



American Journal of
Physical Anthropology

**Periodontal disease in a Portuguese identified skeletal
sample from the late nineteenth and early twentieth
centuries**

Journal:	<i>American Journal of Physical Anthropology</i>
Manuscript ID:	AJPA-2010-00044.R2
Wiley - Manuscript type:	Research Article
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Wasterlain, Sofia; University of Coimbra, Department of Life Sciences Cunha, Eugénia; University of Coimbra, Department of Life Sciences Hillson, Simon; University College London, Archaeology
Key Words:	paleopathology, periodontitis, epidemiology, Coimbra

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1
2
3 **Periodontal disease in a Portuguese identified skeletal sample from the late nineteenth**
4 **and early twentieth centuries**
5
6
7
8
9

10 Sofia N. Wasterlain^{1*}, Eugénia Cunha¹, Simon Hillson²
11
12

13
14
15 ¹Centro de Investigação em Antropologia e Saúde, Department of Life Sciences, University
16 of Coimbra, 3000-056 Coimbra, Portugal
17
18

19
20
21
22 ²Institute of Archaeology, University College London, 31-34 Gordon Square, London WC1H
23 OPY, UK
24
25
26

27
28
29 Number of pages: 27
30

31 Number of figures: 6
32

33 Number of tables: 5
34
35
36
37

38 ABBREVIATED TITLE: Periodontal disease in a Portuguese identified skeletal sample
39
40
41

42
43 KEY WORDS: paleopathology, periodontitis, epidemiology, Coimbra.
44
45
46
47
48
49

50
51 *Correspondence to: Sofia N. Wasterlain, Departamento de Ciências da Vida, Apartado 3046,
52 3001-401 Coimbra, Portugal
53

54
55 Telephone: 351 239 829051 Fax: 351 239 823491
56

57 E-mail: sofiawas@antrop.uc.pt
58
59
60

ABSTRACT

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

Periodontal status was investigated in 600 adult dentitions belonging to the identified osteological collections curated at the University of Coimbra, Portugal. These collections date to a point temporally intermediate between the large epidemiological studies of the 20th century and archaeological collections that antedate the 19th century. The aim of this study is to compare periodontal data derived from contemporary samples with statistics compiled from epidemiological studies to determine if factors such as age-at-death, sex and tooth type are essential or not to account for in future archaeological studies of periodontitis. Periodontal disease status was assessed based on the textural and architectural variations of the interdental septum and the extent of bone loss. Overall, the frequency of periodontitis within the Coimbra collections is 73.8%. Men were more susceptible to periodontal disease than women.

Gingivitis was widespread in the younger age groups. Destructive periodontitis was observed early in adulthood, rising steadily with age. The most susceptible sites to periodontal breakdown were located in the posterior region of the upper jaw. Some variation in reported frequencies of periodontitis was found in epidemiological reports, which might result from variation in methods for identifying the pathology, differences in the age composition of the samples examined, variation in oral hygiene and/or diet, or some other factors. Regarding the pattern of distribution of periodontal disease, Coimbra results were similar to comparable modern epidemiological surveys, making clear the importance of considering sex, age and oral distribution of periodontitis in future archaeological studies.

1
2
3 Periodontal disease is an inflammatory condition that affects any or all portions of the
4
5
6 periodontium, which includes the gingivae, periodontal ligament, alveolar bone and
7
8
9 cementum (Lavigne and Molto, 1995). Traditionally, periodontal disease has been divided
10
11 into two general categories based on whether attachment loss has occurred: gingivitis and
12
13
14 periodontitis (Williams et al., 1992; American Academy of Periodontology, 2003). The term
15
16
17 gingivitis is used to designate inflammatory lesions that are confined to the marginal gingivae,
18
19
20 without loss of connective tissue attachment. Once the lesions extend to include destruction of
21
22
23 the connective tissue attachment of the tooth and loss of alveolar bone the disease is
24
25
26 designated periodontitis (Soames and Southam, 2005).

27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
Periodontal disease has a multifactorial aetiology, but of prime importance is bacterial
plaque, for without such plaque the disease will not occur. There is overwhelming evidence
supporting this view, including epidemiological, pathological, microbiological, and
immunobiological data (see Williams et al., 1992). In addition, a number of well recognized
factors, namely calculus, diet, and oral hygiene, among others, may influence the nature and
progression of periodontal disease.

The diagnosis of periodontal disease is difficult because no one feature is pathognomonic.
Generally, gingivitis is diagnosed by the presence and extent of gingival inflammation,
frequently measured as bleeding on probing (Page and Eke, 2007). The clinical recognition of
periodontitis is made by periodontal probe measurements (i.e., probing depths, clinical
attachment loss, etc.) and by radiographs, which document the pattern and extent of alveolar
bone loss (Apsey et al., 2006; American Academy of Periodontology, 2003). The patient's
age, medical and dental histories, as well as the presence or absence of miscellaneous signs
and symptoms (including gingival recession, pain, ulceration, tooth mobility, previous
treatment, occlusal problems, and amount of observable plaque and calculus) may help the

1
2
3 clinician arrive at a diagnosis of periodontitis (American Academy of Periodontology, 2003;
4
5 Page and Eke, 2007).
6
7

8 In dry bone specimens there is the difficulty of distinguishing the remodelling of the
9
10 alveolar process related to tooth wear, occlusal forces, and continuous eruption from that due
11
12 to periodontal disease. Even after initial eruption during childhood and young adulthood, the
13
14 permanent teeth continue to erupt throughout adult life at a slow rate. Part of this is due to
15
16 deposition of cement on the roots (hypercementosis), but a more important factor seems to be
17
18 the remodelling of the bone in the jaws. The sockets gradually migrate upwards through the
19
20 alveolar process, carrying the teeth with them. As a result, even where there is no bone loss
21
22 due to periodontal disease, the roots of the teeth are progressively exposed with increasing
23
24 age while the sockets become shallower. This is known as continuous eruption (Hillson, 2000,
25
26 2005). In some archaeological collections, it is therefore difficult to disentangle root exposure
27
28 due to continuous eruption (and other remodelling of the alveolar process) from the active
29
30 bone resorption that relates to periodontal disease. This is because there is no independent
31
32 way of measuring the extent to which the alveolar process has been reduced in height
33
34 (Hillson, 2005). Besides, where a large proportion of the alveolar process has been lost, it
35
36 may be difficult to distinguish the defects of periapical inflammation (Hillson, 2000). It is
37
38 therefore important to be able to differentiate between these processes and thereby avoid
39
40 overestimating the frequency of periodontal disease among peoples of the past.
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

48 Epidemiological studies of living people have identified a strong pattern of susceptibility
49
50 for different teeth and sites within the mouth (Ånerud et al., 1983; Baelum et al., 1988). These
51
52 studies also identify sex differences in periodontitis prevalence, usually with higher
53
54 periodontitis rates in men (Baelum et al., 1988), although some studies do not always
55
56 distinguish between men and women. All studies, however, report a strong progression with
57
58 age (Baelum et al., 1988). Despite these findings, archaeological studies frequently fail to
59
60

1
2
3 consider factors such as age-at-death and sex when reporting periodontitis in past populations.
4
5 In those studies where this has been attempted, men were found to be more affected than
6
7 women (Costa, 1982) and a marked progression in periodontitis affectation that parallels
8
9 indicators of increasing age-at-death was reported (Kerr, 1989, 1991, 1998b). If this is so
10
11 then, where all age groups and both sexes are combined together, it is implicitly assumed that
12
13 they have an equal chance of being recorded, in all assemblages studied. This is not the case
14
15 for most archaeological collections, which often have fewer than expected female skeletons
16
17 (see discussion in Waldron, 1994, p 23), perhaps due to a preference in burial, or to
18
19 taphonomic factors. Furthermore, an examination of statistical tables in the United Nations
20
21 Demographic Yearbooks (available online at
22
23 <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/dyb/dyb2.htm>) shows that the sexes are
24
25 never evenly distributed by age in death assemblages – there tend to be more girls than boys
26
27 in the infant age group, fewer girls/women throughout most of child- and adulthood, and more
28
29 women in the oldest age groups. Besides, most archaeological studies of periodontal disease
30
31 have calculated periodontal disease rates from the total number of sites without distinguishing
32
33 between different regions of the dentition. Those studies that have made this distinction
34
35 (Clarke et al., 1986; Kerr, 1989, 1991, 1998a,b) report marked contrasts between different
36
37 sites. If this is so then, where all sites are combined together, it is implicitly assumed that all
38
39 sites throughout the jaw have an equal chance of being recorded, in all assemblages studied.
40
41 This is not the case for most archaeological or museum collections. Periodontal disease
42
43 particularly affects the molars, and it is quite often to find mandibles which anterior teeth are
44
45 still present whereas the posterior teeth are not. This pattern strongly suggests that periodontal
46
47 disease had a major part in the loss of the teeth but it must be kept in mind that dental caries is
48
49 also common in populations with periodontal disease, and molars are particularly affected by
50
51 it, so that teeth may have been extracted for this reason (Hillson, 2000). Besides, teeth may
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 also be lost, in heavy wear rate groups, through the processes of fracturing and rapid
4
5 continuous eruption. For all these reasons, the assumptions made in archaeological studies are
6
7 likely to have a profound influence on periodontal disease rates.
8
9

