

1 **Effect of Silver Diamine Fluoride and Potassium Iodide on Shear Bond**
2 **Strength of Glass Ionomer Cements to Caries-Affected Dentine**

3
4 **Abstract**

5 ***Objective:** To investigate the effect of silver diamine fluoride (SDF) and potassium iodide (KI)*
6 *treatment on dentine discolouration and the shear bond strength (SBS) of glass ionomer*
7 *cements (GICs) to artificial caries-affected dentine.*

8
9 ***Methods:** Dentine slices from human molars were demineralised to mimic caries-affected*
10 *dentine. They were randomly allocated for treatment (n=20 per treatment) with SDF+KI,*
11 *SDF (positive control) or water (negative control). All slices were immersed in the artificial*
12 *saliva for 24 hours after treatments. The colour of the treated surfaces was assessed using the*
13 *CIELAB system. Lightness values were measured. Total colour change (ΔE) was calculated*
14 *using water as the reference group and was visible to naked eyes if $\Delta E > 3.7$. All dentine slices*
15 *were bonded with GICs. The SBS was assessed using a universal testing machine. Colour*
16 *parameters and the SBS were analysed using a one-way ANOVA test.*

17
18 ***Results:** The slices treated with SDF+KI had a higher lightness value than the reference*
19 *group water, whereas those treated with SDF presented a lower lightness value compared to*
20 *those treated with water. The treatment with SDF+KI did not introduce any adverse colour*
21 *effect to demineralised dentine ($\Delta E = 14.4$), whereas the application of SDF alone caused*
22 *significant staining ($\Delta E = 24.6$). The SBS (mean \pm SD) after treatment with SDF+KI, SDF and*
23 *water were 3.0 ± 1.4 MPa, 2.3 ± 0.9 MPa and 2.6 ± 1.1 MPa, respectively ($p = 0.217$).*

24 **Conclusion:** *The immediate application of KI solution after SDF treatment does not*
25 *negatively affect adhesion of GICs to artificial caries-affected dentine. Moreover, KI*
26 *treatment can reduce discolouration of demineralised dentine caused by SDF.*

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 Dental caries, defined as a localised, pathological process with multiple factors,
30 softening dental hard tissues and proceeding to the formation of cavities, continues to be a
31 prevalent disease all over the world [1]. In recent years, the development of restorative
32 materials and advancement in our conception of the caries process have created the capability
33 to practice in consideration of a minimally invasive dentistry philosophy [2]. It requires
34 performing management with as little tissue loss as possible and without causing any
35 destruction to the adjacent healthy tooth tissues [3]. Carious dentine lesions were
36 characteristically defined as comprising two different layers: an outer layer of bacterially
37 infected dentine (caries-infected dentine) and an inner layer of caries-affected dentine [4].
38 The outer layer has been regarded as being highly demineralised and exhibiting irreversible
39 denatured collagen fibrils with an obvious disappearance of cross-linkages, whereas the inner
40 layer is not affected with bacteria and is partially demineralised and physiologically
41 remineralisable [5]. Thus, caries-affected dentine should be preserved in clinical treatment
42 based on the philosophy of minimally invasive dentistry. Consequently, caries-affected
43 dentine other than normal dentine has commonly been the bonding substrate in clinical
44 settings.

45

46 Silver diamine fluoride [Ag(NH₃)₂F] (SDF) is a topical fluoride solution which has
47 been used to halt dental caries in a concentration of 38% (44,800 ppm fluoride) throughout
48 the world since the early 1970s [6]. SDF currently has approval from the Food and Drug

