

Agensis of Third Molar Germs Depends on Sagittal Maxillary Jaw Dimensions in Orthodontic Patients in Japan

**Takashi S. Kajii, DDS, PhD^a; Yoshiaki Sato, DDS, PhD^b; Saori Kajii, DDS^c;
Yuki Sugawara, DDS, PhD^a; Junichiro Iida DDS, PhD^d**

Abstract: The aim of this study was to determine the correlation between congenitally missing third molar tooth germs and sagittal maxillomandibular jaw dimensions in orthodontic patients in Japan. The subjects were 391 patients from the orthodontic clinic of the Hokkaido University Dental Hospital who were less than 15 years of age. Assessments were made from panoramic radiographs and lateral cephalograms. The subjects were divided into a maxillary/mandibular third molar absent and an existent group. The ANB angle and the sagittal dimensions of the nasal floor (ANS-PNS), maxillary basal bone (Mx), mandibular corpus (Go-Pog), and mandibular basal bone (Mn) were measured. Logistic regression analysis was used to estimate associations between third molar agensis and these measures. The following results were obtained: (1) The frequency of the maxillary third molar agensis significantly increased with decreasing Mx (odds ratio = 0.559, 95% confidence interval = 0.377 – 0.829). The frequency of the mandibular third molar agensis also increased with decreasing Mx (odds ratio = 0.532, 95% confidence interval = 0.330 – 0.856). (2) There were no significant correlations between Mn and mandibular third molar agensis. These results suggest that agensis of third molar germs does not depend on anteroposterior dimensions of the mandible but depends on anteroposterior dimensions of the maxilla in Japanese orthodontic patients. (*Angle Orthod* 2004;74:337–342.)

Key Words: Third molar germs; Congenital absence; Maxilla; Mandible; Posterior discrepancy

INTRODUCTION

There have been many reports that describe the congenital absence of third molars in European American,¹⁻⁷ and Asian⁸⁻¹¹ patients. In Japan, many investigators and clinicians, especially orthodontists, believe that an increase in agensis of permanent teeth is related to degeneration of dentofacial development over the past 5000 years.⁹ Is there a tendency for a higher incidence of agensis of third molars? Unfortunately, there have been few reports on chronological changes in third molar agensis.^{12,13}

Therefore, we previously investigated¹⁴ the congenital

absence of third molar germs in Japanese orthodontic patients, and we examined the relationships between the absence of third molars and sagittal maxillomandibular jaw relationships. The following results were obtained: (1) the percentage of Japanese individuals who have congenitally missing third molars seems to have decreased slightly, (2) the frequency of the absence of mandibular third molar germs is lower than that of maxillary third molar germs in Japanese individuals, and (3) in Japanese orthodontic patients, the percentage of skeletal Class II patients with one or more third molar ageneses is lower than that of skeletal Class III patients.

On the other hand, the relationship between third molars and crowding has been debated for many years.¹⁵⁻¹⁸ Merrifield¹⁹ advocated a posterior discrepancy and suggested that orthodontists should consider the entire dentition. The relationship between a posterior discrepancy and relapse after retention has been debated²⁰⁻²² for more than 50 years. A posterior discrepancy is thought to have an inhibitory effect on the eruption of second and third molars and may cause relapse after retention regardless of whether premolars have been extracted. Space deficiency for the eruption of not only third molars but also second molars has recently been reported in Class II patients.^{23,24}

Skeletal Class II patients generally have a large maxilla

^a Assistant Professor, Section of Orthodontics, Graduate School of Dental Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan.

^b Associate Professor, Section of Orthodontics, Graduate School of Dental Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan.

^c Private Practice, Mito, Ibaragi, Japan.

^d Professor and Chair, Section of Orthodontics, Graduate School of Dental Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan.

Corresponding author: Takashi S. Kajii, Section of Orthodontics, Department of Oral Functional Science, Division of Oral Medical Science, Graduate School of Dental Medicine, Hokkaido University, Kita 13 Nishi 7 Kita-ku, Sapporo 060-8586, Hokkaido, Japan (e-mail: kajii@den.hokudai.ac.jp).

