



Published in final edited form as:

Dent Mater. 2013 January ; 29(1): 3–9. doi:10.1016/j.dental.2012.07.159.

Translating research and into everyday clinical practice: Lessons learned from a USA national dental practice-based research network

Valeria V. Gordan, DDS, MS, MS-CI [Professor] and The National Dental PBRN
Collaborative Group

Department of Restorative Dental Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida, USA

Abstract

Clinical studies are of paramount importance for testing and translation of the research findings to the community. Despite the existence of clinical studies, a significant delay exists between the generation of new knowledge and its application into the medical/dental community and their patients. One example is the repair of defective dental restorations. About 75% of practitioners in general dental practices do not consider the repair of dental restorations as a viable alternative to the replacement of defective restorations. Engaging and partnering with health practitioners in the field on studies addressing everyday clinical research questions may offer a solution to speed up the translation of the research findings. Practice-based research (PBR) offers a unique opportunity for practitioners to be involved in the research process, formulating clinical research questions. Additionally, PBR generates evidence-based knowledge with a broader spectrum that can be more readily generalized to the public. With PBR, clinicians are involved in the entire research process from its inception to its dissemination. Early practitioner interaction in the research process may result in ideas being more readily incorporated into practice. This paper discusses PBR as a mean to speed up the translation of research findings to clinical practice. It also reviews repair versus replacement of defective restorations as one example of the delay in the application of research findings to clinical practice.

“If we want more evidence-based practice, we need more practice-based evidence.”

Lawrence W. Green, DrPH

Introduction

The latest announcements from the USA government clearly state that American taxpayers are highly interested in immediate results for the research taking place these days [1,2]. A significant delay exists between the generation of breakthroughs and their transfer through applications serving individual patients when science is not efficiently translated to daily clinical practice. Therefore, a substantial difference exists between the health care that patients may be eligible for and the health care that they actually receive [3-5]. Enhancing the delivery of established therapies would save more lives than pursuing additional innovations in therapy [6,3].

Corresponding Author: Valeria V. Gordan PO Box 100415, Gainesville, FL 32610-0415 Phone 352 273 5836 Fax 352 273 7970
vgordan@dental.ufl.edu.

Publisher's Disclaimer: This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final citable form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

The time lag between discovery and its generalized adoption by the medical/dental profession has ranged from 17 to 24 years depending on the study and subject area [5]. Part of the problem lies in the fact that most research is done in academic and industry environments and not directly by the end users. In the current research structure, many studies are so specific to certain areas that the results are not easily transferred into general practice. Whereas studies in academia are often narrowly focused and may apply to a limited subset of patients or circumstances, practice-based research involves a broad spectrum of patients and practitioners. One way to speed up the translation of the research findings is to promote the engagement and partnership between research professionals and practitioners on problems identified by practitioners. In other words, the translation of the research findings into clinical practice can be improved if practitioners are recruited and engaged in the research process. Practice-based research networks (PBRN) offer a unique opportunity for practitioners to be involved in the research process, formulating clinical research questions that may improve the oral health of the population. PBRNs also offer researchers the chance to learn more about everyday issues involving oral health and interact with practitioners in the dental field. Additionally, practice-based research (PBR) offers two very important points for the advancement of health care: (1) it generates evidence-based knowledge with a broader spectrum that can be more readily generalized to the public (i.e., the evidence comes directly from the end-user “the everyday patient”); and (2) it speeds up the translation of research findings as passive absorption of knowledge usually either does not work or is very slow. With PBR, clinicians are involved in the entire research process from its inception, asking the clinical questions, being involved in the gathering of the research findings, as well as in its dissemination. Early practitioner interaction in the research process may result in ideas being more readily incorporated into practice.

The obvious commitment from USA National Institute of Health to practice-based research [7,8] and translational research [9] shows where we are headed in response to the public's concern. On April 12, 2012, USA NIH/NIDCR announced the establishment of a National Dental Practice-based Research Network awarding a \$66.8 million, seven-year grant to consolidate its national dental practice-based research network initiative [10]. The USA National Dental PBRN comprises 6 distinct regions throughout the United States and with administrative sites in Rochester, NY; Gainesville, FL; Birmingham, AL; Minneapolis, MN; San Antonio, TX; and Portland, OR.

One classic example: Repair versus replacement?