49 Administration in the United States as a Class-II medical device for the management of tooth
50 hypersensitivity. It has also been used as an anticariogenic agent to reduce the growth of
51 cariogenic biofilms [7]. In addition, SDF positively influences dentine remineralisation [8],
52 inhibits dentine demineralisation and prevents dentine collagen from degradation [9].
53 Moreover, it can promote the transformation of hydroxyapatite into fluorapatite with reduced
54 solubility [10], which increases resistance of dental hard tissues to acidic challenge. The
55 resistance of proteins to collagenase attacks also increases due to the reaction between SDF
56 and dentine organic matrix [9, 11]. A randomised, controlled trial concluded that 38% SDF
57 had a better result than the interim restorative treatment using glass ionomer cements (GICs)
58 to arrest cavitated caries in primary teeth [12]. A systematic review confirmed that 38% SDF
59 was effective in arresting dentine caries in deciduous teeth among children [13]. Additionally,
60 caries removal is not needed before application of SDF, which can simplify treatment
61 procedures. Nevertheless, SDF has a major adverse effect that stains the caries lesion black
62 because of the reaction of SDF products with tooth tissues [6]. SDF has not been widely
63 accepted by patients with aesthetic concerns due to its inherent disadvantage. Two
64 alternatives have been suggested to minimise this side effect. One is to use a saturated
65 potassium iodide (KI) solution, which can react with residual silver ions, to eliminate the
66 staining effect [14]. However, the colour-eliminating effect is still not well understood when
67 SDF and KI are applied to caries-affected dentine. The other alternative is to apply GICs or
68 composites over SDF to mask the stained carious lesion and as a direct restoration after
69 application of SDF [15].

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71 Recently published studies [16, 17] reported that SDF arrested caries lesions with no
72 further progression after 2–3 years when it was applied to cavitated caries with no excavation.
73 It is noteworthy that cavities were left open without filling in these studies after application of

74 SDF. Restorations are generally needed for cavitated lesions to allow for an easily cleanable
75 surface that may reduce the potential for secondary caries initiation. Although laboratory
76 studies [14, 18] report that application of SDF is compatible with restorations with GICs, to
77 the authors' knowledge there is insufficient evidence concerning the adhesion properties of
78 GIC restorations when they are bonded to caries-affected dentine surfaces previously treated
79 with SDF and KI. Therefore, the aim of this in vitro study was to investigate the effect of
80 SDF and KI treatment on tooth discolouration and the shear bond strength (SBS) of GICs to
81 artificial caries-affected dentine. Two null hypotheses were tested: SDF+KI treatment does
82 not introduce staining effect on artificial caries-affected dentine, and SDF+KI treatment does
83 not affect adhesion of GICs to artificial caries-affected dentine.

84

85 **2. Materials and Methods**

86 **2.1 *Sample preparation***

87 Sixty non-carious human third molars were collected with the patients' written
88 consent according to regulations at the University of Hong Kong. The research protocol was
89 reviewed and approved by the local Institutional Review Board of the University of Hong
90 Kong/Hospital Authority Hong Kong West Cluster (IRB UW 18-404). This research was
91 conducted in full accordance with the World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki.
92 The teeth were stored in a 0.1% thymol solution at 4°C prior to section. The study design is
93 shown in Figure 1. Sixty dentine slices with 2-mm thickness were prepared from 60 sound
94 third molars using a low-speed saw with a diamond blade (ISOMET 1000, Buehler, Lake
95 Bluff, IL, USA). All dentine slices were embedded using a dental cold-cured acrylic
96 (ProBase Cold, Ivoclar Vivadent AG, Liechtenstein). The surfaces of the dentine slices were
97 polished with micro-fine 2000-grit sanding paper under running water. All samples were
98 immersed in a demineralising solution (pH 4.4, 50 mM acetate, 2.2 mM KH₂PO₄, 2.2 mM

99 CaCl₂) for 7 days at 25 °C [9]. They were then allocated to three groups (n=20 per group).
100 For group SDF+KI, the demineralised surfaces were treated with SDF+KI (Riva Star, SDI,
101 Bayswater, Australia). A 38% SDF solution from silver capsules was topically applied to the
102 demineralised surfaces, with immediately applying a saturated KI solution from green
103 capsules to treatment site until creamy white turned clear. Treated surfaces were adequately
104 washed with distilled water [19]. For group SDF, the positive control group, the
105 demineralised surfaces were treated with a 38% SDF solution (Saforide, Toyo Seiyaku Kasei
106 Co. Ltd., Osaka, Japan). For group water, the negative control group, the demineralised
107 surfaces received application of water. After 30 min, all samples were immersed in the
108 artificial saliva at 25 °C for 24 hours.

