REVIEW ARTICLE

Oral health care in children with disabilities: A narrative review

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Abstract

Children with disabilities face discrepancies in receiving oral health services due to several barriers. This article aims to provide an overview on the oral health status of children with disabilities, impact on Quality of Life of children with disabilities and their family members, approaches in oral health education and/or services, roles of medical/oral health care providers, carers/parents, and special schools/centres, and future aspiration concerning these children. Articles were searched using online databases (Google Scholar, MEDLINE/PubMed) using various terms. Additional articles were searched manually from the reference list of the previously searched articles. Children with disabilities showed a higher prevalence of caries and periodontal disease and had irregular dental visits owing to the limitations encountered by the carers/parents. The psychological and physical health of carers/parents, and the wellbeing of children with disabilities are interrelated, suggesting the need for a comprehensive support system to address the specific needs of these groups. Oral hygiene care services for these children could be improved using oral health education tools, strengthening dental outreach programs, and/or adopting behaviour modification techniques. Oral health in children with disabilities is a global concern, therefore a holistic approach addressing this problem from the individual to international level, including interprofessional collaboration is imperative.

Keywords: children with disabilities, oral health care, oral health services, oral health status, special needs children

Introduction

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), disabilities or impairments are problems in body function or structure such as a significant deviation or loss, and can involve an anomaly or defect (WHO, 2001). There are three components classified in the international classification of functioning, disability and health WHO namely body functions and structures, activities and Received: 19 May 2023 Revised: 26 June 2023 Accepted: 26 October 2023 Published Online: 29 February 2024

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participation, and environmental factors. Examples of impairments in body functions and structures include mental function, sensory function, loss of a limb, loss of vision/speech/memory. The limitation in activities and participation include the difficulty communicating, seeing, hearing, mobility. self-care, working, problem solving, engaging in social activities, and obtaining health care services. The environmental factors include support and

Malaysia.

relationships, individual and societal attitudes, services, systems and policies.

The variety in distribution and severity of oral diseases in children with disabilities in different parts of the world and within the same country or region could be due to disparities in the accessibility and/or utilisation of oral health services (Petersen, 2004). Several factors are reported in literature including lack of training and skills among oral health care providers specific to these children, difficulties in dealing with behavioural issues, inadequate referral facilities. inadequate exposure during undergraduate studies, prioritisation of other medical issues by carers/parents, background socioeconomic of the carers/parents, poor oral health literacy (OHL) of carers/parents/public/oral health providers/policymakers, care time insufficient constraints, financial reimbursement, lack of support from family members and society, as well as unmet needs for routine medical care that lead to unmet needs for oral care (Shenkin et al., 2001, Kane et al., 2008, Bindal et al., 2015, Abduludin et al., 2019, Craig et al., 2019, Zhou *et al.*, 2021).

Apart from these factors, the child's developmental profile also influences accessibility to oral health services (Zhou et al., 2021). This includes children with multiple developmental disabilities, Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD), developmental delays, cerebral palsy, epilepsy, or other syndromes who might be fully dependent on their carers/parents not only for the access to oral health services but with their daily oral health care as well (Zhou et al., 2021). Data from Medicaid (a federal and state program that helps cover healthcare costs of low income groups) in Washington, United showed underutilised State of America preventive dental care in preschool children with disabilities under the Access to Baby and Child Program compared to those without disabilities (Craig et al., 2019).

Various oral health education programs targeting these children and their carers/parents have been developed to improve oral health services and patient care. However, due to several barriers in the accessibility to oral health services, the oral health care of these children seem insurmountable although there are evident of positive outcomes when the appropriate approaches are utilised. This article aims to provide an overview on the oral health status of children with disabilities, impact on Quality of Life of children with disabilities and their family members, approaches in oral health education and/or services, roles of medical/oral health care providers, carers/parents, and special schools/centres, and future aspiration concerning these children.

Literature search was carried out on Google Scholar using keywords 'children with disabilities', 'oral health services', 'oral health status' and 'oral health care'. Another search strategy was MEDLINE/PubMed database using keywords 'children with disabilities', 'special needs children', 'oral health services', 'oral health status', and 'oral health care'. The literature search was conducted from September to December 2021 by two authors independently. Then, the discussion was made on the potential articles to be included in the manuscript. Articles published in English from 2001 to 2021 were reviewed for their scientific contents. Additional articles were selected from the reference list of the previously searched articles. 52 published articles were included in this review, most of them are cross-sectional and qualitative studies, and also review articles.

