Review

Use of Silver Diamine Fluoride in Dentistry

Leticia Ito¹, May L Mei¹, Edward CM Lo¹, CH Chu^{1*}

1- Faculty of Dentistry, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong

* **Corresponding Author:** Dr C.H. Chu, Faculty of Dentistry, The University of Hong Kong, 34 Hospital Road, Hong Kong SAR, China. E mail: <u>chchu@hku.hk</u>

Edited by: Dr. Ryan Quock, University of Texas-Houston School of Dentistry, Restorative Dentistry & Biomaterials, Houston, TX, USA. E-mail:<u>Ryan.Quock@uth.tmc.edu</u>

Keywords: Silver diamine fluoride, dentistry, review

Received: August 18, 2015

Accepted: September 02, 2015

Published:September 30, 2015

Abstract

Silver diamine fluoride (SDF) is an alternative to traditional surgical and restorative treatment approaches in caries management. Although it stains teeth and has a metallic taste, SDF is a noninvasive, simple and affordable dental treatment which improves children's oral health, increases their access to care, controls pain and infection, and requires minimal personnel time and training. It is also recommended for uncooperative child patients. SDF can be applied with a simple applicator or microbrush without the need of complicated equipment or instruments. Studies have shown that SDF's triple mechanism of action against bacteria and augmentation of the mineral and organic content of dental hard tissues results in a reduction in tooth tissue solubility against chemical acid challenge and facilitates tissue remineralisation. This may be the reason for SDF's effectiveness in preventing and arresting caries. SDF may become a safe and efficient caries control agent which can fulfil the World Health Organization's Millennium Goals and the US Institute of Medicine's criteria for 21st-century medical care. Further studies have investigated its effectiveness in endodontic and hypersensitivity treatment.

Use of silver compounds in dentistry

Silver has been used for its medical properties for centuries, especially in the prevention of microbial infections [1]. Interest in silver nitrate solution was revived by Moyer in 1965 [2]. He demonstrated that it works as an antiseptic agent due to the presence of silver. Since then, silver has been used as a major therapeutic agent in medicine. In dentistry, the use of silver compounds was introduced for clinical treatment more than 170 years ago. However, in Japan, a similar traditional practice existed from ancient times until the Edo Period, which ended in 1868. This traditional custom, called "ohaguro," was practiced by women and some noblemen [3]. They dyed their teeth black by blending gallnut powder with acetic acid solution and iron (as an aesthetic agent). In addition to the blackening effect, this practice also protected the teeth from caries and periodontal problems. The presumed first report of the use of silver compound in dentistry was of silver nitrate (AgNO₂) used for arresting caries in the 1840s [4]. In 1917, Howe added ammonia water to make the solution alkaline. He used this solution, ammonical silver nitrate ([Ag(NH₃)₂]NO₃), to sterilize root canals. It was later applied to enamel pits and dentine to prevent caries [5]. Although silver nitrate stained the teeth black, it was still used in the 1960s [6, 7]. However, silver nitrate could not promote dentine remineralisation due to the formation of soluble calcium nitrate and the consequent loss of calcium.

Silver fluoride (AgF) achieved better results in this particular aspect. It both prevented [8] and arrested caries [9] resulting in tissue which was more calcified due to the reaction of fluoride with calcium [10, 11]. However, it needed to be followed by stannous fluoride solution as a reducing agent to stabilize the reaction. Silver diamine fluoride (Ag(NH₂)₂F), or SDF, was developed in consideration of the actions of fluoride and silver [3]. It was accepted as a therapeutic agent for dental treatment in Japan since 1960s [12]. SDF has also been used for many years in countries other than Japan [13]. In the 1980s, the Brazilian Ministry of Health, influenced by the Scandinavian movement, adopted a national oral health prevention program with widespread SDF use [14]. It has also been used in Australia [15], China [16, 17], Argentina [18] and Spain [19]. In Cuba [20, 21], Peru [22], Venezuela [23] and Nepal [24], SDF was used to arrest caries in community projects. The US Food and Drug Administration cleared SDF in 2014 for off-label use as a fluoride to desensitize teeth roots.

Since SDF's introduction in dentistry, it has been used to boost remineralisation of dental hard tissues and to act against cariogenic bacteria. As a safe and efficient caries control agent, it has been used to prevent and arrest caries in both primary and permanent teeth [16, 21, 24-27]. A review concluded that it may fulfil the World Health Organization's Millennium Goals [28] and the US Institute of Medicine's criteria for 21st-century medical care [29]. SDF is also used to prevent root fracture [30], as a dentine desensitizer prior to cementing procedures and for tooth hypersensitivity [31, 32]. It can also be use combined with laser irradiation to increase the acid-resistance of enamel and dentine [33-35]. SDF is compatible with glass ionomer cement and resin composites [36], as studies have reported that SDF does not affect these materials' bond strength [37]. The use of SDF as a root canal disinfectant has been investigated in several in vitro studies. Studies have shown that SDF was effective against Enterococcus faecalis, which is associated with root canal treatment failure [38, 39]. This review aims to provide an overview of SDF's escalating use in dentistry.

