

# Clinical Periodontology and Implant Dentistry

Fifth Edition

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**BASIC CONCEPTS**

*Edited by*

Jan Lindhe  
Niklaus P. Lang  
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# Contents

Contributors, xvii

Preface, xxi

## Volume 1: BASIC CONCEPTS

Editors: Jan Lindhe, Niklaus P. Lang, and Thorkild Karring

### Part 1: Anatomy

#### 1 The Anatomy of Periodontal Tissues, 3

*Jan Lindhe, Thorkild Karring, and Maurício Araújo*

Introduction, 3

Gingiva, 5

Macroscopic anatomy, 5

Microscopic anatomy, 8

Periodontal ligament, 27

Root cementum, 31

Alveolar bone, 34

Blood supply of the periodontium, 43

Lymphatic system of the periodontium, 47

Nerves of the periodontium, 48

#### 2 The Edentulous Alveolar Ridge, 50

*Maurício Araújo and Jan Lindhe*

Clinical considerations, 50

Remaining bone in the edentulous ridge, 52

Classification of remaining bone, 53

Topography of the alveolar process, 53

Alterations of the alveolar process following tooth extraction, 54

Intra-alveolar processes, 54

Extra-alveolar processes, 62

Topography of the edentulous ridge, 66

#### 3 The Mucosa at Teeth and Implants, 69

*Jan Lindhe, Jan L. Wennström, and*

*Tord Berglundh*

The gingiva, 69

Biologic width, 69

Dimensions of the buccal tissue, 69

Dimensions of the interdental papilla, 71

The peri-implant mucosa, 71

Biologic width, 72

Quality, 76

Vascular supply, 77

Probing gingiva and peri-implant mucosa, 78

Dimensions of the buccal soft tissue at implants, 80

Dimensions of the papilla between teeth and implants, 81

Dimensions of the "papilla" between adjacent implants, 82

#### 4 Bone as a Tissue, 86

*William V. Giannobile, Hector F. Rios, and Niklaus P. Lang*

Basic bone biology, 86

Bone cells, 86

Modeling and remodeling, 87

Growth factors and alveolar bone healing, 88

Local and systemic factors affecting bone volume and healing, 89

Metabolic disorders affecting bone metabolism, 89

Bone healing, 93

Bone grafting, 93

Human experimental studies on alveolar bone repair, 94

#### 5 Osseointegration, 99

*Jan Lindhe, Tord Berglundh, and Niklaus P. Lang*

The edentulous site, 99

Osseointegration, 99

Implant installation 99

Tissue injury, 99

Wound healing, 100

Cutting and non-cutting implants, 100

The process of osseointegration, 103

#### 6 Periodontal Tactile Perception and Peri-implant Osseoperception, 108

*Reinhilde Jacobs*

Introduction, 108

Neurophysiological background, 109

Afferent nerve fibres and receptors, 109

Trigeminal neurophysiology, 109

Trigeminal neurosensory pathway, 109

Neurovascularization of the jaw bones, 109

Mandibular neuroanatomy, 110

Maxillary neuroanatomy, 111

Periodontal innervation, 112

Testing tactile function, 113

Neurophysiological assessment, 113

Psychophysical assessment, 114

Periodontal tactile function, 115

Active threshold determination, 115

Passive threshold determination, 115

Influence of dental status on tactile function, 116

- Activation of oral mechanoreceptors during oral tactile function, 117
- Functional testing of the oral somatosensory system, 117
  - Oral stereognosis, 118
  - Influence of dental status on stereognostic ability, 118
  - Other compromising factors for oral stereognosis, 118
  - Receptor activation during oral stereognosis, 119
- From periodontal tactile function to peri-implant osseoperception, 119
  - Tooth extraction considered as sensory amputation, 119
  - Histological background of peri-implant osseoperception, 120
  - Cortical plasticity after tooth extraction, 121
  - From osseoperception to implant-mediated sensory motor interactions, 121
  - Clinical implications of implant-deviated sensory motor interaction, 122
- Conclusions, 122

## Part 2: Epidemiology

### 7 Epidemiology of Periodontal Diseases, 129

*Panos N. Papapanou and Jan Lindhe*

- Introduction, 129
- Methodological issues, 129
  - Examination methods – index systems, 129
  - Critical evaluation, 131
- Prevalence of periodontal diseases, 133
  - Introduction, 133
  - Periodontitis in adults, 133
  - Periodontal disease in children and adolescents, 138
- Periodontitis and tooth loss, 141
- Risk factors for periodontitis, 141
  - Introduction – definitions, 141
  - Non-modifiable background factors, 143
  - Environmental, acquired, and behavioral factors, 145
- Periodontal infections and risk for systemic disease, 156
  - Atherosclerosis – cardiovascular/cerebrovascular disease, 156
  - Pregnancy complications, 159
  - Diabetes mellitus, 162

## Part 3: Microbiology

### 8 Oral Biofilms and Calculus, 183

*Niklaus P. Lang, Andrea Mombelli, and Rolf Attström*

- Microbial considerations, 183
- General introduction to plaque formation, 184
- Dental plaque as a biofilm, 187
- Structure of dental plaque, 187
  - Supragingival plaque, 187
  - Subgingival plaque, 191
  - Peri-implant plaque, 196

- Dental calculus, 197
  - Clinical appearance, distribution, and clinical diagnosis, 197
  - Attachment to tooth surfaces and implants, 200
  - Mineralization, composition, and structure, 201
  - Clinical implications, 202

### 9 Periodontal Infections, 207

*Sigmund S. Socransky and Anne D. Haffajee*

- Introduction, 207
    - Similarities of periodontal diseases to other infectious diseases, 207
    - Unique features of periodontal infections, 208
  - Historical perspective, 209
    - The early search, 209
    - The decline of interest in microorganisms, 211
    - Non-specific plaque hypothesis, 211
    - Mixed anaerobic infections, 211
    - Return to specificity in microbial etiology of periodontal diseases, 212
    - Changing concepts of the microbial etiology of periodontal diseases, 212
  - Current suspected pathogens of destructive periodontal diseases, 213
    - Criteria for defining periodontal pathogens, 213
    - Periodontal pathogens, 213
    - Mixed infections, 225
  - The nature of dental plaque – the biofilm way of life, 226
    - The nature of biofilms, 226
    - Properties of biofilms, 227
    - Techniques for the detection and enumeration of bacteria in oral biofilm samples, 229
    - The oral biofilms that lead to periodontal diseases, 229
    - Microbial complexes, 231
    - Factors that affect the composition of subgingival biofilms, 232
    - Microbial composition of supra- and subgingival biofilms, 238
    - Development of supra- and subgingival biofilms, 239
  - Prerequisites for periodontal disease initiation and progression, 242
    - The virulent periodontal pathogen, 243
    - The local environment, 243
    - Host susceptibility, 244
  - Mechanisms of pathogenicity, 245
    - Essential factors for colonization of a subgingival species, 245
  - Effect of therapy on subgingival biofilms, 249
- ### 10 Peri-implant Infections, 268
- Ricardo P. Teles, Anne D. Haffajee, and Sigmund S. Socransky*
- Introduction, 268
  - Early biofilm development on implant surfaces, 268
  - Time of implant exposure and climax community complexity, 271
  - The microbiota on implants in edentulous subjects, 273
  - The microbiota on implants in partially edentulous subjects, 275
  - The microbiota on implants in subjects with a history of periodontal disease, 276
  - The microbiota of peri-implantitis sites, 277

## Part 4: Host–Parasite Interactions

### 11 Pathogenesis of Periodontitis, 285

*Denis F. Kinane, Tord Berglundh, and Jan Lindhe*

Introduction, 285

Clinically healthy gingiva, 286

Gingival inflammation, 287

  Histopathological features of gingivitis, 287

Different lesions in gingivitis/periodontitis, 289

  The initial lesion, 289

  The early lesion, 289

  The established lesion, 290

  The advanced lesion, 292

Host–parasite interactions, 294

  Microbial virulence factors, 294

Host defense processes, 295

  Important aspects of host defense processes, 295

  The innate defense systems, 297

  The immune or adaptive defense system, 299

### 12 Modifying Factors, 307

*Richard Palmer and Mena Soory*

Diabetes mellitus, 307

  Type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus, 307

  Clinical symptoms, 308

  Oral and periodontal effects, 308

  Association of periodontal infection and diabetic control, 309

  Modification of the host–bacteria relationship in diabetes, 310

  Periodontal treatment, 311

Puberty, pregnancy, and the menopause, 312

  Puberty and menstruation, 312

  Pregnancy, 312

  Menopause and osteoporosis, 314

  Hormonal contraceptives, 316

Tobacco smoking, 316

  Periodontal disease in smokers, 317

  Modification of the host–bacteria relationship in smoking, 319

  Smoking cessation, 322

### 13 Susceptibility, 328

*Bruno G. Loos, Ubele van der Velden, and*

*Marja L. Laine*

Introduction, 328

Evidence for the role of genetics in periodontitis, 331

  Heritability of aggressive periodontitis (early onset periodontitis), 331

  Heritability of chronic periodontitis (adult periodontitis), 332

A gene mutation with major effect on human disease and its association with periodontitis, 332

Disease-modifying genes in relation to periodontitis, 333

  IL-1 and TNF- $\alpha$  gene polymorphisms, 334

  Fc $\gamma$ R gene polymorphisms, 336

  Gene polymorphisms in the innate immunity receptors, 338

  Vitamin D receptor gene polymorphisms, 338

  IL-10 gene polymorphisms, 339

  Miscellaneous gene polymorphisms, 340

Disease-modifying genes in relation to implant failures and peri-implantitis, 340

