

The Perturbation Encompassing Dental Amalgam Toxicity: A Review

Arjun Hegde¹, Ganaraj Shetty², Nishi Jayasheelan³

¹Assistant Professor, Faculty of Dentistry, Melaka Manipal Medical College, Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Manipal Campus, ²Senior Lecturer Nitte (Deemed to be University) AB Shetty Memorial Institute of Dental Sciences, Department of Prosthodontics and Crown & Bridge, Mangalore, India, ³Senior lecturer, Department of Conservative and Endodontic, Yenepoya Dental College, Yenepoya (Deemed to be University).
Deralakatte Mangalore

Abstract

Amalgam in dentistry has been in use for over 150 years and still been widely used because of its low cost, easy application, durability, bacteriostatic effect, and strength. Whenever aesthetics isn't the prime concern it is possibly used with no age bar, in areas of stress, as a foundation for cast-metals, ceramic restorations, and below-par oral hygiene conditions. Its advantages such as long-lasting and being less technique sensitive among all restorative materials, there has been growing concern about amalgam that it causes mercury toxicity. Mercury (Hg) has been historically popular as one of the extremely toxic nonradioactive materials. Therefore, the present article aims to discuss and assess a brief historical review of literature on its adverse effects, toxicological aspects that have been noted, potential risks relating to the dental personnel's and its safe and effective way of manipulating and handling concerning the use of mercury in dentistry.

Keywords: mercury; dental amalgam; dentistry; toxicity;

Introduction

Dental amalgam was used first by the Chinese. Su Kung (659 AD) mentioned the use of a mixture in the Material Medica^[1]. A municipal physician in Germany, Europe named Johannes stokers in 1528 recommended amalgam as a restorative material^[2]. Dr. Wilmer Eames in 1959 recommended mercury to alloy ratio of 1:1, thus lessening the ratio of 8:5 mercury to an alloy that others had previously been recommending^[3]. Mercury is present in the environment and thus humans are regularly exposed to it via water, food, and air^[4]. Mercury exposure from restoration depends on the size

and number of restorations, its composition, patients chewing habits, texture of the food, brushing, grinding of teeth, and a lot of other physiological factors^[5]. Amalgam's universal acceptance as a restorative material came after the investigations of Black in 1895, 1896, 1908^[6]. Dental amalgam as defined by the American Dental Association (ADA) is an alloy that is composed of mercury, tin, copper, and silver along with some other metallic compounds added to enhance its physical and mechanical properties^[7]. The purpose of this paper is to review the literature regarding the toxicology and adverse effects of mercury from dental amalgam, to evaluate and ensure safety on dental amalgam use.

Correspondence Author:

Dr Ganaraj Shetty

Senior Lecturer, Nitte (Deemed to be University)
AB Shetty Memorial Institute of Dental Sciences
Department of Prosthodontics and Crown & Bridge
Mangalore, India, Phone No: 9880541104
Email Id: drganarajshetty@nitte.edu.in

Mercury exposure from dental amalgam restorations

Can occur through several ways: (1) Elemental mercury released from dental amalgam which is present in the aerosol can be inhaled; (2) Particles of dental amalgam abrading from restored surfaces during mechanical wear of restorations or can even be produced

while placing or replacing the restorations, and the abrading particles from the surface restorations could be ingested; (3) Swallowing of the dissolved corrosion produced inorganic and elemental mercury products from saliva can take place; (4) "tattooing"^[8].

Adverse effects of amalgam restorations: 1. Fluoride and mercury are widespread in the natural environment. 2. When high levels of exposure occur, adverse health effects have been observed. Fluoride and mercury are widespread in the natural environment. 3. When high levels of exposure occur, adverse health effects have been observed.

Fluoride and mercury are widely spread in our natural environment. Adverse health effects have been observed earlier whenever high-level exposure has occurred^[9]. There has been a reasonable understanding of the pharmacokinetics of mercury, its absorption, distribution, and elimination^[10]. Several studies have reported that mercury levels in the urine and blood are indicative of amalgam exposure by the dental filling in the general population and by the occupational practice in dental practitioners^{[11][12][13]}. Mercury vapor exposure is usually linked with occupational and accidental exposures^{[14][15]}.