Oral health status of children with disabilities

The oral health status of children with disabilities has been assessed in several countries. A recent study in China reported of poor oral health status; caries experience in 30.3%, gingivitis in 90% and visible dental plaque in 95% of the recruited children (Zhou *et al.*, 2019). The age of these children were 2-6 years old with the average age of 3.87 \pm 0.93 years old. In the United Arab Emirates (UAE), 85.2% of children with disabilities had caries with a mean decayed, missing, filled teeth (dmft/DMFT) score of 5.67 \pm 4.69 (Alkhabuli *et al.*, 2019). The age

of these children were 3-17 years; 7 (13%) children in the 3-5 years age group, 23 (42.6%) in the 6-10 years age group and 24 (44.4%) in the 11-17 years age group. Despite studying at a centre for children with disabilities that offered an intensive rehabilitation program for these children, a high prevalence of dental caries was evident. Another study reported higher mean scores of the decayed component of DMFT in children with Down Syndrome (DS) in the UAE compared to children without DS; 2.73 \pm 0.22 and 1.65 \pm 2.46 respectively (Ghaith et al., 2019). Findings from a case control study conducted in Serbia revealed dmft/DMFT scores of $12.4 \pm 7.7/5.4 \pm 4.4$ in children aged 6-11 years old, and a DMFT of 20.9 ± 9.6 in children aged 12-16 years old compared to the non-medically compromised children (Mandić et al., 2018). In the non-medically compromised children, the dmft/DMFT scores were 5.7 \pm 6.9/1.0 \pm 1.7 in children aged 6-11 years old, and the DMFT score was 7.7 ± 5.3 in children aged 12-16 years old. Children with disabilities had statistically higher dmft/DMFT scores in both primary and permanent dentitions than the children without disabilities. The data indicate lack of access or utilisation of oral health care could be due to a greater difficulty of treating children with disabilities owing to the inability of these children to communicate and cooperate during dental treatment (Mandić et al., 2018). A screening conducted in India revealed 38% caries prevalence and 59.09% gingival bleeding in children with various disabilities, indicating significant problems in their oral health and the need for oral care (Mehta et al., 2015). In Taiwan, the overall mean dmft/DMFT score was 12.5 ± 5.0 in these children (Chen et al., 2014). A similar study was conducted in Nigeria, however some of the children were either ill or uncooperative resulting in exclusion from the study. The study was conducted at a private institution attended bv carers/parents from the upper and middle socioeconomic status, which hindered comprehensive assessment of the oral health status of these children from various socioeconomic backgrounds (Oredugba & Akindayomi, 2008). Nevertheless, authors reported a high prevalence of caries in these

children with a mean dmft score of 0.7 ± 1.77 and mean DMFT score of 0.4 ± 1.44 (Oredugba & Akindayomi, 2008). The dmft/DMFT scores were much lower compared to other countries. Conversely, in Libya, the mean dmft scores in children with and without ASD were 1.13 ± 1.84 and 2.85 ± 3.32 respectively (Fakroon et al., 2015). Meanwhile, the mean DMFT scores of the former and latter were 0.22 ± 0.08 and 1.15± 0.27 (Fakroon *et al.*, 2015). These findings suggested that children with ASD had lower caries prevalence compared to children without ASD, could be attributed to the higher awareness their among carers/parents (Fakroon *et al.*, 2015). Based on the majority of reported studies, the needs for oral health care in children with disabilities were somewhat equivalent (Chen et al., 2014; Mehta et al., 2015; Mandić et al., 2018; Alkhabuli et al., 2019; Ghaith et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2019).

In Malaysia, caries prevalence in these children was 54.9% with a mean dmft of 1.03 ± 2.13 and DMFT of 1.22 ± 2.23 (Mokhtar *et* al., 2016). The majority of carious teeth (85.2%) in these children aged 2 to 6 years old were untreated and required dental treatment (Mokhtar et al., 2016). This condition could be associated with multiple factors, one of them is the recruited children mostly had mental disabilities and possibly fully dependant on their carers/parents with their daily oral health care. In another study, caries prevalence in visually impaired children was much higher (85.2%) (Vinoven et al., 2021), almost similar to caries prevalence in children with cerebral palsy (81.7%) (Ahmad et al., 2020b). Approximately 56% of the children with cerebral palsy could not walk, crawl, creep, or scoot, 31.2% of them could crawl, creep and scoot while 12.9% could walk with the support from carers/parents (Ahmad et al., 2020b). This indicates that the majority of children with cerebral palsy are dependent on their carers/parents with their daily oral health care, and this situation could explain a higher prevalence of caries in these children; 97.9% and 81.7% of the caries affected deciduous and permanent dentition

