

Review Article

Masticatory Muscle Responses to Mandibular Forward Positioning Appliances

Napat Nalamliang¹, Udom Thongudomporn¹

¹Orthodontic Section, Department of Preventive Dentistry, Faculty of Dentistry, Prince of Songkla University, Songkhla, Thailand

Abstract

An understanding of how the masticatory muscles respond to functional appliances that move the mandibular forward, i.e. activator, Herbst, Forsus appliance, etc. provides a necessary physiologic detail and it is essential to the field of orthodontics and oral physiology. Electromyography (EMG) has been used to assess both qualitative and quantitative muscle functions. A number of studies attempted to find out the response of masticatory muscles during the use of mandibular forward positioning appliances, but the results have been inconsistent. The purpose of this article is to present research findings related to the masticatory muscle responses to mandibular forward positioning appliances assessed by EMG.

Keywords: Electromyography, Functional, Masticatory Muscles, Orthodontic Appliances

Received date: Oct 15,2019	Revised date: Nov 19,2019	Accepted date: Dec 13,2019
Doi: 10.14456/jdat.2020.10		

Correspondence to:

Udom Thongudomporn. Orthodontic Section Department of Preventive Dentistry, Faculty of Dentistry, Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai, Songkhla, 90110 Thailand Tel: 0-8189-71400 E-mail: udom.t@psu.ac.th

Introduction

Class II malocclusion is a common pattern worldwide¹⁻³ which comes to orthodontists with a variety of configurations that are skeletal, dental, or both.⁴ The skeletal problem, most common with mandibular skeletal retrusion^{5,6}, has been treated with functional appliances for decades to alter the neuromuscular activity around the mandible.⁷⁻¹⁰ The function of masticatory muscles is believe to affect craniofacial growth, orthodontic treatment, and dentofacial orthopedic treatments.¹¹⁻¹³ Therefore, the objective of this kind of treatment is to improve the

quilibrium of the muscles and correctly balance the forces inducing the growth and the development of craniofacial skeletal morphology.^{14,15}

The effect of orofacial musculature on the facial morphology and dentoalveolar position has been widely studied. The main muscles that are attached to the mandible are the masticatory muscles, e.g., masseter, temporalis, medial, and lateral pterygoid muscles, and other associated muscles such as suprahyoid muscles. These muscles may play a part in the dentoskeletal morphology and also the possible cause of relapse after orthodontic treatment.¹⁶⁻²⁰ To determine the activity of these muscles, electromyography (EMG) is used because it is the most objective and reliable technique for evaluating muscle function.²¹

Electromyography (EMG)

EMG is an electrical technique to assess neuromuscular activity using electrodes which basically determine how active a muscle is during both static and dynamic conditions. It has been widely used in the research field and medical practices as a diagnostic tool in a nerve conduction study called an electrodiagnostic study²², as a treatment method called biofeedback training²³ and in neurophysiological studies to understand the activation pattern of muscles. Dentistry commonly uses EMG in studies of temporomandibular joint disorder, muscle disease of the head and neck region, cranial nerve lesion, seizure disorders, and in muscle response to various activities and appliances.^{7,24-27}

The EMG signal is an electrical current that is generated by the flow of ions across the membrane of muscle fibers which can activate a potential action to produce muscle contraction. The signal is transmitted through the surrounding tissues to reach the electrode detection surface.²⁸ Once the signal has been amplified and filtered, it is displayed in the time domain along with amplitude, duration, and frequency of muscle activity. The visual representation is called an electromyogram.²⁹ The electromyogram can be processed in various types depending on its application such as a mathematical analysis, like an integrated value, root mean square value, or frequency domain transformation to measure muscle fatigue.^{28,30,31}

There are two kinds of EMGs: surface EMG and intramuscular EMG. The intramuscular EMG can be performed using either needle or fine-wire electrodes that penetrate into the target muscle with a surface electrode as the reference. When the electrode is inserted into the muscle, the motor unit action potential can be recorded.²⁸ This represents the summated electrical

activity of action potentials of all muscle fibers which are innervated by the same motor nerve fiber. In contrast, surface EMG (sEMG), which is safer, easier and non-invasive, represents all electrical activity beneath the surface electrodes. Therefore, this method is very sensitive and easily affected by noise and environmental factors, like hair or a fat pad beneath the skin.^{28,31} Moreover, it cannot record the activity of deep muscles like the medial and lateral pterygoid muscles and can hardly assess muscles under unfavorable skin conditions, such as the posterior part of temporalis muscles which are covered with hair. Thus, the masseter muscle and the anterior temporalis muscle are more favorable for the surface EMG studies.³²

The EMG signal is affected by physiological, anatomical, biochemical, and technical factors. Carlo De Luca³⁰ described thoroughly these factors including the electrode structure, its placement, the intrinsic factors, e.g., muscle fiber type, diameter, subcutaneous tissue, and also other factors like age and sex. Therefore, comparisons of EMG both within and between individuals is potentially fraught with reliability problems unless a normalization technique is used.³³ Several forms of normalization exist, the most common method is to compare the raw signal with maximum voluntary isometric contraction. Due to the inconsistency of maximum effort, submaximal voluntary contraction is used instead in some studies.³⁴⁻³⁶ For comparison between participants, Ferrario *et al.*³⁷ also invented indices which were the asymmetry index, activity index, and torgue index, which have been used in many studies of masticatory muscles.³⁸⁻⁴⁴

