

1 **Arresting dentine caries with different concentration and periodicity of silver**
2 **diamine fluoride**

3 **Marcus Ho Tak FUNG, Duangporn DUANGTHIP, May Chun Mei WONG,**
4 **Edward Chin Man LO, Chun Hung CHU**

5
6 Faculty of Dentistry, The University of Hong Kong

7
8
9
10

11 **Key words:** *Silver diamine fluoride, randomised controlled trial, children, caries, primary teeth*

12

13 **Corresponding to :** C.H. Chu
14 Prince Philip Dental Hospital
15 34 Hospital Road
16 Sai Ying Pun
17 Hong Kong
18 Email: chchu@hku.hk

19

20 **Knowledge Transfer Statement:** The results of this study can be used by clinicians and dental
21 public health professionals when deciding which concentrations and frequency of application of
22 silver diamine fluoride solution should be adopted for arresting dentine caries. With consideration
23 of caries arrest treatment with silver diamine fluoride, which is painless, simple and low cost, this
24 information could lead to more appropriate therapeutic decisions for caries control in young
25 children or those who lack access to affordable conventional dental care.

26

27

28 Abstract word count: 297

29 Total word count (Introduction to conclusion): 4072

30 Total number of tables/figures: 4

31 Number of references: 34

32 **Abstract**

33

34 *Different regimens of silver diamine fluoride (SDF) have been used to manage early*
35 *childhood caries. So far, there is limited information regarding the concentrations and frequency*
36 *of applications for effective caries control in primary teeth. This study aimed to compare the*
37 *efficacy of two commercially available SDF solutions at pre-prepared concentrations of 38% and*
38 *12% when applied annually or biannually over 18 months in arresting dentine caries in primary*
39 *teeth. This randomised double-blinded clinical trial recruited kindergarten children aged 3-4*
40 *years who had at least one tooth with dentine caries. The children were randomly allocated to*
41 *receive four treatment protocols: Group 1 – annual application of 12% SDF; Group 2 – biannual*
42 *application of 12% SDF; Group 3 – annual application of 38% SDF; and Group 4 – biannual*
43 *application of 38% SDF. Clinical examinations at 6-month intervals were conducted to assess*
44 *whether active carious lesions became arrested. Information on the children’s background and*
45 *oral hygiene habits was collected through a parental questionnaire at baseline and follow-up*
46 *examinations. A total of 888 children with 4,220 dentine carious tooth surfaces received*
47 *treatment at baseline. After 18 months, 831 children (94%) were examined. The caries arrest*
48 *rates were 50%, 55%, 64% and 74% for Groups 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively ($p < 0.001$). Lesions*
49 *treated with SDF biannual application had a higher chance of becoming arrested compared to*
50 *those receiving SDF annual application (OR=1.33; CI95%: 1.04 – 1.71, $p = 0.025$). The*
51 *interaction between concentration and lesion site was statistically significant ($p < 0.001$).*
52 *Compared to 12% SDF, the use of 38% SDF increased a chance of becoming arrested ($p < 0.05$),*
53 *except lesions on occlusal surfaces. Based on the 18-month results, SDF is more effective in*
54 *arresting dentin caries in the primary teeth of preschool children at 38% concentration than 12%*
55 *concentration and when applied biannually rather than annually.*

56

57 **Introduction**

58 Early childhood caries (ECC) is highly prevalent, especially in poor and disadvantaged
59 children (Tinanoff and Reisine 2010, Chu et al. 1999). Epidemiological studies reported that
60 ECC was mostly left untreated (Chu et al. 2012, Schwendicke et al. 2015). The conventional
61 restorative approach requires sophisticated dental equipment and well-trained health personnel,
62 especially in apprehensive young children (Chu and Lo 2007). Effective and feasible caries
63 treatment protocols are required to address this major dental public health problem. Clinical
64 studies have shown that the use of 38% silver diamine fluoride (SDF) is effective in preventing
65 and also arresting caries (Chu et al. 2002, Llodra et al. 2005, Braga et al. 2009). A clinical trial
66 demonstrated that SDF treatment was more effective (relative risk 67%) than interim restorative
67 treatment using a glass ionomer cement (relative risk 39%) in arresting caries of primary teeth
68 (dos Santos et al. 2012).

69

70 Different concentrations of SDF solutions are commercially available. An in-vitro study
71 using a 40% aqueous solution of silver fluoride in Australia suggested that such a high
72 concentration of fluoride may allow a substantial amount of fluoride to enter the systemic
73 circulation and potentially caused dental fluorosis in young children (Gotjamanos 1997).
74 Although this suggestion of the risk of dental fluorosis was refuted by the Health Department of
75 Western Australia (Neesham 1997), some researchers have recommended the use of a lower
76 concentration of SDF to minimise this risk (Yee et al. 2009). However, a one-off application of a
77 low concentration (12%) of SDF was not effective in arresting dental caries (Yee et al. 2009). In
78 contrast, a 30-month clinical study found that three applications of 10% SDF over three
79 consecutive weeks was effective in arresting caries in children (Braga et al. 2009). There is no
80 study so far to investigate the effectiveness of regular applications of low concentration of SDF in
81 arresting caries of young children.

82

83 Rosenblatt et al. (2009) performed a review on SDF and concluded that it is a safe,
84 effective, efficient and 'equitable' caries control agent for preventing and arresting dental caries.
85 Milgrom and Chi (2011) advocated that SDF therapy is an important prevention-centred caries
86 management strategy during critical periods in early childhood. However, more randomised,
87 controlled clinical trials on SDF are thus needed before recommending the widespread use of this
88 potentially useful interventional agent. At present, no study has shown whether low and high SDF
89 concentrations are equally effective or if 6- or 12-month applications differ in the treatment

90 outcome. The objective of this study was to compare the efficacy of two commercially available
91 SDF solutions at pre-prepared concentrations of 38% and 12% when applied annually or
92 biannually over 18 months in arresting dentine caries in primary teeth. The null hypothesis tested
93 was that there was no difference in the effectiveness of SDF in caries arrest in the primary teeth of
94 children at i) concentrations of 12% or 38% and ii) an application frequency of every 6 or 12
95 months.