Accepted: July 2003. Submitted: April 2003.

© 2004 by The EH Angle Education and Research Foundation, Inc.

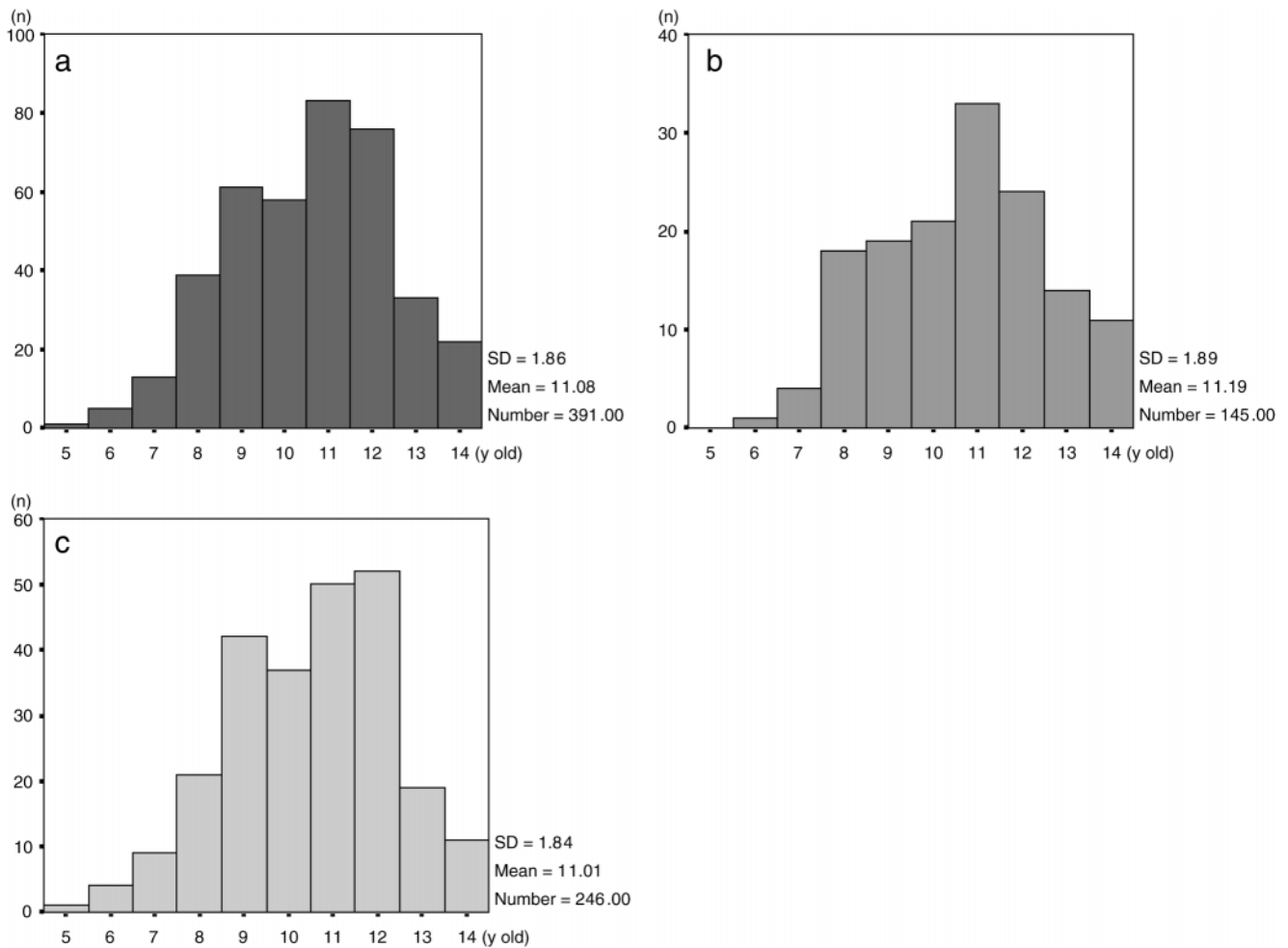


FIGURE 1. Distributions of ages of subjects in this study. (a) all subjects; (b) male; and (c) female.