  Early failures in implant dentistry, 341

  Late failures in implant dentistry, 342

  Conclusions and future developments, 342

## Part 5: Trauma from Occlusion

### 14 Trauma from Occlusion: Periodontal Tissues, 349

*Jan Lindhe, Sture Nyman, and Ingvar Ericsson*

Definition and terminology, 349

Trauma from occlusion and plaque-associated periodontal disease, 349

Analysis of human autopsy material, 350

Clinical trials, 352

Animal experiments, 353

### 15 Trauma from Occlusion: Peri-implant Tissues, 363

*Niklaus P. Lang and Tord Berglundh*

Introduction, 363

Orthodontic loading and alveolar bone, 363

Bone reactions to functional loading, 365

Excessive occlusal load on implants, 365

Static and cyclic loads on implants, 366

Load and loss of osseointegration, 368

Masticatory occlusal forces on implants, 369

Tooth–implant supported reconstructions, 370

## Part 6: Periodontal Pathology

### 16 Non-Plaque Induced Inflammatory Gingival Lesions, 377

*Palle Holmstrup*

Gingival diseases of specific bacterial origin, 377

Gingival diseases of viral origin, 378

  Herpes virus infections, 378

Gingival diseases of fungal origin, 380

  Candidosis, 380

  Linear gingival erythema, 381

  Histoplasmosis, 382

Gingival lesions of genetic origin, 383

  Hereditary gingival fibromatosis, 383

Gingival diseases of systemic origin, 384

  Mucocutaneous disorders, 384

  Allergic reactions, 392

  Other gingival manifestations of systemic conditions, 394

Traumatic lesions, 396

  Chemical injury, 396

  Physical injury, 396

  Thermal injury, 397

  Foreign body reactions, 398

### 17 Plaque-Induced Gingival Diseases, 405

*Angelo Mariotti*

Classification criteria for gingival diseases, 405

Plaque-induced gingivitis, 407

Gingival diseases associated with endogenous hormones, 408

  Puberty-associated gingivitis, 408

  Menstrual cycle-associated gingivitis, 409

  Pregnancy-associated gingival diseases, 409

Gingival diseases associated with medications, 410

  Drug-influenced gingival enlargement, 410

- Oral contraceptive-associated gingivitis, 411
- Gingival diseases associated with systemic diseases, 411
  - Diabetes mellitus-associated gingivitis, 411
  - Leukemia-associated gingivitis, 411
  - Linear gingival erythema, 412
- Gingival diseases associated with malnutrition, 412
- Gingival diseases associated with heredity, 413
- Gingival diseases associated with ulcerative lesions, 413
- Treatment of plaque-induced gingival diseases, 414
- The significance of gingivitis, 414
- 18 Chronic Periodontitis, 420**
  - Denis F. Kinane, Jan Lindhe, and Leonardo Trombelli*
  - Clinical features of chronic periodontitis, 420
  - Overall characteristics of chronic periodontitis, 420
  - Gingivitis as a risk for chronic periodontitis, 422
  - Susceptibility to chronic periodontitis, 422
  - Prevalence of chronic periodontitis, 423
  - Progression of chronic periodontitis, 423
  - Risk factors for chronic periodontitis, 424
    - Bacterial plaque, 424
    - Age, 424
    - Smoking, 424
    - Systemic disease, 424
    - Stress, 425
    - Genetics, 426
  - Scientific basis for treatment of chronic periodontitis, 426
- 19 Aggressive Periodontitis, 428**
  - Maurizio S. Tonetti and Andrea Mombelli*
  - Classification and clinical syndromes, 429
  - Epidemiology, 431
    - Primary dentition, 432
    - Permanent dentition, 432
    - Screening, 433
  - Etiology and pathogenesis, 437
    - Bacterial etiology, 437
    - Genetic aspects of host susceptibility, 441
    - Environmental aspects of host susceptibility, 445
    - Current concepts, 445
  - Diagnosis, 445
    - Clinical diagnosis, 445
    - Microbiologic diagnosis, 448
    - Evaluation of host defenses, 448
    - Genetic diagnosis, 449
  - Principles of therapeutic intervention, 449
    - Elimination or suppression of the pathogenic flora, 449
- 20 Necrotizing Periodontal Disease, 459**
  - Palle Holmstrup and Jytte Westergaard*
  - Nomenclature, 459
  - Prevalence, 460
  - Clinical characteristics, 460
    - Development of lesions, 460
    - Interproximal craters, 461
    - Sequestrum formation, 462
    - Involvement of alveolar mucosa, 462
    - Swelling of lymph nodes, 463
    - Fever and malaise, 463
    - Oral hygiene, 463
  - Acute and recurrent/chronic forms of necrotizing gingivitis and periodontitis, 463
  - Diagnosis, 464
    - Differential diagnosis, 464
  - Histopathology, 465
  - Microbiology, 466
    - Microorganisms isolated from necrotizing lesions, 466
    - Pathogenic potential of microorganisms, 466
  - Host response and predisposing factors, 468
    - Systemic diseases, 468
    - Poor oral hygiene, pre-existing gingivitis, and history of previous NPD, 469
    - Psychologic stress and inadequate sleep, 469
    - Smoking and alcohol use, 470
    - Caucasian background, 470
    - Young age, 470
  - Treatment, 470
    - Acute phase treatment, 470
    - Maintenance phase treatment, 472
- 21 Periodontal Disease as a Risk for Systemic Disease, 475**
  - Ray C. Williams and David W. Paquette*
  - Early twentieth century concepts, 475
  - Periodontitis as a risk for cardiovascular disease, 476
    - Biologic rationale, 479
  - Periodontitis as a risk for adverse pregnancy outcomes, 480
    - Association of periodontal disease and pre-eclampsia, 486
  - Periodontitis as a risk for diabetic complications, 486
  - Periodontitis as a risk for respiratory infections, 488
  - Effects of treatment of periodontitis on systemic diseases, 489
- 22 The Periodontal Abscess, 496**
  - Mariano Sanz, David Herrera, and Arie J. van Winkelhoff*
  - Introduction, 496
  - Classification, 496
  - Prevalence, 497
  - Pathogenesis and histopathology, 497
  - Microbiology, 498
  - Diagnosis, 498
    - Differential diagnosis, 499
  - Treatment, 500
  - Complications, 501
    - Tooth loss, 501
    - Dissemination of the infection, 502
- 23 Lesions of Endodontic Origin, 504**
  - Gunnar Bergenholtz and Domenico Ricucci*
  - Introduction, 504
  - Disease processes of the dental pulp, 504
    - Causes, 504
    - Progression and dynamic events, 505
    - Accessory canals, 507
    - Periodontal tissue lesions to root canal infection, 510
  - Effects of periodontal disease and periodontal therapy on the condition of the pulp, 516
    - Influences of periodontal disease, 516
    - Influence of periodontal treatment measures on the pulp, 518
    - Root dentin hypersensitivity, 518



## Part 7: Peri-implant Pathology

### 24 Peri-implant Mucositis and Peri-implantitis, 529

*Tord Berglundh, Jan Lindhe, and Niklaus P. Lang*

- Definitions, 529
- Ridge mucosa, 529
- Peri-implant mucosa, 529
- Peri-implant mucositis, 530
  - Clinical features, 530
  - Prevalence, 530
  - Histopathology, 530
- Peri-implantitis, 532
  - Clinical features, 532
  - Prevalence, 532
  - Histopathology, 534

## Part 8: Tissue Regeneration

### 25 Concepts in Periodontal Tissue Regeneration, 541

*Thorkild Karring and Jan Lindhe*

- Introduction, 541
- Regenerative periodontal surgery, 542
- Periodontal wound healing, 542
  - Regenerative capacity of bone cells, 547
  - Regenerative capacity of gingival connective tissue cells, 547
  - Regenerative capacity of periodontal ligament cells, 548
- Role of epithelium in periodontal wound healing, 549
- Root resorption, 550
- Regenerative concepts, 550
  - Grafting procedures, 551
  - Root surface biomodification, 557
  - Growth regulatory factors for periodontal regeneration, 559
  - Guided tissue regeneration (GTR), 559
- Assessment of periodontal regeneration, 561
  - Periodontal probing, 561
  - Radiographic analysis and re-entry operations, 562
  - Histologic methods, 562

*Index, i1*

## Volume 2: CLINICAL CONCEPTS

Editors: Niklaus P. Lang and Jan Lindhe

## Part 9: Examination Protocols

### 26 Examination of Patients with Periodontal Diseases, 573

*Giovanni E. Salvi, Jan Lindhe, and Niklaus P. Lang*

- History of periodontal patients, 573
  - Chief complaint and expectations, 573
  - Social and family history, 573
  - Dental history, 573
  - Oral hygiene habits, 573
  - Smoking history, 574
  - Medical history and medications, 574
- Signs and symptoms of periodontal diseases, 574
  - The gingiva, 574
  - The periodontal ligament and the root cementum, 577
  - The alveolar bone, 583
- Diagnosis of periodontal lesions, 583
- Oral hygiene status, 584
- Additional dental examinations, 585

### 27 Examination of the Candidate for Implant Therapy, 587

*Hans-Peter Weber, Daniel Buser, and Urs C. Belser*

- Dental implants in periodontally compromised patients, 587
- Patient history, 590
  - Chief complaint and expectations, 590
  - Social and family history, 590
  - Dental history, 590
  - Motivation and compliance, 591
  - Habits, 591
  - Medical history and medications, 591
- Local examination, 591
  - Extraoral, 591

- General intraoral examination, 592
- Radiographic examination, 592
- Implant-specific intraoral examination, 592
- Patient-specific risk assessment, 597
  - Risk assessment for sites without esthetic implications, 597
  - Risk assessment for sites with esthetic implications, 597

