

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/13785259>

# Contemporary Interpretation of Probing Depth Assessments: Diagnostic and Therapeutic Implications. A Literature Review

Article in *Journal of Periodontology* · January 1998

DOI: 10.1902/jop.1997.68.12.1194 · Source: PubMed

CITATIONS

75

READS

742

1 author:



Gary Greenstein

Columbia University, College of Dentistry

157 PUBLICATIONS 4,665 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

Some of the authors of this publication are also working on these related projects:



see Decisions in Dentistry in Dec- sinus mapping [View project](#)

# Contemporary Interpretation of Probing Depth Assessments: Diagnostic and Therapeutic Implications. A Literature Review

Gary Greenstein

THIS PAPER ADDRESSES the diagnostic and therapeutic implications of increased probing depths. In general, in untreated and treated patients, when deep and shallow probing depths are compared, the data indicate that deep sites are associated with increased bleeding upon probing, elevated subgingival temperatures, higher levels of pathogens, more probing errors, a greater amount of infiltrated connective tissue, reduced ability to remove subgingival deposits with root planing, and diminished effectiveness of oral hygiene to alter the subgingival microbiota. Clinical trials demonstrate that probing depth is not a good predictor of future disease progression. However, deep sites are at greater risk of disease progression than shallow sites in untreated and treated patients. Furthermore, the deeper the probing depth, the greater the risk of future disease progression. Overall, the preponderance of evidence indicates that it is advantageous, but not always necessary, for patients to have shallow probing depths. With regards to surgical reduction of probing depths beyond that attained with non-surgical therapy, clinicians need to consider the advantages (e.g., ease of maintenance, reduced risk of disease progression) and disadvantages (e.g., root sensitivity, cosmetic defects) of treatment procedures. Since numerous variables require consideration (e.g., response to root planing, goals of therapy, acceptable level of risk for future disease progression), treatment decisions will vary depending on the patient and the desired clinical outcome at specific sites. *J Periodontol* 1997;68:1194-1205.

**Key Words:** Periodontal diseases/diagnosis; periodontal probes.

Evaluation of probing depth is an integral facet of a periodontal examination. Historically, detection of increased probing depth ( $> 3$  mm) was interpreted by clinicians to indicate that the patient had a history of periodontitis, the site had elevated bacterial levels, and a periodontitis lesion was present.<sup>1,2</sup> Furthermore, since these areas were difficult to clean by therapists and patients, it was believed that deep sites had an increased risk of ongoing or future disease progression (loss of clinical attachment or alveolar bone).<sup>3</sup> However, it is necessary to differentiate between deep healthy sulci (non-inflamed sites with probing depths  $> 3$  mm) and pockets (inflamed areas with increased probing depth). Furthermore, detection of pockets may or may not reflect ongoing or future disease progression.<sup>4,5</sup> Therefore, it was deemed important to evaluate the relationship between probing depth and a variety of factors to help place in perspective the credibility of using probing measurements as a determinant or codeter-

minant to initiate treatment or to evaluate results of periodontal therapy.

## DIAGNOSTIC IMPLICATIONS OF INCREASED PROBING DEPTH

### Clinically Healthy Periodontium

The phrase "clinical periodontal health" denotes lack of clinically detectable inflammation, stable clinical attachment levels, and is often associated with shallow probing depths. However, probing depth assessment used as a criterion to determine the need for therapy can be misleading, because it is possible to have healthy deep sulci. This can result from control of bacterial etiologic agents and resolution of periodontal disease by the host or periodontal therapy, gingival rebound after pocket reduction surgery, or development of pseudopockets (e.g., due to drug-induced hyperplasia).

### Stable Versus Progressive Periodontitis Lesions

At any point in time, it is not possible to differentiate between pockets with stable (contained) periodontitis le-

\*Private practice, Freehold, NJ; University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey, Newark, NJ.

**Table 1. Percentage of Sites That Deteriorated and the Risk Ratio of Disease Progression in Deep Versus Shallow Probing Depths in Untreated Patients With Adult Periodontitis**

Reference	N*	Standard for PDP (mm) <sup>†</sup>	Time (Months) <sup>‡</sup>	Comparison of Probing Depth (mm)	% Shallow Sites (N)	% Deep Sites (N)	Risk Ratio-Deep/Shallow Sites
Halazonetis et al. <sup>6</sup>	23	1.75	5–12	< 4 vs. ≥ 6 <sup>§</sup>	4 (673)	12.2 (196)	3:1
Lindhe et al. <sup>7</sup>	265	≥ 3	24	< 4 vs. ≥ 6 <sup>  </sup>	4.9 (964)	17.1 (117)	3:1
Deas et al. <sup>8</sup>	21	≥ 1	9	< 4 vs. ≥ 4	.4 (141)	2.1 (57)	5:1
		≥ 2		≤ 3 vs. > 3	10.4 (163)	25 (121)	2.5:1
Beck et al. <sup>10</sup>	452	≥ 3	36	≤ 3 vs. > 3	4.5 (171)	12.7 (61)	3:1
					4.7 (219) <sup>¶</sup>	13.2 (62) <sup>¶</sup>	3:1
Machtei et al. <sup>11</sup>	51	2 sd**	9	< 4 vs. ≥ 7	2.4 (160) <sup>#</sup>	7.4 (7) <sup>#</sup>	3:1
					7.7 (388)	16.3 (51)	2:1

\*Number of patients in study.

<sup>†</sup>Standard to assess periodontal disease progression.<sup>‡</sup>Length of monitoring period.<sup>§</sup>Patients with generalized periodontitis.<sup>||</sup>Patients with molar periodontitis.<sup>¶</sup>Blacks.<sup>#</sup>Whites.<sup>\*\*</sup>Two standard deviations.**Table 2. Percentage of Deep Sites That Experienced Disease Progression in Treated Patients**

Reference	N*	Time <sup>†</sup> (Months)	Standard (mm) <sup>‡</sup>	Probing Depth (mm)	% of Sites With Disease Progression
Badersten et al. <sup>12</sup>	39	24	1.5	6	15
			1.0	6	24
			1.5	7	27
			1.0	7	40
Vanooteghem et al. <sup>13</sup>	19	24	1.5	6 nonmolar	33
			1.5	7 nonmolar	42
			1.5	6 furca	33
			1.5	7 furca	44
Nordland et al. <sup>14</sup>	19	24	1.5	7 nonmolar	10.4
				7 furca	21
Badersten et al. <sup>15 §</sup>	39	60	1.5	≥ 7	52
Claffey et al. <sup>16</sup>	16	42	1.5	≥ 7	50
Armitage et al. <sup>17</sup>	31	6	SR <sup>  </sup>	≥ 6	37

\*Number of patients in study.

<sup>†</sup>Length of monitoring period.<sup>‡</sup>Standard to assess disease progression.<sup>§</sup>Continuation of reference 12 study.<sup>||</sup>Subtraction radiography.

sions and sites undergoing disease progression (Tables 1 and 2).<sup>6–17</sup> A stable lesion results when disease progression has halted, but the periodontal tissues are not healthy (e.g., bleeds upon probing). In contrast, sites demonstrating increasing probing depth reflect progressive periodontitis,<sup>18</sup> unless they can be attributed to coronal migration of the gingiva or measurement error. Overall, it can be surmised that most lesion sites characterized by pocketing and inflammation are not losing clinical attachment (Table 1). Actually, only a relatively limited number of sites, in a small subset of patients, experience disease progression during a defined monitoring period.<sup>19–21</sup>

#### **Relationship Between Clinical Attachment Loss and Increased Probing Depth**

Among treated patients, in the absence of clinical inflammation and increased probing depth, it is possible

to detect loss of clinical attachment if recession occurred.<sup>12,13,22</sup> After therapy this can be attributed to traumatic scrub brushing.<sup>22</sup> In untreated patients, it also is possible to find loss of clinical attachment without noting increased probing depth. For example, Lindhe et al. reported no increased probing depth at 30% of the interproximal 7 mm pockets that lost 2 mm of clinical attachment.<sup>7</sup> At these sites, it is unclear why recession accompanied disease progression.