Replacement of defective restorations is one of the most frequent problems encountered by general practitioners today and accounts for over 50% of the work performed in general dental practice [11-13].

The re-restoration cycle has been described for over 35 years [14-16] and since then innumerable in vitro [17,18] and clinical studies [19-21] have shown that removal of the existing restoration will significantly remove sound tooth structure resulting in subsequently larger dental restorations. The removal of existing restorations may also cause additional stress on the tooth with possible pulp and dentin reactions to thermal, chemical, bacterial, or mechanical stimuli [22,23], depending on the size and depth of the existing restored site. The first restoration placed in an unrestored tooth can affect the overall longevity of the tooth as proposed by the life-cycle of a tooth [24]. In this model the first restoration placed on a tooth is when the patient is around age six, and subsequent restoration replacements every eight to twelve years lead to progressively larger restorations and, ultimately, to tooth loss when patient reaches age 56. Another important inference from this model would be to delay or avoid the surgical intervention into the restored tooth as much as possible, since this

process will affect the remaining tooth structure and, consequently, reduce the survivability of the tooth.

Repair of defective restorations offers a less invasive and more conservative approach to restoration replacement and has the potential to delay the re-restoration cycle. Additionally, longitudinal cohort studies have demonstrated that the success rate of treatment for failed restorations not necessarily surpass the clinical performance of other alternative treatments such as repairing, sealing, or monitoring teeth at risk [25-32].

Another milestone study by Mertz-Fairhurst and colleagues [33] concluded in a long-term clinical study (over 10 years) that sealed restorations exhibited superior clinical performance and longevity compared with unsealed restorations. The study also concluded that sealed composite restorations placed over cavitated carious lesions arrested the clinical progress of the lesions [33].

Even though the results of these studies [25-33] have been published for several years, and schools have included the repair of dental restorations in their curriculum [34-37], clinicians still do not routinely consider the repair or sealing of restorations as a viable treatment option for the treatment of defective restorations [38-43]. Several reasons may account for this including, clinicians' tradition, lack of reimbursement for these procedures, professional community standards, and absence of baseline knowledge regarding the existing restoration.

What have we learned from dentists participating in practice-based research regarding repair versus replacement treatment? As reported in previous publications [19,44], close to 75 percent of clinicians participating in Dental PBRN also chose replacement more often than repair for the treatment of defective restorations [39,43,45].

Also consistent with previous findings [14,46-48], most of the dentists (75%) participating in a practice-based study [43] involving close to 10,000 restorations chose replacement over repair of defective restorations when they had not placed the original restoration ($p < 0.001$). Another study [49], based on insurance claims, also suggests that patients who change dentists are far more likely to have restorations replaced and not necessarily repaired.

Restorations may become defective due to a number of reasons related to either clinician factors, patient factors, and/or material properties [50]. It is not always possible to single out factors and often a combination may be the cause of the defect or restoration failure. The reasons for restoration failure are not routinely recorded by practicing dentists and often only the end result is registered. Practicing dentists [43] reported the diagnosis of secondary caries as the main reason for restoration treatment, followed by restoration fracture, marginal degradation, and margin discoloration. These findings are consistent with others reported in the literature [51-54]. Although the study by Bogacki and colleagues [49] reported that changing dentist was the main reason for restoration replacement.

Even though secondary caries was identified as the primary cause for restoration treatment, it also leads to the highest number of repair treatments (30%). The clinical diagnosis of secondary caries is ill-defined [51-56] and marginal staining is often mistakenly diagnosed by clinicians as caries lesions [11,12,57,58]. Without objective criteria, it becomes challenging to correctly differentiate between secondary caries and staining or degradation of the restoration margin [59].

When assessing a restoration with a defect or discoloration at the margins, if the dentist is unable to clearly reject a secondary caries diagnosis, he or she will most likely choose replacement as opposed to other options of nonsurgical treatment, including systematic monitoring of the restored tooth. This continues to occur despite the fact that previous

studies [60-62] have shown no relationship between the development of secondary caries and the size of the leakage or gap, except in cases in which the crevice exceeds 250 μm [62] or 400 μm [63]. The criteria for the treatment of defective restorations should not be based solely on visual, tactile or radiographic examination, but primarily on the caries risk of the patients and caries activity of the site. Future research that focuses on biomarkers may identify and count the bacteria [64] present at the crevice (*i.e.*, acid-producing versus alkali producing bacteria) have the potential to aid in the diagnosis of caries in the faulty margins of existing restorations.