Mandibular forward positioning appliances

Since the 1930s, a wide range of functional appliances, designed to correct class II malocclusion with retrognathic mandible, gained popularity in Europe and spread throughout the rest of the world.^{4,45,46} These appliances aimed to stimulate mandibular growth by forward posturing of the mandible and they are effective to correct this type of skeletal and occlusal disharmony in preadolescent patients. The appliances can be either removable, activator or bionator, or fixed, Herbst appliance,

Forsus appliance, tooth borne, or tissue borne appliance (Frankel-II appliance).

The understanding is that a functional appliance in a growing patient can be very effective in reducing even a very large overjet⁴⁷ but some authors believe there is little evidence to support the fact that functional appliances significantly alter mandibular growth.^{48,49} In any case, there is still controversy.⁴⁷ From a systematic review of functional appliances in class II malocclusion⁴, most previous studies reported clinically significant supplementary elongation in the total mandibular length as a result of overall active treatment with functional appliances. The Herbst appliance showed the highest coefficient of efficiency (0.28 mm per month) followed by the Twin-block appliance (0.23 mm per month). On the other hand, some studies claimed that the main changes caused by functional appliances were of dentoalveolar nature that included distalization of the maxillary posterior segment, lingual inclination of maxillary incisors, mesialization of the mandibular posterior segment, and buccal inclination of mandibular incisors.^{50,51} Janson *et al.*⁵² reported that most changes were dentoalveolar with fewer skeletal effects in patients treated with the Frankel appliance, in contrast with Toth and McNamara.⁵³ The Frankel appliance can also rotate the mandible either forward or downward which may stretch the surrounding muscles which could initiate bone modeling at muscle-attached site.

The aim of this article was to present the masticatory muscle responses to mandibular forward positioning appliances in terms of EMG changes. Furthermore, the results of previous studies are discussed.

Masticatory muscle responses to mandibular forward positioning appliances

Table 1 summarizes all studies related to the use of EMG in studying the effect of mandibular forward positioning appliances.

Lateral pterygoid muscle

In 1973, McNamara¹⁰ was the first to study neuromuscular adaptation of mandibular forward-positioning appliance therapy using needle EMG to evaluate the lateral pterygoid muscles in rhesus monkeys (*Macaca mulatta*) during postural and functional movement. He found an increase in lateral pterygoid activity from forward positioning of the mandible during the experimental period but after 8-12 weeks the activity decreased or disappeared. The results were used to develop the "lateral pterygoid muscle hypothesis" which stated that after the insertion of a functional appliance, an increase in postural activity of the lateral pterygoid muscle was responsible for increased condylar growth. In contrast, Sessle *et al.*⁷ reported a decrease in postural EMG activity of the masseter, digastric, and lateral pterygoid muscles in monkeys during the six-week experiment that gradually returned to the pretreatment level. Also, Yamin-Lacouture et al.⁹ demonstrated similar results as Sessle et al. by using implanted hook electrodes in monkeys with the Herbst, Frankel, and simulated Clark Twin-block appliances and demonstrated a decrease in EMG activity within the experimental period of 12 weeks which then returned to pretreatment levels. They reported that the decrease of EMG activity was possibly due to shortening of the lateral pterygoid after the insertion of the mandibular forward positioning appliances and the altered masticatory muscles changed the swallowing patterns. In 2000, Hiyama et al.⁵⁴ tried to develop a painless and non-invasive surface EMG technique to evaluate the lateral pterygoid muscle in humans and used it to evaluate the Herbst appliance during therapy. The results showed an increase in lateral pterygoid muscle activity immediately after insertion and removal of the appliance which supported the lateral pterygoid muscle hypothesis¹⁰ and then decreased to the previous level in 4-6 months which was presumed to be the lateral pterygoid muscle adaptation period.

Though these studies were not totally concordant, they concluded that there is a period of time when lateral pterygoid muscle activity rebounded to the original level which could imply that this muscle had an adaptability potential of around six weeks to six months.

Jaw-closing muscles: masseter and temporalis muscles

Research by Sessle *et al.*⁷ and Yamin-Lacouture *et al.*⁹ also studied the masseter muscles in monkeys. They reported the same results as the lateral pterygoid muscle which demonstrated decreased activity in 6-12 weeks and rebounded later. They reported that an increase in the vertical dimension could elongate the masseter muscle and alter the swallowing pattern of the monkeys.