109

110 **2.2 Colour assessment**

111 Colour assessments (n=20 per group) of dentine samples were performed after 1-day
112 immersion in the artificial saliva. The colour of the treated dentine surface was assessed using
113 a colorimeter (NR10QC, General Colorimeter, 3nh, Shenzhen, China). The CIE system
114 (Commission International del'Eclairage) was used to three-dimensionally elucidate the
115 colour by recording the L* a* b* colour coordinates. The L* axis represented lightness ranging
116 from black (0) to white (100), the a* axis represented red (+a*) to green (-a*) and the b* axis
117 described yellow (+b*) to blue (-b*). The measurements of L*, a* and b* were triplicate. The
118 mathematical equation $\Delta E = [(\Delta L)^2 + (\Delta a)^2 + (\Delta b)^2]^{1/2}$ were employed to calculate the
119 colour difference between the experimental groups and the negative control group [20]. The
120 discolouration of each tooth was clinically perceptible to naked eyes if ΔE was more than 3.7
121 units (perceptibility threshold) [21].

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124 **2.3 *SBS test and failure mode analysis***

125 After colour assessment, all dentine samples (n=20 per group) were bonded with
126 GICs (Ketac-Molar, 3M/ESPE Dental Products, St. Paul, MN, USA). A Teflon mould with 4-
127 mm height and 3-mm diameter was placed on the demineralised dentine surfaces [22]. GICs
128 in capsules were mixed using a rotational/centrifugal capsule mixing unit (RotoMix, 3M
129 ESPE, St Paul, MN, USA) for 10 s, and then the mixture was applied in the Teflon mould to
130 form a cylindrical button. All GICs were chemically cured. After bonding, samples were
131 stored in 100% humidity at 37 °C for 24 hours after removal from the mould to allow
132 complete setting of GICs. The SBS test was performed with a universal testing machine
133 which had a flat-edge loading head (ElectroPuls 3000, Instron, Norwood, MA, USA). A
134 shear force was applied perpendicularly to the GIC cylindrical button at a distance of 1 mm
135 from the dentine surface to the loading head. The loading head moved at a fixed rate of 1
136 mm/min. The load necessary to debond GICs was recorded in newtons. The bond strength
137 was expressed in Mega Pascals (MPa) by dividing the load at failure by the bonded surface
138 area in square mm.

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140 The debonded samples were examined under an optical microscope at 20×
141 magnification. The failure modes were categorized as three types: Type 1; adhesive failure
142 between dentine and GICs with exposing dentine surfaces, Type 2; cohesive failure in GICs
143 or in dentine, Type 3; partially adhesive failure and partially cohesive failure (mixed failure)
144 [23]. Some of the fractured samples were sputter-coated with gold and viewed by a scanning
145 electron microscope (SEM, Hitachi S-4800 FEG Scanning Electron Microscope, Hitachi Ltd.,
146 Tokyo, Japan) to obtain images with higher magnification.

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149 **2.4** *Statistical analysis*

150 The data were analysed with IBM SPSS Version 25.0 software (IBM Corporation,
151 Armonk, NY, USA). All data were checked for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test
152 ($p>0.05$). Colour parameters and the SBS were analysed using a one-way ANOVA with post
153 hoc test. The distribution of failure modes for the three groups were analysed by a chi-square
154 and Fisher's exact test. A p value lower than 5% was considered as statistically significant for
155 all tests.

156

157 **3** **Results**

158 **3.1** *Colour assessment*

159 The colour characteristics for each dentine sample were examined to investigate
160 whether the treatments introduced any discolouration effect compared to the colour of the
161 negative control dentine (Table 1). The total colour change (ΔE) and values of L^* , a^* , b^* and of
162 the three groups are shown in Table 1. Data confirmed that group SDF+KI had significantly
163 higher L^* values than that of the negative control group, whereas group SDF presented a
164 significantly lower lightness compared to the negative control group. The colour differences
165 (ΔE) between the treated dentine and the non-treated ones were calculated based on the
166 colour difference formula using the mean values of L^* , a^* and b^* . Both of the ΔE values for
167 group SDF+KI and group SDF were more than 3.7 units. The treatment with SDF+KI did not
168 introduce any adverse colour effect to dentine surfaces, whereas the application of SDF alone
169 caused significant staining.