10 In light of these issues, the aim of this study is to compare periodontal data derived from
11
12 skeletal samples with statistics compiled from epidemiological studies to determine if factors
13
14 such as age-at-death, sex and tooth type are essential or not to account for in future
15
16 archaeological studies of periodontitis.
17
18

19 To test for this, it is necessary to isolate, as far as possible, the different factors. Such a
20
21 test requires a collection of dentitions from a death assemblage that represents a well-defined
22
23 group of people who lived under conditions that differ little from those of living people,
24
25 particularly in not being subjected to the very rapid wear, which characterizes most
26
27 archaeological collections that antedate the early years of the 19th century. To be directly
28
29 comparable to the demographic characteristics of a clinical study, ages-at-death and sex need
30
31 to be known independently from the skeletal remains themselves. This is especially important
32
33 for age-at-death since age is extremely difficult to estimate reliably in older adult skeletons. In
34
35 addition, there should be a relatively even spread of age groups across the full range of adult
36
37 life. Such collections are rare, but one exists in the Coimbra Identified Osteological
38
39 Collections of the Museum of Anthropology at the University of Coimbra in Portugal. These
40
41 collections encompass around 2,000 skulls and dentitions of people from Portugal, who were
42
43 mostly of low socioeconomic status and who died during the late 19th and early 20th centuries
44
45 (Cunha and Wasterlain, 2007). These individuals represent a well-defined group of people
46
47 who lived under conditions that differed little from those experienced by people living today,
48
49 particularly in not being subjected to the very rapid wear, which characterizes most
50
51 archaeological collections that antedate the early years of the 19th century. This places them at
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 a point temporally intermediate between the large clinical studies of the 20th century and
4
5 archaeological collections that antedate the 19th century.
6
7

8 Given that there is detailed and independent information about the individuals belonging
9
10 to Coimbra collections, very specific questions can be posed:
11

- 12 1. Does the Coimbra collection display a pattern of susceptibility for periodontal disease
13 among different teeth and sites within the mouth similar to that found by
14
15 epidemiological studies among the living?
16
17
- 18 2. Is the Coimbra collection marked by a progression in periodontal disease prevalence
19
20 similar to that found in modern clinical studies?
21
22
- 23 3. Does the Coimbra collection exhibit differences between males and females in the
24
25 age-related progression of periodontal disease and do these vary between age groups
26
27 in a fashion similar to that documented by epidemiological studies among living
28
29 people?
30
31
32
33
34
35

36 MATERIALS AND METHODS

37 38 The Coimbra Identified Osteological Collections

39
40
41 The sample evaluated for this analysis comes from the Coimbra Identified Osteological
42
43 Collections, curated by the Museum of Anthropology of the University of Coimbra (MAUC).
44
45 There are three osteological collections at the MAUC that make up the Coimbra Identified
46
47 Osteological Collections. These include the Medical School (MS, 585 skulls), the
48
49 International Exchange (IE, 1075 skulls) and the Identified Skeletal (IS, 505 skeletons)
50
51 collections. The skulls belonging to the Medical School collection were acquired from the
52
53 Schools of Medicine in Lisbon and Porto and also from the Anatomical Theatre of the
54
55 University of Coimbra, whereas skeletal material from both International Exchange and
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 Identified Skeletal collections was recovered from the “Cemitério Municipal da Conchada” in
4
5 Coimbra.
6

7
8 In Portuguese cemeteries it is common practice to perform exhumations after a period of
9
10 five years. The bones are then required to be transferred for deposition in an ossuary.
11
12 However, if relatives do not claim the remains following exhumation or cease payment of
13
14 ossuary fees the remains are either placed in a communal grave or cremated. It was at that
15
16 time that Coimbra University intervened and asked to house the remains for research purposes
17
18 (Cunha and Wasterlain, 2007).
19
20
21

22 Individuals in the MS, IE and IS collections died between the years 1895-1903, 1904-
23
24 1938 and 1904-1938, respectively. As these were fully identified individuals, detailed
25
26 information about each, namely birthplace, sex and age at death, year and place of death,
27
28 illness or cause of death, and occupation, amongst others, is compiled in a Record Book.
29
30 These records make clear the low socioeconomic status of most individuals in the collections.
31
32 According to these records, the women were almost exclusively engaged as housewives
33
34 whereas men were employed mainly as rural workers and artisans. Furthermore, the
35
36 provenance of their bodies can also be considered a sign of their low socioeconomic status,
37
38 for in most cases their families could not afford adequate burials (Cunha and Wasterlain,
39
40 2007).
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49

50 **The Sample**

51 Since previous studies (Kerr, 1989, 1998a,b; Oztunc et al., 2006) have suggested an
52
53 increase in the frequency of periodontal disease in adults with advancing age, it was important
54
55 to analyze individuals by age group. Therefore, 600 specimens were randomly selected in
56
57 order to have six age groups (age group 1: 20-29 yrs; age group 2: 30-39 yrs; age group 3: 40-
58
59 49 yrs; age group 4: 50-59 yrs; age group 5: 60-69 yrs; and age group 6: 70-79 yrs) composed
60

1
2
3 of 100 individuals, with 50 males and 50 females in each. Non-adults were deliberately
4
5 excluded from the study due to insufficient number of children and juveniles in the
6
7 collections. The selected individuals died in central Portugal between 1896 and 1938. Ideally
8
9 it would be known if these individuals had life-long, or at least long-term, residence in the
10
11 same geographic region, but this information was not available. It is known, however, that all
12
13 of the selected individuals had been born and had died in the centre of Portugal.
14
15

16
17 The dental collection analyzed in this research (9,562 permanent teeth and 17,997
18
19 interdental septal areas) is one of the largest and best preserved anywhere. This is important
20
21 because low numbers of individuals/septal areas could easily result in false high or low values
22
23 for periodontitis statistics.
24
25
26
27
28

29 **Dental examination**

30
31 Initially, teeth were examined for presence, post-mortem absence, ante-mortem
32
33 absence, partial eruption, anomalous eruption, or no eruption (as a result of young age,
34
35 impaction or agenesis). The assessment of which teeth had been lost before death and which
36
37 after death was done by considering the condition of the socket margins. It was assumed that
38
39 a tooth had been lost post-mortem if there was an empty alveolus with no sign of remodelling.
40
41 Ante-mortem tooth loss was assumed when there was at least a trace of remodelling in the
42
43 socket or alveolar process. Third molars were only recorded as lost ante-mortem when they
44
45 had left distinct traces of proximal wear on the distal surface of the adjacent second molar. All
46
47 retained roots were recorded as remaining teeth. In all, 19,188 tooth positions and 9,562
48
49 permanent teeth were analyzed.
50
51
52
53

54
55 Occlusal attrition levels were recorded for each tooth using the Smith (1984) system while
56
57 approximal attrition scores were registered according to Hillson (2001). In this paper the
58
59
60

1
2
3 phrase “tooth type” is used to refer to a specific tooth in the dentition regardless of side (e.g.,
4
5 mandibular first molars) rather than to an entire class of tooth (e.g., molars).
6
7
8
9

10 **Recording periodontal disease**

11
12 Several methods have been used to assess the frequency of periodontal disease in past
13
14 populations. Traditionally, periodontitis has been assessed only by measuring the distance
15
16 between the cemento-enamel junction (CEJ) of the tooth and the crest of the alveolar bone
17
18 (*alveolar crest* or AC is formed where the buccal and lingual plates come together with the
19
20 alveolar bone at the tops of the sockets (Kingsmill, 1991; Lavigne and Molto, 1995). This
21
22 linear measurement, however, overestimates the frequency of periodontitis because it ignores
23
24 the continuous eruption of teeth (above). As a result, the only way to diagnose the modern
25
26 human pattern of periodontal disease for certain is to find the crater-like loss of alveolar bone
27
28 before further remodelling has taken place (Hillson, 2005).
29
30
31
32
33

34 In an attempt to isolate bone loss specifically due to periodontal disease, Kerr (1988)
35
36 developed a scoring system based only on the interdental walls of the alveolar process (see
37
38 Table 1). This method assesses two aspects of septal change, form and texture. A good
39
40 histological correlation between the condition of crestal alveolar bone in modern clinically
41
42 diagnosed periodontal disease situations and that of the textural and architectural variations of
43
44 interproximal bone crest seen in archaeological skeletal material was demonstrated by Kerr
45
46 (1988). According to Kerr’s (1989, 1998a) interpretation, each score of his scheme is related
47
48 to the progress of periodontal disease: Category 1 is considered to represent a “healthy” state;
49
50 Category 2 indicates “gingivitis”; and Categories 3, 4 and 5 suggest “periodontitis”. More
51
52 specifically, Category 3 is thought to be representative of an acute burst of periodontitis;
53
54 Category 4 is considered to be a previously acute periodontitis that has reverted to a quiescent
55
56 phase; and, Category 5 is equivalent to a more aggressive periodontitis in either an acute or
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 quiescent phase (see photos of the grades in Kerr, 1988, p 70, 72). By using this method, it is
4 possible to record periodontal disease frequency more precisely in past populations and make
5 direct comparisons with epidemiological studies on modern populations. Since at the present
6 time, Kerr's scheme is the most practical method for recording periodontal disease, it is
7 adopted in the present study.
8
9