96

97 **Methods**

98 The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Hong
99 Kong/Hospital Authority Hong Kong West Cluster (IRB Reference Number: UW 09-302). The
100 trial was registered in the Registry of Clinical Trials run by the United States National Library of
101 Medicine (ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT02385474). Healthy preschool children aged 3-4
102 years who had at least one tooth with untreated active dentine caries attending the first year in 37
103 kindergartens were invited to join this study. Informed consent was sought from parents of each
104 participating children. Teeth with exposed pulp or non-vital teeth were excluded in this study.

105

106 A trained dentist conducted the field examination in the kindergarten through a careful
107 visual inspection with the aid of a CPI periodontal probe and a dental mirror with light-emitting
108 diode intra-oral illumination. The oral hygiene status was measured using the visible plaque index
109 (VPI). The buccal and lingual surfaces of six index teeth (55, 51, 63, 71, 75 and 83) were
110 examined for recording the VPI scores. The tooth status (decayed, missing, filled surfaces [dmfs]
111 score), tooth discoloration and hyper-mobility were recorded. The caries was diagnosed at the
112 cavitation level. A lesion was recorded as active if softness was detected upon gentle probing, or if
113 the decayed tooth was extracted or restored at the follow-up examination. If the dentine surface
114 was hard to probing, it was classified as arrested caries (Chu et al. 2002, Llodra et al. 2005, Yee et
115 al. 2009, Zhi et al. 2012). For caries arrest assessment, all surfaces (buccal, lingual, mesial, distal
116 and occlusal for posterior teeth) of each tooth were assessed. The follow-up oral examinations
117 were conducted by the same examiner at 6, 12 and 18 months. Intra-examiner agreement on the
118 plaque and caries assessment was conducted in 10% of the children at all examinations. A
119 parental questionnaire was administered at baseline and 18-month follow-up visits regarding their
120 children's oral hygiene habits, frequency of toothbrushing, use of fluoride toothpaste, dental visit
121 behaviour, snacking habits, main caretaker, parental condition, parental educational level and
122 family total income.

123

124 A two-factor factorial design (concentration: 12% vs. 38% and frequency: annually vs.
125 biannually) was adopted. Participating children with dental caries were categorised as having a
126 higher caries rate (more than 3 caries tooth surfaces) or a lower caries rate (3 or fewer caries tooth
127 surfaces). A dental assistant who held the random allocation list prepared the materials according
128 to the child's assigned group. The children were then allocated by a stratified randomisation
129 method (block size of 8) using a personal computer into one of four groups as follows:

130

131 Group 1 - Topical application of 12% SDF solution every 12 months;

132 Group 2 - Topical application of 12% SDF solution every 6 months;

133 Group 3 - Topical application of 38% SDF solution every 12 months;

134 Group 4 - Topical application of 38% SDF solution every 6 months.

135

136 In this study, the 12% SDF solution was Cariostop 12% (Biodinâmica Química e
137 Farmacêutica LTDA, Brazil), while the 38% SDF solution was Saforide (Toyo Seiyaku Kasei Co.
138 Ltd., Japan). SDF was applied after the examination by an independent operator blinded to the
139 group allocation. A normal saline solution was applied to the carious tooth surfaces of the Group
140 1 and 3 children during the half-yearly follow-up visits to blind the children. The examiner was
141 blinded to the treatment group allocation of the children and the identity of the solutions
142 throughout the study.

143

144 The results of previous clinical trials showed that around 70% of the active dentin caries
145 became arrested after 24 months (Chu et al. 2002). An absolute difference of 10% in the caries
146 arrest rates between treatment groups was considered to be clinically significant. The estimated
147 sample size was based on the expected proportion of arrested caries, with the power of the study
148 set at 80% ($\beta=0.2$) and with $\alpha=0.05$ as the statistical significance level. The sample size per study
149 group, calculated by using the software Sample Power 2.0 (SPSS Inc. Chicago, Illinois, USA),
150 was 353 active carious tooth surfaces. Based on the results of epidemiological surveys (Chu et al.
151 2012, Lo et al. 2009), we estimated that the mean baseline active carious surfaces would be 3. The
152 intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for dental caries data at the surface level within the
153 individual would be approximately 0.3 (Masood et al. 2015). Following the equation for the
154 required sample size in a multi-level study (Twisk, 2006), the estimated sample size would be at
155 least 565 active carious surfaces and with at least 188 children being recruited for each group at

156 baseline. The anticipated drop-out rate was approximately 15% (Duangthip et al. 2015); thus, 221
157 children in each group or 884 children in total needed to be recruited at baseline.

158

159 *Statistical analysis*

160 An intention-to-treat analysis was undertaken. All data were analysed using the software
161 SPSS 23.0 for Windows (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA). Cohen's Kappa statistics were used to
162 assess the intra-examiner reliability in caries diagnosis, assessment of visual plaque index (VPI)
163 at baseline and follow-up examinations. Chi-square test was used to assess the categorical data of
164 children's demographic information (age, gender, place of birth, parental condition, main
165 caretaker, father's and mother's education level and monthly family income level); oral
166 health-related habits (bottle feeding before bed, stop bottle feeding age, start toothbrushing age,
167 daily toothbrushing frequency, use of fluoride toothpaste); dental visits; caries condition (baseline
168 ECC status, tooth position and lesion site); and adverse effects among the four treatment groups.
169 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to assess the comparability between the treatment
170 groups according to the baseline conditions of the children such as frequency of snack time,
171 dmft/dmfs score, number of non-vital teeth, number of included teeth/surfaces and VPI score. The
172 McNemar test was used to compare the changes in oral health-related habits at baseline and the
173 follow-up examinations.