Even though studies report a decline in the use of dental amalgam, because of its inferior esthetic appearance, alleged adverse health effects, and environmental concerns [65-69], many of existing restorations are still amalgam [45]. The PBR study showed that most of the restorations that were treated in the study were amalgam (56%), which were replaced primarily (56% of cases) with direct tooth-colored restorative materials. The restorative material was five times more likely to be changed when the original restoration was amalgam. The probability of changing from amalgam to another restorative material varied according to several characteristics of the original restoration. The change was most likely to take place when (1) the treatment was a replacement; (2) the tooth was not a molar; (3) the tooth was in the maxillary arch; and (4) the original restoration involved a single surface [45].

The choice of repair over replacement of defective restorations differs among dentists according to certain dentist's characteristics. Dentists who placed the original restoration, dentists who graduated from dental school within the last 15 years, and dentists who work in large group practices (3 or more practitioners) repaired defective restorations more often than they replaced the restorations [43]. Some patients' characteristics were also associated with a greater likelihood of repair versus replacement, such as older patient age, original restorative material different than amalgam, restorations in molar teeth, and fewer surfaces in the original restoration [43].

How can we speed up the translation of research findings?

Clinicians are bombarded by vast amounts of information from manufacturers, in dental journals, and in continuing education courses. What evidence do clinicians use to make drastic improvements in preventive and restorative care? How can clinicians accept and translate the evidence into practice?

Traditionally, journal articles, workshops, academic classes, and conferences have been the usual mode of educating practitioners. Patient education and financial incentives have also been used, with all methods showing small to modest effects [6,70]. Research has shown that new methods and materials will have better acceptance if transmitted by leaders in the field. This is not necessarily an individual with the highest degree or visibility, but is someone trusted as an opinion leader or mentor [6,71]. A goal of PBRNs is to share results and possible solutions to certain problems by promoting the networking and collegiality among practitioners and participants about their daily work and practicing environment [72]. PBRN practitioners are offered several venues to interact with each other through annual and training meetings, study clubs, participating in webinars, as well as other means of interaction through virtual communication such as chat rooms, Facebook, Twitter, and Linked-in. Besides the above mentioned means, dissemination of information also happens through monthly electronic publications and quarterly newsletter which highlights various activities and study results.

Participating in PBRN activities may create openness to change and the practitioner-investigators act as agents for change [73]. Additionally, presentations on study results given

by fellow practitioner-investigators, rather than academicians, seem to have a greater influence on practitioners as opposed to clinical faculty presentations [6].

We also learned that bringing the evidence into the dental office through PBR may efficiently change dentists' attitudes and daily practice. In one PBR study, 998 clinicians participated in a baseline questionnaire with clinical case scenarios about the diagnosis and treatment of dental caries. From the 998 clinicians, 133 were asked to participate in a nationwide meeting. Those participating in the meeting were mailed their results from the baseline questionnaire 45 days prior to the meeting, were asked to complete a new questionnaire at the meeting's registration desk; and another questionnaire upon leaving the meeting. During the meeting, clinicians had the opportunity to participate in panel discussions with question-and-answer sessions, as well as in informal gatherings and formal breakout sessions in which clinicians discussed pre-assigned topics at assigned tables. At the end of the meeting one third of clinicians actually changed, in the second questionnaire, how they responded to the clinical case scenario questions. The improvement was towards using more prevention and delaying the treatment process in certain instances, according to the latest evidence-based research results. Clinicians were receptive to changing how they treat patients as a result of being engaged in the scientific process with their fellow clinicians [73].

Informal reports provided by clinicians also confirmed that collegial interaction has an important role in changing clinicians' approaches in clinical practice. The initial responses from clinicians prior to the meeting reported that less than one-third of respondents had any intention of changing diagnosis or treatment approaches to caries management. However, at the end of the meeting, these clinicians reported their intention to change their approach towards diagnosis and treatment of dental caries, thus taking the next step toward implementing change and translating the latest scientific evidence into regular clinical practice. This "change in intention" is consistent with the health change theory, which suggests that this step is a prelude to the subsequent "next step" of actually implementing change [74,75].

Acquiring new information is necessary, but not enough for a change in behavior [76]. This is why passive dissemination of knowledge, guidelines, and attendance at meetings are not necessarily effective for the translation of research into practice [77].

