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Antiviral and antibacterial effects of preprocedural mouthrinses

By Professor Laurence J. Walsh



"it is clear that preprocedural rinsing by all dental patients combined with use of HVE during procedures offer major benefits for reducing the risk from aerosolized material and form a better platform for a risk reduction strategy..."

ith winter now upon us, it is timely to ponder the inevitable onslaught of winter colds and viral influenza in the community and to ensure that all possible measures are taken to preserve the health of both dental staff and dental patients.

While annual influenza vaccination, hand hygiene with alcohol-based hand rubs and respiratory hygiene measures form the three main pillars of modern influenza prevention, many health professionals are not aware of the challenges faced through treating dental patients who may be infectious with viral influenza or other viral diseases, but who are not yet symptomatic. Dental treatment of such patients, through the generation of splatter, droplets and aerosols, can transmit such infections to other patients as well as to dental staff.

Aerosols are liquid and solid particles, 50 microns or less in diameter, which are suspended in air and float freely on air currents. The particles in aerosol cannot be seen with the naked eye under most lighting situations. Splatter is a mixture of air, water and/or solid substances. The droplets in splatter range in size from 50 microns up to several millimetres in diameter and are visible to the naked eye. Because of their larger size, the particles in splatter behave in a ballistic fashion and immediately fall out onto surfaces through gravitational forces.

What can be found in dental aerosols?

The problem of aerial dispersal of material from a patient's mouth is aptly demonstrated in a May 2011 study which measured blood contamination of aerosols floating in the air during dental procedures at distances of either 50 or 100 cm directly behind the patient's mouth - the location where the operator is normally seated when at the 12 o'clock position.\(^1\)
The results of that study, which are summarized in Table 1, demonstrate that blood-contaminated aerosols can be suspended in air during many common dental treatment procedures.

Similar results had been reported by the same group in their previous study of blood in particulate mists from high speed turbines when used for oral surgery, with blood found in the aerosol some 100 cm from the surgical site in 57% of cases.² In fact, the same research team also found blood-contaminated aerosol floating in the air of operating theatres at distances as much as 4.6 metres from the operating site when patients had undergone procedures using high-speed instruments.³

Returning to the dental context, the ability of ultrasonic scalers and powered dental handpieces to generate aerosols laden with bacteria and viruses is well documented in the literature. Subgingival scaling of periodontally involved teeth with ultrasonic scalers produces aerosols containing both

blood⁴ and viable bacteria.⁵ All types of ultrasonic scalers and tips produce substantial aerosol and splatter and the extent of this is not dramatically affected by the type of scaler, the power level used or the type of insert.⁵

In real terms, it should be recognized that many of the studies in the literature have examined only the levels of aerobic bacteria in aerosols. Few have examined anaerobic bacteria, fungi or viruses in dental aerosols. Moreover, the "fall out" or plate count approach used to recover viable bacteria is subject to a level of error because bacteria exposed to the air may remain viable yet they may lose the ability to form colonies, i.e. they become non-culturable. If some airborne bacteria exhibit this phenomenon, data from colony formation will underestimate the true extent of bacterial populations in air samples.

Against this methodological limitation, one can now consider quantitative data on dental aerosols. In one study,6 an assessment of how far airborne bacteria spread during dental treatment and the level of contamination was undertaken by measuring the "fall out" of viable bacteria onto blood agar culture plates placed in six different sectors. The plates were located at distances between 50 and 200 cm from the patient's mouth. Whenever high-speed or ultrasonic dental instruments were used, significant contamination of the room at all distances sampled was found, with an average of 970 colony-forming units per square metre per hour. The major bacterial groups were Gram-positive cocci such as viridans streptococci and staphylococci.

Many other studies have shown that viruses and viral material may also be present in dental aerosols. Taken together, such findings indicate that a large part of the dental operatory could be affected by aerosol contamination, which emphasizes the need for effective ways of reducing the extent of aerosol contamination.

What factors affect aerosol production? The presence and extent of aerosols in the dental treatment environment is influenced by patient factors as well as by the clinical techniques employed. All procedures performed with high speed or ultrasonic instrumentation will aerosolize material from the patient's saliva and dental plaque biofilm, as well as any blood present and materials such as restorations, calculus or tooth structure that are being cut, abraded

Table 1. Frequency of blood contaminated aerosols by distance				
Procedure	50 cm	100 cm		
Third molar surgery	92%	90%		
Full-crown preparation	70%	48%		
Class II cavity preparation	35%	29%		
Scaling with an ultrasonic scaler	33%	12%		

Based on data from Ref. 1.

