

# Periodontitis as a Contagious Infection: Contemporary Use of Antimicrobial Agents. Part II

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Part I of this comprehensive review article dealt exclusively with the use of chlorhexidine in the practice of dentistry and dental hygiene. While it is universally accepted that chlorhexidine is one of the most effective antimicrobial agents for intraoral application, many other substances have also been proven to be effective when applied topically. Thus, Part II of this article provides in-depth descriptions of alternative agents for antimicrobial use in dentistry, by both the patient at home and the professional in the dental office.

**Key words:** halogens, quaternary ammonium bases, sanguinarin, sodium hypochlorite, providone iodine, heavy metal salts, phenols, triclosan

## Halogens

**Iodine:** Betadine (providone iodine, PVP-I) is a potent antiseptic that is widely used in medicine and dentistry. It is bactericidal on contact, and is also effective against fungi, viruses and protozoa. PVP-I does not disturb wound healing (as CHX can), nor does it elicit the evolution of resistant bacterial strains. True allergy to providone iodine is exceptionally rare; reactions that were feared in early years have now been attributed to substances in the delivery solution and not to the elemental iodine (Kozuka, 2002). The addition of a 3% hydrogen peroxide solution can greatly enhance the effectiveness of iodine in the oral cavity, significantly reducing plaque and gingivitis (Rams and Slots, 1996; Greenstein, 1999). With direct contact (i.e., microorganisms NOT embedded within a dental biofilm aggregate), PVP-I is even more effective than CHX at low concentrations (0.1–0.5%) on most common subgingival pathogenic microorganisms such as *P. gingivalis* and *A. actinomycetemcomitans* (Kligerman and Bissada, 1975; Caulfield et al, 1987; Maruniak et al, 1992; Slots, 2000). Rosling et al (2001) reported 20 years of clinical use of PVP-I, with universally favorable results. The dentist or dental hygienist can use subgingival irrigation with PVP-I prior to scaling and root planing to reduce the danger of bac-

teremia, but this approach should be preceded by systemic antibiotic coverage in at-risk patients. Disadvantages of PVP-I, whether used clinically or at-home, include tooth discoloration and that some patients perceive intraoral sprays as uncomfortable or otherwise unpleasant to use.

Both PVP-I and CHX are used routinely in hospital settings, where they are viewed as practically equal in efficacy (Block et al, 2000; Humar et al, 2000; Traore et al, 2000). Although the early medical literature proclaims CHX to be more effective than PVP-I for disinfection, clinical studies have shown that PVP-I may be more effective when applied subgingivally (Caulfield et al, 1987).

**Chlorides:** Sodium hypochlorite (NaClO), commonly known as "bleach," is an acceptable oral rinsing solution when diluted (0.05 – 0.5%; (Lobene, 1972)), according to the Council on Dental Therapeutics of the American Dental Association (1992). It is inexpensive and can be used in water spray devices (Rams and Slots, 1996; Slots, 2000). Very recent studies have demonstrated that a 0.1% chloro-dioxide solution can have a significant influence on halitosis and dental plaque (Frascella et al, 2000); however, effective killing of microorganisms within mature biofilms requires at least a 10% concentration, which is generally unpalatable.

**Fluorides:** Stannous fluoride ( $\text{SnF}_2$ , the therapeutic ingredient in the very first fluoride toothpaste in the 1960s) must actually be categorized as a metal salt compound, because its effectiveness against plaque bacteria is due to its tin (Sn) content and not to the fluoride alone (Bay and Roella, 1980; Ogaard et al, 1980; Tinanoff et al, 1980; Leverett et al, 1981; Wieder et al, 1983; Tinanoff, 1995). In Europe and Japan,  $\text{SnF}_2$  is available over-the-counter as an effervescent tablet ("ParoCare"®) and as such can be used in water spray devices or as a 0.02% oral rinse at home, or in the dental operatory for rapid and practical disinfection, plaque reduction and simultaneous dental fluoridation (Mazza et al, 1981; Wolff et al, 1989; Oosterwaal et al, 1991). When applied as a gel, stannous fluoride significantly reduces plaque accumulation around bridge abutment teeth (Tinanoff et al, 1989). Regular and continued use of stannous fluoride preparations will result in a light yellowish discoloration of teeth unless the teeth are also routinely cleaned with an abrasive dentifrice (Ciancio, 1985, 1995).