| Studies | Country | Age of children | Type of impairments/disabilities | Findings |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Zhou <i>et al.,</i> 2019 | China | 2-6 years old (mean age of 3.87 ± 0.93) | Intellectual impairments: Mild (IQ 50-70) Moderate to profound (IQ below 50) Unspecific (too young or too uncooperative to receive the IQ test) Adaptive behaviours; conceptual skills, social skills, and practical skills. Each of them was ranked as "high or average," "limited (need assistance or supervision)" or "low (totally depend on others)" | Caries prevalence was 30.3% among the recruited children |
| Alkhabuli <i>et al.,</i> 2019 | United Arab Emirates | 3-17 years old | DS ASD Mental disability Hearing impairment Multiple disabilities | Caries prevalence was 85.2% of among the recruited children with a mean (dmft/DMFT) score of 5.67 ± 4.69 |
| Ghaith <i>et al.,</i> 2019 | United Arab Emirates | 4-18 years old DS (mean age of 9.3 ± 2.8) | DS Without DS | DMFT score was 2.73 ± 0.22 DMFT score was 1.65 ± 2.46 |
| Mandić <i>et al.,</i> 2018 | Serbia | Children without DS (mean age of 11.7 ± 4.4) 6-11 years old 12-16 years old | Medically compromised (no specific disabilities mentioned) | dmft/DMFT scores of 12.4 ± 7.7/5.4 ± 4.4 DMFT score was 20.9 ± 9.6 |
| | | 6-11 years old 12-16 years old | Non-medically compromised | dmft/DMFT scores were 5.7 \pm 6.9/1.0 \pm 1.7 DMFT score was 7.7 \pm 5.3 |

Table 1. Caries prevalence and dmft/DMFT scores in children with disabilities from different countries.

| Mehta <i>et al.,</i> 2015 | India | 3-15 years old | Intellectual impairment Visual impairment Hearing impairment Physical impairment | Caries prevalence was 38% among the recruited children |
|-----------------------------------|----------|----------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Chen <i>et al.,</i> 2014 | Taiwan | ≤14 years old | ASD Mental retardation Limb disability Infrequent disease caused by DNA impairment Visual impairment Voice/speech mechanism disability loss of function of primary organs Balance mechanism disability Multiple disabilities | Mean dmft/DMFT score was 12.5 ± 5.0 |
| Oredugba & Akindayomi, 2008 | Nigeria | 0-21 years old | Attention deficit hyper activity disorder (ADHD) ASD Cerebral palsy DS Learning disability Seizure disorder | Mean dmft score was 0.7 ± 1.77 and mean DMFT score was 0.4 ± 1.44 |
| Fakroon <i>et al.,</i> 2015 | Libya | 3-14 years old | ASD Without ASD | Mean dmft scores was 1.13 ± 1.84 and mean DMFT score was 0.22 ± 0.08 Mean dmft scores was 2.85 ± 3.32 and mean DMFT score was 1.15 ± 0.27 |
| Mokhtar <i>et al.,</i> 2016 | Malaysia | 2-17 years old (mean age of 11.57 ± 3.53) | Mental disabilities DS ASD Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder ADHD Global developmental delay Slow learner | Caries prevalence was 54.9% among the recruited children with a mean dmft of 1.03 ± 2.13 and DMFT of 1.22 ± 2.23 |

| Vinoven <i>et al.</i> , | Malaysia | 7-18 years old (mean | 2. Physical disabilities Hearing impairment Blindness and limb deficiency Multiple disabilities Visual impairment | Caries prevalence was 85.2% |
|-------------------------------|----------|-------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 2021 | Malaysia | age of 11.4 ± 3.05) | | among the recruited children |
| Ahmad <i>et al.,</i> 2020b | Malaysia | 5-17 years old (mean age of 12.0 ± 4.89) | Cerebral palsy | Caries prevalence was 81.7% among the recruited children 97.9% and 81.7% of the caries affected deciduous and permanent dentition respectively |
| John <i>et al.,</i> 2017 | Malaysia | 6-12 years old (mean age of 9.22 ± 1.785) | Global developmental delay ASD Intellectual disability Slow learner CHARGE syndrome Speech disabilities Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder ADHD DS Dyslexia Cerebral palsy | 62% of the recruited children had caries, 80% had no dental restoration |

respectively (Ahmad *et al.*, 2020b). Assessment of the oral health status of children with different types of learning disabilities in a Special Education Integrated Programme school showed that 62% of the children had caries, 70% had moderate to severe plaque score index and 80% had no dental restoration (John et al., 2017). Caries children prevalence in these was corroborated with caries prevalence reported in the UAE (Alkhabuli et al., 2019). Despite studying at a special school, poor oral health status in these children was observed. However, education tools facilitated by their teachers appeared to have a positive impact on promoting good oral hygiene in these children (Shahabudin et al., 2016). This was observed in visually impaired children in two schools (Shahabudin et al., 2016). A systematic review analysing the oral health status of children with disabilities in Asia revealed that children who suffered from intellectual disability or ASD had significantly more caries than children without intellectual disability or ASD, and lived in the countries with high DMFT scores in children 12 years old (Ningrum et al., 2021). However, not all Asian countries offer Special Care Dentistry (SCD), therefore the prevalence of oral health problems in these children may be underestimated (Ningrum et al., 2021). The summary of findings from different studies is shown in Table 1.