Some of the local adverse effects include:

a) Corrosion -While amalgam has known to be a strong and durable restorative material, different phases in amalgam have different corrosion potential^[16].

b) Amalgam tattoos- have been generally diagnosed clinically to be as dark grey to blue, flat macules rendering a sub-mucosal cluster of embedded amalgam that remains unchanged for several years. They have been found very commonly in the alveolar mucosa and the gingivae^[17] and present in barely 1% of adults^[18].

c) oral lichenoid reactions and erythematous lesions on the tongue and mucosa, are mainly due to abrasion of the restoration by the rough surfaces. Any restoration that is not appropriately placed, finished and polished can induce such an effect. These types of adverse mucosal reactions can usually resolve on taking out of the restorative material and will not require additional treatment^[19].

Systemic Inflammation and Autoimmunity Related Outcomes

In the inclusion of allergic mechanisms, some studies on dental amalgam have examined the possible relevance to systemic inflammations and autoimmunity^[20]. The primary effects on the human body include a change in the cell membrane, morphology of mitochondria, and physiologic differences in enzymatic activity. The central nervous system (CNS) is the most affected, which can display higher-significant deleterious results, involving tremors, abnormal reflexes, paraesthesia, nerve-conduction disturbances, headaches, balance disorders, changes in the pupillary reflex, language disorders, changes in the ability to spell, and disturbances of memory, concentration, and motor coordination^[21] ^[22]. Renal - Kidney Dysfunction multiple studies have inspected the outcome of the existence of amalgam restorations on the extent of mercury present in urine and bodily fluids^[23]. Episodes of a true allergy to mercury have been rare and attempts to link its usage with conditions like multiple sclerosis and Alzheimer's disease has not been proven significantly, however, there may be some union between amalgam restorations and oral lichenoid lesions^[24].

Risks to Dental Personnel

For long it has been recognized that in dentistry chronic exposure to mercury vapor owing to inadequate manipulating of dental amalgam can pose a potential health hazard in the workplace ^[25]. The use of dental amalgam has the potential for continuous occupational exposure of a dental practitioner to mercurial vapor that may be absorbed via the skin and the lungs ^{[26][27]}. Mercury poisoning could be characterized by tumours of arms, legs, or face and could also be incorporated with progressive, tremulous illegible handwriting, and slurred speech. It is been published by literature research that Dentists manipulating with amalgam have chances of increased mercury exposure ^{[28][29][30]}. One study has revealed that dental female assistants exposed to amalgam elicit a high rate of infertility ^[31]. Some Studies have witnessed that workers exposed to mercury also experience problems with eyesight, digestion, and urinary system ^{[32][33][34]}. The American Dental Association alarmed that amalgam filling material is hazardous to the dental office personnel but could be

safe in patients' mouths^[35].

Handling mercury is the most critical and dangerous exposure channel. The exposure limit at workplaces is regulated by each country, as per its occupational exposure limit.

Mercury exposure risk can be minimized by ensuring careful handling procedures. Instantaneously steps should be taken for shielding the health of dentists and dental assistants through relevant preventive measures.

Testing for mercury toxicity: The average daily dose of inhaled mercury vapor was 1.7 µg (range from 0.4 to 4.4 µg), which is approximately 1% of the threshold limit value of 300 to 500 µg/day established by WHO, based on a maximum allowable environmental level of 50 µg/day in the workplace. Numerous diagnostic methods to detect the level of mercury in the body exist, which include tests for urine, saliva, stool, blood, hair analysis, and others. These tests determine if mercury is in the body and/or if it is being excreted. A study was conducted measuring intraoral vapor levels over a 24-h period in patients having at least nine amalgam restorations exhibited that the average dose of daily inhaled mercury vapor was about 1.7 µg (range from 0.4 to 4.4 µg), which approximates 1% of the threshold limit value of 300 to 500 µg/day indicated by WHO, based on a maximum permitted environmental level of 50 µg/day in the workplace^[36]. Electrolyte assays, Complete blood cell count, renal, and hepatic function tests are some of the general laboratory tests available to detect mercury intoxication. Cardiovascular monitoring, Electrocardiography (ECG), electroneuromyography, pulmonary function test (PFT), and neuropsychological tests are also sometimes used for the evaluation^[37].