174

175 Since more than one caries lesion could be chosen from one child, the generalized
176 estimating equations (GEE) approach was used to adjust for the clustering effect. The first level
177 was the tooth surface while the second level was the child (subject). This analysis accounted for
178 the correlation (clustering) between observations of multiple surfaces from the same child.
179 Therefore, a multi-level logistic regression analysis was performed to analyse the effects of
180 independent variables on the caries arrest rates at the 18-month examinations. Treatment group
181 was replaced with SDF concentration (12% or 38%), frequency (annually or biannually), and
182 interaction between concentration and frequency to evaluate the effects of these factors in the
183 presence of other significant independent variables adjusted in the model. Based on prior
184 knowledge, tooth position, lesion site, lesion size, plaque on lesion and overall VPI score are
185 significant factors affecting caries arrest (Duangthip 2015). Therefore, besides the concentration
186 and frequency of application, the above mentioned factors and their significant interaction with
187 the assigned treatment were included as variables in the base model. Other potential variables
188 (namely the child's demographic characteristics collected at baseline, oral health related

189 behaviours and dental visits collected at 18 months and clinical characteristics at 18 months) with
190 $p < 0.1$ in the univariate analysis were selected and added to the base model. All possible subset
191 models approach was used and these models were compared. The goodness of fit of the models
192 was estimated by the corrected quasi-likelihood information criterion (QICC). QICC is a reverse
193 value for goodness of fit so that the smaller the value, the better the model fit. The model with all
194 variables being significant, and showing the lowest QICC was selected as the best-fit logistic
195 regression model. The level of statistical significance for all tests was set at $p < 0.05$.

196

197 **Results**

198 A total of 4,251 kindergarten children were screened and 888 eligible children were
199 randomly allocated into four treatment groups with 222 children in each group. Among them, 419
200 children (48%) were regarded as having high caries rates. The mean (SD) age of the children was
201 3.8 (0.6) years old, and 519 (58.4%) were boys. Background information and clinical
202 characteristics of children in the four study groups at baseline are shown in Table 1. There was no
203 statistically significant difference in mean age, gender, place of birth, parental condition, main
204 caretaker, father's and mother's education level, monthly family income level and oral health
205 related behaviours among the four groups. Regarding the clinical characteristics, the mean (SD)
206 dmft and dmfs at baseline were 3.84 (2.79) and 5.15 (4.75), respectively. The mean (SD) VPI
207 score was 0.69 (0.20). There was no statistically significant difference in the baseline of the mean
208 dmft and dmfs scores, number of teeth and surfaces included for treatment, number of non-vital
209 teeth and mean VPI scores between four groups. According to the tooth position, 2,421 (57%)
210 surfaces were in upper anterior arch, 561 surfaces (13%) were in upper posterior arch, 115 (3%)
211 surfaces were in lower anterior arch and 1,123 (27%) surfaces were in lower posterior arch. There
212 was no statistically significant difference in the distribution of caries surfaces according to tooth
213 position or lesion site.

214

215 ***Follow-up findings***

216 The flow of children was summarised in the CONSORT flowchart (Figure 1). The subject
217 and surface drop-out rate were 6.4% and 5.8%, respectively. There was no statistically significant
218 difference in subject or surface drop-out rates among four groups (χ^2 test, $p > 0.05$). The main
219 reason for participants leaving this study was due to changing kindergartens. All the 831
220 remaining children returned the parental questionnaires after the 18-month examination. There
221 were no statistically significant differences among the four groups of children on gender, bottle

222 feeding habit, oral health related behaviours, dental visits, mean daily snacking frequency at the
223 18-month examination. At 18 months, 25% of the study children were still using nursing bottles
224 for feeding. Regarding the oral health related behaviours, 64% of them brushed their teeth twice
225 daily or more but 2% of them did not brush their teeth. Regarding the age of starting brushing,
226 14% of them started brushing at age 12 month-old or younger, 23% at 13-18 month-old, 22% at
227 19-24 month-old and 39% after 24 month-old. After receiving SDF treatment, 5% of the children
228 visited a dentist for dental check up. No statistically significant difference was found in baseline
229 caries experience, number of caries teeth and surfaces included and number of non-vital teeth of
230 children who dropped out and remained in the 18-month follow-up ($p>0.05$). Intra-examiner
231 reliability of VPI scores and caries arrest assessment, as measured by the Cohen's Kappa
232 statistics, were at least 0.91 at baseline and all follow-up examinations.

233

234 The oral hygiene status in mean VPI score at baseline, 6-, 12- and 18-month examination
235 were 0.69, 0.43, 0.45 and 0.36, respectively, and no significant differences were found in VPI
236 scores among four groups ($p>0.05$). Compared with baseline examination, there was significant
237 improvement in all four groups from baseline to 6-month follow-up but not at 12- or 18-month
238 examinations. At the 18-month follow-up examination, almost all of the soft lesions (99% -
239 100%) were presented with visible plaque while only 72% to 81% of the arrested lesions were
240 presented with visible plaque. However, no significant interaction between plaque on lesion and
241 the assigned treatment was found. There were significantly more soft caries surfaces than arrested
242 caries with visible plaque ($p < 0.001$). No significant difference in caries experience (dmft and
243 dmfs) was found among the four treatment groups at all examinations.

244

245 ***Effectiveness of SDF treatment***

246 At baseline, the respective total numbers of active cavitated dentin lesions in Groups 1 to
247 4 were 1,051, 1,072, 1,073 and 1,024. Before adjustment of covariates, at the 18-month
248 follow-up, the treatment effectiveness among 4,220 included caries surfaces was 50%, 55%, 64%
249 and 74% for Groups 1 to 4, respectively (Table 2). Statistically significant differences were found
250 in caries arrest rates between the four groups at all follow-up examinations (χ^2 test, $p<0.001$). The
251 proportions of arrested surfaces of upper anterior teeth, upper posterior teeth, lower anterior teeth
252 and lower posterior teeth are shown in Table 2. Besides the known black staining on carious
253 lesions after SDF treatment, no major adverse event occurred during the 18-month study.