Identification and mode of use

SDF is a stable and alkaline solution containing fluoride ions, ammonia and silver ions. Table 1 shows different concentrations of commercially available preparations of SDF used for these diverse applications. Their concentrations of SDF vary between 3.8% and 38%. The 3.8% concentration is most commonly used for root canal treatment, the higher concentrations are used for caries management and the 38% concentration is used for hypersensitivity management.

The most common direction of use of SDF for caries arrest is once or twice per year [16, 21]. A more intensive regimen of fluoride application has been suggested to increase the proportion of caries arrest [40]. One study demonstrated that both an annual application and three consecutive weekly applications of 38% SDF solution are more effective in arresting dentine caries in primary teeth than three consecutive weekly applications of 5% sodium fluoride varnish [41].

For dentine hypersensitivity treatment, application varies from one to five applications within different periods of time. The highest percentage of pain reduction (99%) was achieved with five applications within three months [42]. However, there are no clear guidelines for choosing a mode of application or a concentration [43]. Similarly, for endodontic treatment, no standard mode of application has been determined. Therefore, the proper concentrations and usage directions for each specific clinical use should be further investigated.

Table 1 : SDF p	roducts and t	their manufacture	ers
-----------------	---------------	-------------------	-----

Product	Manufacturer and Country	Contact
Advantage Arrest SDF 38%	Elevate Oral Care, USA	(+8) 77 866-9113 (Florida, USA) http://www.elevateoralcare.com/ dentist/AdvantageArrest
Cariestop 12% and Cariestop 30%	BiodinamicaQuimica e Farma- ceutica Ltda, Brazil	(+55) 43 3178-7000 http://www.biodinamica.com.br/
Fagamin 38%	Tedequim SRL, Argentina	(+54) 35 43 44-8260 http://www.tedequim.com.ar/ productos-eng.html
Fluoroplat 38%	NAF Laboratorios, Argentina	(+54) 11 4865-9096 http://www.nafonline.com.ar/
Riva Star SDF 38%	SDI, Australia	(+61) 3 8727 7111 http://www.sdi.com.au/es/riva-star/ <u>riva-star</u>
Saforide 3.8% and Saforide 38%	Toyo Seiyaku Kasei Co. Ltd. Japan	(+81)75-605-2300 (J. Morita MFG. Corp) http://www.morita.com/

Actions on plaque and teeth

The mechanism behind SDF's actions has yet to be determined. Studies have, however, investigated SDF and reported its antimicrobial activity and its effects on dental hard tissues such as enamel and dentin. In this study, the discussion of SDF's efects is grouped into 3 parts: antimicrobial activity, effect on the mineral (inorganic) content of dental hard tissues and effect on collagen and proteases (organic content) in dentine.

Antimicrobial effects (in cariogenic and endodontic treatment for associated bacteria)

Although SDF's mechanism against cariogenic bacteria is still not fully understood, studies have demonstrated that SDF is effective against mono- and multi-species coronal cariogenic biofilm [44-46]. SDF also inhibits the growth of bacteria associated with root caries [47] and is effective against *E. faecalis* [38, 39]. Silver ion has been found to be the main biofilm inhibitory element in SDF [48]. Silver ions can cause structural changes and damage to the bacterial membranes, causing cellular distortions and even bacteria death [49]. Silver ions have been suggested to interfere with the synthesis of glucans (from sucrose). Thus, SDF affects the adhesion of the bacteria to the surface [50, 51] and disables bacterial cell division [52]. According to the fundamental mechanism suggested by Russel and Hugo [53], the process of killing bacteria or inhibiting biofilm formation is due to silver ions' inhibition or induction of genes and transporter systems [54]. Besides the antibacterial effect of silver ions, the fluoride ions, such as those released from SDF application, may also exercise an inhibitory effect on bacteria [55]. SDF has a high concentration of fluoride, which can inhibit biofilm formation [46]. Fluoride acts at the cellular and/or dental plaque level, reducing carbohydrate metabolism and the sugar uptake of acidogenic bacteria by inhibiting enolase and proton-extruding adenosine triphosphatase (ATPase). Fluoride also increases the bacteria's acquisition of protons, resulting in diminished tolerance, growth and metabolism in acidic environments [56].

Effects on the mineral content of dentine and enamel

Suzuki [57] proposed a simplified chemical reaction scheme for the interaction of SDF and dental hard tissues. Calcium fluoride and silver phosphate are the major products in the reaction of SDF with dental hard tissue. Calcium fluoride is an essential reaction product. It works as a fluoride reservoir during cariogenic challenges. The precipitated silver phosphate forms an insoluble layer on the tooth's surface and provides a reservoir of phosphate ions [57]. SDF is alkaline, so it provides a favourable pH for the formation of covalent bonds between the phosphates from saliva and the proteins in dentine [58, 59]. Once the phosphate is incorporated into the dentine collagen, the phosphorylated dentine collagen attracts calcium ions, facilitating the nucleation of apatite for the remineralisation needed for crystal growth [60]. Calcium and phosphate from saliva and the demineralization process diffuse into the tooth; at the same time, fluoride (especially from the dissociation of CaF₂) binds to the existing crystal remnants, forming fluorapatite [61]. Fluorapatite is significantly less soluble and more acid-resistant than hydroxyapatite or calcium fluoride [3], so it is also more resistant to caries.