10
11 All septa were examined under standardized lighting conditions by careful visual
12 inspection, with the aid of a low-power microscope. When possible, teeth were removed from
13 the alveolus for better evaluation.
14

15
16 Prior to commencement of the main study, several calibration exercises were carried out
17 to ensure that diagnostic criteria were precisely defined and a high level of reproducibility
18 achieved. Data were collected by one observer (SW). Every two weeks, checks for intra-
19 examiner variability were made by repetition of the first individual recording made during
20 that time period. In all, 22 repeats were involved in this intra-observer assessment. The kappa
21 statistics on intra-examiner consistency in the diagnosis of periodontal disease was 0.95.
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37

38 RESULTS

39 Missing teeth

40
41 The percentages of teeth present, ante-mortem tooth losses, post-mortem tooth losses or
42 fractures, and those with eruption related problems (with sides pooled) by age group are
43 provided in Table S-1.
44
45
46
47
48
49

50
51 In all, 19,188 sockets were analysed. The tooth and sockets could be observed (i.e. wear
52 could be recorded) in 9,562 (49.8%) cases, the socket was visible and recordable but not the
53 tooth (due to post-mortem losses or fractures) in 2,314 (12.1%) cases, and the tooth was lost
54 ante-mortem in 7,131 (37.2%) cases.
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 The number of teeth present decreased with age, particularly in the posterior region, as
4 ante-mortem tooth loss (AMTL) increased. In fact, AMTL increased steadily from 4.6% in
5 the 20-29 yr group to 73.2% in the 70-79 yr group. Loss of molars was especially marked
6 from 60 years of age onwards. In the oldest age group, the great majority of cheek teeth were
7 missing. Canines were the least frequently missing teeth as age progressed.

8
9
10 Post-mortem tooth loss was higher between 20 and 49 years-of age whereas tooth damage
11 was broadly similar in all age groups. Molars were lost post-mortem less often than incisors
12 or canines. In general, premolars exhibited intermediate levels of both types of tooth loss.

23 24 25 **Dental wear**

26
27 Figures 1 and 2 show how occlusal wear varies with age across the mouth, in males and
28 females, respectively (for more details see Tables S-2 and S-3, which show the frequency of
29 each occlusal attrition grade of the Smith (1984) system by tooth type and age group among
30 males and females, respectively). Overall, this sample was characterized by relatively slight
31 occlusal attrition levels: 49.0% of the surfaces were recorded with grade 2. Wear grades less
32 than 4 were the most common levels in young adults, declining with age, particularly from the
33 age of 50 years in males and 60 years in females onwards. Wear grade 8 was extremely rare in
34 all age groups and was not found in any individual before the age-group of 40-49 years.
35 Overall, anterior teeth were more severely worn than posterior teeth.

36
37
38 With respect to approximal attrition, 94.4% of the surfaces were recorded with grade 1 of
39 the Hillson (2001) method, which corresponds to approximal attrition facet confined to the
40 enamel.

41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 **Periodontal status**

1
2
3 Table 2 indicates the number of individuals in each age-group and sex, the number of
4 interspaces examined, the number of damaged septal areas that were un-recordable (Category
5 0), and the number of septal areas designated to Categories 1-5.
6
7

8
9
10 In all, 17,997 interdental septal areas were analyzed. The percentage of damaged septal
11 areas (Category 0) was 47.8% (8,597/17,997), meaning that 9,400 septal areas were recorded.
12
13 The main reason was ante-mortem tooth loss, particularly of the molar teeth. It should be kept
14
15 in mind that the loss of one tooth ante-mortem accounted for the loss of two recordable septal
16
17 areas. Besides, post-mortem damage of the delicate alveolar bone, particularly in the incisor
18
19 region, also accounted, although in a lesser extent, to the reduction of the number of
20
21 recordable septal areas.
22
23
24
25

26
27 Table 3 records the number of individuals with at least 15 recordable septal areas and
28 shows the number and percentage of individuals with healthy septa (Category 1), gingivitis
29 (Category 2), periodontitis (Categories 3, 4 and 5 pooled together), those with minimal
30
31 destructive lesions (i.e. 1-2 sites as Categories 3, 4 or 5), and those with extensive destructive
32
33 lesions (i.e. more than 50% of septa as Categories 3, 4 or 5). No individual had all septal areas
34
35 healthy. Twenty five percent of the men and 27.5% of the women were scored with only
36
37 gingivitis. Most individuals in the present sample were scored with periodontitis, more
38
39 specifically 74.9% of the men and 72.5% of the women. However, only 6.0% of males and
40
41 3.8% of females already had extensive destructive lesions. More females (33.8%) than males
42
43 (26.2%) had only minimal destructive lesions.
44
45
46
47
48
49

50
51 Among individuals between 20 and 29 years-of-age, about 44% of the men had septal
52 areas scored as having gingivitis and although 56% presented sites scored with periodontitis,
53
54 no male had extensive destructive lesions. After about 30 years-of-age the number of males
55
56 with gingivitis dropped significantly while the percentage of men with periodontitis rose, but
57
58 again no individual was recorded as having extensive destructive lesions.
59
60

1
2
3 With respect to females, before the age of 30 years, 42% had septal areas scored as having
4 gingivitis and 58% had sites with periodontitis. After 30 years-of-age the percentage of
5 females presenting gingivitis fell progressively as the proportion with periodontitis rose. No
6 females over 70 years-of-age had extensive destructive lesions. Instead, 71% had only
7 minimal extensive lesions.
8
9

10
11
12 Since periodontal disease does not consistently occur on every tooth surface of all the
13 teeth within a dentition, Table 4 shows the type of periodontal involvement with respect to
14 sites (not individuals). Table 4 presents the number and percentage of categories 1 to 5 in the
15 six age groups of each sex. Categories 3, 4 and 5 were also grouped as one entity which
16 corresponds to more destructive changes.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26

27 The healthy state was recorded in 26% of all analyzed sites. In the younger age group,
28 about 39% of male sites and 43% of female areas were scored as healthy, whereas in the older
29 individuals only 14% of the male septa and 16% of the female sites were healthy.
30
31
32
33

34 Gingivitis was most common in all age groups and both sexes, affecting 60% of the 9,400
35 recordable sites. In males, septal areas with gingivitis increased from 53% in the youngest age
36 group to 76% in the oldest, whereas in females this rise was from 50% to 69%.
37
38
39
40

41 For all age groups and both sexes, acute bursts of periodontitis were the most common
42 conditions, attributed to 10% of all recordable sites. More aggressive periodontitis was rare,
43 numbering only 2% of septal areas. When men between the ages of 50 and 59 years (the most
44 affected by periodontal disease) were considered, approximately 17% of the septal areas were
45 graded as having acute bursts of periodontitis, 4% were scored as quiescent phase of
46 periodontitis and 5% were attributed to more aggressive periodontitis. By contrast, when
47 women between the ages of 70 and 79 years (the most affected by periodontal disease) were
48 considered, about 22% of the sites were graded as acute bursts of periodontitis, 3% as
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 quiescent phases of periodontitis and 1 % as more aggressive periodontitis. Overall, about 70-
4
5 80% of the sites with periodontitis would appear to have been active at the time of death.
6
7

8 More destructive changes were recorded in 14.2% of all analysed areas. In males, septal
9
10 areas scored with more destructive changes increased slowly from 8% in the youngest group
11
12 to 26% in the 50-59 year-old group. Thereafter, the frequency slowly decreased to around
13
14 11% in the oldest group. In women, sites scored with more destructive changes also increased
15
16 slowly, but this time until the 60-69 year-old group, where 27% of the sites were scored this
17
18 way. In the oldest females, 15% of the septa were scored with more destructive changes.
19
20
21

22 Highly significant differences were found between the percentages of sites scored healthy,
23
24 with gingivitis and with more destructive lesions in the different age groups, both among
25
26 males ($\chi^2 = 357.392$, d.f. = 10, $p = 0.000$) and females ($\chi^2 = 314.454$, d.f. = 10, $p = 0.000$).
27
28

29 Men had fewer areas scored as healthy (24.1%) than women (27.5%) and more sites
30
31 scored as having gingivitis (61.1%) and more destructive lesions (14.7%) than the opposite
32
33 sex (58.9% and 13.6%, respectively). These differences between men and women were
34
35 statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 14.378$, d.f. = 2, $p = 0.001$).
36
37
38

39 Table 5 records the distribution of the five categories of periodontal health and disease in
40
41 the maxilla and mandible according to sex. In both sexes, there was a statistically significant
42
43 trend towards more maxillary than mandibular lesions (men: $\chi^2 = 11.525$, d.f. = 2, $p = 0.003$;
44
45 women: $\chi^2 = 37.127$, d.f. = 2, $p = 0,000$). By contrast, within jaws the distribution of lesions
46
47 of the right and left side of the arch is similar.
48
49