170

171 **3.2** *SBS test and failure mode analysis*

172 The mean bond strengths of GICs to dentine are shown in Figure 2 (n=19 per group).
173 Each group had one sample fractured pretest. The SBS (mean \pm SD) for groups SDF+KI,

174 SDF and water were 3.0 ± 1.4 MPa, 2.3 ± 0.9 MPa and 2.6 ± 1.1 MPa, respectively ($p=0.217$).
175 The bond strengths of the three groups were not significantly different from each other.

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177 The failure modes of all samples are shown in Table 2. Cohesive failure was only observed
178 within GICs but not in the demineralised dentine layer. No significant difference was found
179 in the distribution of fracture modes for group SDF+KI, group SDF and group water
180 ($p=0.487$). The general trend showed that cohesive failure within GICs was less frequent in
181 the three groups compared to the other two failure types ($p<0.05$). Representative SEM
182 images of GIC-dentine interfaces are displayed in Figure 3.

183

184 **4 Discussion**

185 This study sought first to investigate if pretreating caries-affected dentine with
186 SDF+KI adversely affected adhesion of GICs to dentine. The results from this study
187 indicated no significant difference in SBS between the negative control group and the
188 experimental groups (pretreatment with SDF or SDF+KI). In addition, SDF+KI treatment
189 had no adverse colour effect on the surface of caries-affected dentine. The two null
190 hypotheses were validated based on the findings of the current study. The clinical
191 implications of these findings are that if KI is applied after the application of SDF to arrest or
192 prevent dentine caries in a tooth, discolouration caused by SDF can be significantly reduced
193 and bond strength to the caries-affected dentine of that tooth will not be affected. The current
194 work was conducted in a controlled laboratory condition in which dentine was artificially
195 demineralised to mimic caries-affected dentine. It is worth noting that natural caries-affected
196 dentine, compared with demineralised dentine lesions, has more complex microstructure.
197 There may also be permeability differences between natural caries-affected dentine and
198 artificial caries-affected dentine because the presences of mineral crystals in natural caries-

199 affected dentine are considered to be effective in reducing fluid movement within dentinal
200 tubules [24]. The two different substrates may therefore offer different conditions that will
201 most likely lead to different adhesive properties. Furthermore, controlled laboratory
202 conditions are different from the real oral environment. It is unclear whether the mechanical
203 properties of GICs would be affected in a long-term exposure in the oral environment. Thus,
204 caution should be taken when these findings are extrapolated to the clinical situation.

205

206 The traditional approach of managing cavitated carious lesions is drilling and filling,
207 which refers to mechanically removing the soft and bacteria-infected dentine before filling
208 the cavity with a proper restorative material. It is still reasonable to conduct the excavation
209 because infected dentine is highly demineralised and physiologically not remineralisable
210 based on the current evidence [2]. Nevertheless, there is evidence showing that removal of
211 soft carious lesions may not be necessary. A clinical trial reported that no significant
212 differences were found in the number of arrested tooth surfaces for children who had caries
213 excavation prior to application of SDF compared with those that did not have caries removal
214 [16]. Additionally, it has been demonstrated that bacterial count and activity were diminished
215 over time if infected dentine in a cavitated caries lesion was restored with a well-sealed resin
216 restoration [2]. From a biological view, the need of excavation prior to restoration or fluoride
217 application is facing an intriguing challenge according to these findings. However, the need
218 of caries excavation seems still to be controversial because it has been reported that the
219 fracture strength of composite resin fillings may be compromised by the underlying soft,
220 infected dentine [25]. On the contrary, caries-affected dentin structurally reserves enough
221 collagen fibres to be remineralised and is relatively low in bacterial count. Dentine caries,
222 which is either affected or arrested, tends to present lower bacterial activity compared to

223 infected dentin. Thus, caries removal is not needed prior to restorative filling for caries-
224 affected dentine or for arrested lesions.