### 28 Radiographic Examination of the Implant Patient, 600

*Hans-Göran Gröndahl and Kerstin Gröndahl*

- Introduction, 600
- Radiographic examination for implant planning purposes – general aspects, 601
  - The clinical vs. the radiologic examination, 601
  - What is the necessary radiographic information?, 601
  - Radiographic methods for obtaining the information required for implant planning, 603
- Radiographic examination for implant planning purposes – upper jaw examination, 607
- Radiographic examination for implant planning purposes – lower jaw examination, 610
- Radiographic monitoring of implant treatment, 614
- Radiation detectors for intraoral radiography, 618
- Image-guided surgery, 621

### 29 Examination of Patients with Implant-Supported Restorations, 623

*Urs Brägger*

- Identification of the presence of implants and implant systems, 623
  - Screening, 623
  - Implant pass, 623

- Questionnaire for new patients, 625
- Anamnestic information from patients on maintenance, 625
- The development of implant recognition software, 625
- Clinical inspection and examination, 625
  - Characteristics of implant-supported restorations, 625
  - Characteristics of prosthetic components and components of implant systems, 626
- Technical failures/complications, 626
- Function, 628
  - Functional analysis, 628
  - Articulation, phonetics, 628
- Implant, 628
  - Clinical test of mobility, 629
  - Electronic tools to assess the quality of osseointegration, 629
  - Bacterial deposits, 629
- Soft tissues, 629
  - Mucosa, 629
  - Palpation/sensitivity, 629
  - Recession, pocket probing depth, probing attachment level, bleeding on probing, 629
- Esthetics, 630
  - Papillae, interdental space and type of mucosa, 630
  - Condition of adjacent teeth, 631
  - Color shades, 632
- 30 Risk Assessment of the Implant Patient, 634**  
*Gary C. Armitage and Tord Lundgren*
- Principles of risk assessment, 634
  - Clinical information required for risk assessment, 636
  - Technical procedures to help minimize risk, 636
- Local risk factors and conditions, 637
  - Presence of ongoing oral infections, 637
- Systemic risk factors, 639
  - Age, 639
  - Smoking, 640
  - Medication history, 640
  - Immunosuppression, 642
  - History of radiation therapy to the jaws, 642
  - Diabetes mellitus, 642
  - Metabolic bone disease, 643
  - Connective tissue and autoimmune disorders, 643
  - Xerostomia, 644
  - Hematologic and lymphoreticular disorders, 644
  - Genetic traits and disorders, 644
- Importance of behavioral considerations in risk assessment, 645
  - Dental history of compliance behaviors, 645
  - Substance use/abuse, 645
  - Psychiatric/psychological issues, 645
  - Lack of understanding or communication, 645
  - Patient's expectations, 646
- Interest and commitment to post-treatment care and maintenance program, 646

**Part 10: Treatment Planning Protocols**

- 31 Treatment Planning of Patients with Periodontal Diseases, 655**  
*Giovanni E. Salvo, Jan Lindhe, and Niklaus P. Lang*

- Screening for periodontal disease, 656
  - Basic periodontal examination, 656
- Diagnosis, 657
- Treatment planning, 658
  - Initial treatment plan, 658
  - Pre-therapeutic single tooth prognosis, 660
  - Case presentation, 660
- Case report, 667
  - Patient S.K. (male, 35 years old), 667
- 32 Treatment Planning for Implant Therapy in the Periodontally Compromised Patient, 675**  
*Jan L. Wennström and Niklaus P. Lang*
- Prognosis of implant therapy in the periodontally compromised patient, 675
- Strategies in treatment planning, 676
- Treatment decisions – case reports, 676
  - Posterior segments, 676
  - Tooth versus implant, 679
  - Aggressive periodontitis, 680
  - Furcation problems, 682
  - Single-tooth problem in the esthetic zone, 683
- 33 Systemic Phase of Therapy, 687**  
*Niklaus P. Lang and Hans-Rudolf Baur*
- Introduction, 687
- Protection of the dental team and other patients against infectious diseases, 687
- Protection of the patient's health, 688
- Prevention of complications, 688
  - Infection, specifically bacterial endocarditis, 688
  - Bleeding, 689
  - Cardiovascular incidents, 690
  - Allergic reactions and drug interactions, 690
- Systemic diseases, disorders or conditions influencing pathogenesis and healing potential, 690
- Control of anxiety and pain, 690
- Smoking counseling, 691

**Part 11: Initial Periodontal Therapy (Infection Control)**

- 34 Motivational Interviewing, 695**  
*Christoph A. Ramseier, Delwyn Catley, Susan Krigel, and Robert A. Bagramian*
- The importance of behavioral change counseling in periodontal care, 695
- Development of motivational interviewing, 696
  - History of motivational interviewing, 697
  - What is motivational interviewing?, 697
- Evidence for motivational interviewing, 697
- Implementation of motivational interviewing into the periodontal treatment plan, 698
  - Key principles of motivational interviewing, 698
  - Basic communication skills, 698
  - Giving advice, 700
- Case examples for oral hygiene motivation, 700
  - Oral hygiene motivation 1, 700
  - Oral hygiene motivation 2, 701
- Case example for tobacco use cessation, 702
- 35 Mechanical Supragingival Plaque Control, 705**  
*Fridus van der Weijden, José J. Echeverría, Mariano Sanz, and Jan Lindhe*

Importance of supragingival plaque removal, 705  
 Self-performed plaque control, 706  
   Brushing, 706  
   Interdental cleaning, 714  
   Adjunctive aids, 717  
   Side effects, 718

Importance of instruction and motivation in mechanical plaque control, 719

### 36 Chemical Supragingival Plaque Control, 734

*Martin Addy and John Moran*

Classification and terminology of agents, 734  
 The concept of chemical supragingival plaque control, 735

  Supragingival plaque control, 736  
   Chemical supragingival plaque control, 737  
   Rationale for chemical supragingival plaque control, 738  
   Approaches to chemical supragingival plaque control, 739

  Vehicles for the delivery of chemical agents, 740

Chemical plaque control agents, 742

  Systemic antimicrobials including antibiotics, 743

  Enzymes, 744

  Bisbiguanide antiseptics, 744

  Quaternary ammonium compounds, 744

  Phenols and essential oils, 745

  Natural products, 745

  Fluorides, 746

  Metal salts, 746

  Oxygenating agents, 746

  Detergents, 746

  Amine alcohols, 746

  Salifluor, 747

  Acidified sodium chlorite, 747

  Other antiseptics, 747

Chlorhexidine, 748

  Toxicology, safety, and side effects, 748

  Chlorhexidine staining, 749

  Mechanism of action, 750

  Chlorhexidine products, 750

  Clinical uses of chlorhexidine, 751

Evaluation of chemical agents and products, 754

  Studies *in vitro*, 755

  Study methods *in vitro*, 755

  Clinical trial design considerations, 757

### 37 Non-surgical Therapy, 766

*Noel Claffey and Ioannis Polyzois*

Introduction, 766

Detection and removal of dental calculus, 766

Methods used for non-surgical root surface debridement, 768

  Hand instrumentation, 768

  Sonic and ultrasonic scalers, 770

  Reciprocating instruments, 770

  Ablative laser therapy, 771

  Choice of debridement method, 771

The influence of mechanical debridement on subgingival biofilms, 772

Implication of furcation involvement, 773

Pain and discomfort following non-surgical therapy, 773

Re-evaluation, 774

  Interpretation of probing measurements at re-evaluation, 774

Average changes in measurements due to non-surgical therapy, 775

Interpretation of longitudinal changes at individual sites, 775

Prediction of outcome and evaluation of treatment, 775

Full-mouth disinfection, 776

## Part 12: Additional Therapy

### 38 Periodontal Surgery: Access Therapy, 783

*Jan L. Wennström, Lars Heijl, and Jan Lindhe*

Introduction, 783

Techniques in periodontal pocket surgery, 783

  Gingivectomy procedures, 784

  Flap procedures, 786

  Regenerative procedures, 793

Distal wedge procedures, 794

Osseous surgery, 795

  Osteoplasty, 796

  Ostectomy, 796

General guidelines for periodontal surgery, 797

  Objectives of surgical treatment, 797

  Indications for surgical treatment, 797

  Contraindications for periodontal surgery, 799

  Local anesthesia in periodontal surgery, 800

  Instruments used in periodontal surgery, 802

  Selection of surgical technique, 805

  Root surface instrumentation, 808

  Root surface conditioning/biomodification, 808

  Suturing, 808

  Periodontal dressings, 811

  Post-operative pain control, 812

  Post-surgical care, 812

Outcome of surgical periodontal therapy, 812

  Healing following surgical pocket therapy, 812

  Clinical outcome of surgical access therapy in comparison to non-surgical therapy, 814

### 39 Treatment of Furcation-Involved Teeth, 823

*Gianfranco Carnevale, Roberto Pontoriero, and Jan Lindhe*

Terminology, 823

Anatomy, 824

  Maxillary molars, 824

  Maxillary premolars, 825

  Mandibular molars, 825

  Other teeth, 826

Diagnosis, 826

  Probing, 828

  Radiographs, 828

Differential diagnosis, 829

  Trauma from occlusion, 829

Therapy, 830

  Scaling and root planing, 830

  Furcation plasty, 830

  Tunnel preparation, 832

  Root separation and resection (RSR), 832

  Regeneration of furcation defects, 840

  Extraction, 843

Prognosis, 843

### 40 Endodontics and Periodontics, 848

*Gunnar Bergenholtz and Gunnar Hasselgren*

Introduction, 848

Infectious processes in the periodontium of endodontic origin, 849  
 General features, 849  
 Clinical presentations, 850  
 Distinguishing lesions of endodontic origin from periodontitis, 851  
 Endo–perio lesions – diagnosis and treatment aspects, 856  
 Endodontic treatments and periodontal lesions, 858  
 Iatrogenic root perforations, 858  
 Vertical root fractures, 859  
 Mechanisms, 860  
 Incidence, 861  
 Clinical expressions, 861  
 Diagnosis, 862  
 Treatment considerations, 863  
 External root resorptions, 865  
 Mechanisms of hard tissue resorption in general, 865  
 Clinical presentations and identification, 866  
 Different forms, 866