Rest position

In early human studies⁵⁵⁻⁵⁸, increased postural jaw elevator muscle activity was found during the use of an activator but other researchers⁵⁹⁻⁶² found no difference or even decreased activity. In 1988, the results of a crosssectional study designed by Miraelles *et al.*⁵⁹ showed no significantly different integrated EMG values of the masseter and anterior temporalis muscles between activator users and non-users in the rest position. However, as discussed above, it is not recommended to compare the EMG values between participants. Later in 1999, Aggarval *et al.*⁵⁷ conducted a longitudinal study to observe ten young patients (ages between 9-12 years old) with Twinblock appliances. The locations of the electrodes were standardized to allow a comparison between participants over a period of time.⁶³ The results of the treatment at 1, 3, and 6 months showed an increase in peak-to-peak amplitude at rest in both muscles but the differences were not statistically significant (p>0.05) in the anterior temporalis muscle. The improvement in temporalis muscle activity was in agreement with other investigators^{64,65} who reported that the values at each recording were higher with the appliance due to the intervening signal from posterior temporalis muscle, which tried to retract the mandible back. The increased postural activity of the masseter muscle was thought to be a stretching reflex due to the protrusion of the mandible.⁵⁷

A recent longitudinal study by Cuevas *et al.*⁴³ in 2013, investigated 27 patients treated with a Teuscher activator with high-pull headgear. The mean EMG values of the masseter, anterior and posterior temporalis muscles at rest after finishing the first phase of treatment (mean activator treatment time = 1.1 year) were not significantly different from the pretreatment values. By using Ferrario's EMG indices³⁷, the asymmetry index showed more symmetrical muscular condition after functional treatment. The activity index showed more predominance of the

anterior temporalis muscle in the rest position which supported the role that the temporalis muscles were important in positioning the mandible in normal young patients.³⁷ Two years after orthodontic treatment had finished, the mean EMG values increased and the author claimed that was due to good neuromuscular adaptation of the mandible. From another point of view, that possibly resulted from increased age of the children.

Isometric contraction

Another way to evaluate muscle activity is isometric contraction which can be performed while clenching the teeth with maximum or constant submaximal force.^{30,66,67} Similar to the rest position, various results were demonstrated in previous studies. Miraelles *et al.*⁵⁹ also reported no significant difference of integrated EMG values of the masseter and temporalis muscles between activator users and non-users. The results from a study by Aggarval *et al.*⁵⁷ were contrary to the results of a study by Miraelles in that an increase in peak-to-peak amplitude of both muscles during maximal voluntary clenching after six months of using a Twin-block appliance was found. Interestingly, when clenching immediately after the insertion, the muscle activity was lower in both the anterior temporalis and masseter muscles which was assumed to be the abrupt change of these muscles.

In 2011, Sood *et al.*⁶² designed a longitudinal study with 15 female patients with fixed functional appliances (ForsusTM). The patients were evaluated periodically for two years with standardized placement of the electrodes.⁶³ During maximum voluntary clenching, the EMG values significantly decreased in 1-3 months (p<0.05) after ligating the ForsusTM apparatus which concurred with other studies with functional appliances^{61,68,69}, then gradually started to increase and returned to pretreatment levels within six months and remained stable until the end of the two-year observation period. It was believed that this was due to muscle adaptation.

Cuevas *et al.*⁴³ also observed decreased left masseter activity after functional treatment. This finding was probably caused by unstable occlusion or less occlusal contact area of the posterior teeth during maximum voluntary clenching after the position of the teeth and mandible were changed. In the 2-year observation period after finishing orthodontic treatment, left masseter activity increased to the pretreatment level, and the other jawelevated muscles had increased activity compared to the pretreatment level. These findings were associated with improvement in the occlusal conditions, i.e. contact quality and stability, after orthodontic treatment as well as the increase in age.

A recent randomized controlled trial study in 2014 by Satygo et al.⁷⁰ demonstrated a significant increase in sEMG activity of the masseter and anterior temporalis muscles during clenching after treatment with a pre-orthodontic trainer for 12 months. Thirty-six patients with class II division 1 with mandibular retrognathism were functionally treated. Twenty-two patients who had the same diagnosis were also included in the study but were untreated. The normal control group included 20 participants who had normal occlusion. The EMG recordings was analyzed without normalization. At the beginning of the study, the participants with a Class II, division 1 malocclusion (treated and untreated groups) showed EMG activity that was approximately 1.5-fold less than the control group. After 12 months, the control group remained with similar values in both masseter and anterior temporalis muscle. However, the treated group reported a significant increase in the activity of both muscles (p<0.001) that reached the values of the control group. On the other hand, the untreated controls reported no significant change in the EMG activity compared to baseline. The authors cited Moss's functional matrix theory⁵⁶ and claimed that improvement in muscular activity would accelerate bone remodeling at the condyle and lead to adaptive mandibular growth and improvement in the Class II sagittal relationship. Similar to a previous experimental study, Erdem *et al.*¹⁴ demonstrated increased masseter and anterior temporalis activity during clenching after 12 months of activator treatment compared with the untreated group. This increase in muscle activity might be a result of a more stable occlusion after functional therapy.

In 2017, Di Palma *et al.*⁷¹ measured masticatory muscle coordination after functional treatment with a Sander appliance for 12 months without normalization technique by calculating the EMG indices, e.g. percentage overlapping coefficient, torque coefficient, and activity index, which were recommended due to the limitation to fix the position of the electrodes. A symmetrical activity was shown before and after treatment without alteration. They reasoned that a stable treatment outcome resulted from a good muscular equilibrium.