TABLE 1. Subjects

Number	Date of Birth	Age at Initial Examination
391 (145 males, 246 females)	October 28, 1966 – July 20, 1987	5 y 7 mo – 14 y 11 mo

and/or small mandible,²⁵ whereas skeletal Class III patients generally have a small maxilla and/or large mandible. The percentage of Japanese orthodontic patients with one or more third molar ageneses is lower in skeletal Class II patients than in skeletal Class III patients.¹⁴ In addition, some reports speculate that the same genes may regulate both craniofacial and tooth morphogenesis.⁸ On the basis of these facts and speculations, we hypothesize that the agenesis of maxillary third molar germs depends on anteroposterior dimensions of the maxilla when third molar formation begins, although agenesis of mandibular third molar germs does not depend on anteroposterior dimensions of the mandible. To prove this hypothesis, we investigated the correlations between agenesis of third molar germs and sagittal

maxillomandibular jaw dimensions in orthodontic patients in Japan.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Subjects

Three hundred ninety-one patients (145 males and 246 females) were selected for this study from the orthodontic clinic of the Hokkaido University Dental Hospital (Figure 1; Table 1). All the subjects were younger than 15 years old when they were examined initially. Subjects with congenital deformities, such as a cleft palate, were excluded from the study.

Massler et al²⁶ reported that third molar crypt formation

begins at three to four years of age. Calcification starts at 7 to 10 years of age, and calcification of the crown is completed at 12 to 16 years of age and eruption begins at 17 to 21 years of age. This means that few people younger than 15 years old would have had a third molar extracted because of dental disease such as pericoronitis. This was the reason for the selection of subjects younger than 15 years old for our study. Investigations by Garn et al²⁷ and Graveley⁴ suggested that the upper age limit for third molar genesis is 13 years. There are some reports,^{1,5,28,29} however, of third molar development as late as 14 or 15 years of age. We, therefore, examined patients up to 14 years old.

Materials

Panoramic radiographs and lateral cephalograms taken at the initial examination were used to determine the presence of third molar germs and to measure angles and dimensions of the jaw (Figure 2). In cases where it was impossible to judge the presence of third molar germs from the panoramic radiographs taken at the initial examination, subsequent panoramic radiographs taken before the age of 14 years were used. Third molars or third molar germs refer to both impacted germs and erupted teeth.

The subjects were divided into a right and/or left maxillary third molar absent group (case n = 64) and a both-existent group (control n = 327). In the same way, the subjects were also divided into a right and/or left mandibular third molar absent group (n = 38) and a both-existent group (n = 353).

Cephalometric analysis

The ANB angle and the anteroposterior lengths of the nasal floor (ANS-PNS), the maxillary basal bone (A-Ptm = Mx), the mandibular corpus (Go-Pog), and mandibular basal bone (ABR-B = Mn) were measured on lateral cephalograms of each subject exposed at the initial examination (Figure 2). ABR is the point where the occlusal plane crosses the anterior edge of the ramus.

Statistical analysis

The values of these measurements depend on the age of the subjects. Therefore, these values were standardized using average values and standard deviations selected from serial records of Japanese subjects included in the files of a longitudinal craniofacial growth study at the Hokkaido University³⁰ or at the Osaka University Dental School.³¹

Nonadjusted and adjusted logistic regression analyses were used to estimate the associations between third molar agenesis and these cephalometric values. These analyses were carried out with the statistical package SPSS® Ver. 8.0 (SPSS Inc, Chicago, Ill), with a probability level of .05 considered statistically significant. Hosmer–Lemeshow tests were used for assessment of overall model goodness-of-fit.

