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Dental Caries and Microbiota in Children with Black Stain and Non-discoloured Dental Plaque

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Key Words

 $\label{eq:def:Dental} \mbox{Dental caries} \cdot \mbox{Black stain} \cdot \mbox{Dental plaque} \cdot \mbox{Microbiota} \cdot \\ \mbox{Microorganisms}$

Abstract

Aim: We aimed to assess caries experience and microbiota in systemically healthy children with black stain (BS) and non-discoloured plaque. Methods: Forty-six children with BS and 47 counterparts with non-discoloured plaque aged 7.9 ± 1.3 years were clinically examined. Dental caries was scored using WHO criteria. Samples of BS and non-discoloured dental plaque were collected from tooth surfaces. The DNA of the samples was extracted and real-time PCR was performed to determine the total number of bacteria and the species Streptococcus mutans, S. sobrinus, Lactobacillus sp., Actinomyces naeslundii, Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans, Porphyromonas gingivalis, Prevotella intermedia and Fusobacterium nucleatum. Results: Children with BS had lower DMFT (p = 0.013), lower DT values (p = 0.005) and a tendency to lower caries prevalence (p = 0.061) than children with non-discoloured plaque. Plaque samples of the BS group contained higher numbers of A. naeslundii (p = 0.005) and lower numbers of F. nucleatum (p = 0.001) and Lactobacillus sp. (p = 0.001) compared to the non-discoloured plaque samples of the control group. Comparing the children with

BS and non-discoloured plaque, higher counts for A. naeslundii (p = 0.013) were observed in caries-free children with BS while in caries-affected children with BS, lower counts of F. nucleatum (p = 0.007) were found. Counts of Lactobacillus sp. were higher in non-discoloured plaque samples than in BS of caries-free and caries-affected children. Conclusion: Results suggest that the different microbial composition of BS might be associated with the lower caries experience in affected subjects. The role of black-pigmented bacteria associated with periodontitis needs further studies.

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The interest in the genesis and nature of extrinsic black tooth stain in dentistry has continued for nearly a century [Pickerill, 1923; Ronay and Attin, 2011; França-Pinto et al., 2012]. Black stain (BS) may be clinically diagnosed as pigmented, dark lines parallel to the gingival margin [Pedersen, 1946; Shourie, 1947; Leimgruber, 1950; Commerell, 1955; Gülzow, 1963; Koch et al., 2001] or as incomplete coalescence of dark dots rarely extending beyond the cervical third of the crown. It belongs to the group of extrinsic tooth discolouration of non-metallic origin [Watts and Addy, 2001]. Dietary chromogens found in tea, coffee and other beverages (tannins) are possible aetiological agents and tobacco and chlorhexidine

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mouthrinses result in extrinsic staining by adsorption onto the tooth surface via plaque or the acquired pellicle [Manuel et al., 2010]. Metallic extrinsic discolouration may be associated with medicines that contain metal salts and with industrial exposure to iron, manganese and silver [Watts and Addy, 2001; Ronay and Attin, 2011]. In people using iron supplements, especially iron-containing oral solutions, characteristic black staining of teeth has been reported [Nordbo et al., 1982; Manuel et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2012]. A recent study among 5-yearold Spanish children with BS found a significantly higher consumption of iron supplements by children (11%) and their mothers during pregnancy (not specified) compared to counterparts without BS (2.7%) and their mothers (not specified) [Garcia Martin et al., 2013]. The authors also observed higher consumption rates of ironcontaining foods in children with BS than in those without BS. Furthermore, a positive correlation between black extrinsic stains and the concentration of iron in water sources has been documented [Pushpanjali et al., 2004]. In contrast to BS, these forms of black extrinsic staining commonly cover the entire tooth surface as a thin film and are not limited to the cervical third of the crown. In addition to the history of affected subjects, this feature should be used as a differential diagnostic criterion. Intrinsic discolourations, resulting from the incorporation of pigments into the dental tissues during tooth development (from e.g. genetic and metabolic disorders or medication), have a completely different appearance and can virtually not be mistaken for BS [Manuel et al., 2010; Ronay and Attin, 2011; Kumar et al., 2012].

BS as particular type of pigmentation has been considered to be a special form of dental plaque because it contains an insoluble ferric salt, probably ferrous sulfide, and a high content of calcium and phosphate [Reid and Beeley, 1976]. The chemical composition of saliva in children with BS indicates a significantly higher content of calcium, inorganic phosphates, copper, sodium and total protein but less glucose, compared to children without staining [Surdacka, 1989b]. The assessment of the amount and pH of saliva in children with staining has revealed a significantly higher pH but an equal amount of saliva in these children, compared to a control group [Surdacka, 1989a].