In addition to participating in annual meetings, one powerful tool for translation of the study findings is to create opportunities for practitioners to reflect on their own decision-making process and quality of care. At the end of each PBRN study, clinicians are provided a summary of their results in a simple and visual format (e.g., tables and/or colorful bar graphs) and the results of others in their region and network-wide. This approach discusses how PBRNs can have a direct impact on the translation of research into routine clinical care. Clinicians are given the chance to reflect upon their daily clinical practice and their choices in the delivery of dental care while comparing them to those from their fellow clinicians in a non-threatening manner. Therefore, they feel free to change as they learn from each other's results and taking their experience into account.

One of the reasons clinicians have reported joining the network is to have the opportunity to answer questions related to routine dental care. A significant amount of information offered to dentists seems to be manufacturer-driven, so there is a concern for bias. The desire to be a part of a community that has the possibility to generate research questions and to answer them with new knowledge is the main reason that clinicians join the network [78,79]. Other reasons for joining a PBRN are: (1) to provide a focus for clinical excellence by devoting increased short-term attention to one particular area of clinical practice at a time; (2) to

improve the logistics of daily clinical operations as they need to plan ahead of time when studies are taking place; (3) to serve as a team-building experience for practice staff, engaging the entire staff in the excitement of discovery and quality improvement; (4) to distinguish the practice from other practices, acting as a practice promoter or practice builder; and (5) to enhance communication with patients by showing that the practitioner-investigator cares about the scientific basis of clinical practice.

In PBRN research, practitioners are given the personal experience of exploring a question from its concept to the final stage of data analysis. PBRNs have the ability to use a variety of research methodologies including randomized clinical trials, observational and retrospective studies. Each of these different study designs have their own potential of resulting in greater impact on daily practice by being more easily adapted to the research environment. Not all methods of transmitting results have equal success in incorporating these results. Naik and Petersen [4] highlights the importance of developing connections between researchers and practitioners in dissemination of information and Innvaer and colleagues [80] conclude that increasing personal contacts and relationships between researchers and care leaders is an important facilitator of using evidence in making policy decisions.

Concluding remarks

Even though several long-term prospective studies have supported the repair versus replacement of restorations, these studies did not randomly assign the treatment ([81-83]. The results of the studies serve now as basis to obtain institutional review board approval for conducting randomized, controlled clinical trials which provide the highest level of evidence. Additionally, in order for these studies to be generalizable to most patients, they would be conducted in a general practice setting. The research conclusion of these studies will enable dentists and their patients to make educated decisions based on evidence.

Traditional federally-funded or corporate-funded research in academic institution has significant value that can complement the studies that are conducted in PBRNs.

Academic research addresses different questions that can provide more rapid answers to clinician's questions and lead to follow-up by PBRNs. In a controlled setting, researchers can undergo calibration exercises and the risk factors of study populations can also be more carefully controlled. Results from pilot and preliminary studies can then lead to relevant questions for PBRNs to pursue.

The results from PBR can be more generalizable to the public at large, therefore it facilitates the application of the findings for policy changes and the establishment of standard of care.

PBRNs can be an effective venue for translation of research findings as participants serve as change agents.

Acknowledgments

This investigation was supported by NIH grants DE-16746, DE-16747, and DE-22516. Opinions and assertions contained herein are those of the authors and are not to be construed as necessarily representing the views of the respective organizations or the National Institutes of Health.

References

1. Committee for economic development. [May 23rd 2012] The future of taxpayer-funded research: Who will control access to the results?. http://www.ced.org/images/content/issues/innovation-technology/DCCReport_Final_2_9-12.pdf