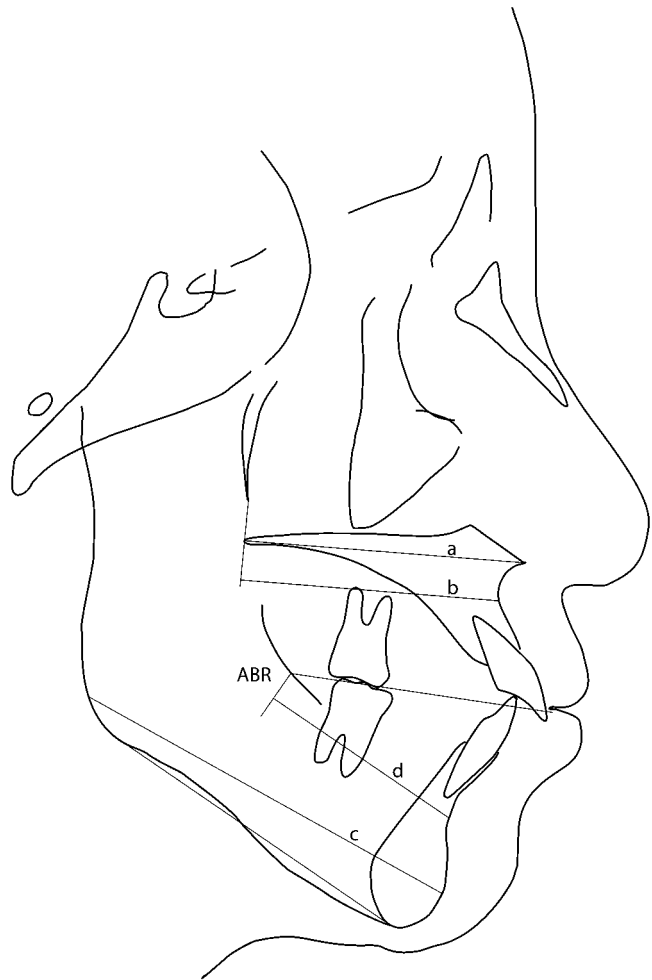


FIGURE 2. Linear cephalometric measurements relating to sagittal jaw dimensions. (a) ANS-PNS (mm), anteroposterior length of the nasal floor; (b) A-Ptm (Mx, mm), anteroposterior length of the maxillary basal bone; (c) Go-Pog (mm), anteroposterior length of the corpus; (d) ABR-B (Mn, mm), anteroposterior length of the mandibular basal bone (ABR: cross point between occlusal plane and anterior edge of the ramus).

TABLE 2. Crude Odds Ratios: Maxillary Third Molar Absent Group vs Existent Group^a

Variables	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	P Value
Sex	1.485	0.831–2.653	.182
ANB	0.803	0.686–0.941	.007**
ANS-PNS	0.826	0.656–1.041	.105
Go-Pog	0.896	0.747–1.075	.238
Mx	0.649	0.508–0.828	.005**
Mn	1.135	0.938–1.372	.193

^a ** P < .01.

RESULTS

Table 2 shows the results of the nonadjusted logistic regression analysis that estimates the associations between maxillary third molar agenesis and cephalometric measure-

TABLE 3. Adjusted Odds Ratios: Maxillary Third Molar Absent Group vs Existent Group^a

Variables	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	P Value
Sex	1.821	0.963–3.443	.065
ANB	0.910	0.717–1.154	.434
ANS-PNS	1.260	0.896–1.773	.184
Go-Pog	0.847	0.672–1.068	.160
Mx	0.559	0.377–0.829	.004**
Mn	1.227	0.947–1.588	.121

^a ** $P < .01$.