Early ultrastructural examinations of BS demonstrated that this deposit consists of microorganisms embedded in an intermicrobial matrix [Theilade et al., 1973], characterised by its simple bacteriological composition of Gram-positive rods and its tendency to calcify [Reid et al., 1977; Theilade and Pang, 1987]. *Actinomycetes* have been

reported as the predominant microorganisms in BS [Slots, 1974; Saba et al., 2006]. Rarely, pigmented Gramnegative rods are detectable by using cultivation [Slots, 1974]. A possible interaction between the microbiota related to extrinsic pigmentation, cariogenic pathogens and caries remains obscure.

There is no consensus in the literature concerning the prevalence of BS in various age groups [Commerell, 1955; Gülzow, 1963; Surdacka, 1987; Koch et al., 2001; Gasparetto et al., 2003; Paredes Gallardo and Paredes Cencillo, 2005; Heinrich-Weltzien et al., 2009; Bhat, 2010; Bartsch and Heinrich-Weltzien, 2011; França-Pinto et al., 2012; Garcia Martin et al., 2013], but the presence of these stains has been commonly associated with a lower caries prevalence and/or experience [Shourie, 1947; Commerell, 1955; Koch et al., 2001; Gasparetto et al., 2003; Heinrich-Weltzien et al., 2009; Bhat, 2010; Bartsch and Heinrich-Weltzien, 2011]. The recent study of França-Pinto et al. [2012] investigated the presence of BS and its potential caries-protective effect, taking into consideration an adjustment for demographic, social and behavioural factors that may influence both dental caries and BS. According to their findings, the authors suggested that BS is a protective factor for dental caries development.

Up to now, no study has addressed the investigation of caries experience and microbiota in children with BS and non-discoloured plaque. Therefore, this study tests the hypotheses: (1) caries prevalence and experience differ in children with and without BS, and (2) the microbiota differs between BS and non-discoloured plaque.

Materials and Methods

Subject Selection

During the annual dental examination of 3- to 10-year-old Westphalian children attending kindergarten and elementary school in the city of Dormagen, located in the Rhine District of Neuss, Germany, the occurrence of BS was recorded. BS was found in 113 children (1.5%) among the total population of 7,624 children [Bartsch and Heinrich-Weltzien, 2011]. Parents and/or caregivers of children with BS at elementary school were asked if their children may participate in a clinical and microbiological study to determine the microbiota in BS samples. The goal and procedure of the study were explained in detail in writing. To create a control group, these children were asked to invite friends in the same grade to participate in this study. Parents and/or caregivers of these recruited children with non-discoloured plaque were likewise supplied with the details of the study. Parents and/or caregivers of 47 children with BS and 46 children with non-discoloured plaque signed the informed consent forms. According to the parents interviewed, all children involved were systemically healthy subjects. None had undergone treatment with antibiotics within the

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6 months before the study. Children taking medicine including iron supplementation for longer than 6 months were excluded. None of the children was on a specific diet. The study was approved by the ethics committee of the University Hospital Jena under the registration number 1921-12/06.

Clinical Examination

The caries status of the children was assessed according to WHO criteria [WHO, 1997] by one experienced and calibrated paediatric dentist (B.B.). The presence of BS was recorded as present or absent independently from the number of teeth affected. The criterion for scoring BS was the presence of firmly adherent, black dots generally forming linear discolouration parallel to the gingival margin and occasionally covering up to one third or more of the clinical tooth crown [Koch et al., 2001]. The examination was performed in classrooms using an intra-oral mouth mirror, a CPI ball-end probe and a LED headlight (Waldmann, HX 35 N, Germany) after the taking of plaque samples and tooth-brushing supervised by the dental nurse.

A 1-day calibration training of the examiner (B.B.) was performed by a dentist with experience in epidemiology (R.H.W.). Calibration of caries scoring on dentin level was carried out at a local school that was not included in the survey sample. Calibration of scoring BS was restricted to training with typical images.