254

255 *Logistic regression model at 18-month follow-up*

256 For the base model, both high concentration (38% SDF) and high frequency (biannually)
257 were associated with an increased chance to arrest caries lesion ($p<0.05$). All other variables in the
258 base model (tooth position, lesion site, lesion size, plaque on lesion and overall VPI score) were
259 also significantly associated with effectiveness of caries arrest ($p<0.05$). No statistically
260 significant interaction between SDF concentration and frequency of application was found.
261 However, the interaction between concentration and lesion site was statistically significant. This
262 interaction was included in the base model together with the assigned treatment (concentration
263 and frequency of application) and other variables mentioned above.

264
265 Six variables (mother's education, main care taker, tooth brushing frequency, use of bottle
266 feeding before bed, start toothbrushing age, dental visit) with $p<0.1$ in the univariate analysis were
267 selected as the additional independent variables. As a result, one base model plus 63 possible
268 subset models were generated. Comparing these 64 subset logistic regression models, the best-fit
269 model with all additional significant variables was selected (Table 3). It had lower QICC (3233)
270 than the base model (3515). The intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) was 0.13.

271
272 At 18 months, lesions of the children receiving biannual SDF application had a higher
273 chance of becoming arrested compared to those receiving annual SDF application (OR=1.33; CI
274 95%: 1.04 – 1.71, $p=0.025$). The interaction between SDF concentration and lesion site was
275 statistically significant ($p<0.001$). Lesions on mesial, distal, buccal and lingual surfaces that
276 received SDF concentration at 38% had higher chance of becoming arrested than those receiving
277 a SDF concentration at 12% ($p<0.05$). However, there is no statistically significant difference in
278 arresting caries on occlusal surfaces by 38% SDF and 12% SDF. Lesions in the posterior teeth
279 ($p<0.001$), large lesions ($p<0.001$) and lesions in a child with a higher VPI score ($p<0.001$) had a
280 lower chance of becoming arrested. Similarly, lesions with visible plaque had a lower chance of
281 becoming arrested compared to those without visible plaque ($p<0.001$). Children who started
282 brushing at age 18 months and younger ($p=0.001$), whose mother completed primary education
283 ($p=0.024$), or whose care takers were their own parents ($p=0.030$) had a higher chance of having
284 arrested caries.

285
286
287

288 **Discussion**

289 This study used a 2 x 2 factorial design, and this allowed simultaneous study of two
290 factors at two levels together with their potential interaction effect (Bria et al. 2007, Stamm 2004).
291 Stratification was used to reduce baseline differences in disease severity and therefore reduce the
292 potential bias to the treatment outcomes (Kingman 1984, Meier 1981). Block randomisation was
293 used to ensure that the number of participants in each group was almost the same (Matts and
294 Lachin 1988). In this study, the allocation ratio of 1:1:1:1 among the four treatment groups was
295 achieved.

296
297 According to the sample size calculation, the obtained ICC in the present study (0.13) was
298 smaller than the estimated one (0.3). In addition, the completeness of follow-up is considered very
299 satisfactory as the subject-dropout rate was approximately 6% over 18 months, which was lower
300 than the anticipated rate in the planning study. Therefore, the efficiency or power in the
301 multi-level analysis could be maintained. Since staining on the treated tooth surfaces was
302 commonly found among four SDF treatment groups, detection bias may be less likely to occur
303 during the examination. Randomisation was performed at child (subject) level. It could not be
304 done at the tooth surface level due to the contamination of the intervention in each child.
305 Therefore, besides the treatment effects, information on potential confounding factors especially
306 at the tooth surface level should be collected and analysed. Predicting the model of treatment
307 effectiveness at the subject level would not be precise because the assessment at the subject level
308 could not allow the predicting variables that were related to the lesion site to be investigated.

309
310 The clinical diagnosis of caries activity was based on the visual-tactile assessment of the
311 caries lesions (Nyvad and Fejerskov 1997). A blunt CPI probe with light force was used to assess
312 the surface condition in order to avoid damaging the caries surface and avoid missing certain parts
313 of the surface that were not arrested. Despite the fact that a gold standard tool for caries activity
314 assessment has not been available, the visual-tactile clinical assessment is the only validated
315 method for assessing caries lesions in a single session (Ekstrand et al. 2009). After SDF
316 application, the black staining layer over the arrested dentin was identified to be a hard and
317 impermeable layer of silver phosphate (Yamaga et al. 1972), and the collagens were protected
318 from being exposed in the arrested cavitated dentinal lesion (Mei et al. 2014). Arrested dentin
319 caries surfaces had a significantly higher microhardness value than the soft active caries surfaces
320 (Chu and Lo 2008). Although caries activity could also be assessed by the depth of lesions

321 obtained from the longitudinal radiographic examinations (Lunder and von der Fehr 1996), such
322 facilities could not be available in the epidemiological or field studies like the current study.
323 However, the reliability of clinical assessment of dentin caries in field settings could be improved
324 through trainings and calibrations (Chu et al. 2012). The Cohen's Kappa statistics in lesion
325 activity and oral hygiene assessments could be maintained to be over 0.9 in this study. The
326 negative control group was not used in this study due to the ethical issue. In this study, Group 3
327 (annual application of 38% SDF) was used as a positive control for comparison with other
328 treatment groups because this treatment protocol has been proven to be effective in arresting
329 dentine caries in the previous study (Chu et al. 2002). In the present study, the differences in
330 treatment effectiveness by varying the concentration and frequency were studied.

331

332 The first null hypothesis that there was no difference in effectiveness between 12% and
333 38% SDF in arresting dentin caries in primary teeth was not supported in this study. The treatment
334 effectiveness of 38% SDF was more effective than 12% SDF in arresting caries. Since the
335 interaction effect between the concentration and lesion site was found to be significant, the
336 combination of lesion site and SDF concentration should be taken into consideration when
337 applying SDF solution for caries arrest. The second null hypothesis that there was no difference in
338 treatment effectiveness when SDF was applied annually or biannually was also not supported by
339 the present findings. The results of this study agreed with the findings reported by Zhi and
340 co-workers (2012) that biannual application could significantly increase the proportion of
341 surfaces that became arrested after 18 months at surface level. Nevertheless, this study was the
342 first to evaluate the interaction effect between concentration and frequency on the treatment
343 effectiveness of SDF. The interaction between the concentration of the SDF solutions and
344 application frequency on treatment effectiveness was disproven in this study. This indicated that
345 the treatment effectiveness of SDF was not significantly modified by the presence of both factors.

