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CURRENT ORTHODONIC ORTHODONIC CONCEPTS AND TECHNIQUES

Edited by

GRABER AND SWAIN

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Dedication

For our co-editor and fellow author, Tom Graber, one of the significant events of 1975 will be his acceptance of the Ketcham Award from the American Board of Orthodontics and the American Association of Orthodontists. Another will be the publication of the second edition of this text on orthodontic concepts and techniques that he conceived back in the early 1960's.

For the other authors contributing herein, this fortunate coincidence of events enables us to convey our own congratulations and warm admiration to him with the conviction that his three decades of working toward a better level of dental practice are but part of an ongoing effort in which we wish him good luck and God speed. In token of these sentiments we dedicate this edition to our energetic colleague, Tom Graber.

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The Edgewise Appliance Today

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The Begg Technique

Preface

Textbooks are written these days for a number of reasons. One of the more important is the "publish or perish" dictum that haunts the academic community. In some areas, textbooks are good business, with a substantial financial return for both the author and the publisher. But these were not the reasons for the present two-volume work. The simple fact is that there has been no total graduate orthodontic text and the profession needs one badly. The undergraduate dental student is well supplied with several good texts that provide excellent and current information on growth and development, oral physiology, etiology and classification of malocclusions, and minor tooth moving techniques. But 400 graduate orthodontic students each year, not to mention the orthodontic practitioners, must "make do" with a collection of the same texts, augmented by several of the cult-oriented, esoteric "systems" books that have been published in the last ten to fifteen years. At present there has been no single text which adequately serves the needs and interests of clinicians, orthodontic specialists, and students, except the first edition of this work.

The editors of this book feel strongly that there is more than one way to arrive at what Berçu Fischer called the "achievable optimum." Too often, the orthodontist has been looking for the solution to his orthodontic problems like a horse with blinders. After all, dentists are applied biologists... or we would like to think we are. Even if we prefer a particular mechanism or technique to achieve our therapeutic objectives, we should be aware that there are "other ways to Rome." One of the dangers of an orthodontic bible and cookbook combination is that we find too many men attempting to find all their answers in the same recipe. Too many of us have been guilty of overzealously striving to "out-Tweed" the master, or practicing 200 per cent Begg technique, without that ingredient of discretion that the master himself used to develop his technique.

Dogma fosters the Pied Piper syndrome of "following the single leader." By contrast, we have made a sincere effort to present a team approach in these two volumes. It is our hope that the net result will be a real contribution to orthodontics by virtue of presenting a broad spectrum of mechanotherapy measures through objective analyses of the current "popular and choice" techniques by orthodontists who are recognized by their confreres as distinguished clinicians. Each man on this team has literally searched his orthodontic soul in an effort to show both sides of the coin, the potentials and the limitations, the good and the bad, the sequential steps and the precautions—stripping away the "Chamber of Commerce" aura. The result of this coordinated conjoint endeavor is a compendium of orthodontic knowledge that is uniquely complete and practical.

For those who might conceive of orthodontics as a series of mechanical maneuvers, Chapter 1, Diagnosis and Planning Treatment in Orthodontics by James L. Ackerman and William R. Proffit, should clearly establish that the order of the day requires the synthesis of manifold factors into a discrete list of problems, each defined so clearly that the plan of treatment becomes evident.

Chapter 2, Biomechanical Principles and Reactions by Kaare Reitan, is the most complete and current contribution on tissue changes that exists. This is just one of several chapters in the book that would stand by themselves as a text. Dr. Reitan is both a renowned researcher and a clinician. The material has potent clinical implications in the discussion of the reaction of teeth and investing tissues to different types of force, to varying amounts of force, and to varying periods of force application.

Chapter 3, Application of Bioengineering to Clinical Orthodontics by Charles J. Burstone, elucidates the broad application of the physical sciences to living tissues. This chapter concerns itself with the biophysics of the orthodontic appliance as we ask ourselves the question, "Can theoretical mechanics help us in the design and the clinical manipulation of an orthodontic appliance?" It is here as well as in Chapter 2 that many of the common denominators of all orthodontic techniques are found.