Plaque Sampling Procedure

Approximately 1 mg BS or non-discoloured plaque was collected from the buccal and/or lingual surfaces of the upper first and second primary molars (preferred tooth: 64 and 65) by scraping with sterile, new-metal scalers (Hu-Friedy Mfg. Co., LLC., Tuttlingen-Moehringen, Germany). The samples were transferred on endodontic sterile paper points (ISO 55, Roeko GmbH, Langenau, Germany) stored in DNA- and RNA-free Eppendorf tubes (Safe-Lock tubes, Biopur, Eppendorf, Wesseling, Germany) at -60°C until laboratory processing. Samples were always taken in the morning (9.00–11.00 a.m.). Children were advised to refrain from brushing their teeth in the morning.

Microbiological Analysis of Plaque Samples

Total bacterial counts as well as the counts of Streptococcus mutans, S. sobrinus, Lactobacillus sp., Actinomyces naeslundii, Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans, Porphyromonas gingivalis, Prevotella intermedia and Fusobacterium nucleatum were determined using real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The DNA extraction of the plaque samples was made using the Genomic mini kit (A & A Biotechnology, Gdynia, Poland) according to the manufacturer's recommendation. Real-time PCR was carried out using a real-time rotary analyzer (RotorGene 2000; Corbett Research, Sydney, Australia). The primers for P. gingivalis, A. actinomycetemcomitans, P. intermedia and the total counts were designed as described before [Ashimoto et al., 1996]. Primers for S. mutans and S. sobrinus were previously described by Yoshida et al. [2003], for A. naeslundii by Xia and Baumgartner [2003], for F. nucleatum by Fouad et al. [2002] and for Lactobacillus sp. by Byun et al. [2004]. PCR amplification was carried out in a reaction volume of 20 µl consisting of 2 µl of template DNA and 18 µl of reaction mixture containing 2 µl 10 × PCR buffer, 2.75 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM nucleotides, 0.5 μM primer each, 10⁻⁴ SybrGreen, 1 U taq polymerase (Fermentas Life Science, St. Leon-Rot, Germany). Negative and positive controls were included in each batch of specimens. The positive control consisted of 2 µl genomic DNA in concentrations ranging from 10² to 10⁷ bacteria of the reference strains and the negative control was 2 µl of sterile water; each was added to 18 µl of reaction mixture. The cycling conditions comprised an initial denaturation step at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 45 cycles at 95°C for 15 s, at 65°C (except A. actinomycetemcomitans, P. intermedia, S. mutans and S. sobrinus at 62°C) for 20 s using a touch-down for 5 cycles, at 72°C for 20 s. The sensitivity and specificity of the method was checked by well-characterized bacterial strains and plaque samples. Furthermore, the specificity of the amplification was always assayed with the use of melting curves. For quantification, the results from unknown plaque specimens were projected onto the counted pure-culture standard curves of the target bacteria. The numbers of bacteria were classified using log-stages. For adjustment of the methods (sensitivity) and as references, the following species were used: P. gingivalis ATCC 33277, A. actinomycetemcomitans ATCC 33384, F. nucleatum ATCC 25586, P. intermedia ATCC 25611, S. mutans ATCC 25175, S. sobrinus ATCC 33478, A. naeslundii ATCC 43013 and Lactobacillus acidophilus ATCC 11975. The cut-off was set to 10^2 bacterial counts per sample.

Statistical Methods

The collected data were entered in Microsoft Excel worksheets and analyzed using statistical software (SPSS, version 19.0). Cohen's kappa (κ) used for measuring the intra- and inter-examiner reliability for caries scoring was 0.97 for intra-examiner reliability (B.B. and R.H.W.) and ranged from 0.96 (B.B.) to 0.98 (R.H.W.) for inter-examiner reliability. The κ-value calculated for BS scoring was 1.00 for intra- and inter-examiner reliability for both dentists. For statistical comparisons of differences between the ordinal scaled data of caries experience (dmft/DMFT/Dt/dt/ft/mt) of children with and without BS, the Mann-Whitney U test was used. Caries prevalence in the mixed dentition and primary teeth and the proportion of caries-affected subjects (dmft + DMFT >0 and dmft >0) with and without BS was compared by the contingency table test of independence (χ^2 test). Odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) were calculated to assess the influence of BS on caries experience (dmft). Quantitative microbiological data were compared by means of the Mann-Whitney U test and the χ^2 test was used for qualitative data. The level of significance was set