### Heavy Metal Salts

**Zinc** salts are effective plaque-inhibiting agents (Skjörland et al, 1978; Harrap et al, 1983; Jones et al, 1988). Zinc also reduces the acidogenic potential of dental plaque (Oppermann et al, 1980). Combinations of zinc salts with hexetidine (see below) or other substances have led to additive and synergistic effects (Saxer and Mühlemann, 1983; Giertsen et al, 1987; Günbay et al, 1992; Jackson, 1997). With 3x daily rinsing, plaque inhibition similar to that achieved with CHX was observed using a combination of zinc and hexetidine (Saxer and Hug, 1984). A rinsing solution containing 0.4% zinc sulfate and 0.15% triclosan (see below) was shown to significantly reduce dental plaque, calculus formation and gingival inflammation (Schaecken et al, 1996). When incorporated as the single active ingredient in dentifrices, zinc has been associated with an approximate 20% reduction of dental plaque (Williams et al, 1998). In combination with triclosan (see below), pronounced reductions in plaque, calculus and gingival inflammation have been reported (Saxton et al, 1987; Svaton et al, 1993).

### Phenols

**Listerine:** This venerable and world-wide recognized OTC mouthwash contains menthol and var-

ious "essential oils." It binds well to bacterial cell surfaces, and is bactericidal for many microorganisms. It is for this reason that Listerine elicits significant plaque reduction, especially after long-term and regular use. Furthermore, it appears that the lipopolysaccharides from gram-negative bacteria are bound by the constituents in Listerine, and this could explain why Listerine is also used effectively to reduce halitosis (Fine, 1995; Fine et al, 1985, 2000; Jackson, 1997).

**Triclosan:** Triclosan accumulates on the cytoplasmic membranes of microorganisms, and is bactericidal. Triclosan possesses a broad spectrum of effectiveness, and it is an ingredient in several international dentifrices and mouthwashes, most notably Colgate's "Total"® tooth paste (Mankoti et al, 1992). As a single ingredient, triclosan has only minimal effect in plaque reduction (Addy and Bates, 1997), but in combination with a copolymer (Lindhe et al, 1993; Rosling et al, 1997) or with zinc (Svaton et al, 1993) there appears to be a significant synergistic effect. Triclosan is not a charged molecule, thus it is bound with polymers that improve its substantivity (Ciancio, 1985, 1995). The best results with such combinations have been observed following 3–6 months of regular use (Renton-Harper et al, 1996; Roella et al, 1997; Rosling et al, 1997). Very recently on the Internet (Gee, 2000), triclosan was reportedly detected in breast milk, but other authors dispute this finding (Lindhe, 2000).

**Hexetidine:** In comparison to mouthwashes containing CHX, hexetidine has a rather small plaque-inhibiting effect; chemically, hexetidine is unrelated to CHX. The oral retention time for hexetidine is only 1–3 hours, and it is this fact that determines its minimal plaque-reducing effect (Roberts and Addy, 1981). In concentrations higher than 0.1%, hexetidine may elicit oral ulcerations (Bergenholtz and Hanstrom, 1974). Improved clinical results with hexetidine have been reported when it is combined with zinc (Saxer, 1978; Giertsen et al, 1987; Eley, 1999).

As a constituent in mouthwash, hexetidine possesses high efficacy against streptococci in the pharynx and on the tonsils (Saxer and Mühlemann, 1983; Kühr et al, 1969). However, as a pure plaque-inhibiting agent, its role is small (Mühlemann, 1984); nevertheless, a report by Bokor (1996) showed sig-

nificant plaque reduction after direct topical application of 0.2% hexetidine spray.

### Quaternary Ammonium Bases

The antibacterial effects of quaternary ammonium bases were first described in 1935 by Dogmagk. Various mouthwashes incorporating quaternary ammonium bases such as cetylpyridium chloride are commercially available OTC in the USA and elsewhere around the world, e.g., "Cepacol"® (Lobene et al, 1979; Renton-Harper et al, 1996; Allen et al, 1998; Yates et al, 1998; Ciancio, 2000). The basic quaternary ammonium compounds bind to negatively charged surfaces in the oral cavity, but this binding is not as strong as CHX, and the resultant effect is therefore measurably smaller (Ciancio, 1995). The quaternary ammonium bases have been used in combination with zinc (Ritchey et al, 1982) and with various essential oils and CHX. Reports have emerged that such combinations are effective against halitosis (Kozlovsky et al, 1996).

### Natural Products

**Sanguinarin/herbal extracts:** Sanguinarin is an extract from the root of the *Sanguinaria canadensis*. The effect of sanguinarin alone on plaque and inflammation is actually quite low, and even difficult to demonstrate clinically. Thus, in most commercially available products, sanguinarin has been combined with zinc, which enhances its efficacy (Klewansky and Vernier, 1984; Wennström and Lindhe, 1985; Mandel, 1988; Kopczyk et al, 1991). As a result of a potentially serious adverse side effect – leukoplakia (Agarwal et al, 1997; Allen, 1999; Damm et al, 1999) – most products containing sanguinarin were recently removed from the market. Since the market withdrawal, however, further studies have called into question the side effect of leukoplakia (Munro et al, 1999; Tennenbaum et al, 1999). Only further research will determine whether sanguinarin-containing oral care products will return to the OTC market.