Besides caries, the assessment of periodontal status was also conducted in some studies. The prevalence of periodontal disease was high at 86.8% indicating poor periodontal status in these children (Alsanabani et al., 2012). In another study, poor knowledge on oral health, poor oral hygiene practice and high plaque maturity was observed in hearing-impaired children compared to children without disabilities (Tugeman et al., 2016). In children with cerebral palsy, 90.3% of them had dental plaque, suggesting ineffective oral hygiene practice could be due to impairment and dependency on carers/parents, as well as irregular dental visits (Ahmad et al., 2020b). The simplified Oral Hygiene Index score for children with mixed and permanent dentition was not significantly different between children with DS compared to children without DS; mean scores were 1.36 \pm 1.16 and 1.42 \pm 1.14 respectively (Ghaith *et* al., 2019). However, the Calculus Index was observed to be significantly higher in children with DS compared to children without DS; mean scores were 0.25 ± 0.52 and 0.07 ± 0.27 respectively (Ghaith et al., 2019). The prevalence of gingivitis was equivalent between children with DS compared to children without DS; 65.4% and 70.4% respectively (Ghaith et al., 2019). Although caries prevalence in children with ASD showed lower dmft/DMFT scores, more than 90% of these children presented with gingival bleeding or had supra and/or subgingival calculus (Fakroon et al., 2015), indicating the need for oral hygiene measures. The summary of findings from different studies is shown in Table 2.

Apart from caries and periodontal status, much attention has been directed towards the orthodontic aspect of children with disabilities. Findings documented in literature provide insights into this side of oral health in these children. For example, the occurrence of anterior crossbite in children with DS is associated with bottle feeding, and non-nutritive sucking habits for 24 months or more, whereas the posterior crossbite is associated with bottle feeding and non-nutritive sucking habits for 24 months or more, in addition to respiratory infection in the previous 6 months (Oliveira et al., 2011). In children with cerebral palsy, the occurrence of anterior open bite is associated with non-nutritive sucking habits for 24 months or more (Oliveira et al., 2011). In another study, assessment of the Dental Health Component of the Index of Orthodontic Treatment Need (IOTN) showed that 50.0% of children with DS and learning disabilities, 40.0% of children with ASD, 20.0% of children with visually impairment and 18.2% of children with hearing impairment required 'Great' need of orthodontic treatment (Soni et al., 2011). Meanwhile, 32.5% of children with mental retardation required 'Great' and 'Very Great' need of orthodontic treatment (Soni et al., 2011). When the Aesthetic Component of IOTN is assessed, 50.0% of children with DS,

| Studies | Country | Age of children | Type of disabilities | Findings |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Zhou <i>et al.</i> , 2019 | China | 2-6 years old (mean age of 3.87 ± 0.93) | Intellectual impairments; Mild (IQ 50-70) Moderate to profound (IQ below 50) Unspecific (too young or too uncooperative to receive the IQ test) Adaptive behaviours; conceptual skills, social skills, and practical skills. Each of them was ranked as "high or average," "limited (need assistance or supervision)" or | Gingivitis in 90% and visible dental plaque in 95% of the recruited children |
| Mehta <i>et al.,</i> 2015 | India | 3-15 years old | "low (totally depend on others)" 1. Intellectual impairment 2. Visual impairment 3. Hearing impairment 4. Physical impairment | 59.09% gingival bleeding among the recruited children |
| Alsanabani <i>et al.</i> , 2012 | Malaysia | 7-18 years old (mean age of 13.9 ± 3.17) | Not mentioned | Prevalence of periodontal disease was 86.8% |
| Tugeman <i>et al.,</i> 2016 | Malaysia | 7-14 years old (mean age of 12.0 ± 2.12) | Hearing impairment | 50.8% of hearing-impaired children had matured plaque compared to children without hearing impairment 13.2% |
| Ahmad <i>et al.</i> , 2020b | Malaysia | 5-17 years old (mean age of 12.0 ± 4.89) | Cerebral palsy | 90.3% of the children had dental plaque |
| Ghaith <i>et al.,</i> 2019 | United Arab Emirates | 4-18 years old DS (mean age of 9.3 ± 2.8) | DS | Mean score of the Simplified Oral Hygiene Index for children with mixed and permanent dentition was 1.36 ± 1.16 |

Table 2. Periodontal status in children with disabilities from different countries.

| | Children without DS (mean age | | Without DS | Mean score of the Calculus Index was 0.25 ± 0.52 Prevalence of gingivitis was 65.4% Mean score of the Simplified Oral |
|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| | | of 11.7 ± 4.4) | Without D5 | Hygiene Index was 1.42 ± 1.14 Mean score of the Calculus Index was 0.07 ± 0.27 Prevalence of gingivitis was 70.4% |
| Fakroon <i>et al.,</i> 2015 | Libya | 3-14 years old | ASD Without ASD | 90% of the children presented with gingival bleeding or had supra and/or subgingival calculus 41.8% of the children had no |
| John <i>et al.,</i> 2017 | Malaysia | 6-12 years old (mean age of 9.22 ± 1.785) | Global developmental delay ASD Intellectual disability Slow learner CHARGE syndrome Speech disabilities Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder ADHD DS Dyslexia Cerebral palsy | signs of periodontal disease 70% had moderate to severe plaque score index |