Table 2. A layered approach reducing the risks posed by aerosols

- Reduce the source of contamination
 Preprocedural mouthrinse
- Reduce the spread of contamination
 Correct patient positioning
 Application of dental dam for restorative procedures
 Use of high velocity evacuation during procedures
- 3. Prevent aerosol and splatter contact with mucosa of dental staff Wearing surgical masks correctly
- 4. Reduce the likelihood of inhaling aerosols

 Air dilution and air filtration through airconditioning
- 5. Increase the resistance of the host Vaccination to infectious diseases (influenza, tuberculosis)

or scaled. For right-handed operators, the areas most heavily affected by splatter are right forearm, face and thorax regions, whilst for aerosols the interaction of aerosol produced during dental treatment with the air in the breathing zone of the dental operator and assistant is not concentrated in any particular direction but instead is widely dispersed.⁸

The ubiquitous presence of microorganism in saliva explains why aerosol and splatter generated from dental treatment contain bacteria, viruses, and fungi, as well as blood. The microbial contamination will not be visible to the naked eye and in fact even the presence of blood will not be visible in many cases. To

How can aerosols be reduced?

It is becoming commonplace in dental practice to use a layered approach reducing the risks posed by aerosols (Table 2). The first of these layers is aerosol reduction at the point of generation, by having patients use a pre-procedural mouthrinse at the start of a dental treatment appointment. The second layer is correct patient positioning, followed by the use of rubber dam for restorative dentistry. The next layer is the use of high volume evacuation (HVE) during procedures. Careful use of HVE during ultrasonic scaling has been shown to reduce aerosol production by 93%11 and even further ben-

efits are possible if extra-oral suction-filtration devices are also used.^{5,12}

While the use of HVE, rubber dam and correct patient positioning can assist with aerosol control, it must be realized that such measures are difficult to implement when dental operators work without a dedicated chairside assistant, as may be the case with dental hygiene appointments.¹³ Rubber dam cannot be used during periodontal debridement or during the use of air powder (bicarbonate) polishers, even though both produce considerable aerosols and negatively affect the quality of air breathed by the operator.¹⁴

Can aerosols transmit influenza?

There is an extensive literature regarding the transmission of infection by aerosols. A June 2011 systematic review¹⁵ compared modes and sources of accidental (occupational) viral infection in health care workers, based on 66 studies which were included in the analysis. Aerosol was the major route of infection for arboviruses, alphaviruses, coronaviruses and influenza type B. The situation is more complex for influenza A (seasonal influenza) because human saliva contains an alpha-2-macroglobulin and a related protein which appear to bind to haemagglutinin (the H of H1N1) and may alter the likelihood of viral transmission in some cases.16

Recent studies of the different relative contribution pathways for influenza A virus exposure indicate that virus-contaminated hand contact with facial membranes is responsible for 21% of cases, inhalation of aerosolized particles for 18% of cases and spray of cough droplets onto facial membranes for 52% of cases.¹⁷ These data were derived from the scenario of a person attending a bed-ridden family member who is ill with influenza A. In dental practice, where there is closer proximity between individuals and greater exposure to saliva, inhalation increases in importance as a pathway for infection. At the same time, spray of droplets onto the face becomes less important for transmission because surgical masks worn by dental staff have fluid resistant coatings. This research on relative risks stresses the value of approaches such as preprocedural rinsing which can reduce the level of potential exposure from both inhalation and droplet spray.

Value of pre-procedural rinsing

Most dental professionals would readily recognize that agents used as pre-procedural rinses, such as chlorhexidine, essential oils (Listerine[™]) and freshly ozonated water (see box on right), have rapid bactericidal actions and consequently will reduce the levels of viable bacteria from the endogenous flora in the aerosol generated by dental treatment. It is now recognized that these same agents also exert significant antiviral effects against many common viruses which have lipid-based envelopes, such as herpes simplex virus (HSV) and HIV, as well as against human influenza viruses.

