparison of the overall trend of increasing sagittal airway dimension in males and females with increasing age suggests that while female growth occurs earlier than males in early adolescence, males eventually outgrow females.¹⁷

Age and Sagittal Airway Dimension

A small absolute increase in sagittal airway dimension between age 7 and 16 is in agreement with other studies.^{3,11,22} In a retrospective cross-sectional study, Mislik et al.¹¹ found that the shortest distance between posterior pharyngeal wall and the soft palate (upper airway) increased 1.03 mm between 6 and 17 years of age. The trend of increasing sagittal upper airway dimension with increasing age could be attributed to the shrinking lymphoid tissues, continued growth of the pharynx, and forward drift of the palate with increasing age.^{3,5,18} Other factors contributing to lower sagittal airway dimension includes tongue position, absence or presence of enlarged palatine tonsils, forward position of the hyoid bone, and forward translation of the mandible.¹⁹

The relatively small increase between ages 7 and 16 in sagittal airway dimension suggests that the majority of pharyngeal growth occurs early in childhood and that comparatively less growth occurs with increasing age in adolescence.^{3,20} Thus, it may be important to screen for constricted airways in early childhood to encourage the airway to develop normally during the critical period before adolescence.

Total face height change between 7 to 16-years-old was no greater than 2.7° for any patient, and facial type also did not change more than 1 standard deviation (Appendix 1). These findings appear consistent with Bishara's et al. conclusion that 77% of people have the same facial type at age 5 and 25.5 years of age.¹⁴

Significance of Mean Changes

Sagittal airway dimension is highly individualistic and depends on a number of factors including the size and shape of the lymphoid, adenoids, tonsils, soft palate, and the soft tissues surrounding the airway,^{12,21} which supports the high interindividual variation in sagittal airway dimension seen in this study. Thus, the estimated marginal means should be interpreted with caution.

Clinical Significance

Although the results were not statistically significant for all measurements, clinical significance may be noted. Any increase in sagittal airway dimension could have a noticeable impact on function. The Hagan-Poiseuille equation postulates that flow varies with the fourth power of the diameter in a rigid tube. However, the pharyngeal airway is not rigid and is influenced by many other anatomical structures within and surrounding the pharyngeal airway. Thereby, a seemingly small increase in sagittal airway dimension might result in a significant increase in airflow.

In Vinoth et al.'s study,²² a twin-block appliance used in 11-13 years old for 14.5 months produced a statistically significant increase in both upper and lower airway on the sagittal plane by 1.08 and 1.62 mm after 14.5 months, respectively. The absolute

difference between pre and post twin-block therapy of 1.08 and 1.62 mm in upper and lower sagittal airway dimension, respectively, approximates the average differences between 7 and 16 years-old found in this study with growth. Thus, the findings of the current study suggest that the increase in sagittal airway dimension found in Vinoth et al.'s study may have been the result of normal growth rather than the twin-block appliance.

Fransson et al. found that the pharyngeal area increased in OSA patients and snorers using a mandibular positioning device (MPD) for 2 years nightly. Mean linear distance at the hypopharyngeal level increased by 2.4 mm (\pm 4.6 SD) for these patients in an upright position and 1.7 mm (\pm 4.3 SD) in a supine position.²³ In a separate study, Fransson et al.²⁴ also found that after 2 years of MPD appliance, 90% of patients experienced a significant reduction in snoring and apnea events, 76% experienced a reduction in daytime tiredness and 84% an improvement in quality of night sleep, which amounted to greater than 50% increase from the baseline. The OSA group's oxygen desaturation index significantly decreased from 14.7 (\pm 12.7 SD) to 3.1 (\pm 4.2 SD) and their mean SaO₂ nadir increased from 78.2% (\pm 8.1) to 89.0% (\pm 4.7). This suggests that a relatively small increase in sagittal airway dimension can be clinically significant. Future studies are needed to specifically determine how much increase in sagittal airway dimension is actually clinically significant.

In a cross-sectional 3-D analysis of the pharyngeal airway, Kim et al.²⁵ found that the transverse dimension of the upper airway is larger than the sagittal dimension in skeletal Class 1 and Class 2 children. Thus, the transverse dimension may have a larger increase with age than the sagittal dimension. Future 3-D studies that capture the upper

airway sagittal and transverse dimensions in pre-adolescence, adolescence, and adulthood may aid in the corroboration of this hypothesis.

This retrospective longitudinal study determined estimated marginal means of sagittal upper airway dimensions. Despite the lack of statistical significance, the clinical implications of this study may aid in the early diagnoses of constricted airways.