In general, increased probing depth usually reflects loss of clinical attachment. For example, increased probing depths of > 1 mm, > 1.5 mm, and > 2 mm were associated with clinical attachment loss 61%, 68%, and 69% of the time, respectively.<sup>13</sup> Similarly, Badersten et al. indicated that deepened probing measurements of > 1 mm, > 1.5 mm, and > 2 mm correlated with at-

tachment loss 50%, 80%, and 90% of the time.<sup>12</sup> Others also found that an increase in probing depth compared to baseline data was strongly associated with clinical attachment loss and was infrequently due to coronal displacement of the gingival margin.<sup>18</sup> Additional evidence that increased probing depth is usually associated with loss of clinical attachment can be derived from data which examined the prevalence of recession at pocketed sites ( $\geq 5$  mm) in untreated patients. In this regard, it was indicated that only 1% of the interproximal sites with probing depths  $\geq 5$  mm in untreated periodontitis patients demonstrated recession ( $n = 25$ ; 600 sites evaluated; mean age 42 years old) (unpublished data).

With respect to private patient management, it can be surmised that probing depth comparisons to baseline data may be used for daily clinical monitoring of patients, because recession is not usually associated with disease progression and increased probing depths frequently indicate loss of clinical attachment. However, it needs to be noted that clinical attachment levels are the most accurate way to monitor patients.<sup>23, 24</sup> Furthermore, since loss of clinical attachment can occur in the absence of pocketing, and increased probing depth can occur in the absence of clinical attachment loss, it underscores the need to evaluate clinical attachment levels when conducting clinical trials or when monitoring special situations (e.g., bone graft sites).

### **Correlation Between Probing Depth and Infiltrated Connective Tissue**

Histometric evaluation of infiltrated connective tissue (ICT) is a sensitive indicator of connective tissue destruction. Deeper probing depths are associated with high levels of ICT before and after therapy.<sup>25</sup> For example, after therapy probing depths  $\leq 4.7$  mm manifested less than 20% ICT, whereas sites 6 to 7 mm deep usually demonstrated  $> 40\%$  ICT.<sup>26</sup> Other studies also indicated that untreated deeper sites were associated with increased levels of infiltrated connective tissue.<sup>26, 27</sup> However, some investigations have not concurred with this finding, and this may have been due to their small study populations.<sup>28, 29</sup>

In general, the data regarding infiltrated connective tissue help account for the discrepancy of probe tip penetration before and after therapy with respect to the apical end of the junctional epithelium. Several authors indicated that at healthy sites, probe tip penetration stops within the junctional epithelium (usually 1 mm long) about 0.2 mm to 0.4 mm coronal to the level of connective tissue attachment.<sup>27, 30</sup> In contrast, at diseased sites, the probe was noted to penetrate beyond the apical end of the junctional epithelium into the connective tissue by 0.3 mm.<sup>31-33</sup> The finding that the amount of inflamed connective tissue may affect recorded probing depth is a confounding variable with respect to selecting

small standards to assess disease progression.<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, if the coronal aspect of the junctional epithelium is accepted as the base of the clinical sulcus or pocket, then recorded probing depths will often be around 1 mm deeper than the histologic sulcus or pocket depth. This needs to be considered if specific probing depths are selected as a guide for additional therapy. Other factors that can affect probing depth measurements are probing force, angle of probe insertion, width of instrument, probing errors, etc.<sup>34</sup>

### **Reproducibility of Probing Depth Assessments**

Prior to therapy, assessment of deep probing depths was associated with increased measurement error and decreased ability to replicate measurements.<sup>35-39</sup> This was noted with manual probes, pressure-sensitive probes, and on multi- and single-rooted teeth.

The impact of probing depth measurement on mean duplicate clinical attachment level measurements was evaluated by Espeland et al.<sup>38</sup> They found at 3 mm, 4 to 6 mm, and 7 mm probing depths recorded differences of attachment levels of 0.5 mm, 0.7 mm, and 1.3 mm. These data suggest that measurement of clinical attachment levels is more difficult at increased probing depths.

When sites  $< 5$  mm deep were measured using a manual and a constant-force probe, it was determined that differences between the two techniques ranged from 0.23 to 0.28 mm.<sup>35</sup> However, for pockets  $> 6$  mm, the mean difference between the probing techniques was 5 to 6 times greater than shallow sites. Other studies have also confirmed that measurements at deeper sites are less reproducible.<sup>39, 40</sup> However, a recent investigation demonstrated these errors could be reduced if examiners were highly trained.<sup>41</sup>

With regards to post-therapeutic evaluations, several authors indicated that probing depths were more reproducible after therapy.<sup>40, 42</sup> This could be attributed to resolution of inflammation and reduced probing depths after treatment.

### **Relationship Between Bleeding Upon Probing and Probing Depth**

Bleeding upon probing reflects an inflammatory lesion in the connective tissue and is a cardinal sign of gingival inflammation.<sup>43</sup> Studies have indicated that there is a direct relationship between the prevalence of bleeding upon probing and increased probing depth (Table 3).<sup>44-49</sup> In general, in both untreated and treated patients, deeper probing depths bleed more frequently upon probing than shallow sites (Table 3).

After therapy, there is a reduction in the amount of bleeding upon probing.<sup>46-49</sup> However, over time there is often a return of bleeding upon probing which is predominantly found at deep sites.<sup>48, 49</sup> Furthermore, Kalkwarf et al. reported that after therapy, a larger percentage

**Table 3. Bleeding Upon Probing Related to Probing Depth in Treated (Root Planing) and Untreated Patients**

Reference	N*	Probing Depth (mm)	Untreated Sites % of Bleeding Sites	Treated Sites % of Bleeding Sites	Time (Months) <sup>†</sup>
Chaves et al. <sup>44</sup>	125	2	36.7	†	na <sup>‡</sup>
		4	67.3	†	
		6	80	†	
Sherman et al. <sup>45</sup>	7	1–3	72	†	na
		3.5–6	81	†	
		> 6.5	87	†	
Reinhardt et al. <sup>46</sup>	14	≤ 3	20	0, 14 <sup>  </sup>	6
		≥ 5	97	36	
Sato et al. <sup>47</sup>	62	< 4	13	7.0	12
		4	56	50	
		5	72	58	
		> 5	73	66	
Lang et al. <sup>49</sup>	41	1–3	†	< 20 <sup>†</sup>	30
		4–5	†	< 40 <sup>†</sup>	
		6–9	†	> 60 <sup>†</sup>	
Kalkwarf et al. <sup>50</sup>	82	1–4	70	33	24
		5–6	85	50	
		≥ 7	90	65	

\*Number of patients in study.

†No data.

‡Months after therapy evaluations were performed.

§Not applicable.

||Two groups of patients.

||Bleeding occurred at 5 of 6 clinical assessments.

of shallow sites stopped bleeding and subsequently a larger percentage of deep sites experienced recurrent bleeding upon probing.<sup>50</sup> These data suggest that deeper sites are more difficult for patients to keep free of inflammation and may require additional instrumentation compared to shallow sites. In addition, the finding that bleeding is more commonly found in deeper sites also needs to be considered with respect to the data that indicate bleeding is not a good predictor of future clinical attachment loss, but its absence is a good predictor (98.1%) that 2 mm changes of attachment will not occur during a 2½-year period.<sup>49</sup>

### Association Between Probing Depth and Temperature Assessments

Elevated temperature is a characteristic of inflammation and thereby is a potential indicator of periodontal disease. However, subgingival temperature rises with increasing probing depth at healthy and diseased sites.<sup>51–53</sup> Kung et al. reported that sulcular temperature increased approximately 0.2°C per mm.<sup>52</sup> Similarly, Haffajee et al. indicated that mean temperatures were elevated with increasing probing depth: < 4 mm, 34.58°C; 4 to 6 mm, 35.17°C; and ≥ 6 mm, 35.82°C<sup>53</sup> and were associated with higher levels of pathogens.<sup>54</sup> However, the finding that subgingival temperature was elevated at increased probing depth makes it difficult to determine if the temperature increase was due to inflammation or greater subgingival penetration of the temperature probe.