225

226 SDF has been concluded as a bactericidal chemical that can reduce the adherence and
227 growth of cariogenic bacteria [26]. Moreover, it can be used to prevent the formation of
228 secondary dentine caries around GIC restorations [27]. Thus, SDF can be a promising
229 biological approach in the practice of minimally invasive dentistry against conventional
230 restorative methods. The use of SDF, however, has been generally limited to primary teeth
231 because of the discolouration effect associated with its application. According to the results
232 of this study, SDF can be used as a liner so that the dentine base for restoration with
233 remaining bacteria are nonviable. Because SDF can cause staining, an Australian group
234 suggested using a saturated KI solution to mask the staining by reacting with silver ions [14].
235 Additionally, SDF+KI treatment has been investigated to be effective in increasing resistance
236 to cariogenic challenge [27]. SDF products that are readily commercially available were
237 selected in this study to make the current work more related to dentists. SDF at a
238 concentration of 38% can be found from Saforide, Advantage Arrest and Riva Star. Saforide
239 was chosen as the positive control in this study since it is the most commonly used SDF in
240 previous clinical and laboratory studies. Riva Star is the only commercially available product
241 of SDF+KI. Hence, it was selected as the experimental group.

242

243 It is important for patients to consider the aesthetic appearance of a restoration. In the
244 present study, discolouration was evaluated quantitatively by instruments instead of naked
245 eyes, which is more accurate with high repeatability [20]. Metallic silver was formed by the
246 reaction of SDF and hydroxyapatite, and its production was accelerated when exposed to
247 light and high temperature [26]. This may be why SDF stains teeth black. It has been

248 suggested that silver iodide (a bright-yellow solid compound) can be formed when KI
249 solution reacts with SDF and that the excess free silver ions that cause the black staining
250 could be reduced by this reaction [14]. A higher lightness value and a perceptible total colour
251 change (ΔE) were detected on the caries-affected dentine in the SDF+KI treatment group in
252 this study. The possible explanations may be that the formation of silver iodide attached to
253 demineralised dentine surfaces which were relatively loosened and rough compared to
254 normal dentine, even though the dentine surfaces were washed immediately after creamy
255 white precipitates appeared according to the manufacturer's instruction. Silver iodide,
256 however, is believed to be highly photosensitive and may dissociate into metallic silver and
257 iodine by exposure to light. Ultimately, discolouration might still occur on tooth surfaces.
258 Thus, the long-term effect of this treatment to eliminate staining, as well as its possible
259 interaction with different restorative materials, needs to be determined.

260

261 GICs are regarded as one of the best options of fluoride-releasing restorative materials,
262 which have been considered to be superior to compomers and giomer from the aspects of
263 continuous fluoride release and recharge [22]. Nevertheless, the fluoride-releasing and anti-
264 microbial effect of GICs are usually limited and insufficient. Hence, pretreating dentine
265 surfaces with SDF or SDF+KI before GIC restoration has been proposed by some researchers
266 [14, 27] to enhance antimicrobial and remineralising ability of GICs. The result of this study
267 demonstrated that pretreatment with SDF or SDF+KI did not adversely affect adhesion of
268 restoration to dentine, which is consistent with the previous findings of other laboratory
269 studies [2, 14]. Nevertheless, another study reported that there was an improvement in
270 adhesion properties of fissure sealants applied after treating a tooth surface with SDF [28].
271 The differences in the outcomes may result from different techniques or different
272 characteristics of tooth substrates. Cohesive failure within GICs was reported as the most

273 common fracture mode in terms of adhesion between GICs and dentine in a previous study
274 [29], whereas this type of failure was less frequent than the other two failure modes in all
275 groups in the present study. This variance might be explained by the different experimental
276 conditions.

277

278 **5 Conclusion**

279 With the limitations of this laboratory study, the following conclusions were drawn:
280 The immediate application of KI solution after SDF treatment can reduce dentine
281 discolouration caused by SDF. Furthermore, SDF+KI treatment does not negatively affect
282 bonding of GICs to artificial caries-affected dentine.

283

284 **Conflict of interest**

285 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

286

287 **Acknowledgement**

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289

290

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363 (polyalkenoate) cements to dentine using four conditioners. *J Dent* 2000 28:361-366.