50 Figures 3 and 4 record the percentage of periodontitis episodes by septal area in each age
51
52 group, in males and females, respectively. It is worthwhile to note that, in both sexes, anterior
53
54 lower septal areas were more frequently susceptible to periodontal breakdown than the upper
55
56 interspaces. In males, the most susceptible site to periodontal breakdown was the maxillary
57
58 second premolar/first molar septal area with 32% of areas showing periodontitis lesions. The
59
60

1
2
3 least affected areas were the maxillary central/lateral incisors septal areas (4%). In women,
4
5 the maxillary first/second molar septal area was the most susceptible site to periodontitis
6
7 (33%). The least affected area was the maxillary central incisors inter-space (3%).
8
9

10
11 No episodes of periodontitis were recorded in the maxillary inter-incisor septal areas in
12
13 the younger men (20-29 years). Generally, each maxillary and mandibular septal area showed
14
15 an increased frequency of periodontitis with age, until the 50-59 year-old group. Between the
16
17 ages of 60 and 69 years the number of involved septal areas fell, increasing again in the oldest
18
19 age group, particularly at the maxillary posterior region. The enormous susceptibility of the
20
21 inter-molar and premolar/molar septal areas is conspicuous in all male age groups. In the
22
23 oldest males, all recordable upper second/third molars showed destructive changes
24
25 attributable to periodontitis.
26
27

28
29 In opposition to men, even in the youngest women, all septal areas were already affected
30
31 by periodontitis. The least prone area to periodontal destruction was the lateral incisor/canine
32
33 (only 1%). As in men, each septal area showed an increased frequency of periodontal
34
35 breakdown with age, until the 50-59 yr group. In this age group, the upper first/second molar
36
37 and second premolar/first molar septal areas were the most susceptible to periodontitis, with
38
39 54% and 50% of areas presenting lesions, respectively. The least prone area for destruction
40
41 was the lower central/lateral incisor. A decline in the number of involved septal areas was
42
43 also observed between the ages of 60 and 69 years. In the oldest women, the maxillary
44
45 second/third molar septal area presented the higher percentage of periodontitis lesions of all
46
47 age groups (67%).
48
49
50
51

52
53 Because periodontal disease declines with age, it was decided to compare these results
54
55 with AMTL data to investigate if there was any relationship between both conditions. Figures
56
57 5 and 6 compare the pattern of AMTL across the mouth with that of periodontal disease in
58
59 each age group, in males and females, respectively. Not surprisingly, for both sexes, as
60

1
2
3 AMTL increases periodontitis prevalence declines, especially in the posterior region of the
4
5 mouth.
6
7
8
9

10 DISCUSSION

11
12 Periodontal disease is frequently analysed as part of bioarchaeological and
13
14 paleopathological investigations of the skeletal remains of past populations (DeWitte and
15
16 Bekvalac, 2010). Many anthropologists are interested in periodontal disease *per se* and how it
17
18 might reflect more general levels of health. Epidemiological studies of living people have
19
20 identified a strong pattern of susceptibility for different teeth and sites within the mouth
21
22 (Ånerud et al., 1983; Baelum et al., 1988). These studies also identify sex differences in
23
24 periodontitis prevalence, usually with higher periodontitis rates in men, as well as a strong
25
26 progression with age (Baelum et al., 1988). Despite these findings, archaeological studies
27
28 frequently fail to consider factors such as age-at-death and sex when reporting periodontitis in
29
30 past populations. In this context, the focus of this article is the comparison of periodontal data
31
32 derived from the Coimbra osteological collections with statistics compiled from
33
34 epidemiological studies to determine if factors such as age-at-death, sex and tooth type are
35
36 essential or not to account for in future archaeological studies of periodontitis. Such
37
38 comparisons permit the following questions to be addressed: 1) Is it possible to identify a
39
40 pattern of susceptibility for different teeth and sites within the mouth similar to that found by
41
42 epidemiological studies?; 2) Is there a progression of periodontal disease with age as that
43
44 found in modern epidemiological studies?; 3) Are there differences between males and
45
46 females in the age-related progression of periodontal disease and do these vary between
47
48 different age groups?
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56

57 Considering the aims of this study, it was necessary to choose adequate clinical studies of
58
59 periodontitis in adults for comparative purposes (Marshall-Day et al., 1955; Sheiham, 1969;
60

1
2
3 Løe et al., 1978, 1986; Ånerud et al., 1983; Pilot et al., 1986; Baelum et al., 1986, 1988). It
4
5 would be very interesting to compare the figures presented here with periodontal disease
6
7 distribution in modern Portugal. Unfortunately, this will have to wait until there are
8
9 Portuguese epidemiological studies that follow periodontal disease throughout life.
10
11

12
13 Overall, the frequency of periodontitis within the Coimbra collections is 73.8%. In order
14
15 to try to understand this relatively high frequency, the aetiological factors of periodontitis
16
17 must be considered. Some studies support the view that periodontitis is more related to age,
18
19 tooth wear and local immunological factors and has no correlation with carbohydrate-rich
20
21 diets (Gaengler, 1995). On the contrary, periodontitis may be associated with high-protein/fat
22
23 diets (Costa, 1982). Other studies suggest that hard food decreases and soft diet increases the
24
25 incidence of periodontitis (Shaw, 1962).
26
27
28

29
30 The daily diet consumed in central Portugal at the beginning of the twentieth century was
31
32 very simple and relatively soft, consisting of bread made of maize, green and dry vegetables
33
34 eaten as soups and broths accompanied by potatoes (Roque, 1982). Additionally, a small (but
35
36 not daily) intake of fish (usually sardine and salted codfish), bacon and olive oil could
37
38 supplement the overall diet (Bocquet-Appel and Morais, 1987). Accordingly, the Coimbra's
39
40 group of dentitions was characterized by relatively slight occlusal and approximal attrition
41
42 levels. In opposition to most archaeological groups, there was no clear gradient between the
43
44 molars. This may be explained by very slow wear rates. Despite the relatively slight wear
45
46 levels, anterior teeth were more severely worn than posterior teeth. Consequently, the
47
48 previous idea that these dentitions were not subjected to the very rapid wear, which
49
50 characterizes most archaeological collections that antedate the early years of the 19th century,
51
52 was corroborated in this research. Therefore, it is perhaps not surprising to find relatively high
53
54 frequencies of periodontitis in the Coimbra sample given such a soft, non abrasive diet and
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 considering that oral hygiene and dental care in 19th-20th centuries Portugal were rudimentary
4
5 at best (Boléo, 1965; Capelas and Pereira, 1976).
6
7

8 Regarding epidemiological studies, there is a considerable variability between different
9
10 populations. For instances, Pilot et al. (1986) present the results of 28 CPITN (Community
11
12 Periodontal Index of Treatment Needs) surveys in 24 countries for individuals between 35-44
13
14 years-of-age. In their study, the percentage of persons who have as highest score shallow
15
16 pockets or deep pockets ranges between 4% for Zimbabwe and 100% for Burkina Faso. For
17
18 Portugal, the percentage presented in this overview is 46%. According to Pilot et al. (1986),
19
20 however, evaluation and discussion of these data calls for caution because not only were the
21
22 surveys carried out by different investigators under varying field conditions, but the sampling
23
24 methods also differed considerably. Here, the need of a universally accepted assessment
25
26 method for the periodontal status of living patients stands out.
27
28
29
30

31 In the Coimbra collections, despite bilateral symmetry within jaws, there was a
32
33 statistically significant trend towards more maxillary than mandibular periodontal lesions.
34
35 Men were more susceptible to periodontal disease than women. Not only did men have less
36
37 healthy areas than women, but they also showed more sites with gingivitis and periodontitis
38
39 than their female counterparts. In males, the most susceptible site to periodontal breakdown
40
41 was the maxillary second premolar/first molar septal area, and the least affected areas were
42
43 the maxillary central/lateral incisors septal areas. In women, the maxillary first/second molar
44
45 septal area was the most susceptible site to periodontitis, and the least affected area was the
46
47 maxillary central incisors inter-space.
48
49
50
51

52 A strong pattern of susceptibility for different teeth and sites within the mouth has been
53
54 also identified by several studies of living people conducted throughout the world on a variety
55
56 of populations (Ånerud et al., 1983; Baelum et al., 1988). Besides, many of these studies
57
58 identify sex differences in periodontitis prevalence, usually with higher periodontitis rates in
59
60

1
2
3 men (Baelum et al., 1988), although some studies do not distinguish between men and
4
5 women.
6

7
8 In the present study, no individual was recorded as having an entirely healthy
9
10 periodontium. Gingivitis was widespread in the younger age groups. Destructive periodontitis
11
12 was observed early in adulthood, rising steadily with age. Besides, there were highly
13
14 significant differences between the percentages of sites scored healthy, with gingivitis and
15
16 with more destructive lesions in the different age groups, both in males and females.
17
18