The findings of most aforementioned studies indicated that adaptation of these jaw closing muscles occurred within a certain period of time (six weeks to three months) whether the muscle activity was observed to increase or decrease.

Functional movement and other associated muscles

Many studies not only evaluated the masticatory muscles but also the other associated muscles, e.g., orbicularis and suprahyoid muscles^{7,9,43,61}, since their functions are related to mastication and deglutition. In an animal study, Yamin-Lacouture *et al.*⁹ also evaluated intramuscular EMG during swallowing at the anterior portion of the digastric muscles. As with other muscles, digastric muscle activity gradually decreased within 12 weeks and then was restored to the original value.

Again in a study by Cuevas *et al.*⁴³, the suprahyoid and jaw-closing muscles were studied during the swallowing and mastication. During both movements after functional treatment, all muscle activities increased continuously until two years after completion of orthodontic treatment which was assumed by the authors to be good adaptability of the jaw muscles to the new jaw position. Similar results were found in an experimental study by Erdem *et al.*¹⁴ during a 12-month observation period that compared 15 class II division 1 patients treated with an activator with ten untreated participants. The masseter and anterior temporalis muscle activities were increased during chewing in the treated group after functional treatment, but there was no significant difference in the activity during swallowing compared with the untreated group which was contrary to the study by Cuevas *et al.*⁴³ However, Cuevas *et al.*⁴³ claimed that the suprahyoid muscle activity eventually decreased significantly and the authors discussed that it was probably related to more mature swallowing.

Erdem *et al.*¹⁴ found an increased orbicularis oris activity during whistling after 12 months of functional treatment compared with the untreated group with a 12 month observation period. Moreover, Saccucci et al.72 evaluated the upper and lower orbicularis oris muscles between 13 Class II division 1 children with deep bite and lip incompetence and 15 normal children. The sEMG was recorded before treatment with a preformed orthodontic/ functional device (Occlus-o-Guide™Ortho-Tain Inc. – Toa Alta, Puerto Rico) and at 3 and 6 months after treatment in many activities: at rest, during kissing, swallowing, mouth opening, clenching, and mandibular protrusive position. Before the treatment, the treated group showed lower activity of the lower orbicularis oris muscle in most activities except during swallowing. At 6 months after treatment, the treated group seemed to reach similar muscle activity as the normal children which claimed to be an improvement in form and function of the orofacial muscle structure.

Summary

This review presents the neuromuscular activity and adaptation associated with various types of mandibular forward positioning appliances and discusses the uses of EMG as a tool to clarify the neurophysiology of the orofacial complex.

Due to the inconsistent findings among the studies, a standardized protocol to measure EMG is needed. For example, the normalization technique can reduce the factors which affect the reliability and allow betweenparticipants comparisons. A multi-national consensus initiative called SENIAM (Surface Electromyography or Non-Invasive Assessment of Muscles) and the ISEK (International Society of Electromyography and Kinesiology) have unified the methodology of sEMG recordings which could be a consistent standard for future studies. To apply the investigations in dentistry, the diagnostic tool, treatment outcome evaluation, and even biofeedback training have been developed. The scientific devices and processing methods have also allowed the researcher to create interesting novel investigations concerning EMG that are more accurate and effective under a gualified methodology.

In conclusion, due to technological factors, research design, and other limitations in previous studies, the studies on EMG have no clear-cut agreement. As reviewed above, there was some reported improvement in EMG activity while other investigators reported different results in muscle activity, different appliances, and different periods of observation times. Thus, most of these results showed that the appliances could alter the orofacial neuromuscular activities by either improvement or reduction, and the adaptation of the muscles might occur within a few months or in a half year.

Author (s)	Study groups	Sample	Аре	Material	Muscle (s)	Appliance (s)	Duration	Main finding
McNamara ¹⁰		28 rhasus monkavs	2	Needle FMG	atera	Functional mandibular	13 weeks	()) There was increased activity of the sumerior
2		(Macaca mulatta)			pterygoid	displacement		head of the lateral pterygoid muscle, both at
	l: infant	n=4 (control)	0.4-0.7 yrs					functional movements and at rest.
		n=3 (experiment)						(II) Eventually, the activity decreased and
	II: juvenile	n=4 (control)	1.5-2 yrs					returned to baseline.
		n=3 (experiment)						
	III: adolescent	n=4 (control)	4-4.5 yrs					
		n=3 (experiment)						
	IV: adult	n=4 (control)	6-7 yrs					
		n=3 (experiment)						
Ahlgren ⁵⁵	Class II, Division 1	n=20	8-16 yrs	Wired EMG: raw	Masseter,	Activator		(I) The activity of masseter muscles was
	malocclusion			data	temporalis			increased, but temporalis muscles were
								inhibited during the daytime.
								(II) The increased activity was not observed
								during the nighttime.
Miralles, Berger	Class II, Division 1	n=15 (male 6, female 9)	8-15 yrs	Surface EMG;	Masseter,	Activator	Immediate	(I) There was no significant difference in EMG
et al. ⁵⁹	malocclusion			Integrated value	anterior			activity at rest and clenching between subjects
					temporalis			with and without activator.
								(II) The activity in the masseter and temporalis
								muscles was significantly higher in subjects with
								the activator.
Sessle,		Juvenile female monkeys	1.5-2 yrs	Implanted EMG	Masseter,		12-18 weeks	EMG activity of the lateral pterygoid remained
Woodside <i>et al.</i> ⁷		(Macaca fascicularis)			supra-hyoid,			decreased for approximately 6 weeks. A
	_	n=2			lateral	Herbst appliance		rebound to the pre-appliance level occurred
	=	n=2			pterygoid	Functional protrusive appliance		after 6 weeks.
	III: control	n=2						
Yamin-Lacouture,		Juvenile female monkeys	1.5-2 yrs	Implanted hook	Masseter,		12 months	Activity of all muscles was decreased within 3-6
Woodside <i>et al.</i> ⁹		(Macaca fascicularis)		EMG; mean area,	supra-hyoid,			weeks after wearing an appliance.
	_	n=2		mean maximum	lateral	Herbst appliances		
	=	n=2		amplitude	pterygoid	Frankel appliances		
	≡	n=2				Clark Twin-block appliances		
	IV: control	n=2						