In vitro analysis of mineral content has shown that SDF can prevent caries [27], re-harden and remineralise decayed dentine [47, 62] and reduce mineral loss in dentine caries [47, 58]. However, another in vitro study found that fluoride varnish was more effective than SDF in reducing enamel surface demineralization [63]. SDF application has also been demonstrated to possibly contribute to dentine tubule orifice occlusion [64]. Precipitates containing high phosphorous and silver content occluded the dentinal tubules [46] and decreased their dye permeability [65] after SDF application. Silver ions can precipitate proteins in the dentinal tubules [66], and fluoride ions can react with free calcium ions. The products of the latter reaction are deposits of calcium fluoride which can block dentinal tubules [67].

Effects on organic content of dentine

Studies have shown that SDF treatment can protect dentine collagen [46, 47]. SDF's mechanism of action on the dentine's organic content is not clear. SDF has been found to have a high concentration of silver ion may cause physio-chemical or morphological changes, resulting in a more degradation-resistant collagen structure [58, 68] and increased inhibition of bacterial collagenase activity [69]. In addition, although SDF's mechanism on endopeptidases is not totally elucidated, it has been demonstrated that SDF may inhibit the activity of matrix metalloproteinases [33, 70] and cysteine cathepsins present in dentine [71]. SDF inhibits these enzymes' endogenous proteolytic activity on dentin, which leads to collagen degradation in the caries process [72]. The suggested mechanisms for the inhibitory effect against dentine endopeptidases may explain SDF's arresting effect.

Applications

SDF's triple action mechanism results in more than just clinical efficacy in caries management. In addition, studies have demonstrated that SDF can be used to manage hypersensitivity and for endodontic treatment. Three major clinical applications for SDF were identified:

Caries management

SDF can prevent and arrest caries in primary teeth, in permanent premolars and in children's molars [20, 73], including incipient caries [27]. It can also be used in rampant caries treatment [74] and to arrest caries in primary molars for very young children who are difficult to manage [13]. SDF's effectiveness in preventing the development of new root caries in adults has been demonstrated in clinical trials [75-77]. SDF has also been used as an indirect pulp-capping material to stimulate dentine remineralisation [18].

SDF treatment can be combined with laser irradiation to enhance its efficacy in preventing primary and secondary caries, providing a more resistant coronal and root dentine surface, both chemically and mechanically [58]. A review concluded that SDF can prevent secondary caries [15]. SDF conditioning does not affect the bond strength of resin composites, and it even enhances the strength of glass-ionomer cement [78]. SDF has been accepted as an effective tool due to its simple application, effectiveness in preventing and arresting caries and lower cost, especially in field settings.

Treatment of Hypersensitivity

Dentine hypersensitivity is a common clinical problem. The aetiology seems to be vigorous oral hygiene, diet and tooth wear that leads to open dentinal tubules. Recent clinical trials have also shown SDF's effectiveness as a tooth desensitizer in patients of various ages [32]. These studies evaluated tooth sensitivity for up to 12 months and showed a high level of effectiveness [42, 79-82]. The suggested mechanisms are the blockage of the dentinal tubules and the promotion of dentine remineralisation. A combination of SDF and potassium iodide (KI) were also used to desensitize teeth in a clinical trial [31]. KI could prevent the staining caused by SDF. Desensitization with Saforide also showed positive results without affecting the bond strength of a luting agent [83]. In short, SDF has proven to be an effective tooth desensitizer, although examination of its outcomes over a longer period of time and in comparison with other products is warranted.

Endodontic treatment

The elimination of microorganisms from the dentinal tubules in endodontic treatment is fundamental for successful treatment. In this regard, the removal of the smear layer to promote the flow of the intracanal medicaments is important. Many different antibacterial agents have been used, but failures due to the resistance of E. faecalis have been frequently reported [84]. Studies have demonstrated SDF's potential to reduce root dentinal permeability and increase dentine hardness and its effectiveness as an interappointment dressing and antimicrobial root canal irrigant [38]. It has been found to be effective against common root canal bacteria [85], including *E. faecalis* [39]. A CO₂ laser has been proven to be an effective method to remove or melt the smear layer on root canal walls after treatment with 38% SDF solution [86]. In addition,

Nd:YAG laser irradiation in combination with SDF, has promoted increased fracture resistance in endodontically treated teeth [30] and decreased permeability in dentinal tubules [87]. Laser treatment closes dentinal tubules by rapid melting and recrystallization. This may induce the incorporation of the silver in the SDF solution onto the surface of the dentine root.