19
20 Although these results are in general agreement with previous epidemiological studies of
21
22 the living (Marshall-Day et al., 1955; Sheiham, 1969; L oe et al., 1978, 1986) supporting the
23
24 view that the prevalence of periodontitis increases with age, it was necessary to find
25
26 comparative studies of adults of all ages, divided into age groups, and reporting periodontal
27
28 disease separately for the two sexes and different teeth, in order to address the more specific
29
30 questions posed above. Relatively few studies fit these criteria.
31
32

33
34 Baelum et al. (1988) studied a full range of adult ages in a sample of 1,131 living people
35
36 examined during 1985/6 in rural Kenya. They were divided into five age groups (ten years in
37
38 each), starting with 15 years and ending with 65 years. This makes a good comparison with
39
40 the present study because the data were plotted separately for different teeth and different
41
42 sexes and ages. In addition, as with the people in the Coimbra collection, the Kenyan patients
43
44 lived in an area with limited access to dental care. In Baelum et al.'s study, each person was
45
46 examined for mobility of each tooth present and for dental plaque, calculus, gingival bleeding,
47
48 loss of periodontal attachment and pocket depth on the mesial, buccal, distal and lingual
49
50 surfaces of the teeth. Information on the pattern of ante mortem tooth loss in this population is
51
52 given in separate papers (Manji et al., 1988, 1989).
53
54
55

56
57 In Baelum et al.'s (1988) study, Kenyan men had a significantly higher proportion of
58
59 surfaces with loss of attachment than women. The extent of periodontal breakdown varied
60

1
2
3 within the mouth so that certain teeth and sites showed more advanced loss of attachment than
4
5 others. Irrespective of age and type of surface, first molars were consistently the teeth most
6
7 affected by loss of attachment. This appears to be very much in keeping with the findings of
8
9 the Coimbra survey, where the most susceptible sites were the maxillary second premolar/first
10
11 molar area for men and the first/second molar area for women.
12
13

14
15 There was also a clear trend with age in Kenya. Loss of attachment affected 5-10% of the
16
17 surfaces in the 15-24 year olds and 75-85% of the surfaces in the oldest age group. Although
18
19 the increase in the frequency of destructive periodontitis with age resembles that observed in
20
21 the Coimbra study, it differs in the proportion of affected sites in the older age groups, which
22
23 was found to be much higher than that seen in Coimbra. This difference may be a biased
24
25 result, explained by the severe ante-mortem loss of the previously affected teeth in the
26
27 Coimbra population. In fact, in the present study, the proportion of teeth missing ante-mortem
28
29 at each potential tooth position in the dentition rose much more sharply with age than in the
30
31 Kenya study (Manji et al., 1988, 1989). As it can be seen in Figures 5 and 6, in age group 5
32
33 (60-69 year), approximately 80% of Coimbra molars were missing ante-mortem, whereas
34
35 some 40% of the Kenya molars in the 55-64 year age group were missing. Moreover, in the
36
37 Kenyans' oldest age group, more than 50% of the individuals had at least 26 remaining teeth
38
39 and 90% had at least 16 remaining teeth. For Coimbra, as the surviving teeth decreased in
40
41 number, the proportion of sites affected by periodontal breakdown fell more sharply in the
42
43 older age groups than was the case for Kenya, although the effect is emphasized by the
44
45 inclusion of an older 70-79 year age group 6 for Coimbra. On the other hand, the Coimbra
46
47 study is much more in accordance with the overview of CPITN (Community Periodontal
48
49 Index of Treatment Needs) data in the WHO Global Oral Data Bank (Pilot et al., 1986),
50
51 which indicated that the prevalence of periodontitis was of a "notable magnitude" but the
52
53 progress of the disease state was slow. As already noted by other authors (Oztunc et al.,
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 2006), although age is associated with an increasing prevalence of periodontal disease, it is
4
5 still unknown whether periodontal tissues become more susceptible to breakdown with
6
7 increasing age, or whether the breakdown is related to an increasing exposure to risk factors
8
9 rather than age *per se*.
10
11

12 Of particular interest in Baelum et al.'s finding that a small, but increasing minority of
13
14 individuals was responsible for the major part of the loss of attachments observed. They also
15
16 reported that it was possible to have massive microbial accumulation along the marginal
17
18 periodontium for a period of 20 years (6 to 25 years) without there being any significant sign
19
20 of irreversible breakdown except at a few sites in a minority of subjects. In a previous study
21
22 of an adult Tanzanian population of limited size, Baelum et al. (1986) had already shown that
23
24 a relatively minor fraction of the population accounted for the majority of periodontal
25
26 breakdown despite very poor oral hygiene in all individuals. Similarly, Löe et al. (1978, 1986)
27
28 in their study on Sri Lankan male laborers, based on interproximal loss of attachment, were
29
30 able to identify three groups of individuals, a small group (approximately 8%) with rapidly
31
32 progressive disease, a large group (around 81%) with moderately progressive disease, and
33
34 another small group (approximately 11%) with virtually no disease progression beyond
35
36 gingivitis. A similar pattern has been found in some archaeological studies. In the Mycenaean
37
38 (1450-1150 BC) population of Aghia Triada (Greece), for example, Tsilivakos et al. (2002)
39
40 found that a small subset of the analyzed sample, approximately 10%, demonstrated a profile
41
42 of generalized destructive periodontitis, and that another larger subset (25%) seemed to be
43
44 resistant to the disease. A comparable ratio was obtained by Kingsmill (1991) for the 18th
45
46 century Spitalfields population. In the Coimbra study, the figures presented in Table 3 suggest
47
48 a comparable pattern of disease distribution. For instance, in the 50 to 59 year age group,
49
50 where more than 90% of the individuals were affected by periodontitis, four (8.5%)
51
52 individuals did not show any signs of the disease (no disease progression) and six (12.8%)
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 individuals had at least half of their septa with destructive periodontitis lesions. One woman
4
5 in this age group had 18 out of 21 recordable septa with destructive periodontitis lesions,
6
7 suggesting a particularly high susceptibility to the disease.
8
9

10 The present study distinguished between septal interspaces that were active and septal
11
12 areas that were quiescent at the time of death, and suggested that around 70-80% may have
13
14 been active. However, this figure should be accepted with caution as it might possibly reflect
15
16 the relationship between poor health and periodontal disease, as a death assemblage is likely
17
18 to contain individuals with a poorer record of health than the living populations as a whole
19
20 (Wood et al., 1992).
21
22
23

24 It is now possible to address the research questions posed above. There is a considerable
25
26 variation in reported frequencies of periodontitis in clinical reports, which might result from
27
28 variation in methods for identifying the pathology, differences in the age composition of the
29
30 samples examined, variation in oral hygiene and/or diet, or some other factors (Kerr, 1991;
31
32 Oztunc et al., 2006; DeWitte and Bekvalac, 2010). Future work might fruitfully establish a
33
34 universal accepted assessment method for the periodontal status of both archaeological
35
36 material and living patients.
37
38
39

40
41 Regarding epidemiological studies, the results of the Coimbra study are consistent with
42
43 the most appropriate study available for periodontal disease in living adults, conducted some
44
45 60-80 years after the Coimbra people died, with respect to the pattern of periodontal disease
46
47 around the dentition, sexual differences in periodontitis frequencies, and age-related
48
49 progression of this disease. At the present time, however, it is unknown whether periodontal
50
51 tissues become more susceptible to breakdown with increasing age, or whether the breakdown
52
53 is related to an increasing exposure to risk factors rather than age *per se*. Nevertheless, these
54
55 results make clear the importance of considering sex, age, dental wear, ante-mortem tooth
56
57 loss, and oral distribution of periodontitis in future archaeological studies. Only equally
58
59
60

1
2
3 detailed archaeological studies will allow proper comparisons, namely to test whether
4
5 periodontal disease in populations experiencing high wear rates are distinctively different
6
7
8 from the “modern” pattern presented here.
9

10 11 12 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

13
14
15 The authors would like to thank the Museum of Anthropology of the University of
16
17 Coimbra for permission to study the identified osteological collections. The authors also
18
19 acknowledge the Editor-in-Chief of the journal, the Associate Editor and the anonymous
20
21 reviewers whose valuable comments and suggestions allowed us to improve the manuscript.
22
23
24
25
26

27 **LITERATURE CITED**

- 28
29 American Academy of Periodontology. 2003. Diagnosis of periodontal diseases (position
30
31 paper). *J Periodontol* 74: 1237-1247.
32
33
34 Ånerud KE, Robertson PB, Löe H, Ånerud Å, Boysen H, Patters MR. 1983. Periodontal
35
36 disease in three young adult populations. *J Periodontal Res* 18: 655-668.
37
38
39 Apsey DJ, Kaciroti N, Loesche WJ. 2006. The diagnosis of periodontal disease in private
40
41 practice. *J Periodontol* 77: 1572-1581. DOI: 10.1902/jop.2006.050449
42
43
44 Baelum V, Fejerskov O, Karring T. 1986. Oral hygiene, gingivitis and periodontal breakdown
45
46 in adult Tanzanians. *J Periodontal Res* 21: 221-232.
47
48
49 Baelum V, Fejerskov O, Manji F. 1988. Periodontal diseases in adult Kenyans. *J Clin*
50
51 *Periodontol* 15: 445-452.
52
53 Bocquet-Appel J-P, and Morais MHX. 1987. *Anthropologie et Histoire. Un essai de*
54
55 *reconstruction de la variation biologique de la population portugaise au XIXe siècle.* Paris:
56
57 *Fundação Calouste Gulbenkian.*
58
59
60