2. Federal Research Public Access Act. [May 5th 2012] <http://www.taxpayeraccess.org/issues/frpaa/index.shtml>.
3. Solberg LI, Elward KS, Phillips WR, Gill JM, Swanson G, Main DS, Yawn BP, Mold JW, Phillips RL Jr, the NAPCRG Committee on Advancing the Science of Family Medicine. How can primary care cross the quality chasm? *Annals Fam Med*. 2009; 7(2):164–169.
4. Naik AD, Petersen LA. The neglected purpose of comparative-effectiveness research. *N Engl J Med*. 2009; 360(19):1929–1931. [PubMed: 19420362]
5. Contopoulos-Ioannidis DG, Alexiou GA, Gouvias TC, Ioannidis JP. Life cycle of translational research for medical interventions. *Science*. 2008; 321:1298–1299. [PubMed: 18772421]
6. Ting HH, Shojania KG, Montori VM, Bradley EH. Quality improvement: Science and action. *Circulation*. 2009; 119:1962–1974. [PubMed: 19364989]
7. Zerhouni E. Medicine. The NIH roadmap. *Science*. 2003; 302:63–72. [PubMed: 14526066]
8. NIH Roadmap for Clinical Research: Clinical research networks and NECTAR. [May 11th 2012] <http://nihroadmap.nih.gov/clinicalresearch/overview-networks.asp>.
9. Woolf SH. The meaning of translational research and why it matters. *JAMA*. 2008; 299(2):211–213. [PubMed: 18182604]
10. [May 25th 2012] Award announcement <http://www.nidcr.nih.gov/Research/ResearchResults/NewsReleases/CurrentNewsReleases/NDPBRN.htm>.
11. Pink FE, Minden NJ, Simmonds S. Decisions of practitioners regarding placement of amalgam and composite restorations in general practice settings. *Oper Dent*. 1994; 19:127–132. [PubMed: 9028231]
12. Mjör IA, Moorhead JE, Dahl JE. Reasons for replacement of restorations in permanent teeth in general dental practice. *Int Dent J*. 2000; 50:360–366.
13. Simecek JW, Diefenderfer KE, Cohen ME. An evaluation of replacement rates for posterior resin-based composite and amalgam restorations in U.S. Navy and Marine Corps recruits. *J Am Dent Assoc*. Feb; 2009 140(2):200–9. quiz 249. [PubMed: 19188417]
14. Elderton RJ. Assessment of the quality of restorations. A literature review. *J Oral Rehabil*. Jul; 1977 4(3):217–26. [PubMed: 268417]
15. Elderton RJ, Osman YI. Preventive versus restorative management of dental caries. *J Dent Assoc S Afr*. Apr; 1991 46(4):217–21. [PubMed: 1962312]
16. Tyas MJ. Placement and replacement of restorations by selected practitioners. *Aust Dent J*. Jun; 2005 50(2):81–9. [PubMed: 16050086]
17. Gordan VV. In vitro evaluation of margins of replaced resin based composite restorations. *J Esthet Dent*. 2000; 12:217–223.
18. Gordan VV, Mondragon E, Shen C. Evaluation of the cavity design, cavity depth, and shade matching in the replacement of resin based composite restorations. *Quintessence Inter*. 2002; 32:273–278.
19. Brantley CF, Bader JD, Shugars DA, Nesbit SP. Does the cycle of reresoration lead to larger restorations? *J Am Dent Assoc*. Oct; 1995 126(10):1407–13. [PubMed: 7594013]
20. Gordan VV. Clinical evaluation of replacement of Class V resin based composite restorations. *J Dent*. 2001; 29:485–488. [PubMed: 11809326]
21. Mjör IA, Gordan VV. Failure, repair, refurbishing and longevity of restorations. *Oper Dent*. 2002; 27(5):528–534. [PubMed: 12216574]
22. Hirata K, Nakashima M, Sekine I, Mukouyama Y, Kimura K. Dentinal fluid movement associated with loading of restorations. *J Dent Res*. 1991; 70:975–978. [PubMed: 2045578]
23. Bissada NF. Symptomatology and clinical features of hypersensitive teeth. *Arch Oral Biol*. 1994; 39(Suppl):31S–32S. [PubMed: 7702464]
24. Simonsen R. New materials on the horizon. *JADA*. 1991; 122(7):24–31. [PubMed: 1861009]
25. Gordan VV, Shen C, Riley J 3rd, Mjör IA. Two-year clinical evaluation of repair versus replacement of composite restorations. *J Esthet Restor Dent*. 2006; 18:144–154. [PubMed: 16831187]