### Physiochemical Characteristics of Pocketed Sites

Mettraux et al. determined that oxygen tension decreased with increased probing depth in untreated human periodontal pockets.<sup>55</sup> Correspondingly, the proportions of monitored anaerobes (e.g., spirochetes, *Prevotella intermedia*) were elevated in deep pockets with low oxygen tension, while microaerophilics preferred shallower sites with higher oxygen tensions.<sup>55</sup>

Deep pockets also demonstrated a low oxygen reduction potential (redox) which was expressed in millivolts (MV). The more reduced the environment, the lower the Eh (redox potential). One study recorded the redox potential in periodontal pockets as low as –300 MV compared to 70 MV in healthy sulci. In this regard, Ewers and Greener found that pockets > 4 mm had the most negative Eh and suggested that this helped proliferation of anaerobes.<sup>56</sup> Recently, Ower et al. corroborated that in deep pockets, as the pO<sub>2</sub> in the environment decreases, the Eh becomes more negative.<sup>57</sup> It can be surmised that deeper probing depths may be associated with decreased pO<sub>2</sub> and increased redox levels. This can result in an environment which is conducive to proliferation of anaerobes.

### Correlation Between Bacteria and Probing Depth

Many investigations indicated that there is a direct relationship between the level and type of pathogens and increased probing depth. In untreated pockets > 5 mm compared to < 5 mm, Wolff et al. reported the following odds ratios for finding higher levels of pathogens: *P.*

*intermedia*, 4.1; *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, 3.9; *Eikenella corrodens*, 2.7; *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*, 3.0; and *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, 2.8.<sup>58</sup> The percentage of times that sites > 5 mm were highly positive (greater than 10<sup>5</sup> cells) for these bacteria were recorded: *P. gingivalis*, 20%; *A. actinomycetemcomitans*, 21%; *P. intermedia*, 20%; *E. corrodens*, 28%; *F. nucleatum*, 19.8%.<sup>58</sup> At depths < 3 mm, the percentage of sites infected with one of these organisms was nearly 5%.

Deep probing depths were also associated with elevated levels of spirochetes and motile forms.<sup>59,60</sup> Similarly, other investigators demonstrated that the relationship between *P. gingivalis*, *P. intermedia*, *A. actinomycetemcomitans*, and probing depth was stronger than other clinical parameters.<sup>61</sup> In this respect, Savitt et al. reported that the number of sites that needed to be sampled to detect 1 site with 10<sup>4</sup> *P. gingivalis* decreased if deeper pockets were assessed.<sup>61</sup> They noted that 6 sites > 4 mm needed to be sampled to detect elevated *P. gingivalis*, whereas only 3 sites were required if probing depths ≥ 6 mm were evaluated. Accordingly, it was suggested that when patients are assessed microbiologically, it is prudent to evaluate the microbiota in deep sites.

After treatment, in the absence of supportive therapy, residual deep probing depths may facilitate a rapid return of bacteria to baseline. In this regard, Shiloah and Patters found that after scaling and root planing with and without adjunctive subgingival irrigation, residual deep probing sites demonstrated rebound of monitored bacteria more quickly than shallow sites.<sup>62</sup> Others also have reported that after root planing, recolonization of bacteria may occur, especially in sites with residual probing depths > 5 mm.<sup>63-65</sup> However, some investigators failed to find the correlation between pathogen recolonization and post-operative probing depths.<sup>66,67</sup>

A relationship between residual deep probing depths and alleged pathogens with regards to disease recurrence was noted by Listgarten et al.<sup>68</sup> They found that patients positive for *A. actinomycetemcomitans*, *P. gingivalis*, or *P. intermedia* after therapy experienced a greater incidence of disease recurrence at residual deep probing sites. This was interpreted to support the concept that shallow sites had less risk of additional disease progression than deep sites. Similarly, Rams et al. recently noted that detection of several putative pathogens at increased proportions when associated with increased probing depth predisposed patients in maintenance to recurrent periodontitis.<sup>69</sup>

In general, when deep and shallow sites are compared, pathogens are detected more often and at higher levels in deep sites. These findings help explain why deeper sites may be at increased risk of future disease progression.

**Table 4. Different Probing Depths and Number of Sites Used as Criteria for Periodontitis**

Reference	CAL* (mm)	Number of Teeth	Probing Depth (mm)	N Sites
Robertson et al. <sup>72</sup>	†	†	≥ 5	≥ 4
Moore et al. <sup>73</sup>	≥ 5	≥ 8	≥ 6	†
Beck et al. <sup>74</sup>	≥ 5	≥ 4 (sites)	≥ 4	≥ 1
Machtei et al. <sup>75</sup>	≥ 6	≥ 2	≥ 5	≥ 1

\*Clinical attachment level.

†No data.

### Bearing of Probing Depth on Detection of Enzymes

Few investigations have evaluated the relationship between the level of enzymes associated with cell destruction (e.g., aspartate aminotransferase) and probing depth. Understandably, this has not been assessed because these enzymes were investigated to determine their relationship to ongoing clinical attachment loss. However, prior to therapy, detection of increased enzyme levels at deeper depths was noted in several studies. For example, Lamster et al. reported that a majority of shallow sites had low levels of beta glucuronidase, whereas increased levels were associated with deeper probing depths.<sup>70</sup> Other investigators also reported increased levels of elastase at deep sites.<sup>17,71</sup> The finding that these enzyme levels may be elevated in deep sites is not surprising since a higher percentage of deep sites deteriorate than shallow sites. However, increased enzyme levels may be found in shallow sites.<sup>17,70,71</sup>

### Probing Depth Related to Criteria to Diagnose Periodontitis

Measurements of probing depth and clinical attachment loss are the two most commonly used parameters to characterize a patient as having periodontitis. Several different combinations of factors suggested to identify patients are listed in Table 4.<sup>72-75</sup> It is apparent that differences in definitions as to what constitutes a periodontitis patient make it difficult to compare data from diverse clinical studies. At present, there are no universally accepted criteria to define a patient as having periodontitis.

### Probing Depth-Diagnostic Predictor for Future Disease Progression

Since periodontal diseases are caused by bacteria and are considered infections of the periodontium, it has been questioned if assessment of anatomical deviations (e.g., increased probing depths) provides any credible predictive ability for disease progression.<sup>76</sup> In this regard, it can be argued that deep pockets contain more bacteria than shallow sites and are areas of concern for clinicians because they are difficult for patients and therapists to

clean.<sup>1</sup> Therefore, determining the risk of future disease progression at pocketed sites is an important issue with respect to assessing the merits of probing depth reduction. However, it is difficult to compare clinical trials that evaluated probing depth as a predictor of future disease progression because numerous variables were included (e.g., standard to assess disease progression, length of the study). Accordingly, conclusions that can be drawn are limited to defining general trends. Furthermore, patterns that can be established for a population may not accurately reflect information for a particular site.

**Untreated sites.** Studies which monitored patients with untreated periodontitis clearly indicated that when the percentage of shallow and deep sites experiencing disease progression was compared, the percentage of deep sites experiencing disease progression was greater (Table 1).<sup>6-11</sup> The risk/ratio of developing disease progression in deep sites compared to shallow sites evaluated over 5 to 36 months was usually around 3 times greater at deep sites. However, the percentage of sites experiencing disease progression was affected by the standard used to define disease progression and the cut-off point selected for probing depth comparisons. Furthermore, when the data are quantitatively evaluated, most assessed sites did not lose clinical attachment during the monitoring period, and the majority of locations experiencing disease progression were shallow sites. This latter finding can be attributed to the fact that many more shallow sites were monitored than deep pockets.

It can be surmised that untreated deeper pockets are at greater risk of experiencing disease progression than shallow sites. Furthermore, detection of multiple sites with increased probing depths, if they reflect loss of clinical attachment, may help to identify individuals susceptible to future disease progression.<sup>9,19,74</sup>

**Treated sites.** Data from studies that addressed the utility of deep probing depths after therapy to identify sites that experienced disease progression are listed in Table 2. Two long-term investigations that evaluated diagnostic predictability of deep residual probing depths to detect clinical attachment loss concluded that this relationship became stronger with time.<sup>15,16</sup> For example, Badersten et al. found that the diagnostic predictability of disease progression at 7 mm residual probing depths in a group of maintenance patients (no molars included) increased from 9% at 6 months to 52% at 60 months.<sup>15</sup> Similarly, Claffey et al. noted that the diagnostic predictability at 7 mm sites (molars included) increased from 24% at 3 months to 50% at 42 months.<sup>16</sup>

To correctly interpret these data, several issues need to be addressed. First, the term "deep residual probing depths" included sites detected immediately after therapy and those that developed during the monitoring period.<sup>15,16</sup> Therefore, these studies did not just monitor fu-

ture disease progression at initially deep probing depths. Accordingly, the conclusion that deep residual probing depths were associated with "increased diagnostic predictability" did not refer to their ability to predict future disease progression, but rather described the capability of deep depths to identify sites that lost clinical attachment.