Chapter 4, Serial Extraction by Warren R. Mayne, demonstrates convincingly the phenomena of self-adaptation and homeostasis as well as the application of principles developed in the first three chapters. The tissue system orientation organizes the thinking of the reader for all mechanotherapies. Clinical results are profusely illustrated to demonstrate how biologic guidance and appliances may be successfully combined to produce the best possible result.

The last six chapters are largely oriented on a complete "how to do it" basis, applying the principles propounded in the first four.

Chapter 5, Dentofacial Orthopedics by T. M. Graber, recognizes that we are working with more than the tooth system—that the bone system and neuromuscular systems are equally important, with the tooth system often reflecting basal bone morphology and spatial relationships as well as neuromuscular activity. The author presents a pragmatic approach to growth and development guidance for two thirds of the cases being treated by the average orthodontist.

Chapter 6, The Edgewise Appliance Today by John T. Lindquist and Morris M. Stoner, incorporates the latest clinically tested modifications of the technique that was originally introduced by Edward H. Angle. As far as we know, when combined with the first four chapters on this text, the Stoner-Lindquist section provides the most complete presentation anywhere on the most widely used fixed appliance philosophy today. Careful study by both the clinician and the graduate student will provide immediate practical benefits and prevent many of the problems encountered by the novice.

Chapter 7, The Begg Technic by Brainard F. Swain, again would stand as a book by itself. It is a meticulously objective clinical analysis of the intimate details of a major orthodontic mechanotherapy. The essential details of all three stages of therapy are presented and profusely illustrated by twenty-three case studies. As with the other chapters, the finished product is the result of long personal clinical experience and teaching.

Chapter 8, Removable Appliances by Bedrich Neumann, demonstrates that removable appliances follow the same rules and seek essentially the same goals as fixed appliances. An objective and analytic appraisal of the prime "schools of thought" will prepare the practitioner to interpret and meet the current socioeconomic and third party demands for increasing orthodontic services. As an "elder statesman" of European orthodontics, Dr. Neumann is admirably qualified to discuss the potential of removable appliances in the United States today.

Chapter 9, Surgical Management of Orofacial Deformities by Benjamin J. Gans and Roger H. Kallal, stresses yet another essential facet of patient service in our "face conscious" society. Orthognathic surgery has "come of age" with the tremendous advances of the last decade. It is entirely proper that the two specialties of dentistry most concerned with orofacial deformities and improvement of function work hand in hand on the advancement of this fascinating field, permitting correction of jaw relationships, facial contours, abnormal proportions and dimension of facial structures that would not be amenable to orthodontic procedures alone.

Chapter 10, Retention by Richard A. Riedel, accepts the challenge of Albin Oppenheim who said, "Retention is the most difficult problem in orthodontics; in fact, it is *the* problem." Riedel combines clinical experience, research endeavors, and a lifetime of teaching graduate students in orthodontics, to give significant guidance, not only in the "after treatment" but also in actually achieving the treatment objectives.

The first edition of this book required eight years of writing and rewriting, coordination, and exhaustive study of many areas, so that we were able to include those aspects we felt most important for the graduate student. An additional five years has been spent in continuing the process of nurturing, pruning, weeding, and incorporating the latest and the best, so that we can say in all sincerity, "We have done our best. But this is only the beginning. Use this book well and make it live." Since the publication of this two-volume work coincides with the celebration of the 75th anniversary of the American Association of Orthodontists, those words that appear on the cornerstone of the Bureau of Archives in Washington seem most appropriate: "The heritages of the past are the seeds that bring forth the harvest of the future."

The authors express their appreciation to the staff of W. B. Saunders Company, with special thanks to Mrs. Donna Musser, who managed to initiate herself simultaneously into orthodontic treatment and the editing of an orthodontic text.

T. M. GRABER B. F. SWAIN

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Diagnosis and Planning Treatment in Orthodontics

1

JAMES L. ACKERMAN and WILLIAM R. PROFFIT

Diagnosis in orthodontics requires the synthesis of manifold factors into a discrete list of problems each defined so clearly that the plan of treatment becomes evident.