Results

The mean age of German children with BS and non-discoloured plaque involved in this study was the same $(7.9 \pm 1.3 \text{ years}, \text{ table 1})$. Children with BS revealed a lower overall caries prevalence in the mixed dentition and in their primary teeth than children with non-discoloured plaque, but these differences were not significant (p = 0.061, p = 0.071). While the caries experience in primary teeth among children with BS was significantly lower, expressed as dmft and dt values, compared to children of the non-discoloured plaque group (p = 0.013 and 0.005, respectively), no differences were observed for caries expe-

Table 1. Prevalence and experience of caries in children with BS and non-discoloured plaque samples

Subjects	N	Age years	Caries mixed dentition, %	Caries primary teeth, %	DMFT	DT	dmft	dt	mt	ft
With BS With non-discoloured	47	7.9±1.3	55.3 (40.6–70.1) ^a	48.9 (34.1–63.8) ^b	0.3±0.7	0.1±0.3	1.6±2.1°	0.6±1.0 ^d	0.2±0.4	0.8±1.7
plaque Total			73.9 (60.7–87.1) 64.5 (54.6–74.4)	,						

Results are expressed as means \pm SD or percentages with 95% CI in parentheses.

Table 2. Prevalence of samples tested positively for selected bacterial species (≥ 10 /sample) including statistics detected in children with BS and non-discoloured plaque samples

Species	BS sa (n =	amples 47)	Non-	p χ² test	
	n	%	n	%	
Total counts ($\geq 10^7$)	14	30	10	22	0.357
S. mutans	19	40	22	48	0.472
S. sobrinus	25	53	23	50	0.758
Lactobacillus sp.	20	43	32	70	0.012
A. naeslundii	46	98	42	91	0.160
P. gingivalis	16	34	8	17	0.067
A. actinomycetem	10	21	7	15	0.450
P. intermedia	4	9	7	15	0.317
F. nucleatum	41	87	45	98	0.053

rience in permanent teeth. Moreover, these children had, by trend, a higher (not statistically significant) risk for caries experience than their counterparts with BS (OR 2.29 and 95% CI 0.88-6.06, p=0.061).

The total number of bacterial counts was equal in plaque samples of children with BS and those with non-discoloured plaque (table 2; fig. 1). However, the plaque samples of the BS group contained a significantly higher number of A. naeslundii (p = 0.005) and a tendency to more P. gingivalis compared to non-discoloured plaque samples. In contrast, there were significantly lower numbers of F. nucleatum (p = 0.001) and Lactobacillus sp. (p = 0.001) in the BS samples than in the non-discoloured plaque samples. No significant differences between groups were observed for the species S. mutans, S. sobrinus, A. actinomycetemcomitans and P. intermedia.

Comparing caries-free children with BS and non-discoloured plaque, higher counts for A. naeslundii (p =

0.013) were observed in children with BS (table 3; fig. 1). In both caries-free and caries-affected children, *Lactobacillus* sp. counts were higher in the non-discoloured plaque samples than in the BS samples (p = 0.003; p = 0.024). In caries-affected children with BS, lower quantities of *F. nucleatum* (p = 0.007) were found; more samples showed a trend for higher *P. gingivalis* (p = 0.085) and for *A. actinomycetemcomitans* (p = 0.061).

Discussion

This is the first study that has addressed the investigation of caries experience and microbiota in children with BS and non-discoloured plaque. As these children were attending the same elementary schools in the Westphalian Rhine District of Neuss, Germany, the socio-economic background of the children involved was comparable. The influence of age on caries prevalence and experience could be excluded as the mean age of the children in both groups was equal. The significantly lower caries experience in primary teeth (dmft, dt) found in the children with BS compared to their counterparts with nondiscoloured plaque confirmed the data observed in a population of 3- to 10-year-old Westphalians [Bartsch and Heinrich-Weltzien, 2011]. Other studies agree with this finding, also demonstrating lower caries experience in children with BS [Shourie, 1947; Commerell, 1955; Koch et al., 2001; Gasparetto et al., 2003; Heinrich-Weltzien et al., 2009; Bhat, 2010; França-Pinto et al., 2012]. Furthermore, a tendency to a higher OR for caries experience was found in children with non-discoloured plaque. Therefore, the first hypothesis of this study that caries prevalence and experience differ in children with BS and nondiscoloured plaque could be confirmed for caries experience in primary but not in permanent teeth. The low

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 $^{^{}a}$ p = 0.061, b p = 0.071 (Mann-Whitney U test).

 $^{^{}c}$ p = 0.013, d p = 0.005 (χ^{2} test).