Advantages and disadvantages

SDF promotes a non-invasive, simple and affordable dental treatment. Moreover, it increases children's and adults' access to care and improves their oral health in developing countries, helps control pain and infection and requires minimal time and training for personnel. SDF's low cost was also recognized in a report about the current use of professionally administered topical fluorides in Asian countries [88]. This study reported that SDF use may not correlate with the level of need in these populations, so it suggested that governments should pursue low-cost SDF treatment. In addition, SDF has been shown to offer superior efficacy compared to other means for preventing and arresting caries. It was identified as the "best choice" for root caries prevention in adults when compared to three other preventive agents (fluoride, chlorhexidine and amorphous calcium phosphate) presented in different formulations, concentrations and routes of administration [89]. SDF was also compared to glass-ionomer cement for arresting treatment on primary teeth [25, 90] and to sodium fluoride varnish for preventing [26, 27] and arresting caries on permanent first molars in children [16, 17, 29, 41], with SDF in each case showing a significant higher effectiveness. SDF also showed a longer-term preventive effect, and consequently lower cost, relative to sealants [23].

The disadvantages of using SDF in arresting caries are the staining of the carious tissue and the metallic taste. Recent studies in Australia have suggested that a combined use with KI can prevent staining [36, 91], but further studies should be done to corroborate this evidence for clinical practice. Another suggestion to overcome the staining problem is the restoration of SDF-treated teeth with glass ionomer cement [92] and ammonium hexafluorosilicate. Nevertheless, the acid resistance of the teeth after application of the latter was shown to be inferior to those treated with SDF [13]. The problem of staining was also reported in root canal treatments, so SDF should be recommended especially for locations in which staining is not a major concern. However, no significant patient complaints have been reported, and SDF's benefits in caries treatment seem to outweigh the problem.

Safety concerns and precautions of use

The safety concerns associated with SDF are related to fluorosis, soft tissue irritation and potential cytotoxicity in periapical host cells.

Fluorosis

The possibility of acute toxicity or fluorosis through SDF use has been debated, especially in Australia [93]. However, the Dental Services of the Health Department of Western Australia reported no evidence to support the view that use of neutral 40% silver fluoride would cause fluorosis [94]. On the contrary, over 90% of the teeth treated with 40% silver fluoride from an ex-vivo study showed a favourable histological pulp response [15]. However, without data and with results based only on pulpal histology, the risk can be neither excluded nor supported. Studies in rat teeth have also demonstrated that SDF applications did not cause pulpal damage or severe reactions [57, 95], and only mild pulpal histological inflammatory changes were found up to six days [96]. Clinical studies have shown no pulp lesions in children [21], and no clinical reports of side effects have been reported in other clinical trials [24], up to 30 months [16].

Soft tissue irritation

Many studies have demonstrated SDF's effectiveness without reports of severe or relevant complications [16, 17, 21, 24, 27]. Reversible, small, whitish and mildly painful lesions in the oral mucosa were reported due to inadvertent contact with SDF solution in three individuals out of 225 children. However, these lesions disappeared within 48 hours without treatment [21]. SDF has been clinically proven to be free of severe long-term side effects, although some laboratory studies have raised the issue of SDF's safety for clinical practice. Further studies can investigate the mode of application that makes SDF most clinically effective.

Cytotoxicity to periapical host cells

Regarding SDF's effects on periapical lesions, a study showed that iontophoresis treatment using direct current and SDF as an antibacterial agent, though effective in the management of apical periodontitis [97], may induce necrotic cytotoxicity in host cells around periapical lesions after use in endodontic treatment [98]. The clinical effectiveness of this combination is still arguable. Therefore, further studies are necessary to determine the ideal methodology for iontophoresis with SDF in endodontic treatment.

Conclusion

Available studies suggest that SDF is a promising therapeutic agent for preventing and arresting caries in both primary and permanent dentition. SDF's anti-cariogenic mechanism and its ability to increase dentine mineralization have been recognized. SDF is a quick, simple and cost-effective therapeutic agent. It can be used in patients with acute caries lesions and for those who are difficult to manage. Studies have also reported that SDF may be effective as a dentine desensitizer and considered its use as an intracanal medication.

References

[1]. Alexander JW (2009). History of the medical use of silver. *Surgical Infections* 10:289-293.

[2]. Klasen H (2000). A historical review of the use of silver in the treatment of burns. II. Renewed interest for silver. *Burns* 26: 131-138.

[3]. Yamaga R, Nishino M, Yoshida S, Yokomizo I (1972). Diammine silver fluoride and its clinical application. *Journal of Osaka University Dental School* 12:1-20.

[4]. Sttebins EA (1891). What value has argenti nitrate as a therapeutic agent in dentistry. *International Dental Journal* 12: 661-670.

[5]. Rabinowitch BZ (1951). Ammoniacal silver nitrate: a study of its value in operative dentistry. *Journal of Dentistry for Children* 18:22-30.

[6]. Gelbier S (2005). 125 years of developments in dentistry, 1880–2005. Part 4: Clinical dentistry. *Brazilian Dental Journal* 199:536-539.

[7]. Nishino M, Yoshida S, Sobue S, Kato J, Nishida M (1969). Effect of topically applied ammoniacal silver fluoride on dental caries in children. *Journal of Osaka University Dental School* 9:149-155.