TABLE 4. Crude Odds Ratios: Mandibular Third Molar Absent Group vs Existent Group^a

Variables	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	P Value
Sex	0.792	0.401–1.562	.501
ANB	0.848	0.698–1.031	.098
ANS-PNS	0.871	0.654–1.160	.344
Go-Pog	0.968	0.773–1.211	.776
Mx	0.628	0.464–0.849	.003**
Mn	0.970	0.760–1.237	.805

^a ** $P < .01$.

ments. The numbers of subjects were 64 in the maxillary third molar absent group and 327 in the existent group. The frequency of maxillary third molar agenesis significantly increased with decreasing ANB (odds ratio = 0.803, 95% confidence interval = 0.686 – 0.941) and with decreasing Mx (odds ratio = 0.649, 95% confidence interval = 0.508 – 0.828).

After adjustment for sex, ANB, ANS-PNS, Go-Pog, Mx, and Mn, the frequency of maxillary third molar agenesis increased significantly further with a decrease in Mx (odds ratio = 0.559, 95% confidence interval = 0.377 – 0.829) (Table 3).

Table 4 shows the results of the nonadjusted logistic regression analyses that estimate the associations between mandibular third molar agenesis and cephalometric measurements. The numbers of subjects were 38 in the mandibular third molar absent group and 353 in the existent group. The frequency of mandibular third molar agenesis also increased with a decreasing Mx (odds ratio = 0.628, 95% confidence interval = 0.464 – 0.849).

Table 5 shows the results of the logistic regression analyses that estimate the associations between mandibular third molar agenesis and cephalometric measurements after adjustment for sex, ANB, ANS-PNS, Go-Pog, Mx, and Mn. The frequency of mandibular third molar agenesis increased further with decreasing Mx (odds ratio = 0.532, 95% confidence interval = 0.330 – 0.856). There were no significant associations between mandibular third molar agenesis and Mn or Go-Pog.

Hosmer–Lemeshow tests were used for assessment of overall model goodness-of-fit. Probability values were .465

TABLE 5. Adjusted Odds Ratios: Mandibular Third Molar Absent Group vs Existent Group^a

Variables	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval	P Value
Sex	0.998	0.482–2.065	.996
ANB	0.938	0.701–1.254	.665
ANS-PNS	1.378	0.898–2.115	.143
Go-Pog	0.977	0.740–1.289	.867
Mx	0.532	0.330–0.856	.009**
Mn	0.968	0.703–1.335	.844

^a ** $P < .01$.

(maxillary third molar model) and .665 (mandibular third molar model). Thus, these models were fitted well.

DISCUSSION

The frequency of maxillary third molar agenesis significantly increased with decreasing Mx (Table 3). The frequency of mandibular third molar agenesis also increased with decreasing Mx (Table 5). On the other hand, there were no significant correlations between Mn and mandibular third molar agenesis (Table 5). These results suggest that agenesis of third molar germs is not related to antero-posterior dimensions of the mandible but is related to those of the maxilla in Japanese orthodontic patients. Only a few reports^{32,33} support our suggestion.

Because skeletal Class II patients generally have a large maxilla and/or small mandible²⁵ and skeletal Class III patients generally have a small maxilla and/or large mandible, these results also explain why the percentage of skeletal Class II patients missing one or more third molars is lower than that of skeletal Class III patients.¹⁴ Therefore, a space deficiency for eruption of not only mandibular third molars but also mandibular second molars is often found in Class II patients.^{23,24}

There have been some reports comparing the agenesis of third molars in different races. Brothwell et al³⁴ and Stewart³⁵ reported that third molar agenesis in the Mongolian population, including the Japanese population, is higher than that in the European American population. They also reported that the highest frequency of third molar germs existent is found in black subjects. We speculate that one of reasons for these racial differences is that the Mongolian population may have more skeletal Class III patients who have a small maxilla than the European American population.