| Studies | Country | Age of children | Type of disabilities | Findings |
|---------------------------|---------|-----------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|
| Oliveira <i>et al.</i> , | Brazil | 3-12 years old | DS | The occurrence of anterior crossbite is associated with bottle |
| 2011 | | | | feeding, and non-nutritive sucking habits for 24 months or |
| | | | | more, whereas the posterior crossbite is associated with bottle |
| | | | | feeding and non-nutritive sucking habits for 24 months or more, |
| | | | | in addition to respiratory infection in the previous 6 months |
| | | | Cerebral palsy | The occurrence of anterior open bite is associated with non- |
| | | | | nutritive sucking habits for 24 months or more |
| Soni <i>et al.</i> , 2011 | India | 12-15 years old | 1. DS | Assessment of the Dental Health Component of the Index of |
| | | | 2. Learning disabilities | Orthodontic Treatment Need (IOTN) showed that the children |
| | | | 3. ASD | required 'Great' need of orthodontic treatment |
| | | | 4. Visual impairment | Assessment of the Aesthetic Component of IOTN showed that |
| | | | 5. Hearing impairment | the children required 'Great' need of orthodontic treatment |
| | | | Mental retardation | Assessment of the Dental Health Component of the Index of |
| | | | | Orthodontic Treatment Need (IOTN) showed that the children |
| | | | | required 'Great' and 'Very Great' need of orthodontic treatment |
| | | | | Assessment of the Aesthetic Component of IOTN showed that |
| | | | | the children required 'Great' need of orthodontic treatment |

Table 3. Orthodontic aspects in children with disabilities from different countries.

23.3% of children with mental retardation and 10.0% of children with ASD required 'Great' need of orthodontic treatment (Soni *et al.*, 2011). The summary of findings from different studies is shown in Table 3.

A study conducted in Hong Kong, China highlighted that a high percentage of children with disabilities (77.5%) had never visited a dentist (Zhou et al., 2019). Even though the percentage of children with disabilities who had never visited a dentist was high, they had a lower dmft score than those who had visited a dentist. Children with disabilities who had higher dmft score were associated with other factors: night bottle-feeding habit, the use of a nonfluoride-containing toothpaste and lower household income family. In contrast, a study in Belgium reported a high percentage of children with DS (66%) had visited a dentist within the last six months (Descamps & Marks, 2015). More than half (67%) of the parents graduated from tertiary education level and they had no problem in the accessibility to oral health services, probably might explain a higher percentage of dental visit among these children (Descamps & Marks, 2015). In Netherlands, a much higher percentage of children with ASD (81%) had visited a dentist within the last six months (Kind et al., 2021). A higher percentage of dental visit reported in the Netherlands could be due to highly motivated parents who are involved in ASD specific programs or participating in the conferences or websites, dental costs that are covered by the medical insurance for all children up to 18 years old, and the accessibility to oral health services (Kind et al., 2021). In Malaysia, 61.3% of children with cerebral palsy had at least one dental visit in their lifetime, while 38.7% of these children had never visited a dentist since birth (Ahmad et al., 2020b). Of these, 19.4% had been to a dentist about more than three years ago (Ahmad et al., 2020b). The plausible explanation of this could be attributed to the limited access to oral health services which includes logistic difficulties, behavioural issues, lack of educational experience and training in providing the treatment, as such precludes effective management of these children (Vozza et al., 2015).

Impact on Quality of Life of children with disabilities and their family members

In Brazil, the worst Quality of Life observed in carers/parents of children with disabilities was linked to the need for daily care including the daily living, educational and rehabilitation process of these children (Barros *et al.*, 2019). Carers/parents with low educational level were unable to enter the labour market and instead dedicated themselves to household tasks and caring for their children (Barros *et al.*, 2019).

A study investigating Oral Health Related Quality of Life (OHRQoL) revealed a negative impact of untreated caries and caries severity on children with disabilities and their family members (Faker et al., 2018). Most carers/parents reported the impacts was more toward the children with disabilities (69.5%) than to the family members (49.6%), and the most frequently reported impacts were 'pain in the teeth, mouth, or jaws'. However, comprehensive dental rehabilitation followed by recall visits and provision of dental kits for self-oral hygiene care showed positive long-term clinical effects on OHRQoL in these children (El-Meligy et al., 2016). These findings suggest that OHROoL of these children can be improved when appropriate measures are undertaken. However, limited studies addressing the OHRQoL in these children and their family members hinder effective evaluation of the overall situation, thus the actual impact of OHRQoL on them remain unknown. Perhaps, this limitation warrants more studies on OHRQoL involving these children and their family members so that intervention strategies the can be implemented.