- 1
2
3 Boléo JP. 1965. A higiene da boca através dos tempos até à época presente. Separata de
4
5 Revista Portuguesa de Estomatologia e Cirurgia Maxilofacial nº 3 e 4.
6
7
8 Capelas M, and Pereira A. 1976. As escolas superiores de Medicina Dentária e a assistência
9
10 odonto-estomatológica em Portugal. Separata de O Médico nº 1305.
11
12
13 Clarke NG, Carey SE, Srikandi W, Hirsch RS, Leppard PI. 1986. Periodontal disease in ancient
14
15 populations. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 71: 173-183.
16
17
18 Costa RL. 1982. Periodontal disease in the prehistoric Ipiutak and Tigara remains from Point
19
20 Hope, Alaska. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 59: 97-110.
21
22
23 Cunha E, and Wasterlain S. 2007. The Coimbra identified osteological collections. In: Grupe
24
25 G, Peters J, editors. *Skeletal series and their socio-economic context. Documenta*
26
27 *Archaeobiologiae*, vol. 5. Verlag Marie Leidorf GmbH: Rahden/Westf.; 23-33.
28
29
30 DeWitte SN, Bekvalac J. 2010. Oral health and frailty in the Medieval English cemetery of St
31
32 Mary Graces. *Am J Phys Anthropol* 142: 341-354. DOI: 10.1002/ajpa.21228
33
34
35 Gaengler P. 1995. *Lehrbuch der konservierenden Zahnheilkunde*, Berlin: Ullstein Mosby.
36
37
38 Hillson S. 2000. Dental pathology. In: Katzenberg MA, Saunders SR, editors. *Biological*
39
40 *anthropology of the human skeleton*. New York: Alan R. Liss. p 249-286.
41
42
43 Hillson S. 2001. Recording dental caries in archaeological human remains. *Int J*
44
45 *Osteoarchaeol* 11: 249-289.
46
47
48 Hillson S. 2005. *Teeth*. Cambridge Manuals in Archaeology. 2nd edn. Cambridge: Cambridge
49
50 University Press.
51
52
53 Kerr NW. 1988. A method of assessing periodontal status in archaeologically derived skeletal
54
55 material. *J Paleopathol* 2(2): 67-78.
56
57
58 Kerr NW. 1989. The periodontal status of a Scottish Mediaeval cohort. *J Paleopathol* 2(3):
59
60 119-128.

- 1
2
3 Kerr NW. 1991. Prevalence and natural history of periodontal disease in Scotland – the
4
5 medieval period (900-1600 A.D.). *J Periodontal Res* 26: 346-354.
6
7
8 Kerr NW. 1998a. Prevalence and natural history of periodontal disease in prehistoric Scots
9
10 (pre-900 AD). *J Periodontal Res* 33: 131-137.
11
12
13 Kerr NW. 1998b. The prevalence and natural history of periodontal disease in Britain from
14
15 prehistoric to modern times. *Br Dent J* 185: 527-535.
16
17
18 Kingsmill V. 1991. Chronic periodontitis in an Eighteenth Century population. *Br Dent J* 170:
19
20 118-120.
21
22
23 Lavigne SE, and Molto JE. 1995. System of measurement of the severity of periodontal
24
25 disease in past populations. *Int J Osteoarchaeol* 5: 265-273.
26
27
28 Løe H, Anerud A, Boysen H, Smith M. 1978. The natural history of periodontal disease in
29
30 man. The rate of periodontal destruction before 40 years of age. *J Periodontol* 49: 607-
31
32 620.
33
34
35 Løe H, Anerud A, Boysen H, Morrison E. 1986. Natural history of periodontal disease in
36
37 man. Rapid, moderate and no loss of attachment in Sri Lankan labourers 14 to 46 years of
38
39 age. *J Clin Periodontol* 13: 431-445.
40
41
42 Manji F, Baelum V, Fejerskov O. 1988. Tooth mortality in an adult rural population in Kenya.
43
44 *J Dent Res* 67: 496-500.
45
46
47 Manji F, Fejerskov O, and Baelum V. 1989. Pattern of dental caries in an adult rural
48
49 population. *Caries Res* 23: 55-62.
50
51
52 Marshall-Day CD, Stephens RG, Quigley LF. 1955. Periodontal disease: prevalence and
53
54 incidence. *J Periodont* 26: 158-203.
55
56
57 Oztunc H, Yoldas O, Nalbantoglu E. 2006. The periodontal disease status of the historical
58
59 population of Assos. *Int J Osteoarchaeol* 16: 76-81. DOI: 10.1002/oa.805
60

- 1
2
3 Page RC, Eke PI. 2007. Case definitions for use in population-based surveillance of
4
5 periodontitis. *J Periodontol* 78: 1387-1399. DOI: 10.1902/jop.2007.060264
6
7
8 Pilot T, Barmes DE, Leclercq MH, McCombie BJ, Sardo IJ. 1986. Periodontal conditions in
9
10 adults 35-44 years of age: an overview of CPITN data in the WHO Global Oral Data
11
12 Bank. *Community Dent Oral Epidemiol* 14: 310-312.
13
14
15 Roque JL. 1982. Classes populares no Distrito de Coimbra no séc. XIX (1830-1870).
16
17 Contributo para o seu estudo. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Coimbra.
18
19
20 Shaw JH. 1962. The relation of nutrition to periodontal disease. *J Dent Res* 41: 264.
21
22 Sheiham A. 1969. The prevalence and severity of periodontal disease in British populations:
23
24 dental surveys of employed populations in Great Britain. *Brit Dent J* 126: 115-122.
25
26
27 Smith BH. 1984. Patterns of molar wear in hunter-gatherers and agriculturalists. *Am J Phys*
28
29 *Anthropol* 63: 39-56.
30
31
32 Soames JV, and Southam JC. 2005. *Oral pathology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
33
34 Tsilivakos MG, Manolis SK, Vikatou O, and Papagrigrakis MJ. 2002. Periodontal disease in
35
36 the Mycenaean (1450-1150 BC) population of Aghia Triada, W. Peloponnese, Greece.
37
38 *International Journal of Anthropology* 17: 91-100.
39
40
41 Waldron T. 1994. *Counting the dead: the epidemiology of skeletal populations*. Chichester:
42
43 John Wiley & Sons.
44
45
46 Williams DM, Hughes FJ, Odell EW, and Farthing PM. 1992. *Pathology of periodontal*
47
48 *disease*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
49
50
51 Wood JW, Milner GR, Harpending HC, Weiss KM. 1992. The osteological paradox:
52
53 problems of inferring health from skeletal samples. *Current Anthropology* 33: 343-370.
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

1
2
3 **Fig. 1.** Occlusal wear average and standard deviation rates for each tooth class (molars,
4 premolars, canines, and incisors) and age group, in males.
5
6
7
8
9

10 **Fig.2.** Occlusal wear average and standard deviation rates for each tooth class (molars,
11 premolars, canines, and incisors) and age group, in females.
12
13
14
15
16

17 **Fig. 3.** Percentages of periodontitis episodes (Categories 3, 4 and 5) by septal area in each age
18 group, in males. Upper septa are above the line and lower below.
19
20
21
22
23

24 **Fig. 4.** Percentages of periodontitis episodes (Categories 3, 4 and 5) by septal area in each age
25 group, in females. Upper septa are above the line and lower below.
26
27
28
29
30

31 **Fig. 5.** Periodontitis and ante-mortem tooth loss frequency rates for each tooth class (molars,
32 premolars, canines, and incisors) and age group, in males. Upper dentition is above the line
33 and lower below.
34
35
36
37
38
39

40 **Fig. 6.** Periodontitis and ante-mortem tooth loss frequency rates for each tooth class (molars,
41 premolars, canines, and incisors) and age group, in females. Upper dentition is above the line
42 and lower below.
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

TABLE 1. Description of the six category assessment of the interdental septal areas suggested by Kerr (1988: 69-71).

Category	Architectural and textural variations of the interdental septum
0	Un-recordable. Tooth on either side of the septum lost ante-mortem or the septum damaged post-mortem.
1	Septal form characteristic of its region (e.g. convex in the incisor region grading to flat in the molar region). The cortical surface smooth and virtually uninterrupted by foramina, depressions or grooves.
2	Septal form characteristic of the region. Cortical surface showing a range from many small foramina and/or shallow grooves to a cortical surface showing larger foramina and/or prominent grooves or ridges. In a few instances, there was gross disruption of the cortical layer, but a normal contour for the region.
3	Septal form showing a breakdown of contour with bone loss in the form of a shallow depression extending across the interspace from the buccal to lingual aspect, or as one or two smaller discrete areas of bone destruction, the essential distinguishing features being a sharp and ragged texture to bone defect.
4	Septal form showing breakdown of contour with bone loss similar to that seen in category 3, the essential difference being the bone surface, instead of being ragged in appearance, showed a porous or smooth honeycomb effect with all defects rounded.
5	Presence of a deep infra-bony defect with sides sloping at 45 degrees or more and with a depth of 3 mm or more. The defect is more likely to be mesio-distally but may be bucco-lingually inclined. The surface may be sharp and ragged or smooth and honeycombed.