[8]. Green E (1989). A clinical evaluation of two methods of caries prevention in newly-erupted first permanent molars. *Australian Dental Journal* 34:407-40.

[9]. Craig GG, Powell, KR, Cooper, MH (1981). Caries progression in primary molars: 24-month results from a minimal treatment programme. *Community Dentistry and Oral Epidemiology* 9:260-265.

[10]. Ten Cate JM (1999). Current concepts of the theories of the mechanism of action of fluoride. *Acta Odontologica Scandinavia* 57:325-329.

[11]. Maquire A (2014). ADA clinical recommendations on topical fluoride for caries prevention. *Evidence Based Dentistry* 15: 38-39.

[12]. Yamaga R, Yokomizo I (1969). Arrestment of caries of deciduous teeth with diamine silver fluoride. *Dental Outlook* 33:1007-1013.

[13]. Chu CH, Lo EC (2008). Promoting caries arrest in children with silver diamine fluoride: a review. *Oral Health & Preventive Dentistry* 6:315-321
[14]. Helenita CE, Carvalho DQ, Santos M (2009). Policies of oral health (in Por-

tuguese). Cadernos de Atencao Basica do Departamento de Atencao Basica do Ministerio da Saude 17:3.

[15]. Gotjamanos T (1996). Pulp response in primary teeth with deep residual caries treated with silver fluoride and glass ionomer cement ('atraumatic' technique). *Australian Dental Journal* 41:328-334.

[16]. Chu CH, Lo EC, Lin, HC (2002), Effectiveness of silver diamine fluoride and sodium fluoride varnish in arresting dentin caries in Chinese pre-school children. *Journal of Dental Research* 81:767-770.

[17]. Lo EC, Chu CH, Lin HC (2001), A community-based caries control program for pre-school children using topical fluorides:18-month results. *Journal of Dental Research* 80:2071-2074.

[18]. Elizondo ML (2004). Preliminary study of the effects of calcium hydroxide and silver diamine fluoride 38% for deep dentine caries treatment (in Spanish). *Comunicaciones Cientificas y Technologicas* M054:1-5.

[19]. Arellano M (2011). Efficacy of silver diamine fluoride 38% for incipient caries lesions in 6-10 years old patients: 24-month study. *PhD thesis* in Spanish. Universidad de Granada, Spain.

[20]. Callamo BF (2002). Evaluation of the silver diamine fluoride treatment and prevention for dental caries in primary school students. *PhD thesis* in Spanish. Instituto Superior de Ciencias Medicas, Santiago de Cuba, Cuba.

[21]. Llodra JC, Rodriguez A, Ferrer B, Menardia V, Ramos T, Morato M (2005). Efficacy of silver diamine fluoride for caries reduction in primary teeth and first permanent molars of schoolchildren:36-month clinical trial. *Journal of Dental Research* 84:721-724.

[22]. Rodriguez GR (2009). In vitro effects of Duraphat compared with fluoride treatment on the microhardness of surface dental enamel. *PhD thesis* in Spanish. Universidad Nacional Federico Villarreal, Lima, Peru.

[23]. Colella PJ (2012). Effect of Silver Diamine Fluoride and Pit and Fissure Sealants as Preventive Agents of Dental Caries in Permanent First Molars. *International Dental Journal* 62:16.

[24]. Yee R, Holmgren C, Mulder J, Lama D, Walker D, van Palenstein Helderman W (2009). Efficacy of silver diamine fluoride for arresting caries treatment. *Journal of Dental Research* 88:644-647.

[25]. Zhi QH, Lo EC, Lin HC (2010). Randomized clinical trial on effectiveness of silver diamine fluoride and glass ionomer in arresting dentine caries in preschool children. *Journal of Dentistry* 40: 962-967.

[26]. Monse B, Heinrich-Weltzien R, Mulder J, Holmgren C, van Palenstein Helderman WH (2012). Caries preventive efficacy of silver diammine fluoride (SDF) and ART sealants in a school-based daily fluoride toothbrushing program in the Philippines. *BMC Oral Health* 12:52.

[27]. Braga MM, Mendes FM, De Benedetto MS, Imparato JC (2007). Effect of silver diamine fluoride on incipient caries lesions in erupting permanent first molars: a pilot study. *Journal of Dentistry for Children* 76:28-33.

[28]. Milgrom P, Zero DT, Tanzer, JM (2009). An examination of the advances in science and technology of prevention of tooth decay in young children since the surgeon general's report on oral health. *Academic Pediatrics* 9:404-409.

[29]. Rosenblatt A, Stamford TC, Niederman R (2009). Silver Diamine Fluoride: A caries "silver-fluoride bullet". *Journal of Dental Research* 88:116-125.