The Decision Making Process in Orthodontics

DEFINITION OF ORTHODONTICS

The definition of orthodontics currently accepted by the American Association of Orthodontists states that:

Orthodontics is that area of dentistry concerned with the growth, guidance, correction and maintenance of the dento-facial complex, with special emphasis on developmental disturbances and those conditions that cause or require movement of teeth. The area of orthodontic practice includes the diagnosis, prevention, interception and treatment of all forms of malocclusion of the teeth and the associated alterations in their supporting structures; the design, application, and control of functional and corrective appliances; and the guidance of the developing dentition to attain optimum occlusal relations in physiologic and esthetic harmony with other facial and cranial structures.

In a general sense this is an excellent description of the scope of orthodontics as a modern specialty, and it emphasizes the biologic basis of orthodontics. It will be assumed in this chapter that the reader has a good understanding of the life sciences as they relate to orthodontics. The Nature of Orthodontic Diagnosis by Horowitz and Hixon² and The Biologic Basis of Orthodontics by Gianelly and Goldman3 are recommended reading in this regard. The major difference today between the orthodontist and the expanded-function orthodontic therapist is in the orthodontist's ability to utilize fundamental background information in assessing an orthodontic problem

and planning treatment based on this assessment.

The above definition of orthodontics does not serve as a very useful operational guide when planning treatment, however, because the explicit goals of orthodontic therapy are not emphasized. A more operational definition might be that the goal of orthodontic treatment is to obtain optimal proximal and occlusal contact of the teeth (occlusion) within the framework of acceptable facial esthetics and self-image, normal function (physiologic adaptation), and reasonable stability. Of course, each of these concepts has its own inherent problems of definition.

NORMAL OCCLUSION

Fundamental to orthodontic diagnosis is understanding the concept of "normal occlusion." Traditionally, any deviation from "ideal occlusion" represents what Guilford termed *mal-occlusion*. Of course, ideal occlusion rarely exists in nature and so perhaps it is better to call this concept the "imaginary ideal" (Fig. 1–1). Unfortunately, there is no clear-cut or acceptable definition of "normal occlusion," and thus much of our diagnosis in orthodontics is based on this highly arbitrary concept of the "imaginary ideal." For the orthodontist's view of ideal occlusion, the reader is referred to a recent paper by Andrews.

Normal occlusion and malocclusion must



Figure 1–1 Buccal view of the teeth in "ideal" occlusion. This concept has not changed measurably in the last two centuries. (From Kraus, B. S., Jordan, R. E., and Abrams, L.: Dental Anatomy and Occlusion, A Study of the Masticatory System. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins, 1969.)

be visualized as overlapping frequency distributions of various morphological traits (Fig. 1-2). Thus, varying degrees of occlusal harmony or disharmony must be understood as portions of a continuum rather than as discrete entities. For this reason the term malocclusion should not be interpreted as the antithesis of normal occlusion. Perhaps the concept of degrees of occlusal disharmony should be utilized rather than the polar terms of occlusion and malocclusion. The term malocclusion should be used more in a generic sense to refer to those occlusal disharmonies that require orthodontic intervention rather than to every deviation from ideal occlusion.

Malocclusion should not be thought of as a pathologic condition but merely as human morphologic variation. (An exception to this occurs in genetic disorders of the face and jaws such as craniofacial dysostosis and cleft lip and/or palate.) In biological systems, variation is the rule, not the exception.

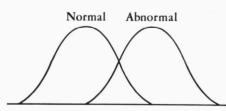


Figure 1–2 Normal occlusion and malocclusion, each as a composite of several possible combinations of traits (deep bite, crowding, protrusion, etc.), represented as frequency distributions. Note the overlap between normal occlusion and malocclusion. (From Moorrees, C. F. A., and Grøn, A. M.: Principles of orthodontic diagnosis. Angle Orthod., 36:258–262, 1966.)

Johnson⁶ suggested that biometric occlusal norms such as those proposed by Hellman⁷ and later by Simon⁸ could be thought of as a "species norm," whereas the normal variations found in specific subjects could be understood to represent an "individual norm." Unfortunately, no one has yet been able to translate adequately the idea of the "individual norm" into practical terms for orthodontic diagnosis.