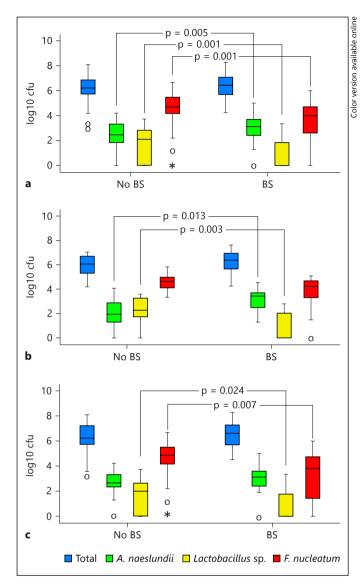


Fig. 1. Counts (median, 10 and 90% percentiles and outliers) (°, *) of total numbers of bacteria as well as of *A. naeslundii*, *Lactobacillus* sp. and *F. nucleatum* in BS (n = 47) and non-discoloured plaque (no BS: n = 46) including statistically significant differences (determined by the Mann-Whitney U test) in all children (**a**), in 33 caries-free children (BS: n = 21 and no BS: n = 12) (**b**) and 60 caries-affected children (BS: n = 26 and no BS: n = 34) (**c**).

caries experience of permanent teeth may be due to their short exposure time to the oral environment or the time from eruption to the onset of caries. In general, the period of peak caries susceptibility occurs 4 years after eruption of the tooth [Carlos and Gittelsohn, 1965]. Therefore, we assume that differences in caries experience of permanent teeth in children with and without BS will be observed in children older than 10 years, as reported pre-

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Table 3. Prevalence of samples tested positively for selected bacterial species $(10^2/\text{sample})$ including statistics

Caries-free children (dmft + DMFT = 0)

Species	BS sampl $(n = 21)$	es	Non-disc plaque (r	$p \ (\chi^2 \text{ test})$	
	positive,	%	positive, n	%	
Total counts ($\geq 10^7$)	5	24	1	8	0.268
S. mutans	6	29	2	17	0.443
S. sobrinus	13	62	9	75	0.443
Lactobacillus sp.	10	48	11	92	0.011
A. naeslundii	21	100	11	92	0.179
P. gingivalis	6	39	2	17	0.443
A. actinomycetem.	3	14	4	33	0.198
P. intermedia	2	10	1	8	0.909
F. nucleatum	20	95	12	100	0.443

Caries-affected children (dmft + DMFT >0)

Species	BS samples (n = 26)		Non-disc plaque (n	$p \ (\chi^2 \text{ test})$	
	positive, n	%	positive, n	%	
Total counts ($\geq 10^7$)	9	35	9	27	0.444
S. mutans	13	50	20	69	0.463
S. sobrinus	12	46	14	41	0.700
Lactobacillus sp.	10	39	21	62	0.073
A. naeslundii	25	96	31	91	0.444
P. gingivalis	10	38	6	18	0.085
A. actinomycetem.	7	27	3	9	0.062
P. intermedia	2	8	6	18	0.261
F. nucleatum	21	81	33	97	0.037

viously [Koch et al., 2001; Heinrich-Weltzien et al., 2009; Bhat, 2010].

The microbiological findings demonstrate an equal total number of bacterial counts in BS and non-discolored plaque samples. Therefore, significant differences of individual species of bacteria between plaque samples reflect a different microbial composition. Considering the cariogenic microbiota, a significantly higher number of *A. naeslundii* and a significantly lower number of *Lactobacillus* sp. were found in BS samples. The number of *S. mutans* tended to be lower in BS samples than in non-discoloured plaque samples and numbers of *S. sobrinus* were not really different between the two. These findings seem to be in good agreement with previous microbiological studies reporting a high proportion of Gram-posi-

tive rods, especially of Actinomyces sp., and low numbers of streptococci [Slots, 1974; Saba et al., 2006]. The morphological studies of BS confirmed that this kind of stain, judging by its microbiota and with a tendency to calcify, is a special type of dental plaque [Theilade et al., 1973; Reid et al., 1977]. Analysis of the chemical composition of BS [Reid and Beeley, 1976] and the saliva of affected children [Surdacka, 1989b] indicates high levels of calcium and phosphate within the black material and saliva that may contribute to the lower caries experience. A. naeslundii may play a special role in the development of BS. It has been shown that A. naeslundii and S. mutans adhesion correlates with low and high caries experiences, respectively [Stenudd et al., 2001]. The significantly higher level of A. naeslundii and the tendency to lower numbers of S. mutans detected in BS samples might be associated with the lower caries experience in these children. This suggestion is supported by the reported increased Actinomyces antibody level associated with increased Actinomyces sp. colonization and lower caries experience [Levine et al., 2005]. Thus, bacterial composition of the microbiota may modulate susceptibility and resistance to dental caries [Stenudd et al., 2001].