TABLE 2. Number of individuals and number of interseptal areas available for assessment.

	Age group	Individuals	Septal areas available	Septal areas category 0		Septal areas categories 1 to 5	
		N	N	N	%	N	%
Males	1	50	1500	209	13.9	1291	86.2
	2	50	1500	332	22.1	1168	77.9
	3	50	1500	517	34.5	983	65.5
	4	50	1500	711	47.4	789	52.6
	5	50	1498	986	65.8	512	34.2
	6	50	1500	1263	84.2	237	15.8
Females	1	50	1500	216	14.4	1284	85.6
	2	50	1500	409	27.3	1091	72.7
	3	50	1499	578	38.6	921	61.4
	4	50	1500	952	63.5	548	36.5
	5	50	1500	1221	81.4	279	18.6
	6	50	1500	1203	80.2	297	19.8
Total		600	17997	8597	47.8	9400	52.2

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

TABLE 3. Periodontal health status by sex, by age and by categories.

Age groups	Individuals	Individuals with healthy septa (Cat. 1)	Individuals with gingivitis (Cat. 2)	Individuals with periodontitis (Cat. 3, 4 & 5)	Individuals with minimal destructive lesions	Individuals with extensive destructive lesions				
	N	N	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
20-29	45	0	20	44.4	25	55.6	11	24.4	0	0
30-39	47	0	10	21.3	37	78.7	16	34.0	2	4.3
40-49	41	0	9	22.0	32	78.0	9	22.0	4	9.8
50-59	31	0	3	9.7	28	90.3	3	9.7	5	16.1
60-69	15	0	4	26.7	11	73.3	8	53.3	0	0
70-79	4	0	0	0	4	100	1	25.0	0	0
Females										
20-29	48	0	20	41.7	28	58.3	18	37.5	1	2.1
30-39	43	0	16	37.2	27	62.8	12	27.9	1	2.3
40-49	39	0	7	17.9	32	82.1	14	35.9	2	5.1
50-59	16	0	1	6.3	15	93.7	4	25.0	1	6.3

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

60-69	7	0	0	0	7	100	1	14.3	1	14.3
70-79	7	0	0	0	7	100	5	71.4	0	0
Total	343	0	90	26.2	253	73.8	102	29.7	17	5.0

TABLE 4. Number and percentage of category 1 to 5 sites, by sex and age group.

Age groups	Septa graded	Category 1		Category 2		Category 3		Category 4		Category 5		Cat. 3, 4 & 5	
Males	N	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	1291	501	38.8	688	53.3	79	6.1	15	1.2	8	0.6	102	7.9
2	1168	290	24.8	726	62.2	98	8.4	32	2.7	22	1.9	152	13.0
3	983	193	19.6	604	61.4	107	10.9	48	4.9	31	3.2	186	18.9
4	789	122	15.5	461	58.4	135	17.1	35	4.4	36	4.6	206	26.1
5	512	63	12.3	387	75.6	51	10.0	6	1.2	5	1.0	62	12.1
6	237	33	13.9	179	75.5	16	6.8	4	1.7	5	2.1	25	10.5
Females													
1	1284	551	42.9	639	49.8	72	5.6	15	1.2	7	0.5	94	12.3
2	1091	231	21.2	726	66.5	93	8.5	30	2.7	11	1.0	134	15.7
3	921	176	19.1	600	65.1	107	11.6	22	2.4	16	1.7	145	20.1
4	548	159	29.0	279	50.9	65	11.9	19	3.5	26	4.7	110	26.5
5	279	53	19.0	152	54.5	62	22.2	8	2.9	4	1.4	74	15.2
6	297	46	15.5	206	69.4	34	11.4	5	1.7	6	2.0	45	14.2

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47

Total	9400	2418	25.7	5647	60.1	919	9.8	239	2.5	177	1.9	1335	14.2
-------	------	------	------	------	------	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	------	------

TABLE 5. Number and percentage of category 1 to 5 sites, by jaw, sex and age group.

Age groups	Septa graded	Category 1		Category 2		Category 3		Category 4		Category 5		Cat. 3, 4 & 5	
<i>Males</i>	N	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Maxilla	2364	523	22.1	1499	63.4	218	9.2	71	3.0	53	2.2	342	14.5
Mandible	2616	679	26.0	1546	59.1	268	10.2	69	2.6	54	2.1	391	14.9
<i>Females</i>													
Maxilla	2153	502	23.3	1344	62.4	220	10.2	46	2.1	41	1.9	307	14.3
Mandible	2267	714	31.5	1258	55.5	213	9.4	53	2.3	29	1.3	295	13.0
Total	9400	2418	25.7	5647	60.1	919	9.8	239	2.5	177	1.9	1335	14.2

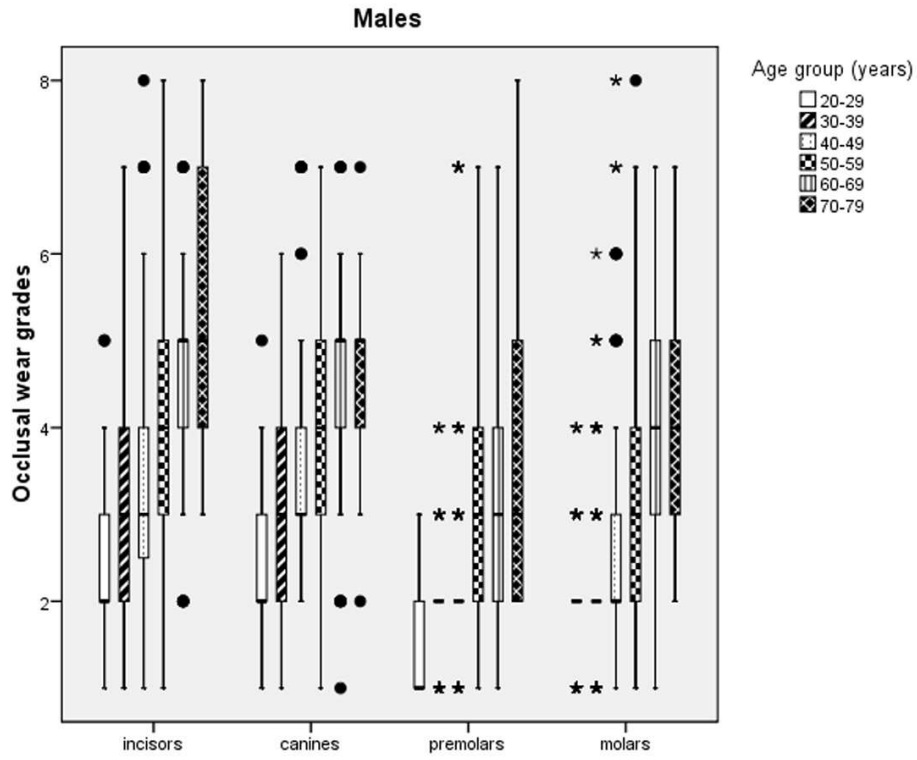


Fig. 1. Occlusal wear average and standard deviation rates for each tooth class (molars, premolars, canines, and incisors) and age group, in males.
49x43mm (600 x 600 DPI)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

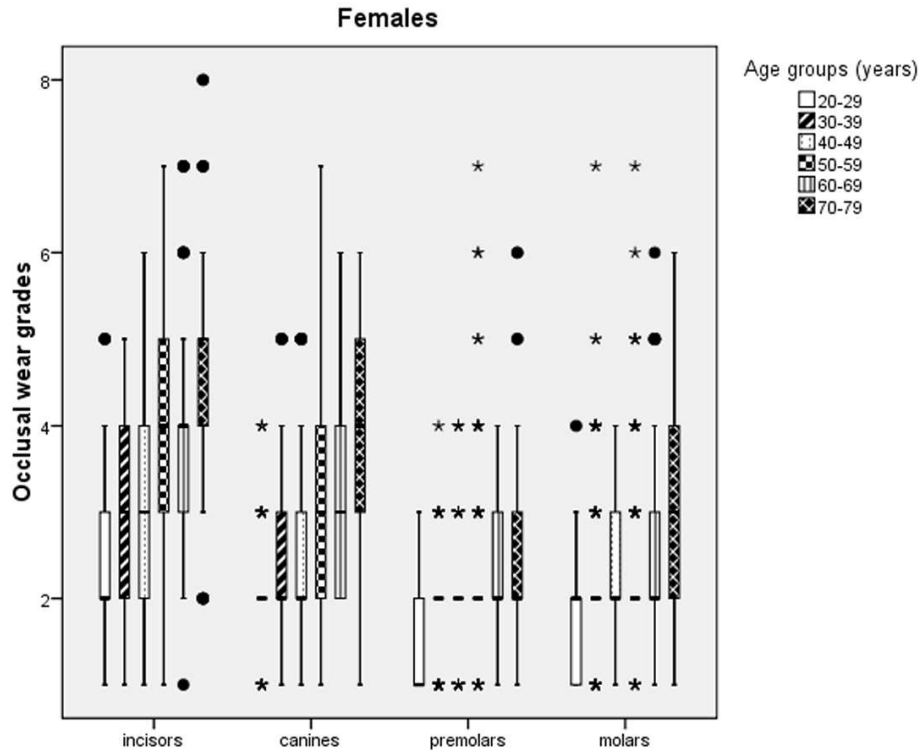


Fig.2. Occlusal wear average and standard deviation rates for each tooth class (molars, premolars, canines, and incisors) and age group, in females.
49x43mm (600 x 600 DPI)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