364 **Table 1 Comparison of the colour parameters between natural dentine (negative control) and**
 365 **dentine after treatments (n=20)**
 366

Group	L*	a*	b*	ΔE
Water	55.6 ± 4.3	4.6 ± 2.3	9.6 ± 6.0	N/A
SDF+KI	69.8 ± 7.1 ⁺	2.1 ± 0.6 ⁺	10.5 ± 4.8	14.4
SDF	32.1 ± 4.5 ⁺	8.6 ± 1.5 ⁺	3.6 ± 2.5 [*]	24.6

367 L*, a* and b* refer to the colour coordinates. ΔE is the calculated colour difference between
 368 treated and control dentine. Data are means ± standard deviation. + indicates significant
 369 difference from control dentine within each colour coordinate (one-way ANOVA, *p* < 0.05).
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387 **Table 2 The distribution of failure modes of the three groups (n=19)**

Group	Failure modes (n)			Total (n)
	Cohesive	Adhesive	Mixed	
SDF+KI	1	8	10	19
SDF	1	12	6	19
Water	2	12	5	19

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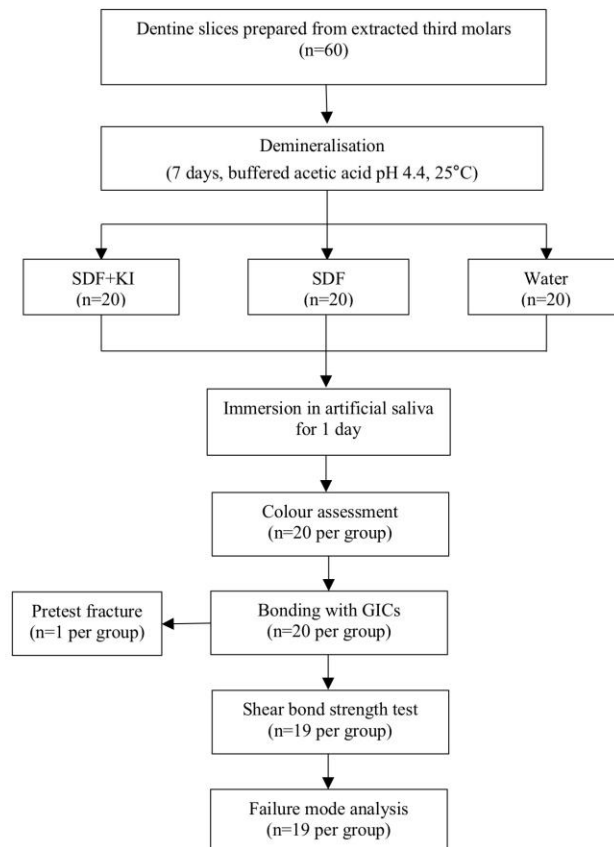
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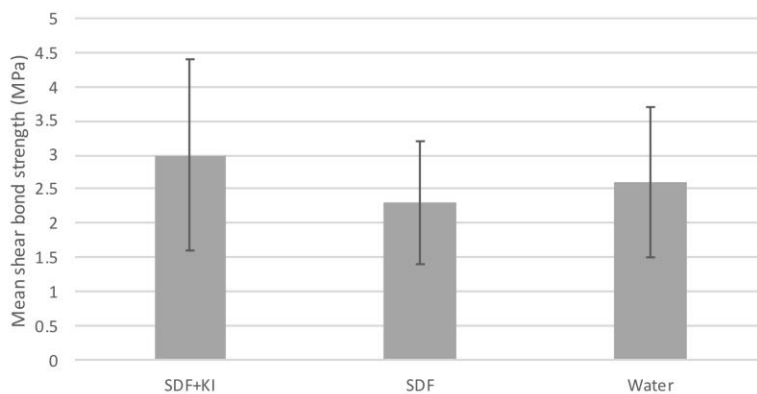
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411 **Figure 2 Mean shear bond strength between GIC and dentine of the three groups (n=19)**