[30]. Yokoyama K., Kimura Y, Matsumoto K, Fujishima A, Miyazaki T (2001). Preventive effect of tooth fracture by pulsed Nd: YAG laser irradiation with diamine silver fluoride solution. *Journal of Clinical Laser Medicine & Surgery* 19:315-318.
[31]. Craig GG, Knight GM, McIntyre JM (2012). Clinical evaluation of diamine silver fluoride/potassium iodide as a dentine desensitizing agent. A pilot study. *Aus-*

tralian Dental Journal 57:308-311. [32]. Castillo JL, Rivera S, Aparicio T, Lazo R, Aw TC, Manel LL, Milgrom P (2011). The short-term effects of diammine silver fluoride on tooth sensitivity: a randomized controlled trial. *Journal of Dental Research* 90:203-208.

[33]. Yu DG, Kimura Y, Fujita A, Hossain M, Kinoshita JI, Suzuki N, Matsumoto K (2001). Study on acid resistance of human dental enamel and dentin irradiated by semiconductor laser with Ag(NH3)2F. *Journal of Clinical Laser Medicine & Surgery* 19:141-146.

[34]. Mei ML, Ito L, Chu CH, Lo EC, Zhang CF (2013). Prevention of dentine caries using silver diamine fluoride application followed by Er:YAG laser irradiation: an in vitro study. *Lasers in Medical Science*. 29:1785-1791.

[35]. Bevilacqua FM, Zezell D, Magnani R, Ana PA, Eduardo CP (2008). Fluoride uptake and acid resistance of enamel irradiated with Er:YAG laser. *Lasers in Medical Science* 8. 23:141-147.

[36]. Knight GM, McIntyre JM, Mulyani (2006). The effect of silver fluoride and potassium iodide on the bond strength of auto cure glass ionomer cement to dentine. *Australian Dental Journal* 51:42-45.

[37]. Quock RL, Barros J, Yang SW, Patel SA. (2012). Effect of silver diamine fluoride on microtensile bond strength to dentin. *Operative Dentistry* 37:610-616.
[38]. Hiraishi, N, Yu CK, Kinq NM, Tagami J, Tay FR (2010). Antimicrobial efficacy of 3,8% silver diamine fluoride and its effect on root dentin. *Journal of*

Endodontics 36: 1026-1029.

[39]. Mathew VB, Madhusudhana K, Sivakumar N, Venugopal T, Reddy RK (2012). Anti-microbial efficiency of silver diamine fluoride as an endodontic medicament – An ex vivo study. *Contemporary Clinical Dentistry* 3:262-264.

[40]. Weinstein P, Spiekerman C, Milgrom P (2009). Randomized equivalence trial of intensive and semiannual applications of fluoride varnish in the primary dentition. *Caries Research* 43:484-490.

[41]. Duangthip D, Chu CH, Lo CM (2015). A randomized clinical trial on arresting dentine caries in preschool children by topical fluorides - 18 months results. *Journal of Dentistry* May 30. pii: S0300-5712(15)00124-4. doi:10.1016/j. jdent.2015.05.006. [Epub ahead of print]

[42]. Liu YN (1996). Effect of silver diamine fluoride gel on elderly root caries. *Chinese Journal of Gerontology*. 16:123-124.

[43]. Peng JJ, Botelho MG, Matilinna JP (2012). Silver compounds used in dentistry for caries management: A review. *Journal of Dentistry* 40:531-541.

[44]. Almeida LFD (2011). In vitro Antibacterial activity of silver diamine fluoride in different concentrations. *Acta Odontologica Latinoamerica* 24:127-131.

[45]. Hernandez-Sierra, JF, Ruiz F, Pena DC, Martinez-Guttierrez F, Martinez AE, Guillen AJ, Tapia-Perez H, Castanon GM (2008). The antimicrobial sensitivity of Streptococcus mutans to nanoparticles of silver, zinc oxide, and gold. *Nanomedicine* 4:237-240.

[46]. Mei ML, Chu CH, Lo EC, Samaranayake LP (2013) Antibacterial effects of silver diamine fluoride on multi-species cariogenic biofilm on caries. *Annals of Clinical Microbiology and Antimicrobials* 12: 4.

[47]. Chu CH, Mei ML, Seneviratne CJ, Lo EC (2012). Effects of silver diamine fluoride on dentine carious lesions induced by Streptococcus mutans and Actinomyces naeslundii biofilms. *International Journal of Paediatric Dentistry* 22:2-10.

[48]. Thibodeau E, Handelman S, Marouis R (1978). Inhibition and Killing of Oral Bacteria by Silver Ions Generated with Low Intensity Direct Current. *Journal of Dental Research* 57:922-926.

[49]. McDonnel G, Russell AD (1999). Antiseptics and disinfectants activity, action and resistance. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews* 12:147-179.

[50]. Tamesada M, Kawabata S, Fujiwara T, Hamada S (2004). Synergistic effects of streptococcal glucosyltransferases on adhesive biofilm formation. *Journal of Dental Research* 83:874-879.

[51]. Wen ZT, Burne RA (2002). Functional genomics approach to identifying genes required for biofilm development by Streptococcus mutans. *Applied and Environmental Microbiology* 68:1196-1203.

[52]. Wysor MS, Zollinhofer RE (1972). On the mode of action of silver suphadiazine. *Pathologia et Microbiologia* 38:296-308.