In addition, the data did not validate that a deep residual probing depth (i.e., 7 mm) detected after therapy was a good predictor of future breakdown.<sup>15,16</sup> For instance, Claffey et al. reported that only 24% of the 7 mm probing depths present 3 months after treatment experienced disease progression ( $\geq 1.5$  mm) during the remainder of the 42-month study.<sup>16</sup> However, they did find that breakdown occurred more frequently at deep than shallow probing depths: at sites initially  $\leq 3.5$  mm, 4.5 to 6 mm, and  $\geq 7$  mm deep, the respective percentage of sites that deteriorated was 11%, 7%, and 16%.<sup>16</sup> It should also be noted that among the 17 monitored patients who manifested  $\geq 7$  mm probing depths immediately after therapy, the percentage of these sites per patient which subsequently experienced disease progression ranged from 0% to 50%.<sup>16</sup> These results indicate that a deep probing depth may be a good risk indicator in one patient and not in another and that this variation may also exist among sites within the same individual.

In another investigation, Claffey and Egelberg reported that the percentage of sites  $\geq 6$  mm after treatment was a better predictor of susceptibility than at baseline.<sup>21</sup> They found that the correlation coefficient between residual probing depth and future attachment loss was 0.72 to 0.84 for most patients (linear regression was used to detect 1.5 mm changes). It was noted that individuals with multiple residual probing depths  $\geq 6$  mm ( $\geq 9\%$  of the sites) had a greater risk of clinical attachment loss than patients with few such sites. Similarly, Kaldahl et al. found that after root planing (7-year monitoring period), the incidence of future breakdown was related to residual probing depth.<sup>77</sup> They reported that deep probing depths ( $\geq 7$  mm) experienced disease progression more frequently (4.1% of the sites) than shallow probing depths (1.08% of sites 1 to 4 mm, 2.2% of sites 5 to 6 mm).<sup>77</sup> However, these small numerical differences should be considered in light of the fact that a  $\geq 3$  mm loss of clinical attachment was required to declare a site as experiencing disease progression. This amount of change underestimated the incidence of breakdown. Therefore, the actual clinical significance of these findings is difficult to interpret with regards to the consequences of leaving deep residual probing depths.

In general, it can be concluded that the data in the literature indicated that after therapy, deep probing sites were at greater risk of disease progression than shallow sites.<sup>16,21,67,77,78</sup> However, individual probing depths were not good predictors of future clinical attachment loss.<sup>12-17</sup>

It should also be noted that the absence of deep pockets in treated patients was an excellent predictor of periodontal stability.<sup>6,12,13,79,80</sup> When this finding is assessed together with data indicating that deeper sites had greater risk of disease progression, it strongly suggests that deep pockets are a risk indicator for disease progression. Ultimately, these findings support the broadly held clinical concept that shallow probing depths are a desirable, but not always an essential, treatment outcome.

## THERAPEUTIC IMPLICATIONS OF INCREASED PROBING DEPTH

### Effect of Supragingival Plaque Control on the Subgingival Microbiota with Regards to Probing Depth

The impact of supragingival plaque control on the subgingival microbiota was addressed in several investigations.<sup>81-90</sup> In general, the data indicated that meticulous oral hygiene by patients or professionally administered plaque control for several weeks can influence the subgingival microflora in shallow and possibly moderately deep pockets (4 to 6 mm).<sup>82,88-90</sup> However, most studies consistently demonstrated that the microbiota in deep pockets (> 5 mm) were not altered by supragingival plaque control.<sup>81,83-87</sup> It can be concluded that deep probing depths make it more difficult for patients to participate in maintaining the reduction of the subgingival microbiota that is achieved with professional therapy. Furthermore, it needs to be recognized that there was an impact on the flora in moderate pockets only after extensive patient or professional therapy, which may not be encountered in routine patient management.

### Probing Depth Affects the Efficacy of Oral Hygiene Devices

With increased probing depth, oral hygiene devices used by patients were able to affect a smaller percentage of the subgingival root surface. This was observed with mechanical devices (e.g., toothbrushing) and irrigation implementations.<sup>91-96</sup> For example, manual<sup>91</sup> and counter-rotary toothbrushes<sup>92</sup> penetrated subgingivally around 1 mm and 1.4 mm, respectively, regardless of probing depth.

The percentage of subgingival root surface affected by supragingival irrigation using a jet irrigator decreased with increased probing depth.<sup>94,96</sup> In general, an irrigator used supragingivally can project a medicament to  $\frac{1}{2}$  the probing depth.<sup>94</sup> Similarly, a marginal irrigator placed 1 mm subgingivally delivered a solution in pockets < 6 mm to approximately 90% of the probing depth; however, at deeper sites the percentage penetration decreased substantially.<sup>95</sup> Subgingival cannulas were able to project drugs to about 80% of the probing depth in sites 7 to 10 mm.<sup>96</sup> It can be surmised that shallow probing depths facilitate more effective oral hygiene, whereas deeper probing

**Table 5. Failure to Remove Calculus Related to Probing Depth (Clinical Evaluation)**

Reference	Probing Depth (mm)	% Calculus Not Removed
Rabbani et al. <sup>100</sup>	< 3	25% of teeth
	> 3	82% of teeth
Caffesse et al. <sup>101</sup>	1-3	14% of teeth
	4-6	57% of teeth
	> 6	68% of teeth
Waerhaug <sup>103</sup>	1-3	17% of teeth
	3-5	61% of teeth
	> 5	89% of teeth
Fleischer et al. <sup>104</sup>	1-3	25% of surfaces
	4-6	73% of surfaces
	> 6	75% of surfaces

depths may provide a hindrance to optimal plaque control by patients.

### Efficacy of Non-Surgical Therapy Related to Probing Depth

Scaling and root planing of periodontitis lesions usually result in probing depth reduction due to either gain of clinical attachment and/or recession. The magnitude of mean probing depth reduction from many clinical trials was calculated and the decreased sizes of pockets were related to different initial probing depths: at depths of 1 to 3 mm, 4 to 6 mm, and  $\geq 7$  mm, the following mean reductions were respectively noted: 0.03, 1.29, and 2.16 mm.<sup>97</sup> Usually, the deeper the initial pocketing, the greater the probing depth reduction.<sup>98,99</sup> However, since these values represent means, there can be great variation at any particular site and this may be due to a variety of factors (e.g., level of inflammation, skill of operator, etiologic agents). It should also be recognized that relatively deep residual probing depths after therapy do not necessarily indicate that therapy was ineffective, because sites may have experienced substantial improvement with regards to pocket reduction when compared to baseline data.<sup>80</sup> At these sites, depending on the therapeutic objectives (e.g., pocket elimination, halting disease progression), the clinician will need to decide if additional therapy is necessary.

Most investigators have corroborated that with increasing probing depth, the clinician's ability to remove root accretions with root planing decreased (Table 5).<sup>100-104</sup> However, others reported that probing depth did not significantly affect the quality of root instrumentation.<sup>45,105</sup> It also was noted that surgical procedures which provide access to root surfaces facilitated better, but incomplete, removal of root accretions.<sup>106,107</sup> Consequently, a paradox has evolved which indicates that despite incomplete root deposit removal, therapy is usually successful.<sup>108</sup> In this regard, data from clinical trials have indicated that scaling and root planing are frequently as effective as surgical procedures in halting disease progression and maintaining



clinical attachment levels regardless of original probing depths.<sup>98,99</sup> However, it needs to be emphasized that, often in clinical trials, a large amount of time (6 to 10 minutes) was used by experts to instrument the root(s) of each tooth and there was usually a high level of compliance with professional maintenance.<sup>98</sup> Accordingly, the results of clinical trials represent probable outcomes under standardized conditions and may not reflect results in diverse practice settings.