**41 Treatment of Peri-implant Lesions, 875**  
*Tord Berglundh, Niklaus P. Lang, and Jan Lindhe*

Introduction, 875  
 The diagnostic process, 875  
 Treatment strategies, 875  
 Resolution of peri-implantitis lesions, 877  
 Cumulative Interceptive Supportive Therapy (CIST), 878  
 Preventive and therapeutic strategies, 878  
 Mechanical debridement; CIST protocol A, 878  
 Antiseptic therapy; CIST protocol A+B, 878  
 Antibiotic therapy; CIST protocol A+B+C, 879  
 Regenerative or resective therapy; CIST protocol A+B+C+D, 880

**42 Antibiotics in Periodontal Therapy, 882**  
*Andrea Mombelli*

Principles of antibiotic therapy, 882  
 The limitations of mechanical therapy: can antimicrobial agents help?, 882  
 Specific characteristics of the periodontal infection, 883  
 Drug delivery routes, 884  
 Evaluation of antibiotics for periodontal therapy, 886  
 Systemic antimicrobial therapy in clinical trials, 888  
 Systemic antibiotics in clinical practice, 889  
 Local antimicrobial therapy in clinical trials, 890  
 Local antibiotics in clinical practice, 893  
 Overall conclusion, 893

**Part 13: Reconstructive Therapy**

**43 Regenerative Periodontal Therapy, 901**  
*Pierpaolo Cortellini and Maurizio S. Tonetti*

Introduction, 901  
 Classification and diagnosis of periodontal osseous defects, 901  
 Clinical indications, 903  
 Long-term effects and benefits of regeneration, 903  
 Evidence for clinical efficacy and effectiveness, 905  
 Patient and defect prognostic factors, 909

Patient factors, 911  
 Defect factors, 911  
 Tooth factors, 912  
 Factors affecting the clinical outcomes of GTR in furcations, 913  
 The relevance of the surgical approach, 913  
 Papilla preservation flaps, 916  
 Modified papilla preservation technique, 917  
 Simplified papilla preservation flap, 920  
 Minimally invasive surgical technique, 922  
 Post-operative regime, 925  
 Post-operative morbidity, 926  
 Barrier materials for regenerative surgery, 928  
 Non-absorbable materials, 928  
 Bioabsorbable materials, 930  
 Membranes in intrabony defects, 930  
 Membranes for furcation involvement, 932  
 Surgical issues with barrier membranes, 937  
 Bone replacement grafts, 938  
 Biologically active regenerative materials, 938  
 Membranes combined with other regenerative procedures, 940  
 Root surface biomodification, 943  
 Clinical strategies, 944

**44 Mucogingival Therapy – Periodontal Plastic Surgery, 955**

*Jan L. Wennström, Giovanni Zucchelli, and Giovan P. Pini Prato*  
 Introduction, 955  
 Gingival augmentation, 955  
 Gingival dimensions and periodontal health, 956  
 Marginal tissue recession, 958  
 Marginal tissue recession and orthodontic treatment, 961  
 Gingival dimensions and restorative therapy, 964  
 Indications for gingival augmentation, 965  
 Gingival augmentation procedures, 965  
 Healing following gingival augmentation procedures, 968  
 Root coverage, 970  
 Root coverage procedures, 971  
 Clinical outcome of root coverage procedures, 990  
 Soft tissue healing against the covered root surface, 992  
 Interdental papilla reconstruction, 996  
 Surgical techniques, 997  
 Crown-lengthening procedures, 997  
 Excessive gingival display, 997  
 Exposure of sound tooth structure, 1002  
 Ectopic tooth eruption, 1005  
 The deformed edentulous ridge, 1008  
 Prevention of soft tissue collapse following tooth extraction, 1009  
 Correction of ridge defects by the use of soft tissue grafts, 1010  
 Surgical procedures for ridge augmentation, 1011

**45 Periodontal Plastic Microsurgery, 1029**  
*Rino Burkhardt and Niklaus P. Lang*

Microsurgical techniques in dentistry (development of concepts), 1029  
 Concepts in microsurgery, 1030  
 Magnification, 1030  
 Instruments, 1035



Suture materials, 1035  
 Training concepts (surgeons and assistants), 1038  
 Clinical indications and limitations, 1039  
 Comparison to conventional mucogingival interventions, 1040

**46 Re-osseointegration, 1045**

*Tord Berglundh and Jan Lindhe*

Introduction, 1045

Is it possible to resolve a marginal hard tissue defect adjacent to an oral implant?, 1045

Non-contaminated, pristine implants at sites with a wide marginal gap (crater), 1045

Contaminated implants and crater-shaped bone defects, 1046

Re-osseointegration, 1046

Is re-osseointegration a feasible outcome of regenerative therapy?, 1046

Regeneration of bone from the walls of the defect, 1046

“Rejuvenate” the contaminated implant surface, 1047

Is the quality of the implant surface important in a healing process that may lead to re-osseointegration?, 1048

The surface of the metal device in the compromised implant site, 1048

**Part 14: Surgery for Implant Installation**

**47 Timing of Implant Placement, 1053**

*Christoph H.F. Hämmerle, Maurício Araújo, and Jan Lindhe*

Introduction, 1053

Type 1: placement of an implant as part of the same surgical procedure and immediately following tooth extraction, 1055

Ridge corrections in conjunction with implant placement, 1055

Stability of implant, 1061

Type 2: completed soft tissue coverage of the tooth socket, 1061

Type 3: substantial bone fill has occurred in the extraction socket, 1062

Type 4: the alveolar ridge is healed following tooth loss, 1063

Clinical concepts, 1063

Aim of therapy, 1063

Success of treatment and long-term outcomes, 1065

**48 The Surgical Site, 1068**

*Marc Quirynen and Ulf Lekholm*

Bone: shape and quality, 1068

Clinical examination, 1068

Radiographic examination, 1068

Planning for implant placement, 1069

Implant placement, 1071

Guiding concept, 1071

Flap elevation, 1071

Flapless implant insertion, 1071

Model-based guided surgery, 1071

Bone preparation, 1071

Anatomic landmarks with potential risk, 1072

Implant position, 1073

Number of implants, 1074

Implant direction, 1074

Healing time, 1076

**Part 15: Reconstructive Ridge Therapy**

**49 Ridge Augmentation Procedures, 1083**

*Christoph H.F. Hämmerle and Ronald E. Jung*

Introduction, 1083

Patient situation, 1084

Bone morphology, 1084

Horizontal bone defects, 1084

Vertical bone defects, 1084

Soft tissue morphology, 1085

Augmentation materials, 1085

Membranes, 1085

Bone grafts and bone graft substitutes, 1086

Long-term results, 1087

Clinical concepts, 1088

Ridge preservation, 1088

Extraction sockets (class I), 1089

Dehiscence defects (classes II and III), 1090

Horizontal defects (class IV), 1091

Vertical defects (class V), 1092

Future developments, 1093

Growth and differentiation factors, 1093

Delivery systems for growth and differentiation factors, 1093

Membrane developments, 1093

Future outlook, 1094

**50 Elevation of the Maxillary Sinus Floor, 1099**

*Bjarni E. Pjetursson and Niklaus P. Lang*

Introduction, 1099

Treatment options in the posterior maxilla, 1099

Sinus floor elevation with a lateral approach, 1100

Anatomy of the maxillary sinus, 1100

Pre-surgical examination, 1101

Indications and contraindications, 1102

Surgical techniques, 1102

Post-surgical care, 1105

Complications, 1106

Grafting materials, 1107

Success and implant survival, 1108

Sinus floor elevation with the crestal approach (osteotome technique), 1110

Indications and contraindications, 1111

Surgical technique, 1111

Post-surgical care, 1115

Grafting material, 1115

Success and implant survival, 1116

Short implants, 1117

Conclusions and clinical suggestions, 1118

**Part 16: Occlusal and Prosthetic Therapy**

**51 Tooth-Supported Fixed Partial Dentures, 1125**

*Jan Lindhe and Sture Nyman*

Clinical symptoms of trauma from occlusion, 1125

Angular bony defects, 1125

Increased tooth mobility, 1125

Progressive (increasing) tooth mobility, 1125

Tooth mobility crown excursion/root displacement, 1125

- Initial and secondary tooth mobility, 1125
- Clinical assessment of tooth mobility (physiologic and pathologic tooth mobility), 1127
- Treatment of increased tooth mobility, 1128
  - Situation I, 1128
  - Situation II, 1129
  - Situation III, 1129
  - Situation IV, 1132
  - Situation V, 1134

**52 Implants in Restorative Dentistry, 1138**

*Niklaus P. Lang and Giovanni E. Salvi*

- Introduction, 1138
- Treatment concepts, 1138
  - Limited treatment goals, 1139
  - Shortened dental arch concept, 1139
- Indications for implants, 1139
  - Increase the subjective chewing comfort, 1141
  - Preservation of natural tooth substance and existing functional, satisfactory reconstructions, 1143
  - Replacement of strategically important missing teeth, 1144

**53 Implants in the Esthetic Zone, 1146**

*Urs C. Belser, Jean-Pierre Bernard, and Daniel Buser*

- Basic concepts, 1146
  - General esthetic principles and related guidelines, 1147
  - Esthetic considerations related to maxillary anterior implant restorations, 1148
- Anterior single-tooth replacement, 1149
  - Sites without significant tissue deficiencies, 1152
  - Sites with localized horizontal deficiencies, 1156
  - Sites with extended horizontal deficiencies, 1156
  - Sites with major vertical tissue loss, 1157
- Multiple-unit anterior fixed implant restorations, 1161
  - Sites without significant tissue deficiencies, 1163
  - Sites with extended horizontal deficiencies, 1164
  - Sites with major vertical tissue loss, 1165
- Conclusions and perspectives, 1165
  - Scalloped implant design, 1165
  - Segmented fixed implant restorations in the edentulous maxilla, 1166