Another aspect is that, carers/parents of children with disabilities tend to face negative social stigma from society, resulting in social isolation (Abduludin *et al.*, 2019). Instead of receiving social support, some carers/parents may experience prejudice while struggling to care for their children with disabilities. Family function plays an important role in the physical and psychological health of carers/parents, and social support from extended family members, friends, and neighbours in addition to immediate family members allow collective care for these children (Raina *et al.*, 2005).

A study on the financial expenses to cater to the needs of a child with cerebral palsy in Malaysia averaged RM29,710.76 per year (Kamaralzaman *et al.*, 2018). These healthcare expenses include costs, developmental costs and non-healthcare costs resulting in a huge financial burden for the carers/parents (Kamaralzaman et al., another studv 2018). In involving carers/parents of children with cerebral palsy in Malaysia, families with three or more children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds and with lower education levels shouldered a larger total financial burden (Abduludin et al., 2019). Most of the carers/parents need financial help for basic necessities and/or special equipment for children with their disabilities, and accompanying their children for dental visits incur additional transportation cost. While financial support from the Social Welfare Department is available, the policymakers must plan effective long-term solutions to support carers/parents of children with various disabilities (Kamaralzaman et al., 2018). In the United State of America, although children with disabilities are eligible for Medicaid oral health care coverage, their carers/parents experience other treatment barriers such as inability to get time off from employment, lack of child care services for other children, and difficulty accessing public transportation for the handicapped (Schultz et al., 2001). Although family members receive financial assistance from policymakers. carers/parents have to bear other costs that place a significant impact on the family's financial stability, especially in family from lower socioeconomic backgrounds.

Another aspect highlighted in literature is the interrelation between well-being of children with disabilities and their carers/parents. The psychological and physical health of carers/parents was greatly influenced by their child behaviour and caregiving demands (Raina *et al.*, 2005), and the well-being of children with disabilities is also closely related to the wellbeing of their other family members (Abduludin *et al.*, 2019). This situation must be tackled effectively so that the well-being of these children and their carers/parents are taken care of from various authorities.

Approaches in oral health education and/or services to children with disabilities

In order to improve the quality of patient care involving children with disabilities, the oral health education programs targeting these children and their carers/parents have become effective platform for the oral health care providers. For example, children with visual impairment were given oral health modules printed in braille for the blind and in font size 18 for the partially blind, including an audio narration of the module (Shahabudin et al., 2016). The use these modules, facilitated by their teachers were proven to be effective where a reduction in the plaque score in partially blind and totally blind children was observed after 1 month, indicated a positive impact on promoting good oral hygiene among these children (Shahabudin et al., 2016). In Hong Kong, China, the use of a toothbrushing visual that was provided module to the carers/parents to facilitate toothbrushing of their children with ASD at home showed a significant improvement in the oral hygiene status and gingival health over 6 months observation period (Du et al., 2021).

The behavioural management by means of tell-show-do method during clinical examination could improve the child's behaviour (Alkhabuli et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2019). A multistage visual protocol to facilitate children with ASD to undergo dental treatments as behavioural management showed an effective approach as well (Cagetti et al., 2015). This can be observed when these children were able to proceed through each stage of treatment with minimal refusal (Cagetti et al., 2015). Additionally, multisensory-adapted dental

environments could improve the behaviour of children with disabilities and would be an alternative approach in the clinical settings (Ismail et al., 2021). Apart from that, the use of intravenous sedation in uncooperative child with DS prior to oral examination was also effective in managing behaviour (Primarti & Pertiwi, 2007). Evaluation of salivary cortisol levels could be useful to help in treatment planning and appointment scheduling in children with ASD because the oral health care providers could consider behaviour modification techniques in these children (Abdulla & Hegde, 2015). This is because a significant correlation was observed between salivary cortisol levels and behaviour during the day and in the evening in children with ASD (Abdulla & Hegde, 2015). As the salivary cortisol levels increased, the behaviour among these children became worsened and vice versa. The researchers highlighted that the salivary cortisol acts as a stress marker and evaluating the diurnal variations of salivary cortisol levels can help the oral health care providers to comprehend the behaviour pattern and eventually could utilise the appropriate behaviour modification procedures and treatment planning involving these children (Abdulla & Hegde, 2015). Despite concern pertaining to behavioural issues in children with disabilities, when an appropriate approach is used, the behaviour can be managed effectively.

In Malaysia, dental outreach programs have been used to educate these children. For example, children with cerebral palsy attending the Community Base Rehabilitation centre benefit from the dental outreach program offered by public dental clinic (Abduludin et al., 2019). Another dental outreach program has benefited visually impaired children at a special education school as well (Ahmad et al., 2020b). The use of a specific module in oral health education for these children consisting an innovative oral health educational tool kit and exhibition materials provided an opportunity to improve the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and personal values among dental students in developing their professionalism in patient care (Ahmad *et al.*, 2020b). Their experience through this program could lead to a high standard of dental practice and high-quality patient care involving these children in the future (Ahmad *et al.*, 2020b). There have been limited dental outreach programs reported in literature, therefore it is rather difficult to draw robust conclusion as to whether this approach could benefit children with various disabilities. Perhaps, more dental outreach programs targeting these children can be planned by the authorities to help overcome the barriers in the accessibility and/or utilisation of oral health services among these children.