346

347 Based on the results of the present study, 38% SDF with biannual application is the most
348 effective therapeutic regime for arresting dentin caries in preschool children. Besides SDF
349 concentration and frequency of application, other factors such as lesion site, tooth position, VPI
350 score, plaque on lesion, lesion size, the age of start tooth brushing, mother's education, main care
351 taker were significantly associated with treatment effectiveness. It should be highlighted that the
352 disturbance of dental plaque is an effective measure contributing to the control of caries
353 progression and affecting the success rate of SDF. Once cavities have been developed, the

354 trapping of food over these lesions made the natural cleansing and remineralisation actions of
355 saliva almost impossible. Even a protective layer could be formed after SDF treatment (Mei et al.
356 2014); it might soon be dissolved, and, therefore, the lesions cannot be arrested. Therefore, further
357 oral health education on toothbrushing should be emphasised in the kindergarten oral health
358 programmes.

359

360 SDF at 38% contains approximately 254,000 ppm silver ions (Mei et al., 2013).
361 Approximately 18% of orally administered silver are absorbed (Hadrup and Lam, 2014). Vasquez
362 et al. (2012) measured the serum concentrations of silver and fluoride after oral SDF application
363 and reported occasional SDF application should pose little toxicity risk when used in adults.
364 Although no severe adverse effect was found in the present study during 18 months, the
365 possibility of having toxicity in children due to silver ingestion cannot be excluded. Thus, one
366 needs to pay attention to the safety aspect when applying high concentration silver agents to
367 young children.

368

369 This study reported the 18-month results of SDF therapy on young children. As the
370 application frequencies were only completed once biannually or annually, a longer period of
371 evaluation is more desirable. In addition, it should be noted that the results of the present study
372 were based on dentine caries lesions that became arrested. Thus, these findings may not be
373 transferable to different types of carious lesions such as enamel carious lesions.

374

375 Due to the simplicity and non-invasive approach of SDF treatment as well as teachers'
376 support during the examination, the caries arrest treatment could be easily carried out in most of
377 the study children. These findings could provide evidence-based support for the further
378 development of using SDF in dental public health programmes. However, other issues related to
379 feasibility, cost, sustainability and patient's acceptability should also be considered when
380 translating research to practice.

381

382 **Conclusions**

383 Based on the 18-month results of this randomised clinical trial, it can be concluded that
384 SDF is more effective in arresting dentin caries in the primary teeth of preschool children at 38%
385 concentration rather than 12% concentration and when applied biannually than annually.

386

387 **Acknowledgements**

388 The authors declare no conflict of interest. This study was financially supported by the
389 Food and Health Bureau Health and Health Service Research Fund (#09101101) and Research
390 Grant Council General Research Fund (#765213M). The administering institution, the University
391 of Hong Kong, provided administrative and technical supports to our work. We are grateful to the
392 funding bodies, administrating institution, all participating kindergartens, headmistresses,
393 teachers, child participants and their parents for their support and cooperation in this research.
394

395 **Bibliography**

- 396 1. Braga MM, Mendes FM, De Benedetto MS, Imperato JC. 2009. Effect of silver diamine
397 fluoride on incipient caries lesions in erupting permanent first molars: a pilot study. *J Dent*
398 *Child (Chic)*.76(1):28-33.
- 399 2. Bria E, Di Maio M, Nistico C, Cuppone F, Terzoli E, Cognetti F, Giannarelli D. 2006.
400 Factorial design for randomized clinical trials. *Ann Oncol*. 17(10):1607-1608.
- 401 3. Chu CH, Fung DSH, Lo ECM. 1999. Dental caries status of preschool children in Hong
402 Kong. *Br Dent J*; 187(11):616-620.
- 403 4. Chu CH, Ho PL, Lo ECM. 2012. Oral health status and behaviours of preschool children in
404 Hong Kong. *BMC Public Health*; 12(1):767. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-12-767.
- 405 5. Chu CH, Lo ECM. 2008. Microhardness of dentine in primary teeth after topical fluoride
406 applications. *J Dent*. 36(6):387-391.
- 407 6. Chu CH, Lo ECM. 2007. Dental Caries Prevention and Treatment for Preschool Children
408 in China. *Chin J Dent Res*. 10(Suppl):56-62.
- 409 7. Chu CH, Lo ECM, Lin HC. 2002. Effectiveness of silver diamine fluoride and sodium
410 fluoride varnish in arresting dentine caries in Chinese pre-school children. *J Dent Res*.
411 81(11):760-770.
- 412 8. dos Santos VE Jr, de Vasconcelos FM, Ribeiro AG, Rosenblatt A. 2012. Paradigm shift in
413 the effective treatment of caries in schoolchildren at risk. *Int Dent J*. 62(1):47-51.
- 414 9. Duangthip D, Chu CH, Lo EC. 2015. A randomized clinical trial on arresting dentine caries
415 in preschool children by topical fluorides-18 month results. *J Dent*. 30. pii:
416 S0300-5712(15)00124-4. doi: 10.1016/j.jdent.2015.05.006.
- 417 10. Duangthip D. 2015. A randomized clinical trial on arresting dentin caries in preschool
418 children by topical fluorides [dissertation]. Hong Kong SAR: The University of Hong
419 Kong.
- 420 11. Ekstrand KR, Zero DT, Martignon S, Pitts NB. 2009. Lesion activity assessment. *Monogr*
421 *Oral Sci*. 21:63-90.
- 422 12. Gotjamanos T. 1997. Safety issues related to the use of silver fluoride in paediatric
423 dentistry. *Aust Dent J*. 42(3):166-168.
- 424 13. Hadrup N, Lam HR. 2014. Oral toxicity of silver ions, silver nanoparticles and colloidal
425 silver—a review. *Regul Toxicol Pharmacol*. 68(1):1-7.
- 426 14. Kingman A. 1984. Stratification methods in caries clinical trials. *J Dent Res*. 63 (Spec No):
427 773-777.