Conclusions

1. Males had a statistically significant greater 3A-3B length than females at age 13 ($P = 0.02$), 15 ($P = 0.01$), and 16 ($P = 0.04$).
2. In males, there was a statistically significant increase in 2A-2B ($P = 0.04$) and 5A-5B ($P = 0.03$) between ages 7 and 16.
3. We were unable to reject either of the null hypotheses.
4. Normative sagittal airway dimensions could not be established in this study. This study has determined average values that can be used as a general reference for sagittal airway dimensions in skeletal and dental Class 1 patients.
5. We were unable to establish normative values.

References

1. Aboudara C, Nielsen I, Huang JC, Maki K, Miller AJ, Hatcher D. Comparison of airway space with conventional lateral headfilms and 3-dimensional reconstruction from cone-beam computed tomography. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2009;135:468–79.
2. Martin SE, Mathur R, Marshall I, Douglas NJ. The effect of age, sex, obesity and posture on upper airway size. *Eur Respir J* 1997;10:2087–90.
3. Mislik B, Hanggi MP, Signorelli L, Peltomaki TA, Patcas R. Pharyngeal airway dimensions: a cephalometric, growth-study-based analysis of physiological variations in children aged 6-17. *Eur J Orthod* 2014;36:331–9.
4. Gozal D. Sleep-Disordered Breathing and School Performance in Children. *Pediatrics* 1998;102:616–20.
5. Gonçalves R de C, Raveli DB, Pinto ADS. Effects of age and gender on upper airway, lower airway and upper lip growth. *Braz Oral Res* 2011;25:241–7.
6. David A Covell Jr. AAOF Craniofacial Growth Legacy Collection. Available at: http://www.aaoflegacycollection.org/aaof_collection.html?id=UOGrowth.
7. Singh IJ, Savara BS. Norms Of Size And Annual Increments Of Seven Anatomical Measures Of Maxillae In Girls From Three To Sixteen Years Of Age*. *Angle Orthod* 1966.
8. Nunokawa J. April 2012. In: *Note Book* Princeton: Princeton University Press; 1968.
9. Standring S, Gray H, Borley NR, et al. *Gray's Anatomy: The Anatomical Basis of Clinical Practice*. 40 ed. Elsevier 2008
10. Riquelme A, Green LJ. Palatal width, height, and length in human twins. *Angle Orthod* 1970.
11. Schwab RJ, Pasirstein M, Kaplan L, et al. Family Aggregation of Upper Airway Soft Tissue Structures in Normal Subjects and Patients with Sleep Apnea. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2006;173:453–63.
12. Tourné LPM. Growth of the pharynx and its physiologic implications. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1991;99:129–39.
13. Shusterman D. The effects of air pollutants and irritants on the upper airway. *Proc Am Thorac Soc* 2011;8:101–5.
14. Bishara SE, Ortho D, Jakobsen JR. Longitudinal changes in three normal facial types. *J Orthod* 1985;88:466–502.

15. Cohen D, Konak S. The evaluation of radiographs of the nasopharynx. *Clin Otolaryngol Allied Sci* 1985;10:73–8.
16. Abramson Z, Susarla S, Troulis M, Kaban L. Age-related changes of the upper airway assessed by 3-dimensional computed tomography. *J Craniofac Surg* 2009;20:657–63.
17. Ronen O, Malhotra A, Pillar G. Influence of Gender and Age on Upper-Airway Length During Development. *Pediatrics* 2007;120:e1028–34.
18. McNamara JA Jr. A method of cephalometric evaluation. *J Orthod* 1984;86:449–69.
19. Battagel JM, Johal A, L'Estrange PR, Croft CB, Kotecha B. Changes in airway and hyoid position in response to mandibular protrusion in subjects with obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA). *Eur J Orthod* 1999;21:363–76.
20. Jeans WD, Fernando DCJ, Maw AR, Leighton BC. A longitudinal study of the growth of the nasopharynx and its contents in normal children. *Br J Radiol* 2014;54:117–21.
21. Schwab RJ. Properties of tissues surrounding the upper airway. *Sleep* 1996;19:S170–4.
22. Vinoth SK, Thomas AV, Nethravathy R. Cephalometric changes in airway dimensions with twin block therapy in growing Class II patients. *J Pharm Bioallied Sci* 2013;5:S25–9.
23. Fransson AMC, Svenson BAH, Isacsson G. The Effect of Posture and a Mandibular Protruding Device on Pharyngeal Dimensions: A Cephalometric Study. *Sleep Breath* 2002;06:055–68.
24. Fransson AMC, Tegelberg Å, Leissner L, Wenneberg B, Isacsson G. Effects of a Mandibular Protruding Device on the Sleep of Patients with Obstructive Sleep Apnea and Snoring Problems: A 2-Year Follow-Up. *Sleep Breath* 2003;07:131–42.
25. Kim Y-J, Hong J-S, Hwang Y-I, Park Y-H. Three-dimensional analysis of pharyngeal airway in preadolescent children with different anteroposterior skeletal patterns. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2010;137:306.e1–306.e11.