There seems to be a difference in third molar agenesis in the upper and lower arches between Asians and European Americans. Specifically, mandibular third molar agenesis is lower than maxillary third molar agenesis in Asians^{8–11,14} but not in European Americans.^{1–7} This suggestion is supported by results reported by Hillson.³⁶ However, the reason why there may be a difference in third molar agenesis in the upper and lower arches between Asians and European Americans is also not clear.

The reason why a small maxilla is associated with not only maxillary third molar ageneses but also mandibular third molar ageneses is not clear. On the other hand, some reports have suggested that homeobox genes and growth factor regulate craniofacial and tooth morphogenesis. A missense mutation of the *MSX1* gene at chromosome 4p16.1 causes ageneses of second premolars and third molars in humans.^{37,38} *PAX9* at chromosome 14q12-q13 is also associated with tooth ageneses,³⁹ especially molar ageneses.⁴⁰ Thus, some polygenetic inheritance controlling maxillary dimensions may be related to genes on formation of third molar germs.

In a future study, we will investigate the relationship between ageneses of third molar germs and some congenital deformities using cephalometric analyses. Molecular genetics of tooth morphogenesis and of craniofacial maturation should also be studied. Some polygenetic inheritance of congenital deformities may also be related to genes controlling formation of third molar germs.

CONCLUSIONS

The frequency of maxillary third molar ageneses significantly increased with decreasing sagittal dimensions of the maxillary basal bone. The frequency of mandibular third molar ageneses also increased with decreasing sagittal dimensions of the maxillary basal bone. On the other hand, there were no significant associations between sagittal dimensions of the mandibular basal bone and mandibular third molar ageneses.

These results suggest that ageneses of third molar germs does not depend on anteroposterior dimensions of the mandible but depends on anteroposterior dimensions of the maxilla in Japanese orthodontic patients.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to thank Dr Hideyuki Imai (Graduate School of Engineering, Hokkaido University) for his contributions to this study. This study was supported by the grant-in-aid for Scientific Research (No. 14771171) from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan.

REFERENCES

1. Banks HV. Incidence of third molar development. *Angle Orthod.* 1934;4:223–233.
2. Nanda RS. Agenesis of the third molar in man. *Am J Orthod.* 1954;40:698–706.
3. Garn SM, Lewis AB. The relationship between third molar ageneses and reduction in tooth number. *Angle Orthod.* 1962;32:270–279.
4. Gravely JF. A radiographic survey of third molar development. *Br Dent J.* 1965;119:397–402.
5. Richardson ME. Late third molar genesis: its significance in orthodontic treatment. *Angle Orthod.* 1980;50:121–128.
6. Lynham A. Panoramic radiographic survey of hypodontia in Australian Defence Force recruits. *Aust Dent J.* 1989;35:19–22.
7. Rajasuo A, Murtomaa H, Meurman JH. Comparison of the clinical status of third molars in young men in 1949 and in 1990.

- Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod.* 1993;76:694–698.
8. Kawanishi H. Statistical survey of third molars in Japanese [in Japanese]. *J Stomatol Soc Jpn.* 1959;26:463–478.
9. Asakura M. Relationship of size and form of the remaining teeth to third molar ageneses [in Japanese with English abstract]. *Aichi-Gakuin J Dent Sci.* 1975;13:270–302.
10. Hattab FN, Rawashdeh MA, Fahmy MS. Impaction status of third molars in Jordanian students. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod.* 1995;79:24–29.
11. Nakahara S, Tao SX, Kee CD, et al. Ethnic differences concerning the congenital absence of third molars: a comparison of modern people in six Asian countries. *Shigaku (Odontology).* 1997;84:551–559.
12. Levine JH. The third molar in the evolution of the jaw. *Dent Cosmos.* 1917;59:1203–1207.
13. Goblirsch AW. A study of third molar teeth. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 1930;17:1849–1854.
14. Kajii T, Imai T, Kajii S, Iida J. Presence of third molar germs in orthodontic patients in Japan. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 2001;119:245–250.
15. Laskin DM. Evaluation of the third molar problem. *J Am Dent Assoc.* 1971;82:824–828.
16. Richardson ME. The role of the third molar in the cause of late lower arch crowding: a review. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 1989;95:79–83.
17. Bramante MA. Controversies in orthodontics. *Dent Clin North Am.* 1990;34:91–102.
18. Bishara SE. Third molars: a dilemma! Or is it? *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 1999;115:628–633.
19. Merrifield LL. Differential diagnosis with total space analysis. *J CH Tweed Foundation.* 1978;6:10–15.
20. Graber TM. *Orthodontics. Principle and Practice.* 3rd ed. Philadelphia, Pa: Saunders; 1972.
21. Proffit WR. *Contemporary Orthodontics.* St Louis, Mo: Mosby; 1986.
22. Vego L. A longitudinal study of mandibular arch perimeter. *Angle Orthod.* 1962;32:187–192.
23. Majourau A, Norton LA. Uprighting impacted second molars with segmented springs. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 1995;107:235–238.
24. Orton HS, Jones SP. Correction of mesially impacted lower second and third molars. *J Clin Orthod.* 1987;3:176–181.
25. Baccetti T, Franchi L, McNamara JA Jr, Tollaro T. Early dentofacial features of Class II malocclusion: a longitudinal study from the deciduous through the mixed dentition. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 1997;111:502–509.
26. Massler M, Schour I, Poncher HG. Developmental pattern of the child as reflected in the calcification pattern of the teeth. *Am J Dis Child.* 1941;62:33–67.
27. Garn SM, Lewis AB, Bonn  B. Third molar formation and its developmental course. *Angle Orthod.* 1962;32:270–279.
28. Barnett DP. Late development of a lower third molar—a case report. *Br J Orthod.* 1976;3:111–112.
29. Trisovic D, Markovic M, Starcevic M. Observations on the development of third mandibular molars. *Eur Orthod Soc Trans.* 1977;147–157.
30. Nakamura S, Takeuchi Y, Suzuki S, et al. An atlas of growth analyses on craniofacial structures and dentitions using longitudinal materials collected at Nanporo-Cho [in Japanese]. *J Hokkaido Orthod Soc.* 1979;7:45–71.
31. Takimoto K. *Maxillary Protrusion* [in Japanese]. Tokyo: Ishiyaku Press; 1981.
32. Woodworth DA, Sinclair PM, Alexander RG. Bilateral congenital absence of maxillary lateral incisors: a craniofacial and dental cast analysis. *Am J Orthod.* 1985;87:280–293.

33. Tavajohi-Kermani H, Kapur R, Sciote JJ. Tooth agenesis and craniofacial morphology in an orthodontic population. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 2002;122:39–47.
34. Brothwell DR, Carbonell VM, Goose DH. Congenital absence of teeth in human populations. In: Brothwell DR, ed. *Dental Anthropology.* Oxford: Pergamon Press; 1963:179–190.
35. Stewart RE. The dentition and anomalies of tooth size, form, structure and eruption. In: Stewart RE, Barber TK, Troutman KC, Wei SHY, eds. *Pediatric Dentistry.* St Louis, Mo: Mosby; 1982: 87–110.
36. Hillson S. *Dental Anthropology.* New York, NY: Cambridge; 1966.
37. Vastardis H, Karimbux N, Guthua SW, Seidman JG, Seidman CE. A human MSX1 homeodomain missense mutation causes selective tooth agenesis. *Nat Genet.* 1996;13:417–421.
38. Vastardis H. The genetics of human tooth agenesis: new discoveries for understanding dental anomalies. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 2000;117:650–656.
39. Stockton DW, Das P, Goldenberg M, D'Souza RN, Oaterm PI. Mutation of PAX9 is associated with oligodontia. *Nat Genet.* 2000;24:18–19.
40. Frazier-Bowers SA, Guo DC, Cavender A, et al. A novel mutation in human PAX9 causes molar oligodontia. *J Dent Res.* 2002;81: 129–133.