In their undiluted form (as would be used for mouth rinsing) and when diluted to 50% of their original concentration, both Listerine and 0.12% chlorhexidine preparations have been found to inactivate HSV and HIV within 30 seconds. 18 Listerine has been shown to reduce the presence of viral contamination in oral fluids for at least 60 minutes after oral rinsing and to eliminate infectious HSV virions for at least 30 minutes, even in patients with active recurrent herpes infection of the oral or peri-oral region. 19

Of interest, peppermint oil, which is a common flavouring agent used in mouthrinses, has its own potent antiviral actions, even at very low concentrations (down to 0.002%). The ability to inhibit enveloped viruses before or during their adsorption onto target cells, as displayed

Using ozone as a preprocedural mouthrinse

Topical use of ozonated water in dentistry leverages the antimicrobial and immune stimulating properties of ozone. Ozonated water has been suggested as an alternative pre-procedural rinse to existing agents such as chlorhexidine and essential oils. Ozone in water can kill bacteria and other pathogenic microorganisms by rapidly rupturing their cell membranes (within several seconds). The same effects occur when dental plaque is exposed to ozonated water as a rinse. Ozonated water has no side-effects such as unpleasant taste or tooth staining, which are characteristic of other biocides or disinfecting agents.

Ozonated water can also be used as a sterile irrigation solution for surgery (as it enhances haemostasis), or as an antimicrobial mouthrinse following tooth extraction. Of interest, ozonated water when used as a daily mouthrinse has been reported to accelerate healing of oral mucosal wounds, particularly when used over the first 48 hours after surgery. The same benefits of accelerated wound closure may be seen when used in patients with oral ulcerations from chemotherapy. The greater speed of wound closure can be explained by the known positive effects of topical ozone on enhancing the local microcirculation. Known positive biological effects of ozone include improved oxygenation of tissues, greater cell motility and accelerating of immune responses to bacteria. Accompanying these effects is an enhancement of natural antioxidant defence systems.

Ozone is known to stimulate the production of several key cytokines, including interleukins 2, 6, and 8 and transforming growth factor-beta, and to attenuate the inflammation driven by bacterial lipopolysaccharides. Recent studies have also shown that ozonated water as a mouthrinse can reduce gingivitis in orthodontic patients. As a topical agent, the use of ozonated water has an excellent safety profile as ozone dissipates quickly as it is converted back to diatomic oxygen. Its use is well established in 16 countries and there is an extensive supporting literature from the work of Bocci, Filippi and other investigators.

A range of systems are available to ozonate water from small volumes up to the enterprise level. Electrolytically generated water ozonation, for example, is being incorporated into the new University of Queensland Oral Health Centre which is currently under construction in Brisbane, where it will supply over 170 dental units.

Point-of-use systems that produce ozonated water on demand for use as a mouthrinse, etc are also available that are ideal for dental surgeries.

by peppermint oil, eucalyptol and other essential oils in Listerine, is shared with a number of other essential oils, including terpinen-4-ol the major active component of tea tree oil.²¹ There is accumulating evidence that a number of the essential oils also exert, beyond their antimicrobial effects against many bacteria, viruses, and fungi, considerable immune stimulating anti-inflammatory and anti-oxidant actions which may be of benefit in the host response to infection.²²⁻²⁶

Taken together, such findings reinforce long-standing recommendations over 20 years that routine use of pre-procedural mouthrinses by clinicians may be beneficial in reducing viral contamination of bio-aerosols during the delivery of dental care. ^{27,28} Today, there is a solid evidence base supporting both Listerine and chlorhexidine for this purpose when used as a mouthrinse for 30 seconds at the start of a dental visit. ^{27,30} For example, two

double-blind controlled clinical studies have assessed the efficacy of preprocedural rinsing with Listerine on the level of viable bacteria recovered from dental aerosols when generated immediately after and 40 minutes after rinsing. In the first study, following a 24-hour no-oral-hygiene period, patients underwent 10 minutes of ultrasonic scaling of a randomly chosen half mouth, then rinsed with Listerine or a control and then underwent ultrasonic scaling of the remaining half of their mouth.