The most precise way to calibrate the level of mercury in the body would be by detecting concentration levels of mercury in each organ tissue. However, as this can turn to be a strenuous task, using samples of hair, blood, urine, or fingernail remains the most common method of mercury measurement. As per some studies on occupational mercury exposure, recent exposure to mercury is supposedly reflected in blood and urine mercury concentration levels^{[38][39]}. To date, there are no universal criteria available for the diagnosis of mercury overload.

The safe and effective use of dental amalgam: Effective management of amalgam includes placement, removal, storage, elimination, and disposal of amalgam waste as well as amalgam spills/mercury spills 'management during the phase-down period:

1. Amalgam Placement

- a. Instrument or technology modification;
- b. Modifying process during placement;
- c. Operative changes e.g. Enhancement of house-keeping and inventory control;
- d. Reforming or re-designing of amalgam product; and
- e. Establishment of Standard guidelines for mercury spills management.

2. Removal of Amalgam Restorations: Standard guidelines must be established for use by dentists. These guidelines will include:

- a. Using a rubber dam;
- b. Using a special suction tube;
- c. fasters cutting burs for reducing mercury vapor;
- d. Using the copious amount of water during cutting;
- e. Cutting, breaking amalgam into chunks;
- f. Ensure using safety goggles;
- g. Advocate clean filtered air in the dental surgery; and
- h. To avoid any contact with mercury and amalgam particles or scraps cover skin completely.

3. Amalgam waste storage: Before dispose of appropriately storing amalgam waste in a sealed container containing water, as a part of the medical waste to avoid vaporization of any spills.

4. Amalgam waste disposal: Modern methods should be employed for disposing amalgam waste on contrary to the traditional methods of solid waste disposal^[40].

Conclusion

Globally the consumption and production of mercury has been declining, although the advocacy in discontinuing and banning dental amalgam as a dental restorative material is been considered to be unwarranted and unsubstantiated, as its direct relation to systemic adverse effects has not been scientifically proven. As a principle of toxicology, we have to accept that there might be certain groups in the community who can be sensitive to mercury exposure and require minimization. By taking safe and effective measures it is viable to help reduce the environmental freight of mercury from the dental clinics. Amalgam restorations, therefore, endure to be safe and effective. Although dental amalgam use is trending towards minimization, still there continues to be a wide-spread belief that in certain clinical situations dental amalgam is a material of choice. Dentists need to educate their patients and even the health care professionals who might have been overly concerned regarding amalgam safety. However, amalgam due to its durability, reliability, and technique insensitivity runs to be one of the best bargains in the operative and restorative armamentarium.