With regards to supportive periodontal therapy, it needs to be noted that in private practice, compliance with professional maintenance often deteriorates rapidly after active therapy and therefore, supportive periodontal therapy may be lacking at residual deep probing sites.<sup>109–110</sup> Other problems that may be encountered when maintaining residual deep probing depths include the possibility that these sites may be more difficult to instrument than shallow sites and may require additional treatment time.<sup>98</sup>

Clinicians also must consider that increased probing depth may impede bacterial suppression of specific pathogens. For instance, Nieminen et al. reported that if a patient had multiple deep probing depths ( $\geq 6$  mm) ( $> 10\%$  of the sites) in the presence of *A. actinomycetemcomitans* or clusters of *P. gingivalis*, non-surgical therapy was not efficacious.<sup>111</sup> Similarly, Mombelli et al. noted that with increasing probing depth, it was more difficult to eradicate *A. actinomycetemcomitans* infections.<sup>112</sup> However, other studies have indicated that most organisms including *P. gingivalis* were dramatically reduced with root instrumentation, despite deep probing depths.<sup>69,113,114</sup>

In general, it can be concluded that it is more difficult to instrument deep than shallow sites and frequently more calculus and plaque will be left in these locations. Ostensibly, pocket depth reduction alters the microenvironment and often aids in attaining and maintaining periodontal health. However, there is no limit with regards to probing depth which precludes root instrumentation as an effective therapy. Accordingly, clinicians need to candidly evaluate their ability to instrument deep pockets and decide if non-surgical therapy can achieve the preferred outcomes of periodontal therapy: significant resolution of clinical signs of inflammation, shallow probing depths, stabilization and gain of clinical attachment, radiographic resolution of osseous defects, occlusal stability, and reduced plaque to a level associated with health.<sup>115</sup> With respect to these objectives, non-surgical therapy should be used as long as it attains satisfactory results. However, surgical therapy for access and pocket reduction should be considered when non-surgical treatment is unsuccessful or incapable of achieving desired results.

### Altered Ecological Environment

Historically, when surgery was performed to gain access for instrumentation of root surfaces and osseous defects, the gingival tissues were frequently apically positioned to

ensure reduced probing depths. It was believed that subsequent to active therapy, shallow probing depths facilitated professional and personal maintenance and created an environment that was less conducive to pathogen habitation. In this respect, Mombelli et al. demonstrated that reduction of probing depth without root instrumentation had a profound effect on the subgingival microbiota.<sup>116</sup> In general, treatment resulted in a microbiota more representative of health. Presumptive periodontopathogens (e.g., *P. gingivalis*, *F. nucleatum*, *Campylobacter rectus*) were reduced and Gram-positive facultative organisms were increased. The results were similar to root instrumentation plus apically positioned flaps, thereby underscoring the significance of mechanically reducing probing depth. Socransky and Haffajee also noted that altering the environment is an effective component of controlling the bacterial etiology of periodontal diseases.<sup>76</sup>

### Rebound of Deep Probing Sites After Therapy

Halazonetis et al. monitored 50 patients (1,080 teeth) for 3 years after surgical pocket reduction to determine if pockets reduced to less than 3 mm had rebounded.<sup>117</sup> They noted that at sites with deep initial probing depth, there was a greater probability of repocketing: at 4 to 5 mm, 6 to 7 mm, and  $\geq 8$  mm pockets, the incidence of repocketing was 8.3%, 22.6%, and 39.1%, respectively. Nearly 30% of the treated maxillary and mandibular molars developed repocketing, and patients with good plaque control developed less repocketing than those with fair plaque control (9.7% versus 15.7% of the teeth).

Other longitudinal trials which compared the efficacy of surgical and non-surgical therapy to reduce probing depths reported that many patients who initially demonstrated greater probing depth reduction after surgery did not maintain the advantage.<sup>99</sup> This could be attributed to continued pocket reduction of the non-surgically treated sites or more probably due to rebound of pocket depths after surgery.

The apparent discrepancy between the data of Halazonetis et al.,<sup>117</sup> which indicated that 77.4% of the 6 to 7 mm probing sites did not rebound, and the data from clinical trials which suggested there were no differences with respect to long-term probing depth reduction after surgical and non-surgical treatment is hard to explain. Possible explanations could be attributed to differences in the duration of the monitoring period, selection of patients, or lack of statistical power in some of the trials to detect differences between therapies due to inclusion of too few deep sites. This latter possibility is discussed in the next section.

### STATISTICAL ASSESSMENTS

#### Clinical Versus Statistical Significance With Regards to Probing Depth Reduction After Therapy

A treatment method (e.g., irrigation therapy) that reduces probing depths by several tenths of a millimeter may be

statistically significant, but clinically insignificant. Therefore, there is concern that statistical significance should be interpreted in light of whether the data are clinically relevant. Tests used to assess statistical significance delineate whether detected differences between treatment methods are real as opposed to having occurred by chance. However, these tests do not provide information about the strength or magnitude of the research data.

In order for statistical significance to be meaningful, investigators should specify the size of the effect the investigation is designed to detect. Then the appropriate sample size,  $P$  level, and power can be determined. This would facilitate answering the following questions. Are the results likely to be considered non-trivial? Since there exists no universal agreement about the definition of clinical significance, it is not surprising that there are a number of distinct approaches to its assessment. The critical issue is: how large must the therapeutic effect be for the result to be considered important? One solution is to define this standard *a priori* based on consistent findings in the literature.<sup>118</sup> For example, in pockets  $\geq 7$  mm deep, root planing often can reduce probing depths an average of 2.16 mm.<sup>97</sup> Possibly this should be used as a guide to determine if treatment methods can achieve statistically significant results that are clinically relevant.

#### **Power of Tests Used to Evaluate the Efficacy of Surgical Versus Non-Surgical Therapy in Deeply Pocketed Sites**

Hujoel et al. assessed 10 studies to determine if statistical tests had sufficient power to evaluate differences between surgical and non-surgical therapy.<sup>119</sup> The test's ability to detect differences depends on the selected levels of statistical and clinical significance and the sample size. When 173 comparisons were made using a 0.05 statistical significance level and a 0.5 mm clinical significance level, it was found that the ability of tests to differentiate between the efficacy of surgical and non-surgical therapies to maintain attachment levels and reduce probing depths in deeper pockets may not have provided a fair test because too few deep sites were included in the study populations. Shallow sites had the best chance of getting a fair trial (83%), pockets 4 to 6 mm had a 38% chance, and deep sites ( $> 6$  mm) had less than a 14% chance of getting a fair assessment. Actually, 75% of the used tests had less than a 20% chance of detecting a 0.5 mm difference. From a clinical perspective, the finding that there was no significant difference with regards to the efficacy of surgical and non-surgical therapy at sites with deep initial pockets should be carefully evaluated, because the low power of the tests suggests that the negative results were ambiguous.

On the other hand, it could be contended that the specified difference (0.5 mm,  $P < 0.05$ ) between the different therapies that was proposed may not be clinically rele-

vant. Therefore, even if there was sufficient power to determine that there was a statistical difference between treatment procedures, the difference would not be clinically meaningful and the conclusion would be made that there was a statistically significant, but clinically meaningless, difference between therapies.

#### **Reduction of Probing Depths—Endpoint of Periodontal Therapy**

Endpoints are conditions or events used to assess treatment efficacy. A "true" endpoint reflects unequivocal evidence that a patient has benefited from therapy (e.g., retention of teeth).<sup>120</sup> In contrast, a surrogate endpoint, such as probing depth, is used to measure the disease process, or a patient's response to therapy. Surrogate endpoints facilitate assessing treatment responses using fewer subjects in a shorter period of time.