Table 1 Studies of masticatory muscle responses to mandibular forward positioning appliances (cont.)

Author (s)	Study groups	Sample	Age	Material	Muscle (s)	Appliance (s)	Duration	Main finding
Uner <i>et al.⁶⁰</i>	Angle Class II	n=12 (treated)	11.4±0.3 yrs	I	Masseter,	Activator	I	(I) In both muscles, there was a significant
	division 1	n=9 (untreated)	10.7±0.5 yrs		anterior			decrease of activities during maximum clenching.
	malocclusions				temporalis			(II) In both muscles, there was a significantly
								increase of activity at rest but the activity
								decreased at the end of treatment.
								(III) The activity of both muscles between the
								initial and the end of observation without the
								activator was not different.
Aggarwal,	Class II Division 1	female, n=10	9-12 yrs	Surface EMG;	Masseter,	Twin-block appliances	Self-control	(I) At rest, both muscles had an increase in
Kharbanda	malocclusion and			peak-to-peak	anterior		6 months,	peak-to-peak amplitude but it was statistically
et al. ⁵⁷	retruded mandible				temporalis		experiment	insignificant in the anterior temporalis muscle.
							6 months	(II) During swallowing, the activity of both
								muscles was not different between patients
								with and without the Twin-block appliance.
								(III) During maximal voluntary clenching, there
								was a gradual increase in masseter activity.
Hiyama, Ono	Angle Class II,	n=6 (male 1, female 5)	9.4-11.2 yrs	Intraoral surface	Lateral	Herbst appliances	4-6 months	The activity of lateral pterygoid muscle
et al. ⁵⁴	division 1			EMG; mean	pterygoid			immediately increased after the insertion, but it
	malocclusions			integrated value				decreased after 4-6 months of treatment.
Tabe, Ueda	Variety of skeletal	male, n=12	26.6 yrs	Right-sided	Masseter,	Activator	Immediate	(I) All muscles had more activity during
et al. ⁶¹	relations and			portable surface	anterior			clenching than during daytime and sleep.
	complete			EMG; average	temporalis,	Spring active appliance	I	(II) The activity of the digastric muscle tended
	dentitions without			rectified value,	digastric			to increase, but the activity of the temporalis
	any serious			integrated value,				muscle tended to decrease.
	malocclusions			T/M ratio				(III) The temporalis-masseter ratios decreased
								while biting on the appliances.
Erdem <i>et al.</i> ¹⁴	CI division 1	n=15 (treated)	11.3 ± 1.1	Surface EMG; µV	Masseter,	Activator	12 months	(I) The activity of the anterior temporalis and
	malocclusions		yrs		anterior			masseter muscles significantly increased in
		n=10 (untreated)	11.0 ± 1.3		temporalis			both groups.
			yrs					(II) In the treated group, the muscle activity
								increased significantly more than the untreated
								group during clenching and chewing, but it was
								not significantly different during swallowing.