**54 Implants in the Posterior Dentition, 1175**

*Urs C. Belser, Daniel Buser, and Jean-Pierre Bernard*

- Basic concepts, 1175
  - General considerations, 1175
  - Indications for implant restorations in the load carrying part of the dentition, 1177
  - Controversial issues, 1180
- Restoration of the distally shortened arch with fixed implant-supported prostheses, 1180
  - Number, size, and distribution of implants, 1180
  - Implant restorations with cantilever units, 1182
  - Combination of implant and natural tooth support, 1183
  - Sites with extended horizontal bone volume deficiencies and/or anterior sinus floor proximity, 1184
- Multiple-unit tooth-bound posterior implant restorations, 1187
  - Number, size, and distribution of implants, 1187
  - Splinted versus single-unit restorations of

- multiple adjacent posterior implants, 1189
- Posterior single-tooth replacement, 1191
  - Premolar-size single-tooth restorations, 1191
  - Molar-size single-tooth restorations, 1191
  - Sites with limited vertical bone volume, 1192
- Clinical applications, 1193
  - Screw-retained implant restorations, 1193
  - Abutment-level impression versus implant shoulder-level impression, 1196
  - Cemented multiple-unit posterior implant prostheses, 1197
  - Angulated abutments, 1198
  - High-strength all-ceramic implant restorations, 1199
  - Orthodontic and occlusal considerations related to posterior implant therapy, 1200
- Concluding remarks and perspectives, 1203
  - Early and immediate fixed implant restorations, 1203

**55 Implant–Implant and Tooth–Implant Supported Fixed Partial Dentures, 1208**

*Clark M. Stanford and Lyndon F. Cooper*

- Introduction, 1208
- Initial patient assessment, 1208
- Implant treatment planning for the edentulous arch, 1209
  - Prosthesis design and full-arch tooth replacement therapy, 1210
  - Complete-arch fixed complete dentures, 1211
- Prosthesis design and partially edentulous tooth replacement therapy, 1211
  - Implant per tooth versus an implant-to-implant FPD?, 1212
  - Cantilever pontics, 1213
  - Immediate provisionalization, 1215
  - Disadvantages of implant–implant fixed partial dentures, 1215
- Tooth–implant fixed partial dentures, 1216

**56 Complications Related to Implant-Supported Restorations, 1222**

*Y. Joon Ko, Clark M. Stanford, and Lyndon F. Cooper*

- Introduction, 1222
- Clinical complications in conventional fixed restorations, 1222
- Clinical complications in implant-supported restorations, 1224
  - Biologic complications, 1224
  - Mechanical complications, 1226
- Other issues related to prosthetic complications, 1231
  - Implant angulation and prosthetic complications, 1231
  - Screw-retained vs. cement-retained restorations, 1233
  - Ceramic abutments, 1233
  - Esthetic complications, 1233
  - Success/survival rate of implant-supported prostheses, 1234

**Part 17: Orthodontics and Periodontics**

**57 Tooth Movements in the Periodontally Compromised Patient, 1241**

*Björn U. Zachrisson*

- Orthodontic tooth movement in adults with periodontal tissue breakdown, 1241
  - Orthodontic treatment considerations, 1243
  - Esthetic finishing of treatment results, 1248
  - Retention – problems and solutions; long-term follow-up, 1248
  - Possibilities and limitations; legal aspects, 1249
- Specific factors associated with orthodontic tooth movement in adults, 1252
  - Tooth movement into infrabony pockets, 1252
  - Tooth movement into compromised bone areas, 1253
  - Tooth movement through cortical bone, 1253
  - Extrusion and intrusion of single teeth – effects on periodontium, clinical crown length, and esthetics, 1255
  - Regenerative procedures and orthodontic tooth movement, 1261
  - Traumatic occlusion (jiggling) and orthodontic treatment, 1262
  - Molar uprighting, furcation involvement, 1262
  - Tooth movement and implant esthetics, 1263
- Gingival recession, 1267
  - Labial recession, 1267
  - Interdental recession, 1271
- Minor surgery associated with orthodontic therapy, 1274
  - Fiberotomy, 1274
  - Frenotomy, 1274
  - Removal of gingival invaginations (clefts), 1275
  - Gingivectomy, 1275

## 58 Implants Used for Orthodontic Anchorage, 1280

*Marc A. Schätzle and Niklaus P. Lang*

- Introduction, 1280
- Evolution of implants for orthodontic anchorage, 1281
- Prosthetic implants for orthodontic anchorage, 1282
  - Bone reaction to orthodontic implant loading, 1282
  - Indications of prosthetic oral implants for orthodontic anchorage, 1283
  - Prosthetic oral implant anchorage in growing orthodontic patients, 1283
- Orthodontic implants as temporary anchorage devices, 1284
  - Implant designs and dimensions, 1284
  - Insertion sites of palatal implants, 1286
  - Palatal implants and their possible effect in growing patients, 1286
  - Clinical procedures and loading time schedule for palatal implant installation, 1288
  - Direct or indirect orthodontic implant anchorage, 1288
  - Stability and success rates, 1290
  - Implant removal, 1290
  - Advantages and disadvantages, 1290

## Part 18: Supportive Care

### 59 Supportive Periodontal Therapy (SPT), 1297

*Niklaus P. Lang, Urs Brägger, Giovanni E. Salvi, and Maurizio S. Tonetti*

- Definitions, 1297
- Basic paradigms for the prevention of periodontal disease, 1297
- Patients at risk for periodontitis without SPT, 1300
- SPT for patients with gingivitis, 1302
- SPT for patients with periodontitis, 1302
- Continuous multi-level risk assessment, 1303
  - Subject risk assessment, 1302
  - Tooth risk assessment, 1309
  - Site risk assessment, 1310
  - Radiographic evaluation of periodontal disease progression, 1312
  - Clinical implementation, 1312
- Objectives for SPT, 1313
- SPT in daily practice, 1314
  - Examination, re-evaluation, and diagnosis (ERD), 1314
  - Motivation, reinstruction, and instrumentation (MRI), 1315
  - Treatment of reinfected sites (TRS), 1315
  - Polishing, fluorides, determination of recall interval (PFD), 1317

## Part 19: Halitosis

### 60 Halitosis Control, 1325

*Edwin G. Winkel*

- Introduction, 1325
  - Epidemiology, 1325
  - Odor characteristics, 1326
  - Pathogenesis of intraoral halitosis, 1326
  - Pathogenesis of extraoral halitosis, 1327
- Diagnosis, 1328
  - Flowchart in a halitosis practice, 1328
  - Before first consultation, 1328
  - At the first examination, 1328
  - Classification of halitosis, 1333
- Therapy, 1333
  - Pseudo-halitosis and halitophobia, 1333
  - Temporary halitosis, 1334
  - Extraoral halitosis, 1334
  - Intraoral halitosis, 1334
  - Physiologic halitosis, 1335
  - Treatment planning, 1335
  - Adjustment of therapy, 1337
  - Future perspectives, 1337

*Index, i1*





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# Preface

When the groundwork for the fifth edition of *Clinical Periodontology and Implant Dentistry* began in early 2007, it became clear that we had reached a fork in the road. It has always been my intention that each successive edition of this work should reflect the state of the art of clinical periodontology and, in doing such, should run the gamut of topics within this subject area. However, thorough coverage of an already large and now rapidly expanding specialty has resulted in a book of commensurate size and therefore for the fifth edition, the decision was taken to divide the book into two volumes: basic concepts and clinical concepts. The decision to make the split a purely physical one, and not an intellectual one, reflects the realization that over the past decade, implant dentistry has become a basic part of periodontology. The integrated structure of this latest edition of the textbook mirrors this merger.

In order for the student of dentistry, whatever his or her level, to learn how teeth and implants may function together as separate or connected units in the same dentition, a sound knowledge of the tissues that surround the natural tooth and the dental implant, as well as an understanding of the various lesions that may occur in the supporting tissues, is

imperative. Hence, in both volumes of the textbook, chapters dealing with traditional periodontal issues, such as anatomy, pathology and treatment, are followed by similar topics related to tissues surrounding dental implants. In the first volume of the fifth edition, “basic concepts” as they relate to anatomy, microbiology and pathology, for example, are presented, while in the second volume (“clinical concepts”), various aspects of often evidence-based periodontal and restorative examination and treatment procedures are outlined.

It is my hope that the fifth edition of *Clinical Periodontology and Implant Dentistry* will challenge the reader intellectually, provide elucidation and clarity of information, and also impart an understanding of how the information presented in the text can, and should, be used in the practice of contemporary dentistry.