Part of this dilemma stems from our inability to measure or quantify the various characteristics of occlusion. One of the first and only biometric studies of occlusion was Hellman's.7 However, his was a rather static approach to occlusion; he believed that in the maximum intercuspal position, specific landmarks in the opposing dental arches should contact. As long as the orthodontist's view of occlusion remains largely in the realm of static descriptive morphology, orthodontic diagnosis will contain this problem of not being able to define "individual norm." This, of course, is because function and physiologic adaptation must be considered in deciding whether a given individual's occlusion is normal. Although there has been research over the years, such as that of Manly and Yurkstas9 in which an attempt was made to measure effective occlusal area, total occlusal contact, and masticatory efficiency, the fact is that the concept of normal occlusion, which is the very basis of the specialty of orthodontics, has not changed markedly since the original definitions by Angle.10

By default, clinical orthodontics has accepted a therapeutic goal which Bercu

Fischer called the "achievable optimum." 11 In this approach the orthodontist attempts to achieve the "imaginary ideal" occlusion for each patient, knowing that only after treatment and retention are completed can he truly ascertain the norm for that individual. We have previously called this "therapeutic diagnosis," and it will be discussed in more detail under "Treatment Planning" later in this chapter. Moorrees and Grøn¹² have suggested that "therapeutic modifiability" be estimated prior to treatment, so that the treatment plan will reflect modifications based on realistic individualized goals. Because the factors responsible for tooth position, arch form, and occlusal relationships are poorly understood, it is not often possible to assess the therapeutic modifiability on any basis other than an intuitive one.

EPIDEMIOLOGY OF MALOCCLUSION AND ASSESSING THE SEVERITY OF MALOCCLUSION

Diagnosis and treatment planning for individuals will continue to be somewhat enigmatic until we fully understand occlusion not only from an anatomical and physiological point of view but also from an epidemiological vantage point. In the future it will be necessary to know the *prevalence* of problems relating to occlusal disharmony, the actual *need* in a biologic as well as a practical sense for the treatment of these problems, and the recognition or *demand* for this attention on the part of the patients.

The incidence of malocclusion varies widely in different countries of the world. In primitive and isolated societies there is less variation in occlusal patterns than is observed in more heterogeneous populations. Among Australian aborigines, for example, the incidence of malocclusion is usually low. Dental crowding and malalignment are rare in nearly all primitive populations. This implies selective evolutionary preseliminating dental malocclusion. Sometimes such evolutionary pressure has not resulted in our "imaginary ideal" occlusion, however. In certain Melanesian islanders, the usual condition is what we would call a skeletal Class III malocclusion, with good dental alignment. Thus incisal guidance, cuspid protection, and the like, which are useful therapeutic concepts, are apparently not biologic necessities. Some writers have theorized that the increased attrition of teeth caused by primitive diets

prevents the development of crowding.¹³ It can be observed, however, that teenage Australian aborigines whose modern diet has prevented significant attrition still do not develop crowding of incisors¹⁴ (Fig. 1–3).

The reported rate of malocclusion is higher in developed than in primitive countries and is higher in the United States than anywhere else. It is difficult to escape the implication that our high rate of dental malocclusion in the United States is a price we pay for our genetic heterogeneity. There has been great variability in estimates of the prevalence of malocclusion in the United States in previous epidemiologic studies. ¹⁵ This fact is related to varying definitions of normalcy and varying samples of the population.

Recently the National Center for Health Statistics published a study of dental relationships in a sample of some 7400 children in the United States between ages 6 and 11.16 The sample was carefully selected to represent the 23.8 million American children of those ages, excluding only those on Indian reservations.

Based on the United States Public Health Service figures, it appears that 75 per cent of American children have some degree of occlusal disharmony. Thus it would seem that occlusal disharmony is the usual finding rather than the deviant finding. The extent of the disharmony determines whether there is a resulting problem of malocclusion. In the USPHS study, the TPI index17 was used to indicate degree of disharmony. This index is calculated from a detailed evaluation of the occlusal relationships of the teeth. Figure 1-4 displays the percentages of children with given TPI scores: the higher the score, the greater the disharmony.