CHAPTER THREE

EXTENDED DISCUSSION

Limitations of Study and Recommendations for Future Studies

Parameters the investigator could not control that affect airway measurements include unstandardized head position³²⁻³⁴, potential airway changes caused by swallowing during the radiograph, and possible differences in beam direction leading to measurement errors in an elliptical airway.³⁵ Future studies might control for these factors.

Resistance to airflow is affected by both the size and the shape of the pharyngeal airway.^{36,37} A 2-D cephalogram cannot be used to determine the shape, transverse dimension, or volume of the airway, but neither does a 3-D CBCT depict all the true clinical variations. The radiographic depiction of the airway is affected by whether the patient is upright or supine, is awake or asleep, is inhaling or expiring, or has the mouth open or closed during radiographic exposure, and by radiographic machinery and technique, and all are susceptible to variation in capturing both the 2-D cephalogram and the 3-D CBCT. Past studies have shown that only the smallest cross-sectional area (i.e. the anterior-posterior dimension) is significantly different between OSA and non-OSA patients.^{11,38} Thus, the anterior-posterior dimension captured in a 2-D cephalogram is clinically relevant.

Past studies have suggested that an sagittal upper airway dimension less than 5 mm is considered constricted and a lower sagittal airway dimension greater than 15 mm is likely due to the habit of an anteriorly placed tongue or enlarged tonsils.³⁹ While the results of this study cannot be used to establish definitive criteria of a constricted or normal airway, future studies can measure sagittal airway dimensions in dental and

skeletal Class 1 children and adolescents diagnosed with OSA and thus determine if values deviate from the average sagittal airway dimensions found in this study.

Longitudinal studies provide more accurate analysis growth trends than cross-sectional studies.⁴⁰ Using CBCT in a longitudinal study with a greater number of patients with longitudinal cephalograms from 7 to 16 years old is unfeasible for future studies. Thus, future studies can create a predictive regression analysis utilizing the measurements found in this study to determine whether skeletal and dental Class 1 patients without any diagnosed airway issues conform to the predictive model.

Computational modeling of the pharyngeal airway using finite element analysis has been shown to be effective in predicting surgical success in OSA patients.^{41,42} Future studies can utilize computational modeling of the airway by digitally altering the pharyngeal airway to match the average values found in this study, and then superimpose the cephalograms of Class 1 skeletal and dental patients to determine if and how much they deviate from the computational model.

REFERENCES

1. German RZ, Palmer JB. Anatomy and development of oral cavity and pharynx. *GI Motility online* 2006.
2. Gozal D. Sleep-Disordered Breathing and School Performance in Children. *Pediatrics* 1998;102:616–20.
3. Ceylan Í, Oktay H. A study on the pharyngeal size in different skeletal patterns. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1995;108:69–75.
4. Woodside DG, Linder-Aronson S, Lundstrom A, McWilliam J. Mandibular and maxillary growth after changed mode of breathing. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1991;100:1–18.
5. Sousa JBR, Anselmo-Lima WT, Valera FCP, Gallego AJ, Matsumoto MAN. Cephalometric assessment of the mandibular growth pattern in mouth-breathing children. *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol* 2005;69:311–7.
6. Fields HW, Warren DW, Black K, Phillips CL. Relationship between vertical dentofacial morphology and respiration in adolescents. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1991;99:147–54.
7. Paul JL, Nanda RS. Effect of mouth breathing on dental occlusion. *Angle Orthod* 1973;43:201–6.
8. McNamara JA. Influence of respiratory pattern on craniofacial growth. *Angle Orthod* 1981;51:269–300.
9. Souki BQ, Lopes PB, Pereira TBJ, Franco LP, Becker HMG, Oliveira DD. Mouth breathing children and cephalometric pattern: does the stage of dental development matter? *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol* 2012;76(6):837–41.
10. Katyal V, Pamula Y, Martin AJ, Daynes CN, Kennedy JD, Sampson WJ. Craniofacial and upper airway morphology in pediatric sleep-disordered breathing: Systematic review and meta-analysis. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2013;143:20–3.
11. Mislik B, Hanggi MP, Signorelli L, Peltomaki TA, Patcas R. Pharyngeal airway dimensions: a cephalometric, growth-study-based analysis of physiological variations in children aged 6-17. *Eur J Orthod* 2014;36:331–9.
12. Baltzan M, Suissa S. Mortality in sleep apnea patients: a multivariate analysis of risk factors--a response to Lavie and collaborators. *Sleep* 1997;20: 377–80.
13. Chervin RD, Dillon JE, Bassetti C, Ganoczy DA, Pituch KJ. Symptoms of sleep disorders, inattention, and hyperactivity in children. *Sleep* 1997;20:1185–92.