F. nucleatum, well known as a bridging species between early and late colonizers in the dental plaque [Kolenbrander and London, 1993], was found more often in non-discoloured plaque. Its role in caries development is not clearly defined. This species was detected in carious dentine lesions in association with moderate counts of *Lactobacillus* sp. [Chhour et al., 2005].

Actinomyces sp. support the adhesion of the periodontopathogenic bacterium P. gingivalis by co-aggregation and foster its growth by releasing succinates [Sanderink et al., 2004]. Therefore, with a higher prevalence of Actinomyces sp. increased growth of P. gingivalis could be assumed. In the present BS samples a significantly higher number of Actinomyces sp. and a tendency to more P. gingivalis were detected. This black pigmented Gram-negative rod was found in 34% of BS but in 17% of non-discolored plaque samples only. The counts determined by real-time PCR were low in general. By using a less sensitive PCR method Saba et al. [2006] did not detect P. gingivalis and P. melanonigenica in children with and without BS. P. gingivalis is considered to be a major pathogen in chronic periodontitis, but reports on its occurrence are inconsistent in children. Some authors did not find this bacterium independently of oral sample sites collected in periodontal healthy children with mixed dentition [Cortelli et al., 2012; Kimura et al., 2002] and others found *P. gingivalis* as well as *P. intermedia* and *A.*

actinomycetemcomitans in supragingival plaque samples in 3- to 17-year-olds [Tanaka et al., 2006]. In the present study no significant differences were observed between the prevalence of the periodontopathogenic species A. actinomycetemcomitans and P. intermedia in BS and non-discoloured plaque samples. Contrary to this finding a higher frequency of the periodontal pathogen A. actinomycetemcomitans was detected in BS samples (70%) versus non-discoloured plaque samples (20%) by PCR which could be involved in the emergence of pigmentation [Saba et al., 2006]. Furthermore, the authors discussed a potential risk of development forms of local and/or generalized aggressive periodontitis in children harbouring this bacterium. On the other hand, Sakai et al. [2007] found that a high percentage of children with mixed dentition harboured at least one of the four putative periodontal pathogens (A. actinomycetemcomitans, P. gingivalis, P. nigrescens and T. denticola) in saliva without clinical signs of periodontal disease. Other previous studies reported that P. intermedia was associated with gingival bleeding [Kamma et al., 2000] and periodontal disease [Okada et al., 2001]. The children examined in the present study were not scored for gingival and periodontal health, which might be a limitation afterwards as the association between periodontopathogenic bacteria and periodontal health in children with BS could not be assessed. Until now Gülzow [1963] and Surdacka [1987] scored gingival health related to BS in children, but both did not find any association between gingival inflammation and BS. The recent study of França-Pinto et al. [2012] considered several demographic, social and behavioral factors that may have influence on the presence of BS and its caries protective effect, but unfortunately neither a plaque score nor a gingival screening index in the statistical approach with multivariable analysis was included.

In conclusion, the bacterial composition of BS with significantly increased numbers of *A. naeslundii* and significantly decreased numbers of *Lactobacillus* sp. and *F. nucleatum* might be associated with lower caries experience in children with BS. The hypothesis of this study that caries prevalence and experience differ in children with BS and non-discoloured plaque was confirmed for caries experience in primary but not in permanent teeth. To elucidate the role of periodontopathogenic bacteria in BS in development of periodontal disease in children longitudinal studies are necessary. Recently methods analyzing in one assay hundreds of taxa were introduced for determining oral microbiota in children [Crielaard et al., 2011; Tanner et al., 2011]. Data are still rare and real-time PCR

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is still used in addition for selected species. Nevertheless, applying these techniques to BS samples as well as the suspicion that the intake of iron supplements and the regular consumption of iron rich foods could favour the development of a chromogenic microbiota [Garcia Martin et al., 2013] should be a topic in future studies. As the phenomenon of BS may be linked to differences in the microbiota and its metabolism, or composition of saliva

further studies should investigate simultaneously these different aspects to understand its influence on dental and periodontal health more detailed.

Disclosure Statement

None of the authors has any conflicts of interest.

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