[53]. Russell AD, Hugo WB (1994). Antimicrobial activity and action of silver. *Progress in Medicinal Chemistry* 31:351-370.

[54]. Suzuki T, Sobue S, Suginaka H (1976). Mechanism of antiplaque action of diammine silver fluoride. *Journal of Osaka University Dental School* 16:87-95.

[55]. Shellis RP, Duckworth RM (1994). Studies on the cariostatic mechanisms of fluoride. *International Dental Journal* 44:263-273.

[56]. Loveren CV (2001). Antimicrobial activity of fluoride and its in vivo importance: Identification of research questions. *Caries Research* 35:65-70.

[57]. Suzuki T, Nishida M, Sobue S, Moriwaki Y (1974). Effects of diammine silver fluoride on tooth enamel. *Journal of Osaka University Dental School* 14:61-72.
[58]. Mei ML, Ito L, Cao Y, Lo EC, Li QL, Chu CH (2014). An ex vivo study of arrested primary teeth caries with silver diamine fluoride therapy. *Journal of Dentistry* 42:395-402.

[59]. Ying C, Mei ML, Xu J, Lo EC, Li QL, Chu CH (2013). Biomimetic mineralisation of phosphorylated dentine by CPP-ACP. *Journal of Dentistry* 41:818-825.

[60]. Tay FR, Pashle DH (2008). Guided tissue remineralisation of partially demineralised human dentine. *Biomaterials* 29:1127-1137.

[61]. Featherstone JD (2008). Dental caries: a dynamic disease process. *Australian Dental Journal* 53:286-291.

[62]. Gupta A, Sinha N, Logani A, Shah N (2011). An ex vivo study to evaluate the remineralizing and antimicrobial efficacy of silver diamine fluoride and glass ionomer cement type II for their proposed use as indirect pulp capping materials - Part I. *Journal of Conservative Dentistry* 14:113-116.

[63]. Delbem ACB, Bergamaschi M, Sassaki KT, Cunha RF (2006). Effect of fluoridated varnish and silver diamine fluoride solution on enamel demineralization: pH-cycling study. *Journal of Applied Oral Science* 14:88-89.

[64]. Petersson LG (2011). The role of fluoride in the preventive management of dentin hypersensitivity and root caries. *Clinical Oral Investigations* 17:S63-S71.

[65]. Shimizu A (1974). Effect of diammine silver fluoride on recurrent caries. *Japan Journal of Conservative Dentistry* 17:183-201.

[66]. Greenhill JD, Pashley DH (1981). The effects of desensistizing agents on the hydraulic conductance of human dentin in vitro. *Journal of Dental Research* 60:686-698

[67]. Thrash WJ, Jones DL, Dodds WJ (1992). Effect of a fluoride solution on den-

tinal hypersensitivity. The American Journal of Dentistry 5:299-302.

[68]. Mei ML, Ito L, Y Cao, Li QL, Lo ECM, Chu CH (2013). Inhibitory effect of silver diamine fluoride on dentine demineralization and collagen degradation. *Journal of Dentistry* 41:809-817.

[69]. Jovanovic A, Ermis R, Mewaldt R, Shi L, Carson D (2012). The influence of metal salts, surfactants, and wound care products on enzymatic activity of collagenase, the wound debriding enzyme. *Wounds* 24:242-253.

[70]. Mei ML, Li QL, Chu CH, Yiu CK, Lo EC (2012). The inhibitory effects of silver diamine fluoride at different concentrations on matrix metalloproteinases. *Dental Materials* 28:903-908.

[71]. Mei ML, Chu CH, Lo EC (2013). The inhibitory effects of silver diamine fluoride on cysteine cathepsins. *Journal of Dentistry* 42:329-335.

[72]. Mazzoni A, Tjaderhane L, Checchi V, Lenarda R Salo T, Tay FR, Pashley DH, Breschi L (2015). Role of dentin MMPs in caries progression and bond stability. *Journal of Dental Research* 94:241-251.

[73]. Medeiros UV, Miasato JM, Alto LM, Ramos ME, Soviero V (1998). Cariostatic and preventive effect of diammine silver fluoride solution at 30% in baby patients. *Revista Brasileira de Odontologia* 55:340-344.

[74]. Chu CH, Lee AH, Zheng L, Mei ML, Chan GC (2014). Arresting rampant dental caries with silver diamine fluoride in a young teenager suffering from chronic oral graft versus host disease post-bone marrow transplantation: a case report. *BMC Research Notes* 7:3.

[75]. Tan HP, Lo EC, Dyson JE, Luo Y, Corbet EF (2010). A randomized trial on root caries prevention in elders. *Journal of Dental Research* 89:1086-1090.

[76]. Sequeira-Byron P, Lussi A (2010). Prevention of root caries. *Evidence Based Dentistry* 12:70-71.

[77]. Zhang W, McGrath C, Lo EC, Li JY (2013). Silver diamine fluoride and education to prevent and arrest root caries among community-dwelling elders. *Caries Research* 47:284-290.