26. Gordan VV, Riley J 3rd, Blaser PK, Mjör IA. Two-year clinical evaluation of alternative treatments to replacement of defective amalgam restorations. *Oper Dent*. 2006; 31(4):418–425. [PubMed: 16924981]
27. Gordan VV, Garvan CW, Blaser PK, Mondragon E, Mjör IA. A long-term evaluation of alternative treatments to replacement of resin-based composite restorations: Results of a seven-year study. *J Amer Dent Assoc*. 2009; 140:1476–1484. [PubMed: 19955065]
28. Gordan VV, Riley JL III, Blaser PK, Mondragon E, Garvan CW, Mjör IA. Alternative treatments to replacement of defective amalgam restorations: Results of a 7-year clinical study. *JADA*. 2011; 142(7):842–849. [PubMed: 21719808]
29. Moncada G, Martín J, Fernández E, Vildósola P, Caamaño C, Caro MJ, Mjör IA, Gordan VV. Alternative treatments for resin based composite and amalgam restorations that have marginal defects: 12-month clinical trial. *Gen Dent*. 2006; 54:314–318. [PubMed: 17004564]
30. Moncada G, Fernández E, Martín J, Arancibia C, Mjör IA, Gordan VV. Increasing the longevity of amalgam and resin-based composite restorations by minimal intervention: Results of a 2-year clinical trial. *Oper Dent*. 2008; 33:243–249.
31. Moncada G, Martin J, Fernández E, Hempel MC, Mjör IA, Gordan VV. Sealing, repair and refurbishment of Class I and Class II defective restorations: A three-year clinical trial. *J Amer Dent Assoc*. 2009; 140:425–432. [PubMed: 19339531]
32. Martin J, Fernández E, Estay J, Gordan VV, Mjör IA, Moncada G. Using sealants to treat the margins of defective restorations: Results of a five-year clinical study. *Oper Dent*. in press.
33. Mertz-Fairhurst EJ, Curtis JW Jr, Ergle JW, Rueggeberg FA, Adair SM. Ultraconservative and cariostatic sealed restorations: Results at year 10. *J Am Dent Assoc*. Jan; 1998 129(1):55–66. [PubMed: 9448347]
34. Gordan VV, Mjör IA, Blum I, Wilson NHF. Teaching students the repair of resin based composite restorations: A survey of North American dental schools. *J Amer Dent Assoc*. 2003; 134:317–323. [PubMed: 12699045]
35. Blum IR, Lynch CD, Schreiber A, Heidemann D, Wilson NHF. Repair versus replacement of defective composite restorations in German dental schools. *Eur J Prosth Rest Dent*. 2011; 19:56–61.
36. Blum IR, Lynch CD, Wilson NHF. Teaching of direct composite restoration repair in undergraduate dental schools in the United Kingdom and Ireland. *Eur J Dent Educ*. 2012; 16(1): 53–58.
37. Blum IR, Lynch CD, Wilson NHF. Teaching of the repair of defective composite restorations in Scandinavian dental schools. *J Oral Rehab*. 2012; 39(3):210–216.
38. Gordan VV, Mjör IA. Letter to the Editor of the Journal of the American Dental Association. *JADA*. 2003; 134(9):1170–1172. [PubMed: 14528987]
39. Gordan VV. Letter to the Editor of the Journal of the American Dental Association. *JADA*. 2009; 140(9):1078–1079.
40. Gordan VV, Garvan CW, Richman J, Fellows JL, Rindal DB, Qvist V, Heft MW, Williams OD, Gilbert GH, for The DPBRN Collaborative Group. How dentists diagnose and treat defective restorations: Evidence from the Dental PBRN. *Oper Dent*. 2009; 34:664–673. [PubMed: 19953775]
41. Gordan VV. Letter to the Editor of the Journal of the American Dental Association. *JADA*. 2010; 141(3):248–252. [PubMed: 20194375]
42. Gordan VV. Letter to the Editor of the Journal of the American Dental Association for paper: Alternative treatments to replacement of defective amalgam restorations: Results of a 7-year clinical study. *JADA*. 2011; 142:1336–1337. [PubMed: 22130429]
43. Gordan VV, Riley JL III, Geraldeli S, Rindal DB, Qvist V, Fellows JL, Kellum HP, Gilbert GH, The DPBRN Collaborative Group. Repair or replacement of defective restorations by dentists in the Dental PBRN. *JADA*. 2012; 143(6):593–601. [PubMed: 22653939]
44. Setcos JC, Khosravi R, Wilson NH, Shen C, Yang M, Mjör IA. Repair or replacement of amalgam restorations: Decisions at a USA and a UK dental school. *Oper Dent*. Jul-Aug;2004 29(4):392–397. [PubMed: 15279477]