Roles of medical/oral health care providers, carers/parents, special schools/centres

A survey assessing the experience of finalyear dental students and new graduates in Malaysia revealed lack of training, confidence and skills to provide oral health services to patients with disabilities (Fuad et al., 2015). The implication is that, it could lead to ineffective treatment, which could cause further oral health complications and increased cost burden (Alumran et al., 2018). To date, most dental schools do not offer a specific module in SCD and the teachings about SCD were not properly established yet due to the limited number of trained oral health care providers in this area (Naimie et al., 2020).

In order to overcome this limitation. some approaches have been carried out to improve knowledge and awareness among dental students. For example, an assessment of the knowledge and awareness of dental students in Saudi Arabia in regards to the oral health care of children with disabilities by mean of questionnaires and video education intervention revealed a valuable approach in improving their knowledge (Salama et al., 2015). Early exposure, knowledge and training to provide oral health services to the children with disabilities should begin in dental colleges/schools (Salama et al., 2015). In Malaysia, an outreach program involving the

undergraduate dental students and visually impaired children showed positive impact in professional developing patient care (Ahmad et al., 2020a). In addition to this, the outreach program provided an opportunity for the dental students to gain early exposure to oral health services in children with disabilities (Ahmad et al., 2020a). Upon graduating from dental schools/colleges, training acquired by dentists in SCD should be enhanced so that a comprehensive oral health services to this group can be provided (Bindal et al., 2015). Such continuous training would not only benefit dentists but also all oral health care providers so that their skills, awareness and attitudes towards these children can be improved.

Oral health literacy refers to the ability of individuals to acquire and understand basic oral health information and services that are needed to make appropriate health decisions (Sabbahi et al., 2009; Horowitz & Kleinman, 2012). To date, there are limited studies addressing the association between the OHL of carers/parents/public/health care providers/policymakers and children with disabilities. Assessment of OHL in all groups allows us to identify the contributing factors that result in poor oral health status in these children, thus significant measures targeting all groups could be undertaken to improve the situation. Despite the limitation, when the OHL of carers/parents of children with disabilities was assessed, the majority of them have moderate levels of OHL (Fabillah et al., 2015). A similar study on carers/parents of children with visual impairment reported good attitude and practice towards their children's oral health, however minimal understanding on their children's oral health could leads to a higher caries prevalence (Vinoven et al., 2021). Although the OHL is not assessed directly, it could be postulated that a lower OHL in carers/parents might contribute to the prevalence of malocclusion in children with disabilities due to lack of awareness on the use of bottle feeding and non-nutritive sucking habits in these children (Oliveira et al., 2011). Children with cerebral palsy are usually fully dependant on their carers/parents and are unable to communicate, as a result carers/parents face

difficulties to understand the needs for oral health care (Abduludin *et al.*, 2019). This situation might explain the reason of untreated caries in children with cerebral palsy because the carers/parents are not able to recognise the early signs of oral health problem in their children.

It is understood that lower OHL levels in carers/parents are associated with decreased accessibility or utilisation of oral health services, while a higher OHL levels are associated with better communication between these children and their oral health care providers, hence improved oral health services (Bersell, 2017). This is proven when a multistage visual protocol was used by carers/parents of children with ASD in which the carers/parents demonstrated to understand the importance of oral health care for their children (Cagetti et al., 2015). In a study conducted in Libya, although the OHL or carers/parents is not assessed directly, it could be suggested that carers/parents who had increased awareness of factors causing dental caries. practised healthier eating behaviours and provided conducive living conditions for their child could contribute to a lower incidence of tooth decay in their children with ASD (Fakroon et al., 2015). In Malaysia, when the OHL of carers/parents of children with disabilities was assessed, the majority of them have moderate levels of OHL in which 70% had secondary education level and almost half of them (45%) had visited a dentist within the last 12 months (Fabillah et al., 2015). In Saudi Arabia, some parents of children with ASD have lack of confidence in taking care of their children's oral health, perform oral health care for their children when oral health problems occur, and prefer find a dentist who has better to understanding on the condition of their children (AlHumaid et al., 2020). These situations might correlate poor oral health practices and status among these children (AlHumaid *et al.*, 2020).