Jan Lindhe



# Part 1: Anatomy

- 1** The Anatomy of Periodontal Tissues, 3  
*Jan Lindhe, Thorkild Karring, and Maurício Araújo*
- 2** The Edentulous Alveolar Ridge, 50  
*Maurício Araújo and Jan Lindhe*
- 3** The Mucosa at Teeth and Implants, 69  
*Jan Lindhe, Jan L. Wennström, and Tord Berglundh*
- 4** Bone as a Tissue, 86  
*William V. Giannobile, Hector F. Rios, and Niklaus P. Lang*
- 5** Osseointegration, 99  
*Jan Lindhe, Tord Berglundh, and Niklaus P. Lang*
- 6** Periodontal Tactile Perception and Peri-implant Osseoperception, 108  
*Reinhilde Jacobs*





## Chapter 1

# The Anatomy of Periodontal Tissues

Jan Lindhe, Thorkild Karring, and Maurício Araújo

Introduction, 3

Gingiva, 5

Macroscopic anatomy, 5

Microscopic anatomy, 8

Periodontal ligament, 27

Root cementum, 31

Alveolar bone, 34

Blood supply of the periodontium, 43

Lymphatic system of the periodontium, 47

Nerves of the periodontium, 48

### Introduction

This chapter includes a brief description of the characteristics of the normal periodontium. It is assumed that the reader has prior knowledge of oral embryology and histology. The periodontium (peri = around, odontos = tooth) comprises the following tissues (Fig. 1-1): (1) the *gingiva* (G), (2) the *periodontal ligament* (PL), (3) the *root cementum* (RC), and (4) the *alveolar bone* (AP). The alveolar bone consists of two components, the *alveolar bone proper* (ABP) and the alveolar process. The alveolar bone proper, also called “bundle bone”, is continuous with the alveolar process and forms the thin bone plate that lines the alveolus of the tooth.

The main function of the periodontium is to attach the tooth to the bone tissue of the jaws and to maintain the integrity of the surface of the masticatory mucosa of the oral cavity. The periodontium, also called “the attachment apparatus” or “the supporting tissues of the teeth”, constitutes a developmental, biologic, and functional unit which undergoes certain changes with age and is, in addition, subjected to morphologic changes related to functional alterations and alterations in the oral environment.

The development of the periodontal tissues occurs during the development and formation of teeth. This process starts early in the embryonic phase when cells from the neural crest (from the neural tube of the embryo) migrate into the first branchial arch. In this position the neural crest cells form a band of *ectomesenchyme* beneath the epithelium of the stomatodeum (the primitive oral cavity). After the uncommitted neural crest cells have reached their location in the jaw space, the epithelium of the stomatodeum releases factors which initiate epithelial–ectomesen-

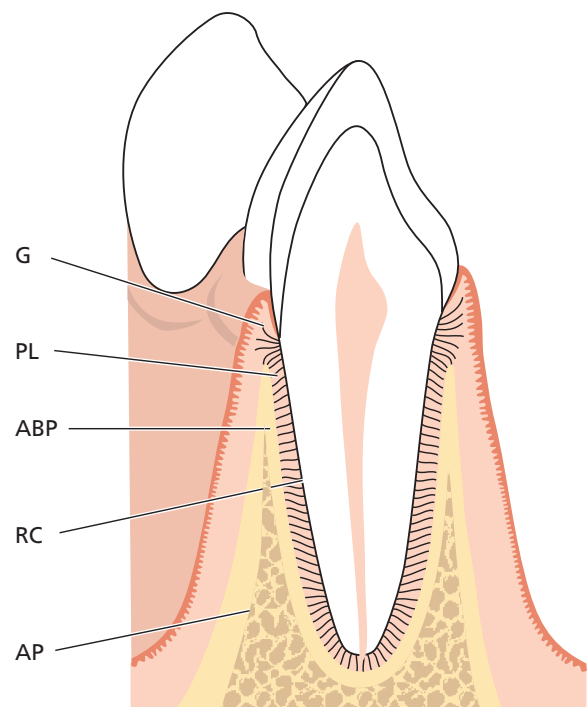


Fig. 1-1

chymal interactions. Once these interactions have occurred, the ectomesenchyme takes the dominant role in the further development. Following the formation of the *dental lamina*, a series of processes are initiated (bud stage, cap stage, bell stage with root development) which result in the formation of a tooth and its surrounding periodontal tissues, including the alveolar bone proper. During the cap stage, condensation of ectomesenchymal cells appears in relation to the dental epithelium (the dental organ (DO)),

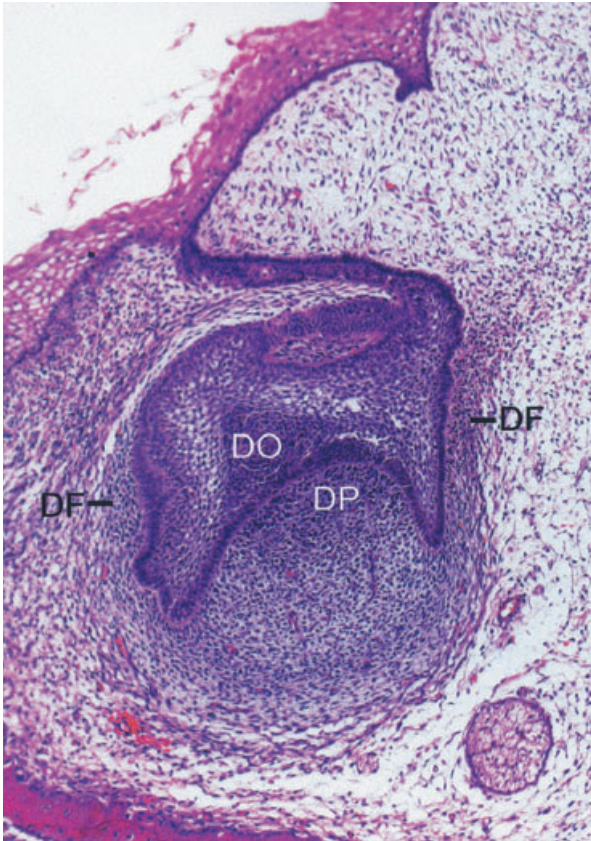


Fig. 1-2

forming the *dental papilla* (DP) that gives rise to the dentin and the pulp, and the *dental follicle* (DF) that gives rise to the periodontal supporting tissues (Fig. 1-2). The decisive role played by the ectomesenchyme in this process is further established by the fact that the tissue of the dental papilla apparently also determines the shape and form of the tooth.

If a tooth germ in the bell stage of development is dissected and transplanted to an ectopic site (e.g. the connective tissue or the anterior chamber of the eye), the tooth formation process continues. The crown and the root are formed, and the supporting structures, i.e. cementum, periodontal ligament, and a thin lamina of alveolar bone proper, also develop. Such experiments document that all information necessary for the formation of a tooth and its attachment apparatus obviously resides within the tissues of the dental organ and the surrounding ectomesenchyme. The dental organ is the formative organ of enamel, the dental papilla is the formative organ of the dentin–pulp complex, and the dental follicle is the formative organ of the attachment apparatus (the cementum, the periodontal ligament, and the alveolar bone proper).

The development of the root and the periodontal supporting tissues follows that of the crown. Epithelial cells of the external and internal dental epithelium (the dental organ) proliferate in an apical direction forming a double layer of cells named *Hertwig's epithelial root sheath* (RS). The odontoblasts (OB) forming the dentin of the root differentiate from ecto-

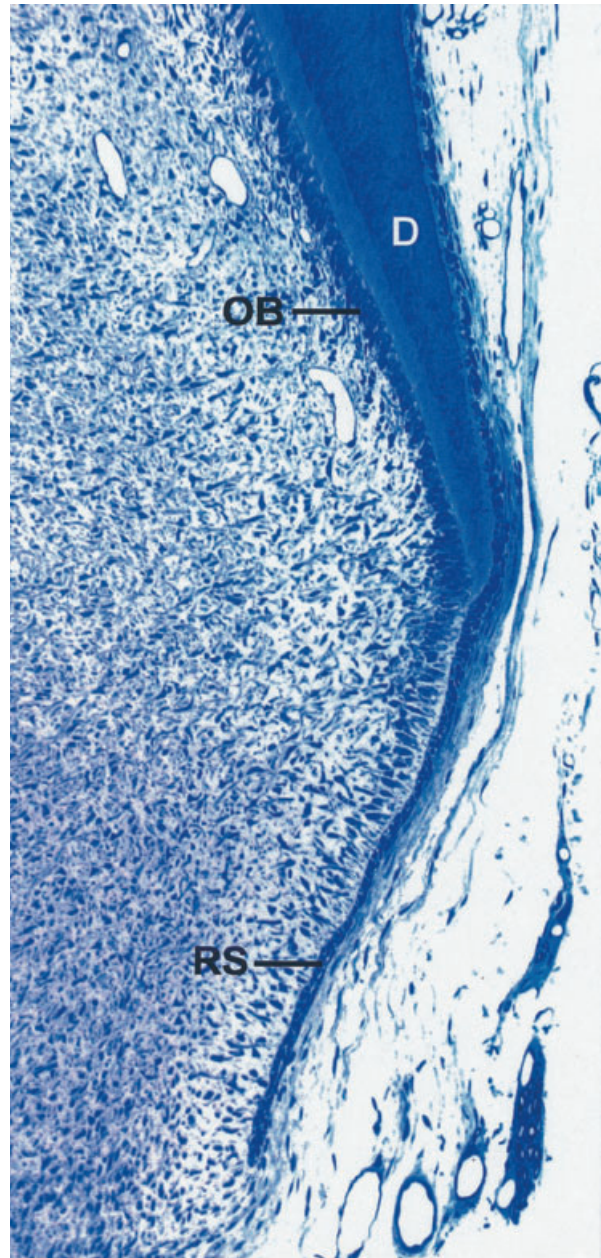


Fig. 1-3

mesenchymal cells in the dental papilla under inductive influence of the inner epithelial cells (Fig. 1-3). The dentin (D) continues to form in an apical direction producing the framework of the root. During formation of the root, the periodontal supporting tissues, including acellular cementum, develop. Some of the events in the cementogenesis are still unclear, but the following concept is gradually emerging.