Table 1 Studie	s of masticatory m	uscle responses to mandib	ular forward \wp	ositioning applian	ices (cont.)			
Author (s)	Study groups	Sample	Age	Material	Muscle (s)	Appliance (s)	Duration	Main finding
Sood,	Class II Division 1	female, n=15	10-14 yrs	Surface EMG; µV	Masseter,	Flexible fixed functional	24 months	(I) The activity significantly decreased during
Kharbanda	malocclusion				anterior	appliance (FORSUS [™])		swallowing and clenching at 1 and 3 months
et al. ⁶²					temporalis			after treatment.
								(II) In 6 months, the muscle activity finally
								returned to initial levels and remained stable
								for 24 months.
Cuevas, Cacho	Class II division 1	n=27	11.6 yrs	Surface EMG;	Masseter,	Teuscher activator with high-	After	(I) Activity of the muscles decreased at T1 but
et al. ⁴³	malocclusion			mean,	anterior and	pull headgear	functional	increased at T2 during clenching.
				asymmetry	posterior		treatment	(II) Activity of the suprahyoid muscle increased
				index, activity	temporalis,		(T1)	at T1 but decreased at T2 during swallowing.
			12.8 yrs	index	supra-hyoid	-	2 years after	(III) Activity of the masseter muscle increased at
							orthodontic	T1 and further increased at T2 during
							treatment	mastication.
							(T2)	(IV) There was no significant change in muscle
			18 yrs			-		activity during left and right lateral excursions
								and protrusion for all study periods.
Satygo, Silin	Class II, division 1	n=36 (treated)	7.6±1.3 yrs	Surface EMG; µV	Masseter,	Pre-orthodontic trainer	12 months	(I) There was a significant increase in muscle
et al. ⁷⁰	malocclusion	n=22 (untreated)	1		anterior	functional appliance		activity in both sides in the treated group.
	No dental	n=20			temporalis			(II) In the treated group, the recorded EMG
	malocclusion							values were similar to the normal controls,
								while the untreated group remained with lower
								activity.
Di Palma,	Angle Class II,	n=10 (male 5, female 5)	9-13 yrs	Surface EMG:	Masseter,	Sander functional appliance	12 months	All subjects maintained a muscular equilibrium
Tepedino	division 1			percentage	anterior			(POC index: right-left side within muscle;
et $al.^{71}$	malocclusion			overlapping	temporalis			Activity index: masseter vs. temporalis; Torque
				coefficient,				coefficient: lateral deviant couples), without
				torque				statistical significant variations.
				coefficient,				
				activity index				

References

1. Jonsson T, Arnlaugsson S, Karlsson KO, Ragnarsson B, Arnarson EO, Magnusson TE. Orthodontic treatment experience and prevalence of malocclusion traits in an Icelandic adult population. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2007;131(1):8.e11-8.

2. Gabris K, Marton S, Madlena M. Prevalence of malocclusions in Hungarian adolescents. *Eur J Orthod* 2006;28(5):467-70.

3. Kositbowornchai S, Keinprasit C, Poomat N. Prevalence and distribution of dental anomalies in pretreatment orthodontic Thai patients. *Khon Kaen Dent J* 2010;13(2):92-9.

4. Cozza P, Baccetti T, Franchi L, De Toffol L, McNamara JA, Jr. Mandibular changes produced by functional appliances in Class II malocclusion: a systematic review. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2006;129(5):599.e1-12; discussion e1-6.

 Pancherz H, Zieber K, Hoyer B. Cephalometric characteristics of Class II division 1 and Class II division 2 malocclusions: a comparative study in children. *Angle Orthod* 1997;67(2):111-20.
 McNamara JA, Jr. Components of class II malocclusion in children 8-10 years of age. *Angle Orthod* 1981;51(3):177-202.

7. Sessle BJ, Woodside DG, Bourque P, Gurza S, Powell G, Voudouris J, *et al.* Effect of functional appliances on jaw muscle activity. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1990;98(3):222-30.

8. O'Brien K, Wright J, Conboy F, Sanjie Y, Mandall N, Chadwick S, *et al.* Effectiveness of treatment for Class II malocclusion with the Herbst or twin-block appliances: a randomized, controlled trial. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2003;124(2):128-37.

9. Yamin-Lacouture C, Woodside DG, Sectakof PA, Sessle BJ. The action of three types of functional appliances on the activity of the masticatory muscles. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1997;112 (5):560-72.

10. McNamara JA, Jr. Neuromuscular and skeletal adaptations to altered function in the orofacial region. *Am J Orthod* 1973;64(6): 578-606.

11. Pancherz H. Activity of the temporal and masseter muscles in class II, division 1 malocclusions. An electromyographic investigation. *Am J Orthod* 1980;77(6):679-88.

12. Takada K, Lowe AA, Freund VK. Canonical correlations between masticatory muscle orientation and dentoskeletal morphology in children. *Am J Orthod* 1984;86(4):331-41.

13. Moss ML, Salentijn L. The primary role of functional matrices in facial growth. *Am J Orthod* 1969;55(6):566-77.

14. Erdem A, Kilic N, Eroz B. Changes in soft tissue profile and electromyographic activity after activator treatment. *Aust Orthod J* 2009;25(2):116-22.

15. Saccucci M, Tecco S, Ierardoa G, Luzzi V, Festa F, Polimeni A. Effects of interceptive orthodontics on orbicular muscle activity: a surface electromyographic study in children. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 2011;21(4):665-71.

16. Lowe AA, Takada K. Associations between anterior temporal, masseter, and orbicularis oris muscle activity and craniofacial morphology in children. *Am J Orthod* 1984;86(4):319-30.

17. Lowe AA. Correlations between orofacial muscle activity and craniofacial morphology in a sample of control and anterior open-bite subjects. *Am J Orthod* 1980;78(1):89-98.

 Ingervall B. Facial morphology and activity of temporal and lip muscles during swallowing and chewing. *Angle Orthod* 1976;46 (4):372-80.

19. Pancherz H, Anehus-Pancherz M. Muscle activity in class II, division 1 malocclusions treated by bite jumping with the Herbst appliance. An electromyographic study. *Am J Orthod* 1980;78(3):321-9.