Hujoel and DeRouen recently surveyed 82 randomized clinical trials (RCT) and determined that assessment of probing depth was the most frequently employed surrogate endpoint (78% of the time) used to evaluate the response to a variety of periodontal therapies.<sup>120</sup> Clinical attachment level was used in 66% of the RCTs. The biologic rationale for use of these surrogate endpoints was that continued deepening of probing depths and loss of attachment would result in tooth loss (a true endpoint). However, Hujoel and DeRouen have cautioned that while evaluation of small changes in surrogate measurements (e.g., probing depth) has a reasonable biologic basis, it has never been tested.<sup>120</sup> For example, conceivably, periodontal therapy may decrease tooth loss due to periodontal diseases, but tooth loss may increase due to other reasons (e.g., root caries). Therefore, it has been suggested that surrogate endpoints used to assess periodontal therapy need to be evaluated in a definitive clinical trial to provide unequivocal evidence that a treatment is of tangible benefit to a patient and correlates well with a true endpoint.

#### **Conclusion**

Numerous studies utilized probing depth measurements to assess the need for therapy and to evaluate the response to treatment. As reviewed, when diagnostic and therapeutic implications of shallow and deep probing depths are compared, the preponderance of evidence indicates that it is advantageous, but not always necessary, for patients to have shallow probing depths. Furthermore, with respect to quality of life issues, there are negative aspects of achieving shallow probing depths (e.g., root sensitivity, cost, esthetic compromise, discomfort, and interproximal food entrapment areas) which need to be considered when contemplating pocket reduction procedures. Therefore, a critical question in periodontal therapy is whether treatment directed at controlling bacterial etiologic agents needs to be concerned with reducing probing depths be-

yond that attained with non-surgical therapy in order to ensure reduced risk of future disease progression. In general, the question defies a simple yes or no answer because there are numerous variables that need to be considered when treating patients (e.g., history of disease process, severity of defects, susceptibility of patients, response to scaling and root planing, goals of therapy, etc). Furthermore, there is no universally accepted level of risk for disease progression that is defined by the percentage of sites, at specific probing depths, during a particular period of time, meeting a standard of deterioration assessed in millimeters, which dictates pocket reduction is needed. Accordingly, the level of risk for future disease progression that may be acceptable to clinicians will vary depending on the patient and the situation (e.g., if prosthetic reconstruction is planned).

Ultimately, clinicians will need to evaluate each patient and sites within individuals to determine what type of treatment will best preserve the dentition in a state of health with comfort, function, and appropriate esthetics. It can be concluded that the clinician's decision to reduce probing depths in order to help achieve these goals will be guided by 3 factors: data from clinical trials, reasonable interpretation of that data with regard to management of specific sites and patients, and clinical experience.

## REFERENCES

- Armitage GC. Clinical evaluation of periodontal diseases. *Periodontol* 2000 1995;7:39-53.
- Carranza FA. The periodontal pocket. In: Carranza FA, ed. *Glickman's Text*. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders Co.; 1978:209.
- Kerr BA, Ash MM, Millard DH. *Oral Diagnosis*, 3rd ed. St. Louis: The CV Mosby Co; 1968:81.
- Greenstein G, Caton J. Periodontal disease activity: A critical assessment. *J Periodontol* 1990;61:543-552.
- Goodson JM. Selection of suitable risk indicators of periodontitis. In: *Risk Assessment in Dentistry*. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina; 1989:69-74.
- Halazonetis TD, Haffajee AD, Socransky SS. Relationship of clinical parameters of attachment loss in subsets of subjects with destructive periodontal diseases. *J Clin Periodontol* 1989;16:563-568.
- Lindhe J, Okamoto H, Yoneyama T, Haffajee A, Socransky SS. Periodontal loser sites in untreated adult subjects. *J Clin Periodontol* 1989;16:671-678.
- Deas DE, Pasquali LA, Yuan CH, Kornman KS. The relationship between probing attachment loss and computerized radiographic analysis in monitoring progression of periodontitis. *J Periodontol* 1991;62:135-141.
- Haffajee AD, Socransky SS, Lindhe J, Kent RL, Okamoto H, Yoneyama T. Clinical risk indicators for periodontal attachment loss. *J Clin Periodontol* 1991;18:117-125.
- Beck J, Koch G, Offenbacher S. Attachment loss trends over 3 years in community-dwelling older adults. *J Periodontol* 1994;65:737-743.
- Machtei EE, Norderyd J, Koch G, Dunford R, Grossi S, Genco R. The rate of periodontal attachment loss in subjects with established periodontitis. *J Periodontol* 1993;64:713-718.
- Badersten A, Nilvéus R, Egelberg J. Effect of non-surgical therapy. VII. Bleeding, suppuration and probing depths in sites with probing attachment loss. *J Clin Periodontol* 1985;12:432-440.
- Vanooteghem R, Hutchens LH, Garrett S, Kiger R, Egelberg J. Bleeding on probing and probing depth as indicators of the response to plaque control and root debridement. *J Clin Periodontol* 1987;14:226-230.
- Nordland P, Garrett S, Kiger R, Vanooteghem R, Hutchens LH, Egelberg J. The effect of plaque control and root debridement in molar teeth. *J Clin Periodontol* 1987;14:231-236.
- Badersten A, Nilvéus R, Egelberg J. Scores of plaque, bleeding supuration and probing depth to predict probing attachment loss. 5 years of observation following nonsurgical periodontal therapy. *J Clin Periodontol* 1990;17:102-107.
- Claffey N, Nylund K, Kiger R, Garrett S, Egelberg J. Diagnostic predictability of scores of plaque, bleeding, suppuration and probing depth for probing attachment loss. 3½ years of observation following initial periodontal therapy. *J Clin Periodontol* 1990;17:108-114.
- Armitage GC, Jeffcoat MK, Chadwick DE, et al. Longitudinal evaluation of elastase as a marker for the progression of periodontitis. *J Periodontol* 1994;65:120-128.
- Egelberg J, Claffey N. *Periodontal Re-Evaluation*. Copenhagen, Denmark: Munksgaard; 1994:123.
- Grbic JT, Lamster IB, Celenti RS, Fine JB. Risk indicators for future clinical attachment loss in adult periodontitis. Patient variables. *J Periodontol* 1991;62:322-329.
- Grbic JT, Lamster IB. Risk indicators for further clinical attachment loss in adult periodontitis. Tooth and site variables. *J Periodontol* 1992;63:262-269.
- Claffey N, Egelberg J. Clinical indicators of probing attachment loss following initial periodontal treatment in advanced periodontitis patients. *J Clin Periodontol* 1995;22:690-696.
- Claffey N, Egelberg J. Clinical characteristics of periodontal sites with probing attachment loss following initial periodontal treatment. *J Clin Periodontol* 1994;21:670-679.
- Fleiss JL, Mann J, Park M, Goultschin J, Chilton NW. A study of inter- and intra-examiner reliability of pocket and attachment level. *J Periodont Res* 1991;26:122-128.
- Gunsolley JC, Best AM. Changes in attachment level. *J Periodontol* 1988;59:450-456.
- Harper DS, Robinson PJ. Correlation of histometric, microbial, and clinical indicators of periodontal disease status before and after root planing. *J Clin Periodontol* 1987;14:190-196.
- Armitage GC, Svanberg GK, Loe H. Microscopic evaluation of clinical measurements of connective tissue attachment levels. *J Clin Periodontol* 1977;4:173-190.
- Caton J, Greenstein G, Polson A. Depth of periodontal probe penetration related to clinical and histologic signs of gingival inflammation. *J Periodontol* 1981;52:625-629.
- Spray JR, Garnick JJ, Doles LR, Riawitter JJ. Microscopic demonstration of the position of periodontal probes. *J Periodontol* 1978;49:148-152.
- Aguero A, Garnick JJ, Keagle J, Steflik DE, Thompson WO. Histological location of a standardized periodontal probe in man. *J Periodontol* 1995;66:184-190.
- Polson A, Caton J, Yeaple R, Zander H. Histologic determination of probe tip penetration into the gingival sulcus of humans using an electronic pressure-sensitive probe. *J Clin Periodontol* 1980;7:479-488.
- Listgarten MA. Periodontal probing: What does it mean? *J Clin Periodontol* 1980;7:165-176.
- Listgarten MA, Mao R, Robinson PJ. Periodontal probing and the relationship of the probe tip to periodontal tissues. *J Periodontol* 1976;47:511-513.
- Fowler C, Garrett S, Crigger M, Egelberg J. Histologic probe position in treated and untreated human periodontal tissues. *J Clin Periodontol* 1982;9:373-385.
- Armitage GC. Periodontal diseases: Diagnosis. *Ann Periodontol* 1996;1:37-215.