14. Weissbluth M, Davis AT, Poncher J, Reiff J. Signs of airway obstruction during sleep and behavioral, developmental, and academic problems. *J Dev Behav Pediatr* 1983;4:119–21.
15. Marcus CL. Sleep-disordered breathing in children. *Curr Opin Pediatr* 2000;12:208–12.
16. J CP, de Carlos Villafranca F, E ME. [Orthodontics and the upper airway]. *Orthod Fr* 2004;75:31–7.
17. Zhang J, Chen G, Li W, Xu T, Gao X. Upper Airway Changes after Orthodontic Extraction Treatment in Adults: A Preliminary Study using Cone Beam Computed Tomography. Cray J, ed. *PLoS One* 2015;10:e0143233.
18. Maaitah Al E, Said El N, Abu Alhaija ES. First premolar extraction effects on upper airway dimension in bimaxillary proclination patients. *Angle Orthod* 2012;82:853–9.
19. Kirjavainen M, Kirjavainen T. Upper Airway Dimensions in Class II Malocclusion. *Angle Orthod* 2007;77:1046–53.
20. Hiyama S, Ono T, Ishiwata Y, Kuroda T. Changes in mandibular position and upper airway dimension by wearing cervical headgear during sleep. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2001;120:160–8.
21. Hänggi MP, Teuscher UM, Roos M, Peltomäki TA. Long-term changes in pharyngeal airway dimensions following activator-headgear and fixed appliance treatment. *Eur J Orthod* 2008;30:598–605.
22. Kim KB. How has our interest in the airway changed over 100 years? *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2015;148:740–7.
23. Lobb WK. Craniofacial morphology and occlusal variation: The relationships between craniofacial morphology and occlusal variations as observed in monozygous and dizygous twins. *J Orthod* 1982;82:82.
24. Feres MFN, Hermann JS, Cappellette M, Pignatari SSN. Lateral X-ray view of the skull for the diagnosis of adenoid hypertrophy: a systematic review. *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol* 2011;75:1–11.
25. Kolo ES, Salisu AD, Tabari AM, Dahilo EA, Aluko AA. Plain radiographic evaluation of the nasopharynx: Do raters agree? *Int J Pediatr Otorhinolaryngol* 2010;74:532–4.
26. Battagel JM, L'Estrange PR, Nolan P, Harkness B. The role of lateral cephalometric radiography and fluoroscopy in assessing mandibular advancement in sleep-related disorders. *Eur J Orthod* 1998;20:121–32.
27. Battagel JM, Johal A, L'Estrange PR, Croft CB, Kotecha B. Changes in airway and