20. Miralles R, Hevia R, Contreras L, Carvajal R, Bull R, Manns A. Patterns of electromyographic activity in subjects with different skeletal facial types. *Angle Orthod* 1991;61(4):277-84.

21. Witkowska A. An outline of the history of electromyography. The significance of surface electromyography in neurophysiological diagnosis. *Nowiny Lekarskie* 2008;77(3):227-300.

22. Misra UK, Kalita J, Nair PP. Diagnostic approach to peripheral neuropathy. *Ann Indian Acad Neur* 2008;11(2):89-97.

23. Basmajian JV. Control and training of individual motor units. *Science* 1963;141(3579):440-1.

24. Beniczky S, Conradsen I, Henning O, Fabricius M, Wolf P. Automated real-time detection of tonic-clonic seizures using a wearable EMG device. *Neurology* 2018;90(5):e428-e34.

25. Grabb PA, Albright AL, Sclabassi RJ, Pollack IF. Continuous intraoperative electromyographic monitoring of cranial nerves during resection of fourth ventricular tumors in children. *J Neurosurg* 1997;86(1):1-4.

26. Pinho JC, Caldas FM, Mora MJ, Santana-Penin U. Electromyographic activity in patients with temporomandibular disorders. *J Oral Rehabil* 2000;27(11):985-90.

27. Kumar S, Prasad N. Cervical EMG profile differences between patients of neck pain and control. *Disabil Rehabil* 2010;32(25): 2078-87.

28. Luca CD. Electromyography. Encyclopedia of Medical Devices and Instrumentation. John Wiley Publisher 2006:98-109.

29. Nishi SE, Basri R, Alam MK. Uses of electromyography in dentistry:
An overview with meta-analysis. *Eur J Oral Sci* 2016;10(3):419-25.
30. DeLuca CJ. The Use of Surface Electromyography in Biomechanics. *J Appl Biomech* 1997(13):135-63.

31. Chowdhury RH, Reaz MB, Ali MA, Bakar AA, Chellappan K,

Chang TG. Surface electromyography signal processing and classification techniques. *Sensors* 2013;13(9):12431-66.

32. Moyers RE. Temporomandibular muscle contraction patterns in Angle Class II, division 1 malocclusions; an electromyographic analysis. *Am J Orthod* 1949;35(11):837-57, illust.

33. Yang JF, Winter DA. Electromyographic amplitude normalization methods: improving their sensitivity as diagnostic tools in gait analysis. *Arch Phys Med Rehabil* 1984;65(9):517-21.

34. Knutson LM, Soderberg GL, Ballantyne BT, Clarke WR. A study of various normalization procedures for within day electromyographic data. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 1994;4(1):47-59.

35. Huang DH, Chou SW, Chen YL, Chiou WK. Frowning and Jaw Clenching Muscle Activity Reflects the Perception of Effort During Incremental Workload Cycling. *J Sci Med Sport* 2014;13(4):921-8. 36. O'Leary S, Falla D, Jull G. The relationship between superficial muscle activity during the cranio-cervical flexion test and clinical features in patients with chronic neck pain. *Man Ther* 2011;16(5):452-5. 37. Nishi SE, Basri R, Alam MK, Komatsu S, Komori A, Sugita Y, *et al.* Evaluation of Masticatory Muscles Function in Different Maloc clusion Cases Using Surface Electromyography. *J Hard Tissue Biol* 2017;26(1):23-8.

38. lodice G, Danzi G, Cimino R, Paduano S, Michelotti A. Association between posterior crossbite, skeletal, and muscle asymmetry: a systematic review. *Eur J Orthod* 2016;38(6):638-51.

 Reynolds AK, Nickel JC, Liu Y, Leeper DK, Riffel KM, Liu H, *et al.* Sex differences in jaw muscle duty factors during exercise in two environments: A pilot study. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 2016;30:15-22.
 Wozniak K, Piatkowska D, Szyszka-Sommerfeld L, Buczkowska-Radlinska J. Impact of Functional Appliances on Muscle Activity: A Surface Electromyography Study in Children. *Med Sci Monit* 2015;21:246-53.

41. Sabashi K, Saitoh I, Hayasaki H, Iwase Y, Kondo S, Inada E, *et al.* A Cross-Sectional Study of Developing Resting Masseter Activity in Different Angle Classifications in Adolescence. *CRANIO* 2009;27 (1):39-45.

42. Cuevas MJ, Cacho A, Alarcon JA, Martin C. Longitudinal evaluation of jaw muscle activity and mandibular kinematics in young patients with Class II malocclusion treated with the Teuscher activator. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal* 2013;18(3):e497-504.

43. Wieczorek A, Loster JE. Activity of the masticatory muscles and occlusal contacts in young adults with and without orthodontic treatment. *BMC Oral Health* 2015;15(1):116.

44. McNamara JA, Jr., Peterson JE, Jr., Alexander RG. Threedimensional diagnosis and management of Class II malocclusion in the mixed dentition. *Semin Orthod* 1996;2(2):114-37. 45. Chen JY, Will LA, Niederman R. Analysis of efficacy of functional appliances on mandibular growth. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 2002;122(5):470-6.