Although orthodontists may differ with both the TPI method and the suggested interpretation of scores, this index does give a known starting point for assessing malocclusion. Using this approach, 37 per cent of American children are judged, by a score of 4 or more, to have definite or handicapping malocclusion. (Many of those with scores of 2 or 3 would benefit from treatment.) Forty per cent of all children have some malalignment of teeth; 17 per cent have significant protrusion of maxillary incisors and 20 per cent have a Class II molar relationship; less than one per cent have lower overjet, although five per cent have a Class III molar

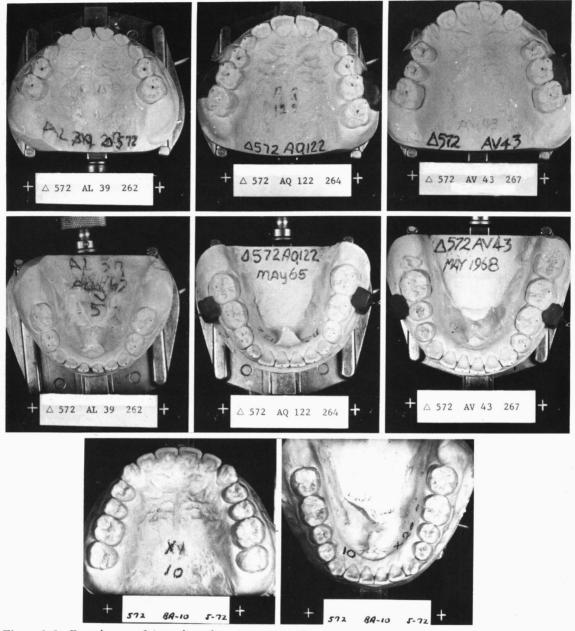


Figure 1-3 Dental casts of Australian aborigines at age 5 years, 8 years, 11 years, and 15 years. (Courtesy of Dr. M. J. Barrett, University of Adelaide.)

 $(Figure \ 1\hbox{--}3\ continued\ on\ opposite\ page.)$

relationship; and four per cent have an anterior open bite. The incidence varies according to social, sexual, and regional groupings. Open bite is four times more common in blacks than in whites, for instance, and slightly more common in girls than in boys. A detailed breakdown of children with scores of 4 or more is given in Table 1–1.

The TPI index which was used in the USPHS study is one of several systems for assessing occlusal status currently being employed primarily for determining eligibility for orthodontic treatment under third party payment schemes. The relative strengths and weaknesses of these systems have recently been summarized by Grewe. 18 It is fair to say that although we

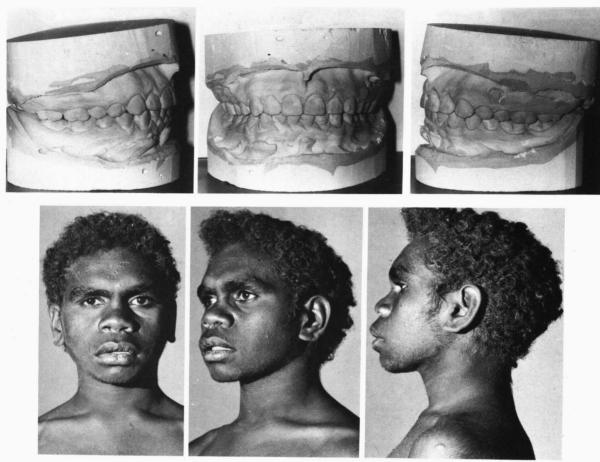


Figure 1-3 Continued.

Figure 1-4 Per cent of children with specified TPI scores. Interpretation of these scores, as suggested by Grainger: 0 = virtually classic normal occlusion; 1 to 3 = minor manifestations of occlusal disharmony; 4 to 6 = definite malocclusion; 7 to 9 = severe handicap, treatment highly desirable; 10 or greater = very severe handicap with treatment mandatory. (From Kelly, J. E., Sanchez, M., and Van Kirk, L. E.: An assessment of the occlusion of teeth of children. Data from the National Health Survey. National Center for Health Statistics, U.S. Public Health Service, 1973. DHEW Publication No. [HRA] 74–1612.)