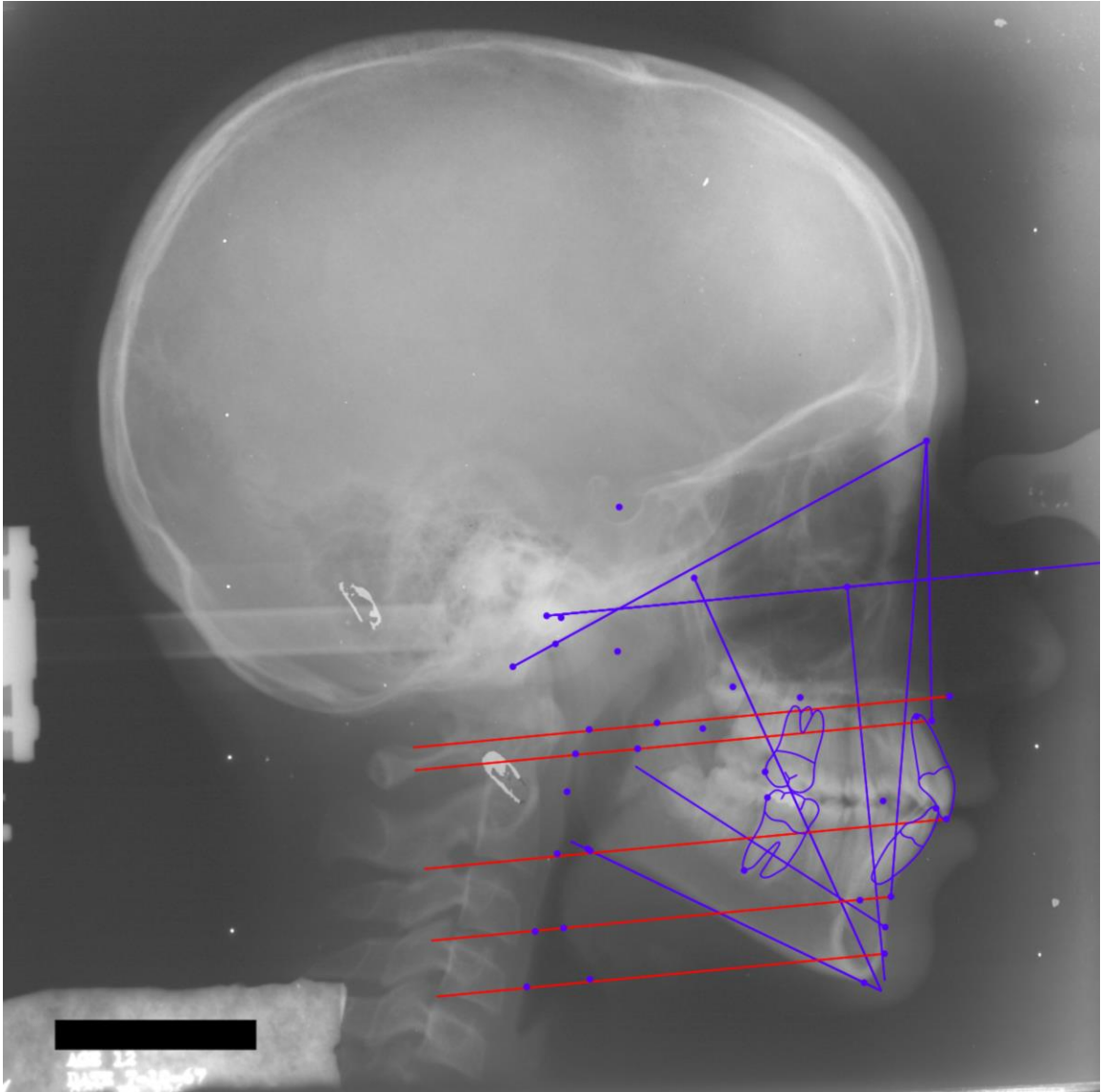
- hyoid position in response to mandibular protrusion in subjects with obstructive sleep apnoea (OSA). *Eur J Orthod* 1999;21:363–76.
28. Kühnel TS, Schurr C, Wagner B, Geisler P. Morphological changes of the posterior airway space after tongue base suspension. *Laryngoscope* 2005;115:475–80.
 29. Vizzotto MB, Liedke GS, Delamare EL, Silveira HD, Dutra V, Silveira HE. A comparative study of lateral cephalograms and cone-beam computed tomographic images in upper airway assessment. *Eur J Orthod* 2012;34:390–3.
 30. Aboudara C, Nielsen I, Huang JC, Maki K, Miller AJ, Hatcher D. Comparison of airway space with conventional lateral headfilms and 3-dimensional reconstruction from cone-beam computed tomography. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2009;135:468–79.
 31. Major MP, Flores-Mir C, Major PW. Assessment of lateral cephalometric diagnosis of adenoid hypertrophy and posterior upper airway obstruction: A systematic review. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2006;130:700–8.
 32. Johal A, Sheriteh Z, Battagel J, Marshall C. The use of videofluoroscopy in the assessment of the pharyngeal airway in obstructive sleep apnoea. *Eur J Orthod* 2011;33:212–9.
 33. Walsh JH, Leigh MS, Paduch A, et al. Effect of body posture on pharyngeal shape and size in adults with and without obstructive sleep apnea. *Sleep* 2008;31:1543–9.
 34. Fransson AMC, Svenson BAH, Isacson G. The Effect of Posture and a Mandibular Protruding Device on Pharyngeal Dimensions: A Cephalometric Study. *Sleep Breath* 2002;06:055–68.
 35. Leiter JC. Upper airway shape: Is it important in the pathogenesis of obstructive sleep apnea? *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 1996;153:894–8.
 36. Montgomery WM, Vig PS, Staab EV, Matteson SR. Computed tomography: A three-dimensional study of the nasal airway. *J Orthod* 1979;76:363–75.
 37. Haskell JA, McCrillis J, Haskell BS, Scheetz JP, Scarfe WC, Farman AG. Effects of Mandibular Advancement Device (MAD) on Airway Dimensions Assessed With Cone-Beam Computed Tomography. *Semin Orthod* 2009;15:132–58.
 38. Ogawa T, Enciso R, Shintaku WH, Clark GT. Evaluation of cross-section airway configuration of obstructive sleep apnea. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2007;103:102–8.
 39. McNamara JA. *Naso Respiratory Function and Craniofacial growth*. (McNamara JA, ed.). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press; 1979:27–40.
 40. Bishara SE, Ortho D, Jakobsen JR. Longitudinal changes in three normal facial

types. *J Orthod* 1985;88:466–502.