At the start of dentin formation, the inner cells of Hertwig's epithelial root sheath synthesize and secrete enamel-related proteins, probably belonging to the amelogenin family. At the end of this period, the epithelial root sheath becomes fenestrated and ectomesenchymal cells from the dental follicle penetrate through these fenestrations and contact the root surface. The ectomesenchymal cells in contact with the enamel-related proteins differentiate into cementoblasts and start to form cementoid. This cementoid





Fig. 1-4



Fig. 1-5

represents the organic matrix of the cementum and consists of a ground substance and collagen fibers, which intermingle with collagen fibers in the not yet fully mineralized outer layer of the dentin. It is assumed that the cementum becomes firmly attached to the dentin through these fiber interactions. The formation of the cellular cementum, which covers the apical third of the dental roots, differs from that of acellular cementum in that some of the cementoblasts become embedded in the cementum.

The remaining parts of the periodontium are formed by ectomesenchymal cells from the dental follicle lateral to the cementum. Some of them differentiate into periodontal fibroblasts and form the fibers of the periodontal ligament while others become osteoblasts producing the alveolar bone proper in which the periodontal fibers are anchored. In other words, the primary alveolar wall is also an ectomesenchymal product. It is likely, but still not conclusively documented, that ectomesenchymal cells remain in the mature periodontium and take part in the turnover of this tissue.

## Gingiva

### Macroscopic anatomy

The oral mucosa (mucous membrane) is continuous with the skin of the lips and the mucosa of the soft palate and pharynx. The oral mucosa consists of (1) the *masticatory mucosa*, which includes the gingiva and the covering of the hard palate, (2) the *specialized mucosa*, which covers the dorsum of the tongue, and (3) the remaining part, called the *lining mucosa*.

**Fig. 1-4** The gingiva is that part of the masticatory mucosa which covers the alveolar process and surrounds the cervical portion of the teeth. It consists of an epithelial layer and an underlying connective tissue layer called the *lamina propria*. The gingiva obtains its final shape and texture in conjunction with eruption of the teeth.

In the coronal direction the coral pink gingiva terminates in the *free gingival margin*, which has a scalloped outline. In the apical direction the gingiva is continuous with the loose, darker red *alveolar mucosa* (lining mucosa) from which the gingiva is separated by a usually easily recognizable borderline called

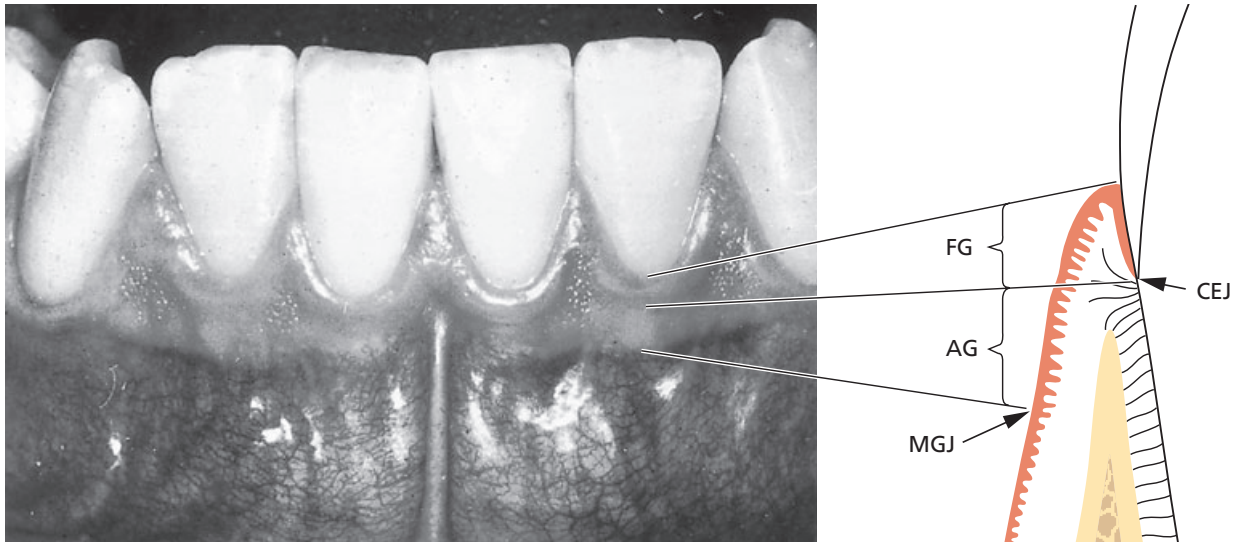


Fig. 1-6

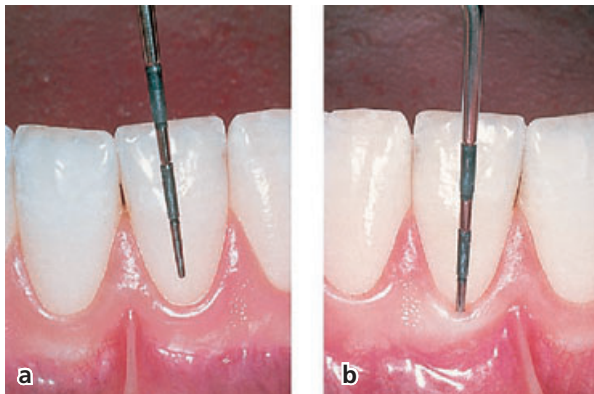


Fig. 1-7

either the mucogingival junction (arrows) or the mucogingival line.

**Fig. 1-5** There is no mucogingival line present in the palate since the hard palate and the maxillary alveolar process are covered by the same type of masticatory mucosa.

**Fig. 1-6** Two parts of the gingiva can be differentiated:

1. The free gingiva (FG)
2. The attached gingiva (AG).

The free gingiva is coral pink, has a dull surface and firm consistency. It comprises the gingival tissue at the vestibular and lingual/palatal aspects of the teeth, and the *interdental gingiva* or the *interdental papillae*. On the vestibular and lingual side of the teeth, the free gingiva extends from the gingival margin in apical direction to the *free gingival groove* which is positioned at a level corresponding to the level of the *cemento-enamel junction* (CEJ). The attached gingiva is demarcated by the mucogingival junction (MGJ) in the apical direction.

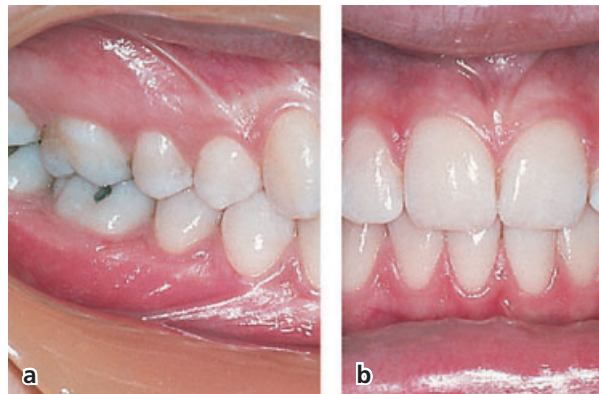


Fig. 1-8

**Fig. 1-7** The free gingival margin is often rounded in such a way that a small invagination or sulcus is formed between the tooth and the gingiva (Fig. 1-7a).

When a periodontal probe is inserted into this invagination and, further apically, towards the cemento-enamel junction, the gingival tissue is separated from the tooth, and a “gingival pocket” or “gingival crevice” is artificially opened. Thus, in normal or clinically healthy gingiva there is in fact no “gingival pocket” or “gingival crevice” present but the gingiva is in close contact with the enamel surface. In the illustration to the right (Fig. 1-7b), a periodontal probe has been inserted in the tooth/gingiva interface and a “gingival crevice” artificially opened approximately to the level of the cemento-enamel junction.

After completed tooth eruption, the free gingival margin is located on the enamel surface approximately 1.5–2 mm coronal to the cemento-enamel junction.

**Fig. 1-8** The shape of the interdental gingiva (the interdental papilla) is determined by the contact relationships between the teeth, the width of the approximal tooth surfaces, and the course of the cemento-enamel junction. In anterior regions of the

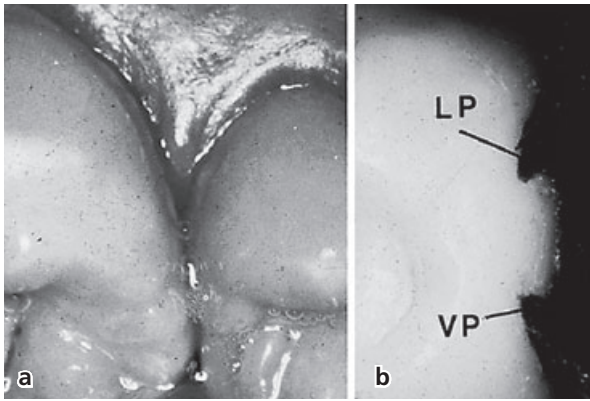


Fig. 1-9

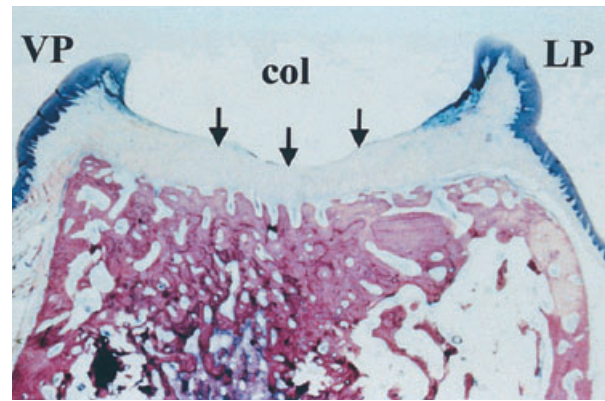


Fig. 1-9c

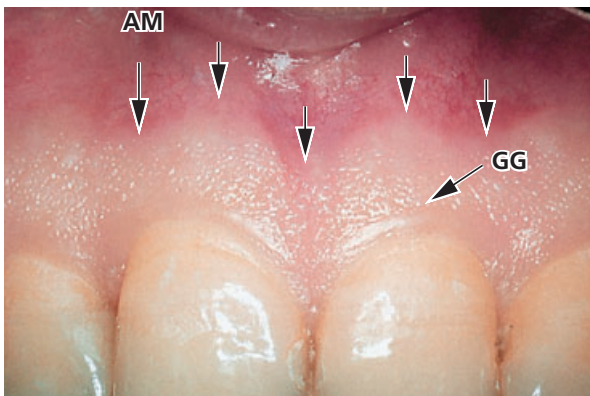


Fig. 1-10

dentition, the interdental papilla is of pyramidal form (Fig. 1-8b) while in the molar regions, the papillae are more flattened in the buccolingual direction (Fig. 1-8a). Due to the presence of interdental papillae, the free gingival margin follows a more or less accentuated, scalloped course through the dentition.