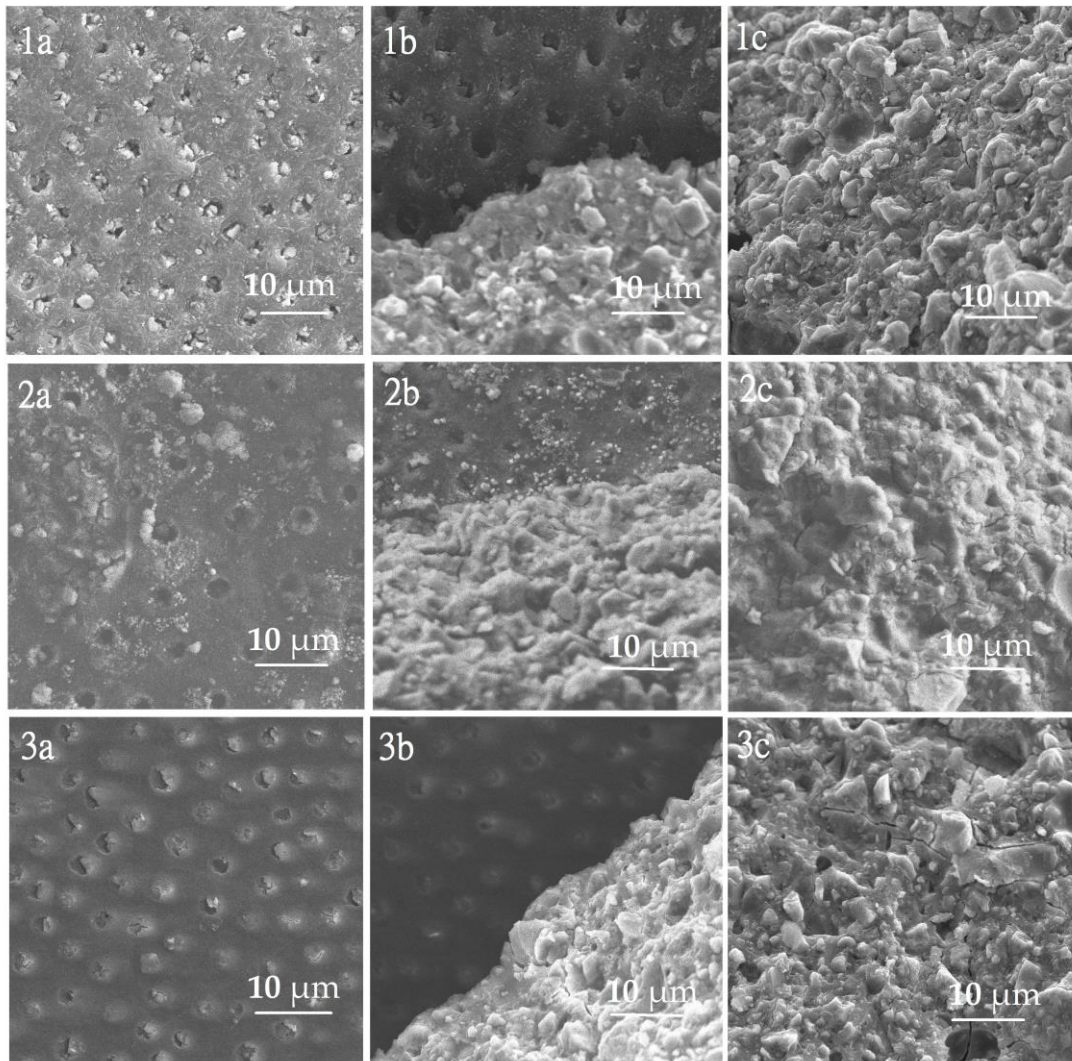


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413 No difference in mean shear bond strength was found among the three groups (p=0.217).

414 **Figure 3 Failure modes of dentine–GIC interface under SEM at 1000× magnification**

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417 Adhesive failure: SDF+KI (1a), SDF (2a), water (3a)

418 Mixed failure: SDF+KI (1b), SDF (2b), water (3b)

419 Cohesive failure: SDF+KI (1c), SDF (2c), water (3c)

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421