- 428 15. Llodra JC, Rodriguez A, Ferrer B, Menardia V, Ramos T, Morato M. 2005. Efficacy of
429 silver diamine fluoride for caries reduction in primary teeth and first permanent molars of
430 schoolchildren: 36-month clinical trial. *J Dent Res.* 84(8):721-724.
- 431 16. Lunder N, von der Fehr FR. 1996. Approximal cavitation related to bite-wing image and
432 caries activity in adolescents. *Caries Res.* 30(2):143-147.
- 433 17. Lo ECM, Loo EKY, Lee CK. 2009. Dental health status of Hong Kong preschool children.
434 *Hong Kong Dent J*; 6(1):6-12.
- 435 18. Matts JP, Lachin JM. 1988. Properties of permuted-block randomization in clinical trials.
436 *Control Clin Trials.* 9(4):327-344.
- 437 19. Masood M, Masood Y, Newton JT. 2015. The clustering effects of surfaces within the tooth
438 and teeth within individuals. *J Dent Res.* 94(2):281-288.
- 439 20. Mei ML, Chu CH, Lo EC, Samaranayake LP. 2013. Fluoride and silver concentrations of
440 silver diamine fluoride solutions for dental use. *Int J of Paediatr Dent.* 23(4):279-285.
- 441 21. Mei ML, Ito L, Cao Y, Lo EC, Li QL, Chu CH. 2014. An ex vivo study of arrested primary
442 teeth caries with silver diamine fluoride therapy. *J Dent.* 42(4):395-402.
- 443 22. Meier P. 1981. Stratification in the design of a clinical trial. *Control Clin Trials.*
444 1(4):355-361.
- 445 23. Milgrom P, Chi DL. 2011. Prevention-centered caries management strategies during
446 critical periods in early childhood. *J Calif Dent Assoc.* 39(10):735-741.
- 447 24. Neesham DC. 1997. Fluoride concentration in AgF and dental fluorosis. *Aust Dent J.*
448 42(4):268-269.
- 449 25. Nyvad B, Fejerskov O. 1997. Assessing the stage of caries lesion activity on the basis of
450 clinical and microbiological examination. *Community Dent Oral Epidemiol.* 25(1):69-75.
- 451 26. Rosenblatt A, Stamford TC, Niederman R. 2009. Silver diamine fluoride: a caries
452 "silver-fluoride bullet". *J Dent Res.* 88:116-125.
- 453 27. Schwendicke F, Dörfer CE, Schlattmann P, Foster Page L, Thomson WM, Paris S. 2015.
454 Socioeconomic inequality and caries: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Dent Res.*
455 94(1):10-18.
- 456 28. Stamm JW. 2004. The classic caries clinical trial: constraints and opportunities. *J Dent Res.*
457 83 Spec No:C6-14.
- 458 29. Tinanoff N, Reisine S. 2010. Update on early childhood caries since the Surgeon General's
459 Report. *Acad Pediatr.* 9(6):396-403.

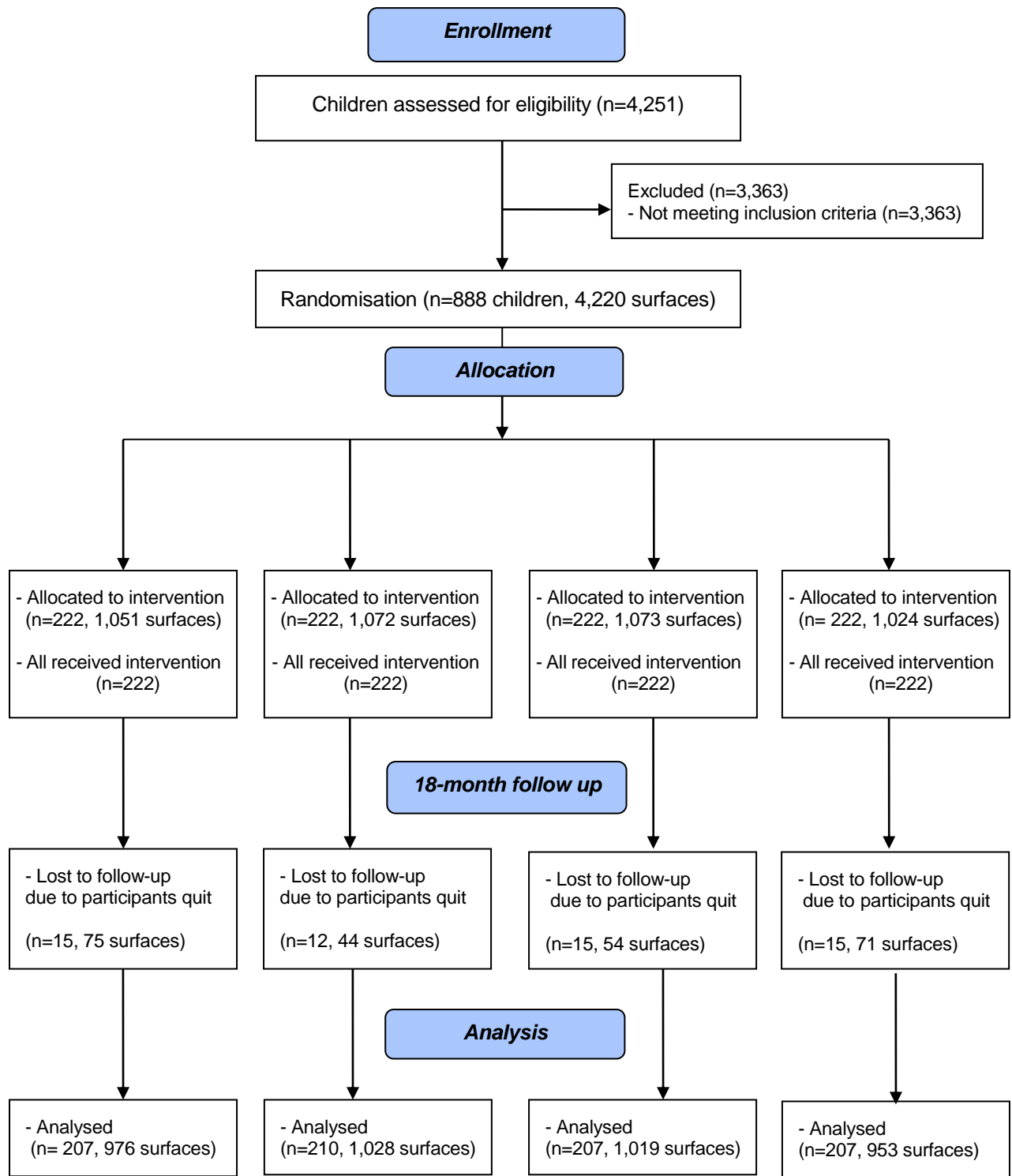
- 460 30. Twisk JWR. 2006. Applied multilevel analysis: Practical guides to biostatistics and
461 epidemiology. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- 462 31. Vasquez E, Zegarra G, Chirinos E, Castillo JL, Taves DR, Watson GE, Dills R, Mancl LL
463 and Milgrom P. 2012. Short term serum pharmacokinetics of diammine silver fluoride
464 after oral application. BMC Oral Health 12, 60 DOI: 10.1186/1472-6831-12-60.
- 465 32. Yamaga R, Nishino M, Yoshida S, Yokomizo I. 1972. Diammine silver fluoride and its
466 clinical application. J Osaka Univ Dent Sch. 12:1-20.
- 467 33. Yee R, Holmgren C, Mulder J, Lama D, Walker D, van Palenstein Helder W. 2009.
468 Efficacy of silver diamine fluoride for Arresting Caries Treatment. J Dent Res.
469 88(7):644-647.
- 470 34. Zhi QH, Lo EC, Lin HC. 2012. Randomized clinical trial on effectiveness of silver
471 diamine fluoride and glass ionomer in arresting dentine caries in preschool children. J Dent.
472 40(11):962-967.