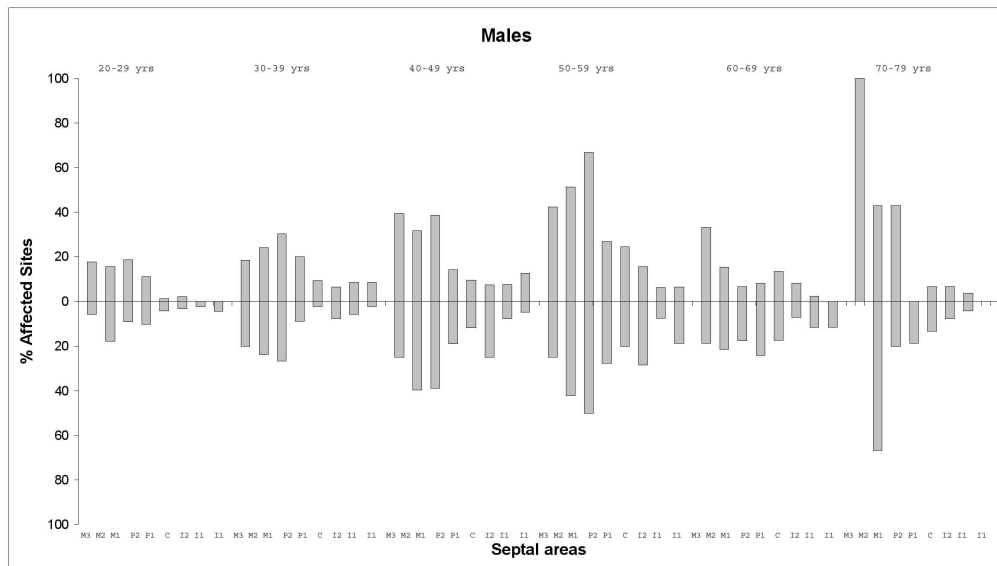


Fig. 3. Percentages of periodontitis episodes (Categories 3, 4 and 5) by septal area in each age group, in males. Upper septa are above the line and lower below.
97x55mm (600 x 600 DPI)

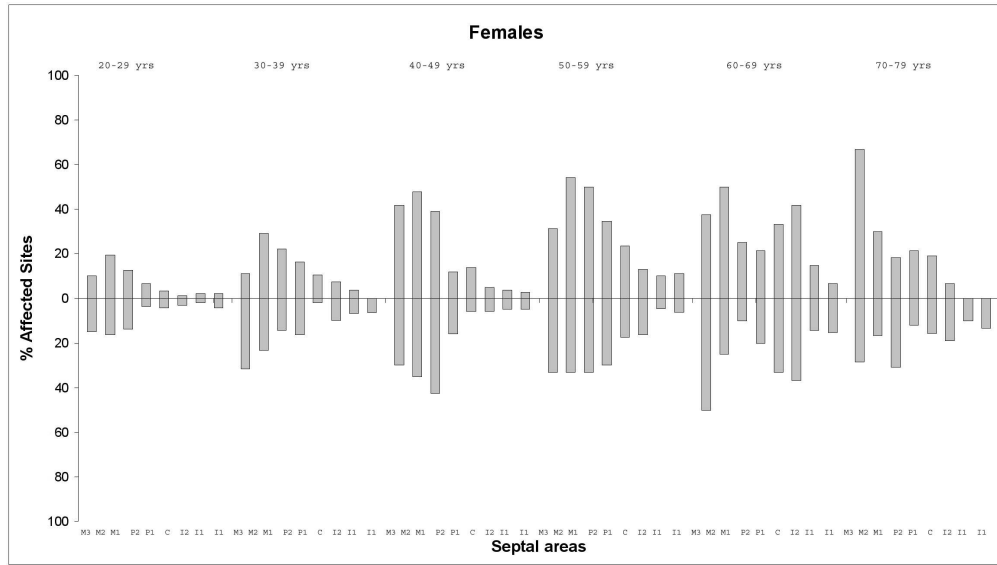


Fig. 4. Percentages of periodontitis episodes (Categories 3, 4 and 5) by septal area in each age group, in females. Upper septa are above the line and lower below.
97x55mm (600 x 600 DPI)

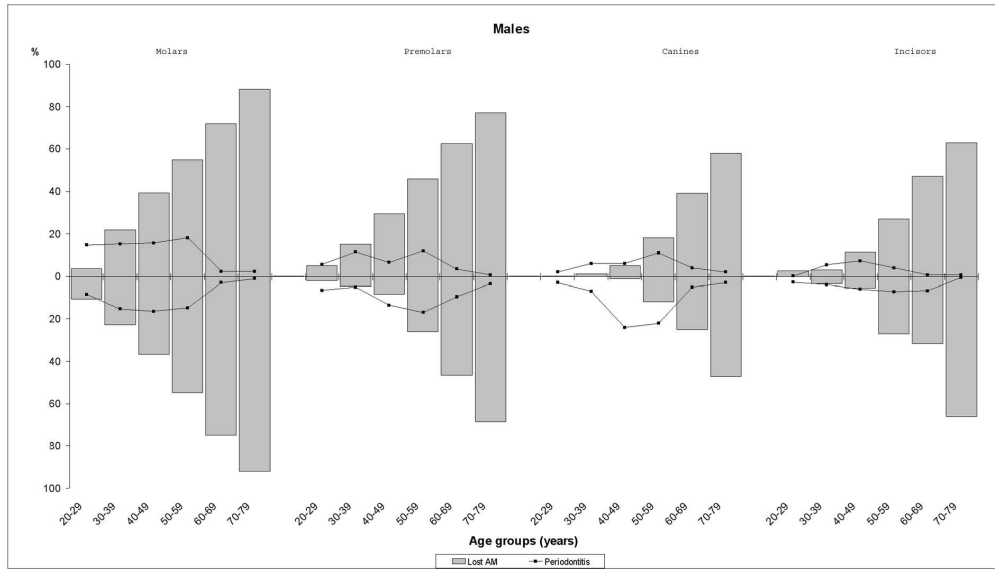


Fig. 5. Periodontitis and ante-mortem tooth loss frequency rates for each tooth class (molars, premolars, canines, and incisors) and age group, in males. Upper dentition is above the line and lower below.

80x45mm (600 x 600 DPI)

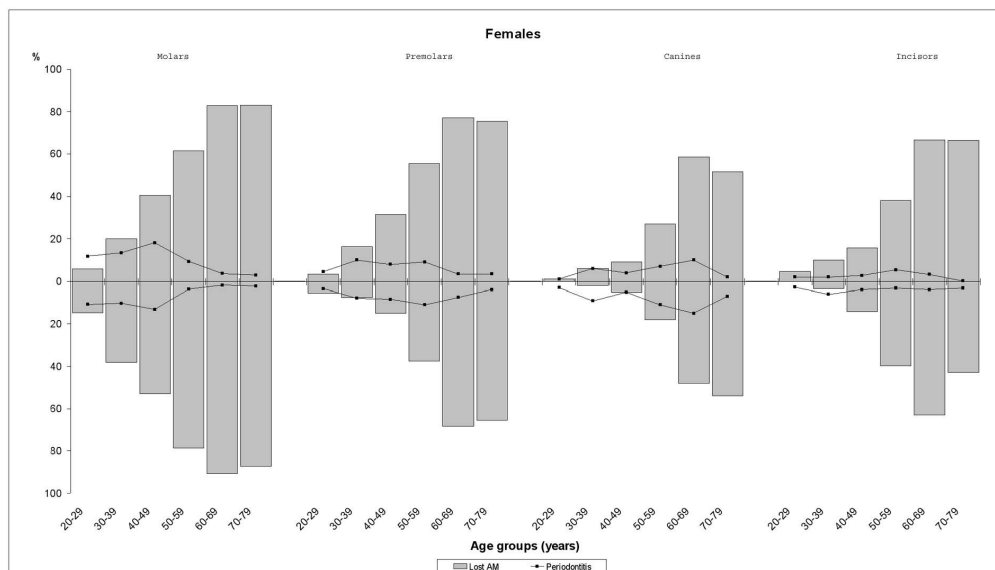


Fig. 6. Periodontitis and ante-mortem tooth loss frequency rates for each tooth class (molars, premolars, canines, and incisors) and age group, in females. Upper dentition is above the line and lower below.

80x45mm (600 x 600 DPI)