Conflict of Interest – Nil

Ethical Clearance- Not applicable

Source of Funding- Self

References

1. Ring ME. Dentistry. An illustrated history. New York: Harry N Abrams. Inc. & Mosby-Year Book, Inc. 1985.
2. Hoffmann-Axthelm W. History of dentistry. In: Koehler HM, editor. translator. Chicago: Quintessence; 1981. pp. 43–156.
3. Eames WB. Preparation and condensation of amalgam with a low mercury-alloy ratio. The Journal of the American Dental Association. 1959 Apr 1;58(4):78-83.
4. Dunne SM, Gainsford ID, Wilson NH. Current materials and techniques for direct restorations in posterior teeth: Part 1: silver amalgam. International Dental Journal. 1997 Jun;47(3):123-36.
5. Takahashi Y, Tsuruta S, Arimoto M, Tanaka H, Yoshida M. Placental transfer of mercury in pregnant rats which received dental amalgam restorations. Toxicology. 2003 Mar 14;185(1-2):23-33.
6. Takahashi Y, Tsuruta S, Arimoto M, Tanaka H, Yoshida M. Placental transfer of mercury in pregnant rats which received dental amalgam restorations. Toxicology. 2003 Mar 14;185(1-2):23-33.
7. Uçar Y, Brantley WA. Biocompatibility of dental amalgams. International journal of dentistry. 2011 Jan 1;2011.
8. Lorscheider FL, Vimy MJ, Summers AO. Mercury exposure from “silver” tooth fillings: emerging evidence questions a traditional dental paradigm. The FASEB Journal. 1995 Apr;9(7):504-8.
9. Spencer AJ. Dental amalgam and mercury in dentistry. Australian Dental Journal. 2000 Dec;45(4):224-34.
10. Spencer AJ. Dental amalgam and mercury in dentistry. Australian Dental Journal. 2000 Dec;45(4):224-34.
11. Kingman A, Albertini T, Brown LJ. Mercury concentrations in urine and whole blood associated with amalgam exposure in a US military population. Journal of dental research. 1998 Mar;77(3):461-71.
12. Ahlqwist M, Bengtsson C, Lapidus L, Bergdahl IA, Schütz A. Serum mercury concentration in relation to survival, symptoms, and diseases: results from the prospective population study of women in Gothenburg, Sweden. Acta Odontologica Scandinavica. 1999 Jan 1;57(3):168-74.
13. Kostyniak PJ. Mercury as a potential hazard for the dental practitioner. New York State Dental Journal. 1998 Apr 1;64(4):40.
14. Solis MT, Yuen E, Cortez PS, Goebel PJ. Family poisoned by mercury vapor inhalation. The American journal of emergency medicine. 2000 Sep 1;18(5):599-602.
15. Zeitz P, Orr MF, Kaye WE. Public health consequences of mercury spills: Hazardous Substances Emergency Events Surveillance system, 1993-1998. Environmental Health Perspectives. 2002 Feb;110(2):129-32.
16. Craig RG, El-Ebrashi MK, LePeak PJ, Peyton FA. Experimental stress analysis of dental restorations:

- Part I. Two-dimensional photoelastic stress analysis of inlays. *The Journal of prosthetic dentistry*. 1967 Mar 1;17(3):277-91.
17. Buchner A, Hansen LS. Amalgam pigmentation (amalgam tattoo) of the oral mucosa: a clinicopathologic study of 268 cases. *Oral Surgery, Oral Medicine, Oral Pathology*. 1980 Feb 1;49(2):139-47.
 18. Buchner A. Amalgam tattoo (amalgam pigmentation) of the oral mucosa: clinical manifestations, diagnosis and treatment. *Refu'at ha-peh veva-shinayim* (1993). 2004 Apr;21(2):19-22. McCullough MJ, Tyas MJ. Local adverse effects of amalgam restorations. *Int Dent J* 2008; 58(1):3-9.
 19. Crowe W, Doherty L, Watson G, Armstrong D, Ball E, Magee P, Allsopp P, Bell A, Strain JJ, McSorley E. Mercury in hair is inversely related to disease associated damage in systemic lupus erythematosus. *International journal of environmental research and public health*. 2016 Jan;13(1):75.
 20. Brownawell AM, Berent S, Brent RL, Bruckner JV, Doull J, Gershwin EM, Hood RD, Matanoski GM, Rubin R, Weiss B, Karol MH. The potential adverse health effects of dental amalgam. *Toxicological reviews*. 2005 Mar 1;24(1):1-0.
 21. Kao RT. Human exposure to mercury is from three major sources: dental amalgams, fish consumption, and vaccines. *CDAJ*. 2004;32:575-9.
 22. Schulte A, Stoll R, Wittich M, Pieper K, Stachniss V. Mercury concentrations in the urine of children with and without amalgam fillings. *Schweizer Monatsschrift für Zahnmedizin= Revue mensuelle suisse d'odonto-stomatologie= Rivista mensile svizzera di odontologia e stomatologia*. 1994;104(11):1336.
 23. Shenoy A. Is it the end of the road for dental amalgam? A critical review. *Journal of Conservative Dentistry: JCD*. 2008 Jul;11(3):99.
 24. Benson JS, editor. *Dental Amalgam: A Scientific Review And Recommended Public Health Service Strategy For Research, Education And Regulation*. DIANE Publishing; 1999.
 25. Kostyniak PJ. Mercury as a potential hazard for the dental practitioner. *New York State Dental Journal*. 1998 Apr 1;64(4):40.
 26. Ogunbodede EO. Occupational hazards and safety in dental practice. *Nigerian J Med*. 1996;5:11-5.
 27. Nylander M, Weiner J. Mercury and selenium concentrations and their interrelations in organs from dental staff and the general population. *Occupational and Environmental Medicine*. 1991 Nov 1;48(11):729-34.
 28. Harakeh S, Sabra N, Kassak K, Doughan B, Sukhn C. Mercury and arsenic levels among Lebanese dentists: a call for action. *Bulletin of environmental contamination and toxicology*. 2003 Apr 1;70(4):0629-35.
 29. Tezel HÜ, Ertas OS, Ozata FE, Erakin C, Kayali A. Blood mercury levels of dental students and dentists at a dental school. *British Dental Journal*. 2001 Oct;191(8):449-52.
 30. Rowland AS, Baird DD, Weinberg CR, Shore DL, Shy CM, Wilcox AJ. The effect of occupational exposure to mercury vapour on the fertility of female dental assistants. *Occupational and environmental medicine*. 1994 Jan 1;51(1):28-34.
 31. Brodsky JB, Cohen EN, Whitcher C, Brown Jr BW, Wu ML. Occupational exposure to mercury in dentistry and pregnancy outcome. *Journal of the American Dental Association* (1939). 1985 Nov;111(5):779.
 32. Olfert SM. Reproductive outcomes among dental personnel: a review of selected exposures. *Journal of the Canadian Dental Association*. 2006 Nov 1;72(9).
 33. Crandall MS, Fleeger AK. National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health; Health Hazard Evaluations. HHE Report No. HETA-88-372-1953, Barbados Ministry of Health, Bridgetown, Barbados 1989. Retrieved September 23, 2007 from [Uhttp://www2a.cdc.gov/hhe/result.aspUH;](http://www2a.cdc.gov/hhe/result.aspUH;).
 34. Kantor ML, Woodcock RC. Mercury vapor exposure in the dental office—does carpeting make a difference?. *The Journal of the American Dental Association*. 1981 Sep 1;103(3):402-7.
 35. Soussa E, Shalaby Y, Maria AM, Maria OM. Evaluation of oral tissue response and blood levels of mercury released from dental amalgam in rats. *Archives of Oral Biology*. 2013 Aug 1;58(8):981-8.

36. BRUNE D, GJERDET N, PAULSEN G. Gastrointestinal and in vitro release of copper, cadmium, indium, mercury and zinc from conventional and copper-rich amalgams. *European Journal of Oral Sciences*. 1983 Feb;91(1):66-71.
37. Klaassen CD, Amdur MO, editors. Casarett and Doull's toxicology: the basic science of poisons. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2013 Jun 19.
38. Naleway C, Chou HN, Muller T, Dabney J, Roxe D, Siddiqui F. On-site Screening for Urinary Hg Concentrations and Correlation with Glomerular and Renal Tubular Function. *Journal of Public Health Dentistry*. 1991 Mar;51(1):12-7.
39. Mercury M. International programme on chemical safety. *Environmental health criteria*. 1990;118.
40. Loto AO. Phase-Down of Amalgam Use in Dentistry: A Perspective For its Effective Control and Management. *Biomedical Journal of Scientific & Technical Research*. 2017;1(6):1590-7.