473

474

475
476
477
478
479
480
481
482
483
484
485
486
487
488
489
490
491
492
493
494
495
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507
508
509
510
511
512
513
514
515
516
517
518
519

Figure 1 Flow Diagram of participants' progress over 18 months



520 **Table 1 Baseline demographic information, oral health related habits and clinical characteristics of children**
 521 **in the four study groups (n=888).**
 522

	Group 1 (12%, annual) (n=222)	Group 2 (12%, biannual) (n=222)	Group 3 (38%, annual) (n=222)	Group 4 (38%, biannual) (n=222)
Demographic background[#]				
Gender				
- Male	134 (60%)	130 (59%)	132 (60%)	123 (55%)
Main Care Taker				
- Father or mother	151 (69%)	145 (65%)	150 (68%)	145 (65%)
- Grandparents	44 (19%)	44 (20%)	40 (18%)	49 (22%)
- Maid or other people	27 (12%)	33 (15%)	32 (14%)	28 (13%)
Father's education level				
- Primary education	35 (17%)	37 (17%)	32 (15%)	36 (17%)
- Secondary education	145 (68%)	140 (66%)	143 (67%)	135 (64%)
- Post-secondary education	32 (15%)	36 (17%)	38 (18%)	41 (19%)
Mother's education level				
- Primary education	37 (17%)	34 (16%)	38 (17%)	42 (19%)
- Secondary education	161 (73%)	152 (70%)	149 (68%)	147 (67%)
- Post-secondary education	22 (10%)	30 (14%)	31 (14%)	30 (14%)
Monthly family income				
- Below HK\$10,000	80 (37%)	80 (37%)	80 (38%)	84 (41%)
- HK\$10,001 - 20,000	78 (37%)	66 (31%)	74 (35%)	65 (31%)
- Above HK\$20,000	56 (26%)	69 (32%)	57 (27%)	59 (28%)
Oral health related habits[#]				
Toothbrushing frequency				
- Once or less daily	132 (59%)	123 (55%)	129 (58%)	122 (55%)
- Twice or more daily	90 (41%)	99 (45%)	93 (42%)	100 (45%)
Use of fluoride toothpaste	119 (54%)	119 (54%)	115 (52%)	120 (54%)
Use of bottle feeding before bed	117 (53%)	113 (51%)	127 (57%)	111 (50%)
Mean (SD) daily snacking frequency	2.37 (1.61)	2.36 (1.31)	2.24 (1.26)	2.42 (1.39)
Clinical characteristics[#]				
Baseline dmft	3.82 (2.72)	3.81 (2.83)	3.92 (2.91)	3.83 (2.72)
Baseline dmfs	5.00 (4.49)	5.20 (4.86)	5.41 (5.16)	5.00 (4.47)
No. of teeth included	3.65 (2.67)	3.76 (2.64)	3.71 (2.86)	3.62 (2.48)
No. of surfaces included	4.73 (4.11)	4.83 (4.13)	4.83 (4.47)	4.61 (3.71)
No. of non-vital teeth	0.05 (0.29)	0.07 (0.40)	0.11 (0.47)	0.05 (0.34)
VPI score at baseline	0.68 (0.21)	0.68 (0.19)	0.70 (0.20)	0.69 (0.20)

523 # No statistically significant difference about children's demographic background, oral health-related
 524 habits and clinical characteristics among four groups.