The second study followed the same basic design except that ultrasonic scaling was done for 5 minutes and the postrinsing sampling was performed 40 minutes later. Rinsing with Listerine resulted in a 92.1% reduction in viable bacteria in aerosols generated immediately after rinsing and a 91.3% reduction in aerosols generated 40 minutes after rinsing.^{31,32}

Table 3. Comparison of chlorhexidine and Listerine formulations for preprocedural rinsing Chlorhexidine Listerine **Parameter** Bactericidal for streptococci Yes Yes Yes Bactericidal for aerobic bacteria Most Bactericidal for facultative bacteria Some Yes Bactericidal for Gram negative bacteria Some Yes Bactericidal for strict anaerobes Few Yes Fungicidal Yes Yes Supporting evidence for reduced aerosol levels from clinical trials Yes Yes Bitter No After-taste Risk of allergy Yes No Anti-inflammatory actions No Yes Ethanol-free versions available Yes Yes

Table 4. Antiviral actions of biocides				
Virus	Chlorhexidine	Listerine		
Susceptible viruses				
Herpes simplex virus-1 and 2	Yes	Yes		
Cytomegalovirus	Yes	ND		
Influenza A	Yes	Yes		
Adenovirus	No	Yes		
Coronaviruses	No	Yes		
Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV-1)	Yes	Yes		
Hepatitis B	Yes	ND		
Polio	No	ND		
Rotavirus	Yes	Yes		

Based on Refs. 18, 48-51. ND = Not determined.

A third clinical trial showed that rinsing with Listerine produced a 94.1% reduction in recoverable bacteria in the breathing zone of the dental operator during ultrasonic scaling.³³ Similar findings were shown in other studies, with bacterial levels from aerosols reduced for up to 60 minutes³⁴ and salivary levels of bacteria reduced for at least 12 hours after a single rinse.³⁵

Product selection

Preprocedural rinsing has been in wide use internationally for over a decade, with both chlorhexidine and Listerine being used by clinicians to decrease aerosolization of oral microorganism, as well as to reduce oral bacterial load and thereby reduce the likelihood of postoperative infections.³⁶ For Listerine, pre-procedural rinsing combined with pre-procedural subgingival irrigation can significantly

reduce the level of bacteraemia associated with subgingival ultrasonic scaling.³⁷

A range of ethanol-free preparations are now available for both Listerine and chlorhexidine, making this approach simple to apply as a routine measure for both adult and child patients. The initial taste of the ethanol-free formulations will be less intense than the ethanol-containing versions, however from clinical studies it appears that the bitter after-taste of the chlorhexidine rinse will remained longer in the mouth with the ethanol-free version than with the traditional formula containing ethanol.³⁸ There are a number of differences between these agents, as summarized in Tables 3 and 4.

A note of caution must be included here regarding two matters. The first relates to the spectrum of antiviral activity of these agents. Despite its actions against Gram positive bacteria and common viruses when used as a preprocedural rinse,³⁹⁻⁴¹ several studies have reported a lack of antiviral actions for chlorhexidine against adenovirus and coronaviruses, the two families of viruses which together are responsible for the majority of winter colds. This is true even with extended exposures of up to 90 minutes.41,42 Chlorhexidine is bactericidal for some facultative bacteria,43 but unlike Listerine it has little or no effect on many strict anaerobes,44,45 the group of bacteria which pose a major risk of postoperative infections in patients undergoing oral surgery. There are also issues with potential allergy to chlorhexidine,52-55 a problem not reported for Listerine. This risk is a contra-indication for subgingival application of chlorhexidine into heavily inflamed or bleeding sites because of risk of systemic exposure to sensitized basophils and the attendant risk of anaphylaxis. For these reasons, chlorhexidine when used as a pre-procedural mouthrinse cannot be regarded as a panacea for all clinical situations.

Clinical implications

Several infectious diseases can potentially be transmitted to dental staff and patients by airborne bacterial, viral, fungal and other contaminants in the dental clinic. While air-conditioning and ventilation systems need to be regularly maintained to prevent recirculation of bacterial aerosols, it is clear that preprocedural rinsing by all dental patients combined with use of HVE (rather than low velocity suction) during procedures offer major benefits for reducing the risk from aerosolized material, 46,47 and form a better platform for a risk reduction strategy.

Owing to its strong broad-spectrum antimicrobial effects, its anti-inflammatory properties and the fact that it has fewer side effects than chlorhexidine, an ethanolfree Listerine rinse would seem an ideal preprocedural mouthrinse for helping to decrease the level of contamination in splatter and for making the dental operatory a safer environment for both patients and dental staff (Table 3). Because of the need to apply multiple layers of risk reduction, dental staff should also undertake appropriate immunizations (such as annual influenza vaccinations) and continue to wear surgical masks to reduce contact with aerosols in the clinical environment.

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