Due to the OHL barrier, more appropriate intervention programs for the carers/parents of children with disabilities should be carried out to improve their knowledge and understanding of the needs of these children. This could ultimately improve oral health services to these children (Fabillah et al., 2015). Undoubtedly, the needs for continuous oral health promotion (Zhou et al., 2019) and/or more appropriate intervention programmes (Fabillah et al., 2015) are indispensable. Another aspect that could lead to disparities in receiving oral health services in these children is the recruitment process used in research studies. Children with multiple disabilities and syndromes (Zhou et al., 2019), cerebral palsy (Ahmad et al., 2020b), DS (Descamps & Marks, 2015) and ASD (Kind et al., 2021) have different impairments and mobility, which affect their levels of dependency for daily activities, such as tooth brushing and feeding (Ahmad et al., 2020b). This dependency might include their accessibility to receiving oral health services as well. Based on the aforementioned differences, the findings imply that an effective preventive approach by oral health care providers, OHL in carers/parents, the public, health care providers and policymakers, and effective behavioural management in these children are pivotal to ensure that the discrepancies in access to oral health services in these children can be minimised. Efforts to improve prevention and quality of care, reduce costs, and reduce oral health disparities could not be achieved without improvements in OHL across various groups (Horowitz & Kleinman, 2012).

The existence of special schools/centres that provide support, rehabilitation program and/or education to these children are common in many countries. In the United Arab Emirates, children with disabilities studying at Ras Al-Khaimah Rehabilitation Centre for Disabled receive an intensive rehabilitation program, examined and medically diagnosed according to the centre's protocol with full medical records (Alkhabuli et al., 2019). In Hong Kong, China, Special Child Care Centres provide training and care for preschool children with ASD, physical and/or mental. sensorv impairments, helping them to prepare for primary education (Zhou et al., 2021, Du et al., 2021). In Libya, the Libya Benghazi Centre of Autism provides care and support not only for these children but also to the families whose children are diagnosed with ASD (Fakroon *et al.*, 2015). In Malaysia, Special Education Integrated Program schools are available to provide support for these children with different types of learning disabilities (John *et al.*, 2017).

Future aspirations

Transferring knowledge and experiences in disease prevention into action programmes are limited by the social, economic and cultural factors (Petersen, 2004). Minimising the disparities in oral health services require broad approaches that target populations at highest risk of oral disease, and improve accessibility to the existing care (Petersen, 2004).

Early clinical exposure to managing children with disabilities in dental schools/colleges is still inadequate and this needs to be emphasised in the curriculum (Fuad et al., 2015. Naimie. 2020) to prepare undergraduate dental students for the task of providing oral health services to these children later on. It has been reported that there was positive effect of education on the likelihood of caring for children with disabilities in which the oral health care providers who had not been exposed to theoretical and hands-on training in dental schools were less likely to care for these children (Casamassimo et al., 2004). Conversely, dentists who had received education in children with disabilities experienced fewer barriers to providing oral health services these children to (Casamassimo et al., 2004).

Oral health education tools for visually impaired students are beneficial (Shahabudin *et al.*, 2016) and could benefit hearing-impaired children as well, however oral health education methods/tools that specifically target the needs of the latter group should also be developed (Tugeman *et al.*, 2016) to ensure that the oral health education in this group of children is equally effective. When planning interventions for the children with disabilities and their carers/parents, it is essential for the oral health care providers to consider the child's behavioural issues as an important determinant of child and carers/parents well-being (Raina et al., 2005). The implementation of interventions at midlevel oral health care providers such as dental hygienists (Bersell, 2017) and feasibility of dental home care (Abduludin et al., 2019) have also been highlighted in literature. At the global level, priority actions for oral health such as fluoride supply. improvement of nutrition, control of tobacco use and health promotion in schools (Petersen, 2004) must be strengthened. An established training program should be emphasised at the national level. For example, a program entitled 'Pediatric Dentistry and Advanced Education in General Dentistry (AEGD) Residency Collaborative on ASD' conducted at the Nova Southeastern University College of Dentistry and funded by the Health Resources and Services Administration provides valuable services to a population of children with disabilities (Ocanto et al., 2020). However, to develop such a program, financial assistance from policymakers and/or Non-Government Organisation (NGO) is required.

Development of a new model addressing the roles of individuals, carers/parents, society, stakeholders, and NGOs to tackle issues related to the children with disabilities, aiming to improve oral health services to these children would be helpful. This oral health education includes and inter-professional promotion, collaborations, and implementation of guidelines/policies by the decision-makers to reduce inequalities in access to oral health services in these children. Togetherness is integral, every individual needs to play a significant role to contribute to the betterment of oral health services for children with disabilities in the country. Improving OHL can be a predictable approach to reduce the disparities in the accessibility or utilisation of oral health care (Horowitz & Kleinman, 2012).

Conclusion

The majority of children with disabilities have higher caries prevalence and periodontal disease, and show the need for orthodontic intervention. Barriers hindering accessibility to oral health services in children with disabilities must be tackled effectively, taking into consideration the various form of disabilities and the use of appropriate educational methods/tools to help these children and educate their carers/parents in oral health care. Guidelines/policies related to SCD in dental curriculum and support systems for these children and their carers/parents should be planned comprehensively to ensure their needs are fulfilled. The oral health of children with disabilities is a global concern, therefore a holistic approach addressing this problem from the individual to the international level including interprofessional collaborations is imperative.

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Conflict of interest

None

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