41. Huang Y, White DP, Malhotra A. Use of computational modeling to predict responses to upper airway surgery in obstructive sleep apnea. *Laryngoscope* 2007;117:648–53.
42. Van Holsbeke C, Vos W, Van Hoorenbeeck K, et al. Functional respiratory imaging as a tool to assess upper airway patency in children with OSA. *Eur Respir J* 2013;42:1489.

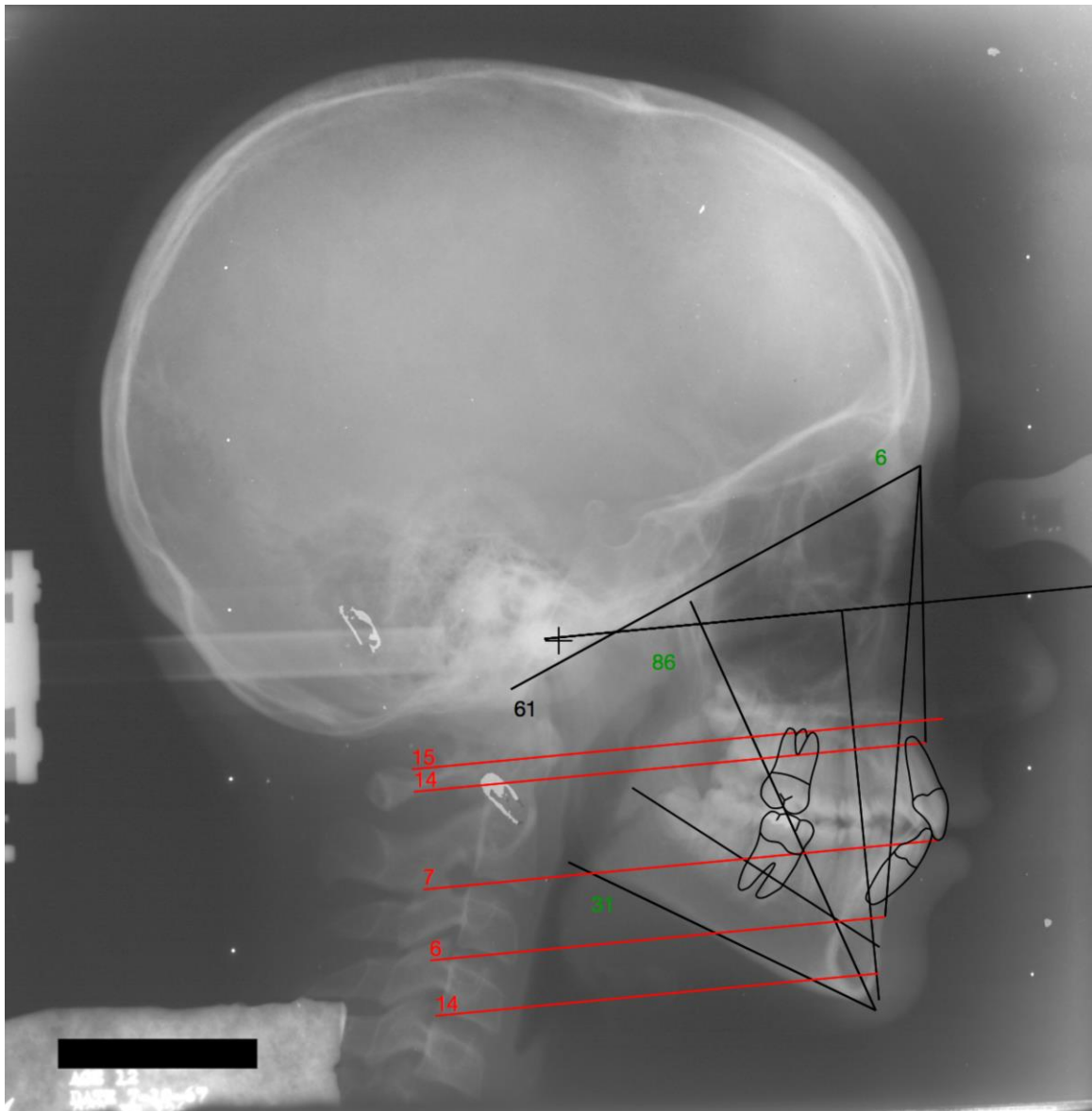
APPENDIX A

DIGITAL TRACING OF LANDMARKS ON SUBJECT 121-1 AT 12-YEARS-OLD



APPENDIX B

**SAGITTAL AIRWAY DIMENSION AND FACIAL TYPE MEASUREMENTS ON
SUBJECT 121-1**



APPENDIX C

**ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS AND 95% CONFIDENCE INTERVALS OF
SAGITTAL AIRWAY DIMENSIONS ON PLANES 1-5**