[78]. Yamaga M, Koide T, Hieda T (1993). Adhesiveness of glass ionomer cement containing tannin-fluoride preparation (HY agent) to dentin--an evaluation of adding various ratios of HY agent and combination with application diammine silver fluoride. *Dental Materials* 12:36-44.

[79]. Li CT, Liu YN (2000). Application of silver diamine fluoride gel in treating dentine hypersensitivity after tooth preparation. *Journal of Dental Prevention and Treatment* 8:183.

[80]. Shi CM, Zhu K (2000). Application of silver diamine fluoride and sodium fluoride in treating abnormal cusps. *Journal of Guangxi Medical University* 17:728-729.

[81]. Liu B (2006). Effect of silver diamine fluoride and potassium nitrate on tooth hypersensitivity. *The Medical Journal of Industrial Enterprise* 19:49.

[82]. Peng YM (2004). Clinical study of four types of desensitizer. *Journal of Sto-matology* 24:119.

[83]. Soeno K, Taira Y, Matsumura H, Atsuta M (2001). Effect of desensitizers on bond strength of adhesive luting agents to dentin. *Journal of Oral Rehabilitation* 28:1122-1128.

[84]. Hancock HH III, Sigurdsson A, Trope M, Moiseiwitsch J (2001). Bacteria isolated after unsuccessful endodontic treatment in a North American population. *Oral Surgery, Oral Medicine, Oral Pathology* 91:579-585.

[85]. Matsuda T (1972). Studies of silver diamine fluoride applied to infected root canal. *Journal of Osaka Odontotogical Society* 35:679-684.

[86]. Eto JN, Niu W, Takeda FH, Kimura Y, Matsumoto K (1999). Morphological and atomic analytical changes of root canal wall dentin after treatment with thirty-eight percent Ag(NH3)2F solution and CO2 laser. *Journal of Clinical Laser Medicine & Surgery* 17:19-24.

[87]. Yokoyama K, Matsumoto K, Murase J (2000). Permeability of the root canal wall and occlusion of dentinal tubules by Ag(NH3)2F: a comparison of combined use with pulsed Nd:YAG laser or iontophoresis. *Journal of Clinical Laser Medicine & Surgery* 18:9-14.

[88]. Lo EC, Tenuta LM, Fox CH (2012). Use of professionally administered topical fluorides in Asia. *Advances in Dental Research* 24:11-15.

[89]. Ariffin Z, Ngo H, McIntyre J (2006). Enhancement of fluoride release from glass ionomer cement following a coating of silver fluoride. *Australian Dental Journal* 51:328-332.

[90]. Gluzman R, Katz RV, Frev BJ (2012). McGowan R. Prevention of root caries: a literature review of primary and secondary preventive agents. *Special Care in Dentistry* 33:133-140.

[91]. Santos Jr VE, Vasconcelos FM, Ribeiro AG, Rosenblatt A (2012). Paradigm shift in the effective treatment of caries in schoolchildren at risk. *International Dental Journal* 62:47-51.

[92]. Knight GM, McIntyre J, Mulyani (2006). Ion uptake into demineralized dentine from glass ionomer cement following pretreatment with silver fluoride and potassium iodide. *Australian Dental Journal* 51:237-241.

[93]. Gotjamanos T (1997). Unacceptably high levels of fluoride in commercial

preparations of silver fluoride. Australian Dental Journal 42:52-53.

[94]. Neesham DC (1997). Fluoride concentration in AgF and dental fluorosis. *Australian Dental Journal* 42:268.

[95]. Nishino M, Ono S, Kita Y, Tsuchitani Y (1974). Caries prevention in pits and fissures with diammine silver fluoride solution and fissure sealant. Sealing properties of pits and fissures and adhesive characteristics to enamel. *Journal of Osaka University Dental School* 14:1-7.

[96]. Aono M, Matsumoto K, Okada H (1967). Effect of ammoniacal silver fluoride on cervical hypersensitivity. *Journal of Conservative Dentistry* 10:31-36.

[97]. Sato M (1989). Fundamental study of a local drug delivery system by means of intracanal medication. Influence of iontophoresis on the periphery of the root surface. *Nihon Shishubyo Gakkai Kaishi* 31:119-128.

[98]. Nakamura Y, Takahashi K, Shimetani A, Sakagami H, Nishikawa H (2005). Cytotoxicity of direct current with antibacterial agents against host cells in vitro. *Journal of Endodontics* 31:755-758.

Copyright: © 2015 Ito L, Mei ML, Lo E, Chu CH Published by the Science Fair Open Library under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in the credit line; if the material is not included under the Creative Commons license, users will need to obtain permission from the license holder to reproduce the material. To view a copy of this license, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/

Acknowledgements: This review is part of a PhD study which was supported by the University of Hong Kong.

Authors contributions: Ito, a PhD student, prepared the manuscript. Mei, Lo and Chu are supervisors of Ito's PhD study; they revised and proofread the manuscript.

Conflict of interest: The authors have read the journal's policy and declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Funding:- This review is supported by the RGC General Research Fund 765213M.