35. Osborn JB, Stoltenberg JL, Huso BA, Aeppli DM, Pihlstrom BL. Comparison of measurement variability in subjects with moderate periodontitis using a conventional and constant force periodontal probe. *J Periodontol* 1992;63:283-289.
36. Watts T. Constant probing force with and without a stent in untreated periodontal disease: The clinical reproducibility problem and possible sources of error. *J Clin Periodontol* 1987;14:407-411.
37. Kalkwarf KL, Kaldahl WB, Patil KD. Comparison of manual and pressure-controlled periodontal probing. *J Periodontol* 1986;57:467-471.
38. Espeland MA, Zappa UE, Hogan PE, Simona C, Graf H. Cross-sectional and longitudinal reliability for clinical measurement of attachment loss. *J Clin Periodontol* 1991;18:126-133.
39. van der Velden U, de Vries JH. The influence of probing force on the reproducibility of pocket depth measurements. *J Clin Periodontol* 1980;7:414-420.
40. Badersten A, Nilvéus R, Egelberg J. Reproducibility of probing attachment level measurements. *J Clin Periodontol* 1984;11:475-485.
41. Grossi SG, Dunford RG, Ho A, Koch G, Machtei EE, Genco RJ. Sources of error for periodontal probing measurements. *J Periodont Res* 1996;31:330-357.
42. Isidor F, Karring T, Attström R. Reproducibility of pocket depth and attachment level measurements when using a flexible splint. *J Clin Periodontol* 1984;11:662-668.
43. Greenstein G. The role of bleeding upon probing in the diagnosis of periodontal disease: A literature review. *J Periodontol* 1984;55:685-688.
44. Chaves ES, Wood RC, Jones AA, Newbold DA, Manwell MA, Kornman KS. Relationship of "bleeding on probing" and "gingival index bleeding" as clinical parameters of gingival inflammation. *J Clin Periodontol* 1993;20:139-143.
45. Sherman PR, Hutchens LH Jr, Jewson LG. The effectiveness of subgingival scaling and root planing. II. Clinical response related to residual calculus. *J Periodontol* 1990;61:9-15.
46. Reinhardt RA, Johnson GK, DuBois LM. Clinical effects of closed root planing compared to papilla reflection and fiber optic augmentation. *J Periodontol* 1991;62:317-321.
47. Sato K, Yoneyama T, Okamoto H, Kahlen G, Lindhe J. The effect of subgingival debridement on periodontal disease parameters and the subgingival microbiota. *J Clin Periodontol* 1993;20:359-365.
48. Kaldahl WB, Kalkwarf KL, Patil KD, Molvar MP. Evaluation of gingival bleeding, gingival suppuration, and supragingival plaque to attachment loss. *J Periodontol* 1990;61:347-351.
49. Lang NP, Adler R, Joss A, Nyman S. Absence of bleeding on probing—An indicator of periodontal stability. *J Clin Periodontol* 1990;17:714-721.
50. Kalkwarf KL, Kaldahl WB, Patil KD, Molvar MP. Evaluation of gingival bleeding following four types of therapy. *J Clin Periodontol* 1989;16:601-608.
51. Meyerov RH, Lemmer J, Cleaton-Jones PE, Volchansky A. Temperature gradients in pockets. *J Periodontol* 1991;62:95-99.
52. Kung RTV, Ochs B, Goodson JM. Temperature as a periodontal diagnostic. *J Clin Periodontol* 1990;17:557-563.
53. Haffajee AD, Socransky SS, Goodson HM. Subgingival temperature: I. Relationship to baseline clinical parameters. *J Clin Periodontol* 1992;19:409-416.
54. Haffajee AD, Socransky SS, Smith C, Dibart S, Goodson JM. Subgingival temperature. III. Relationship to microbial counts. *J Clin Periodontol* 1992;19:417-422.
55. Mettraux GR, Gusberti FA, Graf H. Oxygen tension ( $pO_2$ ) in untreated human periodontal pockets. *J Periodontol* 1984;55:516-521.
56. Ewers GJ, Greener EH. The electrochemical activity of the oral cavity—a new approach. *J Oral Rehab* 1985;12:469-476.
57. Ower PC, Ciantar M, Newman HN, Wilson M, Bulman JS. The effects on chronic periodontitis of a subgingivally-placed redox agent in a slow release device. *J Clin Periodontol* 1995;22:494-500.
58. Wolff L, Dahlén G, Aeppli D. Bacteria as risk markers for periodontitis. *J Periodontol* 1994;65:498-510.
59. Evian CL, Rosenberg ES, Listgarten MA. Bacterial variability within diseased periodontal sites. *J Periodontol* 1982;53:595-598.
60. Armitage GC, Dickenson WR, Jenderseck RS, Levine SM, Chambers DW. Relationship between the percentage of subgingival spirochetes and the severity of periodontal disease. *J Periodontol* 1985;56:550-556.
61. Savitt ED, Darack AP, Killoy WJ, Leiberman MG. Site selection criteria for microbiologic testing of periodontal microorganisms. *J Periodontol* 1991;62:558-561.
62. Shiloah J, Patters MR. Repopulation of periodontal pockets by microbial pathogens in the absence of supportive therapy. *J Periodontol* 1996;67:130-139.
63. Greenwell H, Bissada NF. Variations in subgingival microflora from healthy and intervention sites using probing depth and bacteriologic identification criteria. *J Periodontol* 1984;55:391-397.
64. Magnusson I, Lindhe J, Yoneyama T, Liljenberg B. Recolonization of a subgingival microbiota following scaling in deep pockets. *J Clin Periodontol* 1984;11:193-207.
65. Slots J, Emrich LJ, Genco RJ, Rosling BG. Relationship between some subgingival bacteria and periodontal pocket depth and gain or loss of attachment after treatment of adult periodontitis. *J Clin Periodontol* 1985;12:540-552.
66. Loos B, Claffey N, Egelberg J. Clinical and microbiological effects of root debridement in periodontal furcation pockets. *J Clin Periodontol* 1988;15:453-463.
67. Pedrazzoli V, Kilian M, Karring T, Kirkegaard E. Effect of surgical and nonsurgical periodontal treatment on periodontal status and subgingival microbiota. *J Clin Periodontol* 1991;18:598-604.
68. Listgarten M, Slots J, Nowotny AH, et al. Incidence of periodontitis recurrence in treated patients with and without *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*, *Prevotella intermedia*, and *Porphyromonas gingivalis*. A prospective study. *J Periodontol* 1991;62:377-386.
69. Rams TE, Listgarten MA, Slots J. Utility of 5 major putative periodontal pathogens and selected clinical parameters to predict periodontal breakdown in patients on maintenance care. *J Clin Periodontol* 1996;23:355-361.
70. Lamster IB, Holmes LG, Gross KBW, et al. The relationship of B-glucuronidase activity in crevicular fluid to clinical parameters of periodontal disease. Findings from a multicenter study. *J Clin Periodontol* 1994;21:118-127.
71. Darany DG, Beck FM, Walters JD. The relationship of gingival fluid leukocyte elastase activity to gingival fluid flow rate. *J Periodontol* 1992;63:743-747.
72. Robertson PB, Buchanan SA, Armitage GC, Newbrun E, Taggart EJ, Hoover CI. Evaluation of clinical microbiological measures to predict treatment response in severe periodontitis. *J Periodont Res* 1987;22:230-232.
73. Moore WEC, Holdeman LV, Smibert RM, Hash DE, Burmeister JA, Ranney RR. Bacteriology of severe periodontitis in young adult humans. *Infect Immun* 1982;38:1137-1148.
74. Beck JD, Koch GG, Rozier RG, Tudor GE. Prevalence and risk indicators for periodontal attachment loss in a population of older community-dwelling blacks and whites. *J Periodontol* 1990;61:521-528.
75. Machtei EE, Christersson LA, Grossi SG, Dunford R, Zambon JJ, Genco J. Clinical criteria for the definition of "established periodontitis." *J Periodontol* 1992;63:206-215.
76. Socransky SS, Haffajee AD. Effect of therapy on periodontal infections. *J Periodontol* 1993;64 (suppl.):754-759.
77. Kaldahl WB, Kalkwarf KL, Patil KD, et al. Long-term evaluation of periodontal therapy. II. Incidence of sites breaking down. *J Periodontol* 1996;67:103-108.
78. Heins P, Hartagan M, Low S, Chase R. Relative stability of deep