Plane		1A-1B			
Age	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
7	F	13.9	0.6	12.6	15.1
	M	12.5	0.6	11.2	13.7
8	F	13.2	0.7	11.9	14.6
	M	13.2	0.7	11.8	14.6
9	F	14.7	0.8	13.2	16.2
	M	13.0	0.7	11.6	14.4
10	F	15.4	0.8	13.9	17.0
	M	13.8	0.8	12.2	15.4
11	F	15.1	0.7	13.6	16.6
	M	14.6	0.7	13.1	16.1
12	F	14.6	0.8	13.1	16.2
	M	14.8	0.8	13.2	16.3
13	F	15.8	0.7	14.3	17.3
	M	15.1	0.8	13.5	16.7
14	F	15.6	0.7	14.2	17.1
	M	14.7	0.7	13.2	16.2
15	F	15.6	0.8	14.0	17.2
	M	16.1	0.7	14.6	17.6
16	F	16.0	0.8	14.5	17.5
	M	15.9	0.8	14.4	17.4

Plane		2A-2B			
Age	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
7	F	12.1	0.5	11.0	13.2
	M	10.8	0.6	9.6	11.9
8	F	11.9	0.6	10.6	13.1
	M	11.6	0.6	10.3	12.8
9	F	18	0.7	11.3	14.1
	M	11.8	0.7	10.5	13.1
10	F	13.0	0.7	11.7	14.3
	M	12.4	0.7	11.0	13.8
11	F	12.5	0.7	11.1	13.9
	M	12.9	0.7	11.5	14.3

12	F	12.4	0.7	11.1	13.8
	M	13.2	0.7	11.9	14.6
13	F	13.1	0.6	11.8	14.4
	M	13.6	0.7	12.2	15.0
14	F	13.2	0.7	11.8	14.5
	M	13.1	0.7	11.7	14.4
15	F	12.9	0.7	11.6	14.3
	M	14.4	0.6	13.1	15.7
16	F	13.2	0.6	11.9	14.5
	M	14.0	0.7	12.7	15.3

Plane		3A-3B			
Age	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
7	F	11.3	0.7	9.9	12.7
	M	12.9	0.7	11.5	14.3
8	F	11.3	0.8	9.8	12.9
	M	12.8	0.8	11.2	14.3
9	F	11.2	0.9	9.4	12.9
	M	12.1	0.8	10.5	13.7
10	F	12.1	0.7	10.6	13.6
	M	12.1	0.8	10.5	13.6
11	F	11.6	0.8	10.1	13.2
	M	12.4	0.8	10.9	14.0
12	F	11.0	0.9	9.1	12.9
	M	12.2	0.9	10.4	14.1
13	F	11.2	0.7	9.7	12.7
	M	13.8	0.8	12.1	15.4
14	F	11.7	0.7	10.3	13.1
	M	13.0	0.7	11.6	14.4
15	F	10.8	0.8	9.2	12.4
	M	13.8	0.7	12.3	15.3
16	F	11.8	0.8	10.3	13.3
	M	14.0	0.8	12.5	15.6

Plane		4A-4B			
Age	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
7	F	7.7	0.6	6.5	8.9
	M	7.8	0.6	6.6	9.0
8	F	7.6	0.5	6.6	8.6

	M	7.8	0.5	6.8	8.9
9	F	8.3	0.6	7.1	9.6
	M	8.4	0.6	7.2	9.6
10	F	7.4	0.5	6.3	8.5
	M	8.2	0.6	7.0	9.3
11	F	7.8	0.6	6.6	8.9
	M	8.0	0.6	6.8	9.1
12	F	7.2	0.6	6.1	8.3
	M	7.8	0.6	6.7	8.9
13	F	7.8	0.6	6.7	8.9
	M	8.7	0.6	7.5	10.0
14	F	7.9	0.6	6.7	9.1
	M	8.6	0.6	7.4	9.8
15	F	7.9	0.6	6.7	9.1
	M	8.9	0.6	7.7	10.0
16	F	8.1	0.5	7.0	9.1
	M	9.1	0.5	8.1	10.2

Plane		5A-5B			
Age	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
7	F	11.3	0.5	10.2	12.3
	M	11.2	0.5	10.2	12.3
8	F	11.3	0.6	10.0	12.5
	M	12.1	0.6	10.8	13.3
9	F	11.7	0.6	10.5	12.9
	M	12.3	0.6	11.2	13.5
10	F	11.8	0.5	10.8	12.8
	M	12.2	0.5	11.2	13.3
11	F	12.4	0.6	11.2	13.6
	M	12.6	0.6	11.4	13.9
12	F	12.2	0.6	11.1	13.3
	M	12.3	0.6	11.2	13.5
13	F	12.7	0.6	11.5	13.9
	M	12.9	0.7	11.6	14.2
14	F	12.6	0.6	11.5	13.8
	M	13.6	0.6	12.5	14.8
15	F	12.9	0.7	11.5	14.2
	M	14.1	0.6	12.8	15.4
16	F	13.2	0.7	11.9	14.5
	M	14.2	0.7	12.8	15.5