45. Gordan VV, Riley JL III, Worley DC, Gilbert GH, for The DPBRN Collaborative Group. Restorative material and other tooth-specific variables associated with the decision to repair or replace defective restorations: Findings from the Dental PBRN. *J Dent.* 2012; 40:397–405. [PubMed: 22342563]
46. Elderton RJ, Nuttall NM. Variation among dentists in planning treatment. *Br Dent J.* 1983; 154:201–206. [PubMed: 6573898]
47. Davies JA. The relationship between change in dentist and treatment received in the general dental service. *Br Dent J.* 1984; 157:322–324. [PubMed: 6595013]
48. Bader JD, Shugars DA. Understanding dentists' restorative treatment decisions. *J Public Health Dent.* 1992; 52:102–110. [PubMed: 1564688]
49. Bogacki RE, Hunt RJ, del Agila M, Smith WR. Survival analysis of posterior restorations using an insurance claims database. *Oper Dent.* 2002; 27:488–492. [PubMed: 12216568]
50. Hickel R, Manhart J. Longevity of restorations in posterior teeth and reasons for failure. *J Adhes Dent.* 2001; 3(1):45–64. [PubMed: 11317384]
51. Rytomaa I, Jarvinen V, Jarvinen J. Variation in caries recording and restorative treatment plan among university teachers. *Community Dent Oral Epidemiol.* 1979; 7:335–339. [PubMed: 295716]
52. Merrett MCW, Elderton RJ. An in vitro study of restorative dental treatment decisions and dental caries. *Br Dent J.* 1984; 157:128–133. [PubMed: 6591943]
53. Bader JD, Shugars DA, McClure FE. Comparison of restorative treatment recommendations based on patients and patients simulations. *Oper Dent.* 1994; 19:20–25. [PubMed: 8183729]
54. Bader JD, Shugars DA. Agreement among dentists' recommendations for restorative treatment. *J Dent Res.* 1993; 72:891–896. [PubMed: 8501287]
55. Kay E, Watts A, Paterson R, Blinkhorn A. Preliminary investigation into the validity of dentists' decisions to restore occlusal surfaces of permanent teeth. *Community Dent Oral Epidemiol.* 1988; 16:91–94. [PubMed: 3162863]
56. Noar SJ, Smith BGN. Diagnosis of caries and treatment decisions in approximal surfaces of posterior teeth in vitro. *J Oral Rehabil.* 1990; 17:209–218. [PubMed: 2348267]
57. Deligeorgi V, Wilson NH, Fouzas D, Kouklaki E, Burke FJ, Mjör IA. Reasons for placement and replacement of restorations in student clinics in Manchester and Athens. *Eur J Dent Educ.* 2000; 4:153–159. [PubMed: 11168480]
58. Qvist V, Laurberg L, Poulsen A, Teglers PT. Class II restorations in primary teeth: 7-year study on three resin-modified glass ionomer cements and a compomer. *Euro J Oral Sci.* 2004; 112:188–196.
59. Mjör IA, Toffenetti F. Secondary caries: A literature review with case reports. *Quintessence Int.* 2000; 31:165–179. [PubMed: 11203922]
60. Soderholm, KJ.; Antonson, DE.; Fishlschweiger, W. Correlation between marginal discrepancies at the amalgam tooth interface and recurrent caries.. In: Anusavice, KJ., editor. *Quality evaluation of dental restorations.* Quintessence; Chicago: 1989. p. 85-108.
61. Kidd EA, O'Hara JW. Caries status of occlusal amalgam restorations with marginal defects. *J Dent Res.* 1990; 69:1275–1277. [PubMed: 2355121]
62. Kidd EAM, Joyston-Bechal S, Beighton D. Marginal ditching and staining as a predictor of secondary caries around amalgam restorations: A clinical and microbiological study. *J Dent Res.* 1995; 74:1206–1211. [PubMed: 7540634]
63. Ozer, L. Based on a thesis submitted to the graduate faculty. University of Copenhagen, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the M.S. degree; Copenhagen, Denmark: 1997. The relationship between gap size, microbial accumulation and structural features of natural caries in extracted teeth with Class II amalgam restorations..
64. Gordan VV, Garvan CW, Ottenga ME, Schulte R, Harris PA, McEdward DL, Magnusson I. Could alkali production be considered an approach for caries control? *Caries Res.* 2010; 44:547–554. [PubMed: 21071940]
65. Mutter J. Is dental amalgam safe for humans? The opinion of the scientific committee of the European Commission. *J Occup Med Toxicol.* 2011; 6:2. [PubMed: 21232090]