- versus shallow-side bone levels in angular proximal intrabony defects. *J Clin Periodontol* 1989;16:59-64.
79. Haffajee AD, Socransky SS, Goodson JM. Clinical parameters as predictors of destructive periodontal disease activity. *J Clin Periodontol* 1983;10:257-265.
80. Claffey N, Loos B, Gantes B, Martin M, Egelberg J. Probing depth at re-evaluation following initial periodontal therapy to indicate the initial response to treatment. *J Clin Periodontol* 1989;16:229-233.
81. Loos B, Claffey N, Crigger M. Effects of oral hygiene measures on clinical and microbiologic parameters of periodontal disease. *J Clin Periodontol* 1988;15:211-216.
82. Smulow J, Turesky S, Hill R. The effect of supragingival plaque removal on anaerobic bacteria in deep periodontal pockets. *J Am Dent Assoc* 1983;107:737-742.
83. Kho P, Smales F, Hardie J. The effect of supragingival plaque control on the subgingival microflora. *J Clin Periodontol* 1985;12:676-686.
84. Listgarten MA, Lindhe J, Hellden LB. Effect of tetracycline and/or scaling on human periodontal disease. *J Clin Periodontol* 1978;5:246-271.
85. Beltrami M, Bickel M, Baehni P. The effect of supragingival plaque control on the composition of the subgingival microflora in human periodontitis. *J Clin Periodontol* 1987;14:161-164.
86. Lindhe J, Heijl L, Goodson JM, Socransky S. Local tetracycline delivery using hollow fiber devices in periodontal therapy. *J Clin Periodontol* 1979;6:141-149.
87. Lavanchy DL, Bickel M, Baehni PC. The effect of plaque control after scaling and root planing on the subgingival microflora in human periodontitis. *J Clin Periodontol* 1987;14:295-298.
88. McNabb H, Mombelli A, Lang NP. Supragingival cleaning 3 times a week. *J Clin Periodontol* 1992;19:348-356.
89. Katsanoulas T, Renee I, Attstrom R. The effect of supragingival plaque control on the composition of the subgingival flora in periodontal pockets. *J Clin Periodontol* 1992;19:760-765.
90. Dahlén G, Lindhe J, Sato K, Hanamura H, Okamoto H. The effect of supragingival plaque control on the subgingival microbiota in subjects with periodontal disease. *J Clin Periodontol* 1992;19:802-809.
91. Waerhaug J. Effect of toothbrushing on subgingival plaque formation. *J Periodontol* 1981;52:30-34.
92. Youngblood JJ, Killoy WJ, Love JW, Drisko C. Effectiveness of a new plaque-removal instrument in removing subgingival and interproximal plaque: A preliminary in vivo report. *Compend Cont Educ Dent* 1985;6(suppl.):S152-S155.
93. Taylor JY, Wood CL, Garnick JJ, Thompson WO. Removal of interproximal subgingival plaque by hand and automatic toothbrushes. *J Periodontol* 1995;66:191-196.
94. Eakle W, Ford C, Boyd RL. Depth of penetration in periodontal pockets with oral irrigation. *J Clin Periodontol* 1986;13:39-44.
95. Braun RE, Ciancio SG. Subgingival delivery by an oral irrigation device. *J Periodontol* 1992;63:469-472.
96. Lerner J, Greenstein G. Calculus and irrigation tip design affect depth of subgingival irrigation. *Int J Periodontics Restorative Dent* 1993;13:289-297.
97. Cobb CM. Non-surgical pocket therapy: Mechanical. *Ann Periodontol* 1996;1:1-48.
98. Greenstein G. Periodontal response to mechanical non-surgical therapy. *J Periodontol* 1992;63:118-130.
99. Kaldahl WB, Kalkwarf KL, Patil KD. A review of longitudinal studies that compared periodontal therapies. *J Periodontol* 1993;64:243-253.
100. Rabbani GM, Ash MM, Caffesse RG. The effectiveness of subgingival scaling and root planing in calculus removal. *J Periodontol* 1981;52:119-123.
101. Caffesse RG, Sweeney PL, Smith BA. Scaling and root planing with and without periodontal flap surgery. *J Clin Periodontol* 1986;13:205-210.
102. Stambaugh RV, Dragoo M, Smith DM, Carasali L. The limits of subgingival scaling. *Int J Periodontics Restorative Dent* 1981;1:31-41.
103. Waerhaug J. Healing of the dentoepithelial junction following subgingival plaque control. II. As observed on extracted teeth. *J Periodontol* 1978;49:119-134.
104. Fleischer HC, Mellonig JT, Brayer WK, Gray JL, Barnett JD. Scaling and root planing efficacy in multirooted teeth. *J Periodontol* 1989;60:402-409.
105. Buchanan SA, Robertson PB. Calculus removal by scaling/root planing with and without surgical access. *J Periodontol* 1987;58:159-163.
106. Wylam JM, Mealy BL, Mills MP, Waldrop TC, Moskowitz DC. The clinical effectiveness of open versus closed scaling and root planing on multi-rooted teeth. *J Periodontol* 1993;64:1023-1028.
107. Eaton KA, Kieser JB, Davies RM. The removal of root surface deposits. *J Clin Periodontol* 1985;12:141-152.
108. Robertson P. Guest editorial: The residual calculus paradox. *J Periodontol* 1990;61:65-66.
109. Novaes AB, Novaes AB Jr, Moraes N, Campos GM, Grisi MFM. Compliance with supportive periodontal therapy. *J Periodontol* 1996;67:213-216.
110. Mendoza AR, Newcomb GM, Nixon KC. Compliance with supportive periodontal therapy. *J Periodontol* 1991;62:731-736.
111. Nieminen A, Siren E, Wolf J, Asikainen S. Prognostic criteria for the efficiency of non-surgical periodontal therapy in advanced periodontitis. *J Clin Periodontol* 1995;22:153-161.
112. Mombelli A, Gmur G, Gobbi C, Lang NP. *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans* in adult periodontitis. I. Topographic distribution before and after treatment. *J Periodontol* 1994;65:827-834.
113. Lowenguth RA, Chin I, Caton JG, et al. Evaluation of periodontal treatments using controlled-release tetracycline fibers: Microbiological response. *J Periodontol* 1995;66:700-707.
114. Haffajee AD, Dibart S, Kent RL, Socransky SS. Clinical and microbiological changes associated with the use of 4 adjunctive systemically administered agents in the treatment of periodontal infections. *J Clin Periodontol* 1995;22:618-627.
115. *Parameters of Care*. Chicago: The American Academy of Periodontology; 1995;15-19.
116. Mombelli A, Nyman S, Bragger U, Wennstrom J, Lang NP. Clinical and microbiological changes associated with an altered subgingival environment induced by periodontal pocket reduction. *J Clin Periodontol* 1995;22:780-787.
117. Halazonetis TD, Smulow JB, Donnenfeld O, Mejias JE. Pocket formation 3 years after comprehensive periodontal therapy—A retrospective study. *J Periodontol* 1985;56:515-522.
118. Lefort SM. The statistical versus clinical significance debate. *Image* 1993;25:57-62.
119. Hujoel PP, Baab DA, DeRouen TA. The power of tests to detect differences between periodontal treatments in published studies. *J Clin Periodontol* 1992;19:779-784.
120. Hujoel PP, DeRouen TA. A survey of endpoint characteristics in periodontal clinical trials published 1988-1992, and implications for future studies. *J Clin Periodontol* 1995;22:397-407.

Send reprint requests to: Dr. Gary Greenstein, 900 West Main St., Freehold, NJ 07728.

Accepted for publication May 28, 1997.