Numerous other herbal extracts have been investigated. Slight plaque reductions have been reported, but combinations of ingredients have always been shown to be more effective in vivo (Otake et al, 1991; Saxer et al, 1994; Guggenheim et al, 1997; Yankell et al, 1998). The OTC product "Parodontax"®, available in

Europe but not yet in the USA, contains sodium bicarbonate and plant-derived substances such as chamomile (an antiphlogistic), myrrh (mildly astringent), sage (a tannin), ratanhia (an astringent), and echinacea (an elevator of resistance to infection). Sodium bicarbonate buffers acids and has been shown to reduce bacterial growth in animal studies (Yankell et al, 1988). The inflammation-reducing effects appear to be significant, and it is also available (in Europe) as an OTC mouthwash and as a concentrate.

## CONSEQUENCES FOR PERIODONTAL THERAPY – WHERE IS THE FUTURE?

In view of the new and emerging knowledge about the various dangers and ramifications of periodontal infections, their contagious nature, and the likelihood of systemic consequences, the oral health care team is obligated to carefully re-consider the modalities of therapy that have heretofore represented the "gold standard." The routine and aggressive use of antimicrobial agents may become part of the "treatment of choice," and traditional "quadrant-by-quadrant" scaling and root planing may wane, replaced, perhaps, by the technique of "full mouth disinfection" (Quirynen et al, 2000) (see also Table 2). Further, it is becoming clear that all infected sites in a mouth must be treated simultaneously, and that the spouse and perhaps even other family members must also be clinically evaluated and/or treated within a 24-hour period of time. This aggressive approach was pioneered in 1995 by Quirynen and co-workers (Quirynen et al, 1995), and has been substantiated by subsequent clinical studies. It is a 5-step procedure:

1. Following thorough scaling and root planing under local anesthesia, during one or two appointments within a 24-hour window, first in the maxilla and then in the mandible, all periodontal pockets are thoroughly irrigated with an antibacterial solution (chlorhexidine digluconate is the apparent drug of choice, the 0.12% commercially available prescription-only products in the USA)
2. The surface of the tongue is cleaned using a toothbrush and chlorhexidine solution
3. All periodontal pockets are re-irrigated using CHX solution during a 10-minute time period, to eliminate resistant bacteria

4. The tonsils, vestibules, uvula, sublingual area, as well as any other potential harbors for bacteria are treated using CHX spray
5. The patient is instructed to rinse twice daily with CHX solution for the next 12 weeks.

Clinical studies have shown that this therapeutic regimen, in contrast to the traditionally performed quadrant-by-quadrant treatment, reduces probing depths in periodontitis patients by an additional 1.5 – 2.0 mm. Although another study showed that full-mouth therapy within a short period of time (e.g., 24 hr) was effective even without the antibacterial irrigation and subsequent rinses, Quirynen et al (1999) continue to recommend the entire procedure, including antibacterial irrigation and rinsing, stating that home care by patients after extensive periodontal debridement procedures is often inadequate. Finally, the pioneering research by Quirynen et al has recently been corroborated by Wennström (2000), who also incorporated ultrasonic devices into the therapeutic regimen.

## CONCLUSION

There is a rapidly-increasing knowledge base concerning the role of bacteremia originating from the oral cavity, and it is now known that pre-treatment topical antimicrobial rinses can significantly reduce such bacteremia, which in turn also should help to prevent cardiac, circulatory and pulmonary consequences.

These facts will enhance the importance of comprehensive dental and dental hygiene care. Treatment for periodontitis patients will expand, to include more intense antimicrobial regimens, and the combination of full-mouth debridement with therapeutic antibacterial disinfection of pockets may preclude the necessity of intervention by a periodontist. For post-operative care following surgical intervention, antimicrobial agents will insure significantly better results, particularly in patients who are highly genetically susceptible to periodontitis (Hassell and Harris, 1995), and "refractory" periodontal patients, who can be protected from re-infection and recurrence through targeted use of antimicrobials.

The dental team has at its disposal a potent larder of effective antimicrobial agents. It will become incumbent upon all practitioners to remain abreast

of the latest research studies, in order to make appropriate decisions about which antimicrobial to use for each patient, and how the antimicrobial should be employed.

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