66. Neghab M, Choobineh A, Hassan Zadeh J, Ghaderi E. Symptoms of intoxication in dentists associated with exposure to low levels of mercury. *Ind Health*. 2011; 49:249–254. [PubMed: 21173523]
67. Lynch CD, Guillem SE, Nagrani B, Gilmour AS, Ericson D. Attitudes of some European dental undergraduate students to the placement of direct restorative materials in posterior teeth. *J Oral Rehabil*. 2010; 37:916–926. [PubMed: 20557432]
68. Edlich RF, Cross CL, Wack CA, Long WB 3rd, Newkirk AT. The food and drug administration agrees to classify mercury fillings. *J Environ Pathol Toxicol Oncol*. 2008; 27:303–305. [PubMed: 19105536]
69. Forss H, Widström E. Reasons for restorative therapy and the longevity of restorations in adults. *Acta Odontol Scand*. Apr; 2004 62(2):82–86. [PubMed: 15198387]
70. Lee TH. Eulogy for a quality measure. *N Engl J Med*. 2007; 357:1175–1177. [PubMed: 17881749]
71. Gilbert GH, Richman JS, Gordan VV, Rindal DB, Fellows JL, Benjamin PL, Wallace-Dawson M, Williams OD. DPBRN Collaborative Group. Lessons learned during the conduct of clinical studies in the Dental PBRN. *J Dent Educ*. Apr; 2011 75(4):453–465. [PubMed: 21460266]
72. Gilbert GH, Williams OD, Rindal DB, Pihlstrom DJ, Benjamin PL, Wallace MC, DPBRN Collaborative Group. The creation and development of the dental practice-based research network. *J Am Dent Assoc*. Jan; 2008 39(1):74–81. [PubMed: 18167389]
73. Gilbert GH, Richman JS, Qvist V, Pihlstrom DJ, Foy PJ, Gordan VV, the DPBRN Collaborative Group. Change in stated clinical practice associated with participation in The Dental Practice-Based Research Network. *Gen Dent*. 2010; 58(6):520–528. [PubMed: 21062721]
74. Painter JE, Borba CPC, Hynes M, Mays D, Glanz K. The use of theory in health behavior research from 2000 to 2005: A systematic review. *Annals Behav Med*. 2008; 35(3):358–362.
75. Prochaska JO. Decision making in the transtheoretical model of behavior change. *Med Decis Making*. 2008; 28(6):845–849. [PubMed: 19015286]
76. Rohrbach LA, Grana R, Sussman S, Valente TW. Type II translation: Transporting prevention interventions from research to real-world settings. *Eval Health Prof*. 2006; 29(3):302–333. [PubMed: 16868340]
77. Farmer AP, Legare F, Turcot L, Grimshaw J, Harvey E, McGowan JL, Wolf F. Printed educational materials: Effects on professional practice and health care outcomes. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. Jul.2008 16(3):CD004398. [PubMed: 18646106]
78. [May 7, 2012] Testimonials. 2012. Available at: http://www.dpbrn.org/users/Testimonials/testimonialsection_networkwidemeeting.asp
79. [May 22, 2012] Testimonials videos. 2012. Available at: <http://www.youtube.com/user/DentalPBRN>
80. Innvaer S, Vist G, Trommald M, Oxman A. Health policy-makers' perceptions of their use of evidence: A systematic review. *J Health Serv Res Policy*. 2002; 7(4):239–244. [PubMed: 12425783]
81. Sharif MO, Fedorowicz Z, Tickle M, Brunton PA. Repair or replacement of restorations: Do we accept built in obsolescence or do we improve the evidence? *Br Dent J*. Aug 28; 2010 209(4):171–174. [PubMed: 20798721]
82. Sharif MO, Catleugh M, Merry A, Tickle M, Dunne SM, Brunton P, Aggarwal VR. Replacement versus repair of defective restorations in adults: Resin composite. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. Feb 17.2010 (2):CD005971. [PubMed: 20166078]
83. Sharif MO, Merry A, Catleugh M, Tickle M, Brunton P, Dunne SM, Aggarwal VR. Replacement versus repair of defective restorations in adults: Amalgam. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. Feb 17.2010 (2):CD005970. [PubMed: 20166077]