525

526 **Table 2 Caries arrest rates at 6-, 12- and 18-month follow-up examinations**
527

	Group1 (12%, annual)	Group2 (12%, biannual)	Group 3 (38%, annual)	Group 4 (38%, biannual)	p-value
All surfaces					
Baseline	(n=1,051)	(n=1,072)	(n=1,073)	(n=1,024)	
6-month	337/1051 (32.1%)	346/1072 (32.3%)	471/1073 (43.9%)	449/1024 (43.8%)	p<0.001
12-month	409/1007 (40.6%)	502/1046 (48.0%)	540/1041 (51.9%)	618/987 (62.6%)	p<0.001
18-month	487/976 (49.9%)	566/1028 (55.1%)	649/1019 (63.7%)	701/953 (73.6%)	p<0.001
Upper anterior teeth					
Baseline	(n=605)	(n=612)	(n=619)	(n=585)	
6-month	213/605 (35.2%)	208/612 (34.0%)	314/619 (50.7%)	284/585 (48.5%)	p<0.001
12-month	276/587 (47.0%)	331/596 (55.5%)	367/610 (60.2%)	403/565 (71.3%)	p<0.001
18-month	335/572 (58.6%)	382/582 (65.6%)	450/599 (75.1%)	447/543 (82.3%)	p<0.001
Upper posterior teeth					
Baseline	(n=140)	(n=140)	(n=143)	(n=138)	
6-month	29/140 (20.7%)	33/140 (23.6%)	41/143 (28.7%)	56/138 (40.6%)	p=0.004
12-month	30/132 (22.7%)	44/138 (31.9%)	41/134 (30.6%)	67/133 (50.4%)	p<0.001
18-month	33/126 (26.2%)	55/138 (39.9%)	57/131 (43.5%)	74/128 (57.8%)	p<0.001
Lower anterior teeth					
Baseline	(n=33)	(n=26)	(n=29)	(n=27)	
6-month	24/33 (72.7%)	17/26 (65.4%)	22/29 (75.9%)	16/27 (59.3%)	p=0.533
12-month	23/32 (71.9%)	19/26 (73.1%)	22/29 (75.9%)	23/27 (85.2%)	p=0.208
18-month	29/32 (90.6%)	21/26 (80.8%)	28/29 (96.6%)	25/26 (96.2%)	p=0.108
Lower posterior teeth					
Baseline	(n=273)	(n=294)	(n=282)	(n=274)	
6-month	71/273 (26.0%)	88/294 (29.9%)	94/282 (33.3%)	93/274 (33.9%)	p=0.005
12-month	80/256 (31.3%)	108/286 (37.8%)	110/268 (41.0%)	125/262 (47.7%)	p=0.001
18-month	90/246 (36.6%)	108/282 (38.3%)	114/260 (43.8%)	155/256 (60.5%)	p<0.001

528

529

Table 3 The adjusted logistic regression with the best goodness of fit estimated by corrected quasi-likelihood information criterion

	Explanatory variable	Predicted probability [#]	Odds ratio	95% confidence interval	p-value	Pairwise comparison
Base model	Frequency				0.025	
	(1) Annually ^a	0.53				
	(2) Biannually	0.61	1.33	1.04 – 1.71		
	SDF Concentration				<0.001	
	(1) 12% ^a					
	(2) 38%		2.73	1.86 – 3.99		
	Lesion site				<0.001	
	(1) Mesial ^a					
	(2) Buccal		2.50	1.69 – 3.71		
	(3) Lingual		1.03	0.67 – 1.57		
	(4) Distal		1.53	1.14 – 2.06		
	(5) Occlusal		1.31	0.85 – 2.01		
	Lesion site * SDF Concentration				0.001	
	(1.1) Mesial * 12%	0.53 ^{##}				
	(1.2) Mesial * 38%	0.76				(1.2) > (1.1)
	(2.1) Buccal * 12%	0.74				
	(2.2) Buccal * 38%	0.90	1.12	0.63-1.98		(2.2) > (2.1)
	(3.1) Lingual * 12%	0.54				
	(3.2) Lingual * 38%	0.75	0.92	0.91-0.49		(3.2) > (3.1)
	(4.1) Distal * 12%	0.64				
(4.2) Distal * 38%	0.75	0.64	0.46-1.01		(4.2) > (4.1)	
(5.1) Occlusal * 12%	0.60					
(5.2) Occlusal * 38%	0.63	0.41	0.25-0.68			
Tooth position				<0.001		
(1) Upper anterior ^a	0.53				(1) > (2),(4)	
(2) Upper posterior	0.22	0.25	0.17 – 0.36		(3) > (2),(4)	
(3) Lower anterior	0.77	2.88	1.06 – 7.83			
(4) Lower posterior	0.24	0.27	0.19 – 0.40			
Size of lesion				<0.001		
(1) Small ^a	0.53					
(2) Large	0.25	0.29	0.24-0.37			
Lesion with visible plaque				<0.001		
(1) Yes ^a	0.53					
(2) No	0.99	82.58	35.70-191.00			
High VPI score				<0.001		
Mean VPI=0.40	0.30	0.19	0.10 – 0.37			
Additional significant variables	Age of start brushing				0.001	
	(1) No brushing ^a	0.53				(2),(3) > (1)
	(2) 12 months or younger	0.85	4.89	1.81-13.22		(3) > (5)
	(3) 13-18 months	0.85	4.81	1.89-12.22		
	(4) 19-24 months	0.78	3.06	1.20-7.85		
	(5) over 24 months	0.78	3.02	1.20-7.55		
	Mother's education				0.024	
	(1) Primary education ^a	0.53				(1) > (2)
	(2) Secondary education	0.42	0.62	0.44-0.88		
	(3) Post-secondary education	0.46	0.73	0.45-1.18		
	Main care taker				0.030	
	(1) Parents ^a	0.53				NS
	(2) Grandparents	0.46	0.74	0.53-1.03		
(3) Maid or others	0.43	0.66	0.46-0.94			

532 ^a Reference category, * Interaction

533 [#] Predicted probability of arrested caries with the mean VPI score of 0.40 (after excluding missing data) and other variables as
534 reference category

535 ^{##} Predicted probability for Lesion site * SDF concentration was calculated using estimates for both main and interaction effects

536 NS - No significant multiple comparisons were identified