46. DiBiase AT, Cobourne MT, Lee RT. The use of functional appliances in contemporary orthodontic practice. *Br Dent J* 2015;218(3):123-8.

47. Pancherz H. A cephalometric analysis of skeletal and dental changes contributing to Class II correction in activator treatment. *Am J Orthod* 1984;85(2):125-34.

48. Bjork A. The principle of the Andresen method of orthodontic treatment a discussion based on cephalometric x-ray analysis of treated cases. *A Am J Orthod* 1951;37(7):437-58.

49. Hirzel H-C, Grewe JM. Activators: A practical approach. *Am J Orthod* 1974;66(5):557-70.

50. Saikoski LZ, Cançado RH, Valarelli FP, Freitas KMSd. Dentoskeletal effects of Class II malocclusion treatment with the Twin Block appliance in a Brazilian sample: A prospective study. *Dental Press J Orthod* 2014;19:36-45.

51. Janson GR, Toruno JL, Martins DR, Henriques JF, de Freitas MR. Class II treatment effects of the Frankel appliance. *Eur J Orthod* 2003;25(3):301-9.

52. Toth LR, McNamara JA, Jr. Treatment effects produced by the twin-block appliance and the FR-2 appliance of Frankel compared with an untreated Class II sample. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1999;116(6):597-609.

53. Hiyama S, Ono PT, Ishiwata Y, Kuroda T, McNamara JA, Jr. Neuromuscular and skeletal adaptations following mandibular forward positioning induced by the Herbst appliance. *Angle Orthod* 2000;70(6):442-53.

54. Ahlgren J. Early and late electromyographic response to treatment with activators. *A Am J Orthod* 1978;74(1):88-93.

55. Moss JP. Function-fact or fiction? *Am J Orthod* 1975;67(6):625-46.
56. Aggarwal P, Kharbanda OP, Mathur R, Duggal R, Parkash H.
Muscle response to the twin-block appliance: an electromyographic study of the masseter and anterior temporal muscles. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1999;116(4):405-14.

57. Ingervall B, Bitsanis E. Function of masticatory muscles during the initial phase of activator treatment. *Eur J Orthod* 1986;8(3): 172-84.

Miralles R, Berger B, Bull R, Manns A, Carvajal R. Influence of the activator on electromyographic activity of mandibular elevator muscles. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1988;94(2):97-103.
 Uner O, Darendeliler N, Bilir E. Effects of an activator on the masseter and anterior temporal muscle activities in Class II maloc clusions. *J Clin Pediatr Dent* 1999;23(4):327-32.

60. Tabe H, Ueda HM, Kato M, Nagaoka K, Nakashima Y, Matsumoto E, *et al.* Influence of functional appliances on masticatory muscle activity. *Angle Orthod* 2005;75(4):616-24.

61. Sood S, Kharbanda OP, Duggal R, Sood M, Gulati S. Neuromuscular adaptations with flexible fixed functional appliance--a 2-year follow-up study. *J Orofac Orthop* 2011;72(6):434-45.

62. Yuen SWH, Hwang JCC, Poon PWF. Changes in power spectrum of electromyograms of masseter and anterior temporal muscles during functional appliance therapy in children. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop* 1990;97(4):301-7.

63. Moyers RE. An electromyographic analysis of certain muscles involved in temporomandibular movement. *Am J Orthod* 1950; 36(7):481-515.

64. Latif A. An electromyographic study of the temporalis muscle in normal persons during selected positions and movements of the mandible. *Am J Orthod* 1957;43(8):577-91.

65. Ferrario VF, Sforza C, Colombo A, Ciusa V. An electromyographic investigation of masticatory muscles symmetry in normo-occlusion subjects. *J Oral Rehabil* 2000;27(1):33-40.

66. Tartaglia GM, Moreira Rodrigues da Silva MA, Bottini S,

Sforza C, Ferrario VF. Masticatory muscle activity during maximum voluntary clench in different research diagnostic criteria for temporomandibular disorders (RDC/TMD) groups. *Man Ther* 2008;13(5):434-40. 67. Tallgren A, Christiansen RL, Ash M, Jr., Miller RL. Effects of a myofunctional appliance on orofacial muscle activity and structures. *Angle Orthod* 1998;68(3):249-58.

68. Pancherz H, Anehus-Pancherz M. Muscle activity in Class II, Division 1 malocclusions treated by bite jumping with the Herbst appliance. *Am J Orthod* 1980;78(3):321-9.

79. Satygo EA, Silin AV, Ramirez-Yanez GO. Electromyographic muscular activity improvement in Class II patients treated with the pre-orthodontic trainer. *J Clin Pediatr Dent* 2014;38(4):380-4. 70. Di Palma E, Tepedino M, Chimenti C, Tartaglia GM, Sforza C. Effects of the functional orthopaedic therapy on masticatory muscles activity. *J Clin Exp Dent* 2017;9(7):e886-e91.

71. Saccucci M, Tecco S, Ierardoa G, Luzzi V, Festa F, Polimeni A. Effects of interceptive orthodontics on orbicular muscle activity: A surface electromyographic study in children. *J Electromyogr Kinesiol* 2011;21(4):665-71.