**Fig. 1-9** In the premolar/molar regions of the dentition, the teeth have approximal contact surfaces (Fig. 1-9a) rather than contact points. Since the interdental papilla has a shape in conformity with the outline of the interdental contact surfaces, a concavity – a *col* – is established in the premolar and molar regions, as demonstrated in Fig. 1-9b, where the distal tooth has been removed. Thus, the interdental papillae in these areas often have one vestibular (VP) and one lingual/palatal portion (LP) separated by the col region. The col region, as demonstrated in the histological section (Fig. 1-9c), is covered by a thin non-keratinized epithelium (arrows). This epithelium has many features in common with the junctional epithelium (see Fig. 1-34).

**Fig. 1-10** The attached gingiva is demarcated in the coronal direction, by the free gingival groove (GG) or, when such a groove is not present, by a horizontal plane placed at the level of the cemento-enamel junction. In clinical examinations it was observed that a free gingival groove is only present in about 30–40% of adults.

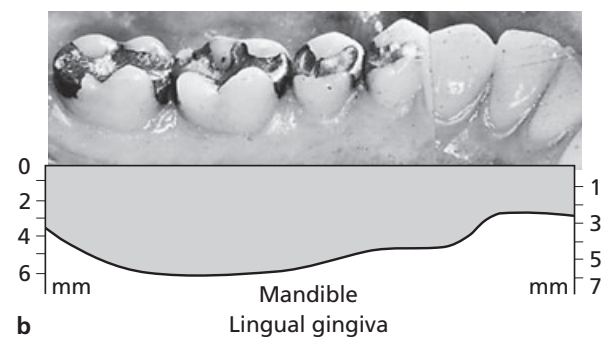
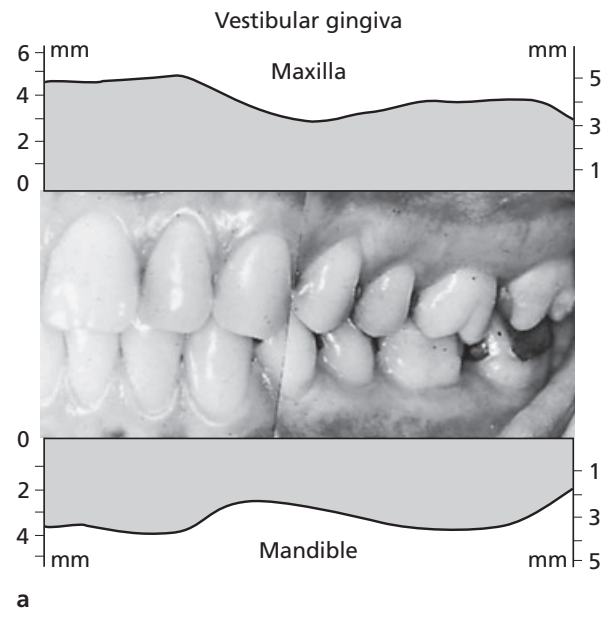


Fig. 1-11

The free gingival groove is often most pronounced on the vestibular aspect of the teeth, occurring most frequently in the incisor and premolar regions of the mandible, and least frequently in the mandibular molar and maxillary premolar regions.

The attached gingiva extends in the apical direction to the mucogingival junction (arrows), where it becomes continuous with the alveolar (lining) mucosa (AM). It is of firm texture, coral pink in color, and often shows small depressions on the surface. The depressions, named “stippling”, give the appearance



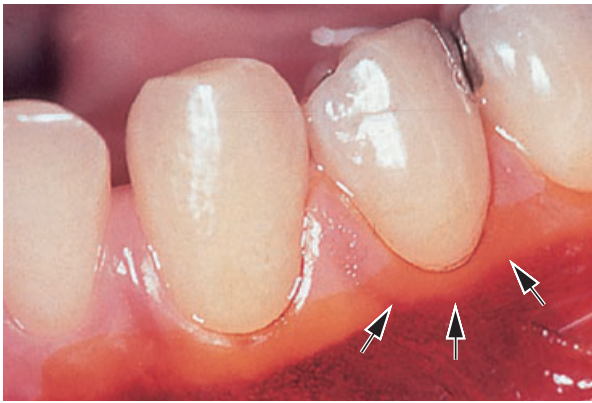


Fig. 1-12

of orange peel. It is firmly attached to the underlying alveolar bone and cementum by connective tissue fibers, and is, therefore, comparatively immobile in relation to the underlying tissue. The darker red alveolar mucosa (AM) located apical to the mucogingival junction, on the other hand, is loosely bound to the underlying bone. Therefore, in contrast to the attached gingiva, the alveolar mucosa is mobile in relation to the underlying tissue.

Fig. 1-11 describes how the width of the gingiva varies in different parts of the mouth. In the maxilla (Fig. 1-11a) the vestibular gingiva is generally widest in the area of the incisors and most narrow adjacent to the premolars. In the mandible (Fig. 1-11b) the gingiva on the lingual aspect is particularly narrow in the area of the incisors and wide in the molar region. The range of variation is 1–9 mm.

Fig. 1-12 illustrates an area in the mandibular premolar region where the gingiva is extremely narrow. The arrows indicate the location of the mucogingival junction. The mucosa has been stained with an iodine solution in order to distinguish more accurately between the gingiva and the alveolar mucosa.

Fig. 1-13 depicts the result of a study in which the width of the attached gingiva was assessed and related to the age of the patients examined. It was found that the gingiva in 40–50-year-olds was significantly wider than that in 20–30-year-olds. This observation indicates that the width of the gingiva tends to increase with age. Since the mucogingival junction remains stable throughout life in relation to the lower border of the mandible, the increasing width of the gingiva may suggest that the teeth, as a result of occlusal wear, erupt slowly throughout life.

**Microscopic anatomy**

**Oral epithelium**

Fig. 1-14a A schematic drawing of a histologic section (see Fig. 1-14b) describing the composition of the

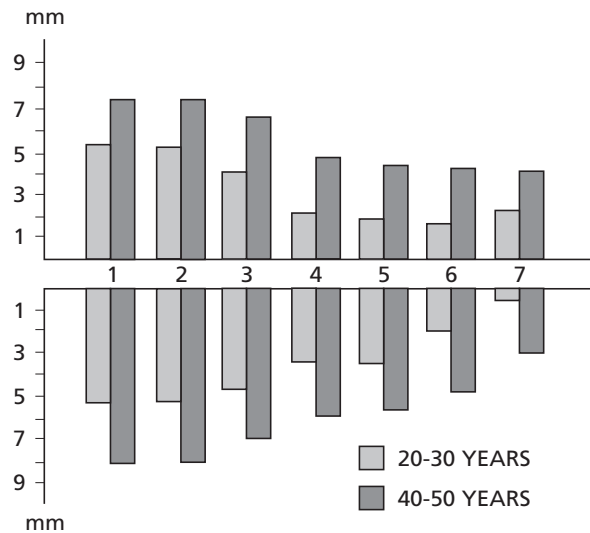


Fig. 1-13

gingiva and the contact area between the gingiva and the enamel (E).

Fig 1-14b The free gingiva comprises all epithelial and connective tissue structures (CT) located coronal to a horizontal line placed at the level of the cemento-enamel junction (CEJ). The epithelium covering the free gingiva may be differentiated as follows:

- Oral epithelium (OE), which faces the oral cavity
- Oral sulcular epithelium (OSE), which faces the tooth without being in contact with the tooth surface
- Junctional epithelium (JE), which provides the contact between the gingiva and the tooth.

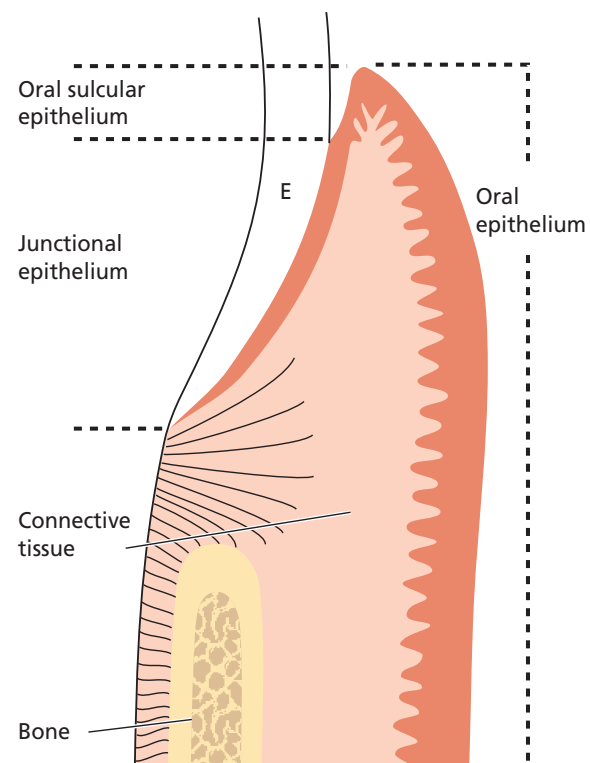


Fig. 1-14a