APPENDIX D

TFH CHANGE BETWEEN AGES 7 AND 16 YEARS-OLD

Patient ID	Location	Age	TFH	TFH change
945	BoltonBrush	7	59.8	-1.5
		16	61.3	
2817	BoltonBrush	7	54.0	-0.1
		16	54.1	
2252	BoltonBrush	7	59.5	-1.7
		16	61.2	
2140	BoltonBrush	7	53.4	1.6
		16	51.8	
2290	BoltonBrush	7	56.7	-1.7
		16	58.4	
2425	BoltonBrush	7	59.4	0.5
		16	58.9	
2702	BoltonBrush	7	56.4	1.7
		16	54.7	
2398	BoltonBrush	7	56.9	-0.1
		16	57.0	
2729	BoltonBrush	7	59.4	-1.2
		16	60.6	
510	Denver	7	55.7	1.9
		16	53.8	
515	Denver	7	56.8	3
		16	54.0	
535	Denver	7	57.2	1.8
		16	55.4	
557	Denver	7	60.3	1.8
		16	58.5	
616	Denver	7	59.4	-2.5
		16	61.9	
626	Denver	7	59.1	0.9
		16	58.2	
522	Denver	7	57.8	2.8
		16	55.0	
552	Denver	7	57.6	-0.5
		16	58.1	
563	Denver	7	54.0	0.2
		16	53.8	

72	Denver	7	63.3	-0.4
		16	63.7	
73	Denver	7	61.0	-0.9
		16	61.9	
98	Denver	7	64.3	-0.5
		16	64.8	
111	Denver	7	58.4	1.7
		16	56.7	
87	Denver	7	61.5	-1.4
		16	62.9	
110	Denver	7	54.1	2.3
		16	51.8	
1872	Michigan	7	57.7	2.5
		16	55.2	
1891	Michigan	7	64.0	-2.6
		16	66.6	
2026	Michigan	7	53.2	2.8
		16	50.4	
2108	Michigan	7	67.7	-0.7
		16	68.4	
2124	Michigan	7	59.1	0.2
		16	58.9	
2399	Michigan	7	56.0	-0.6
		16	56.6	
2411	Michigan	7	56.3	-0.7
		16	57.0	
2549	Michigan	7	55.2	-2.1
		16	57.3	
2580	Michigan	7	60.5	2.7
		16	57.8	
2802	Michigan	7	59.9	1.5
		16	58.4	
2008	Michigan	7	60.6	-2.7
		16	63.3	
2560	Michigan	7	59.1	-1.1
		16	60.2	
2679	Michigan	7	59.3	-1.7
		16	61.0	
1890	Michigan	7	62.7	-1.8
		16	64.5	
2196	Michigan	7	60.1	-0.1

		16	60.2	
2286	Michigan	7	60.5	-2.2
		16	62.7	
2449	Michigan	7	49.3	1
		16	48.3	
105-1	Oregon	7	58.7	2.1
		16	56.6	
105-2	Oregon	7	59.1	1.5
		16	57.6	
123-1	Oregon	7	63.2	-1.5
		16	64.7	
183-1	Oregon	7	62.2	-1.9
		16	64.1	
183-2	Oregon	7	61.6	-2
		16	63.6	
295	Oregon	7	56.4	-1.3
		16	57.7	
89-2	Oregon	7	58.3	0.6
		16	57.7	
76	Oregon	7	59.4	-1.6
		16	61.0	
77	Oregon	7	57.1	1.8
		16	55.3	
83-2	Oregon	7	60.4	-1.1
		16	61.5	
100-1	Oregon	7	60.3	-1.1
		16	61.4	
109-1	Oregon	7	56.2	1.3
		16	54.9	
121-1	Oregon	7	67.7	1.4
		16	66.3	
121-2	Oregon	7	70.6	-1.5
		16	72.1	
150-1	Oregon	7	57.4	-1.8
		16	59.2	
241-2	Oregon	7	58.2	-2.5
		16	60.7	
248	Oregon	7	52.0	1.4
		16	50.6	
15	Oregon	7	65.2	1.3
		16	63.9	
83-1	Oregon	7	60.0	-0.6
		16	60.6	
132	Oregon	7	55.7	-1.5

		16	57.2	
247	Oregon	7	56.5	1.8
		16	54.7	