https://doi.org/10.48047/AFJBS.6.12.2024.3113-3133



Strategies of managing periodontal health in women: Current insights and future directions

¹Dr. Preeti Upadhyay, ²Dr. Pragya Tripathi, ³Dr. Abhilasha Sinha, ⁴Dr. Deepanshu Panwar, ⁵Dr. Aashish Pandit, ⁶Dr. Nidhi Choudhary

¹Professor and Head of Department, ²Professor, ^{3,4}Post-graduate student, ⁵Reader, ⁶Senior Lecturer, Department of Periodontology, Inderprastha Dental College and Hospital, Ghaziabad, Uttar Pradesh, India

Corresponding Author

Dr. Preeti Upadhyay

Professor and Head of Department, Department of Periodontology Inderprastha Dental College and Hospital, Ghaziabad, Uttar Pradesh, India

Article History

Volume 6, Issue 12, 2024 Received date: 16 May, 2024 Acceptance date: 10 June 2024 Doi: 10.48047/AFJBS.6.12.2024.3113-3133

ABSTRACT

Women's periodontal health is significantly influenced by steroid sex hormones, which impact various organ systems. Estrogen primarily causes changes in blood vessels, while progesterone promotes the production of inflammatory mediators. Additionally, certain microorganisms in the human mouth produce enzymes necessary for steroid synthesis and metabolism. During puberty, ovulation, and pregnancy, increased levels of sex steroid hormones in women lead to heightened gingival inflammation, characterized by gingival enlargement, increased bleeding, crevicular fluid flow, and microbial shifts. Effective clinical periodontal therapy requires an understanding of the clinician's role in the overall health and well-being of female patients. Dentists must recognize that treating localized infections can affect other bodily systems, as well as the foetus or breastfed infant. The unique periodontal and systemic issues faced by female patients can necessitate adjustments in conventional therapy, highlighting the crucial role dentists play in their care.

Keywords: Periodontitis, Harmones, Periodontal health, Pregnancy, Oral contraceptives,In Vitro Fertilization (IVF)

INTRODUCTION

Periodontal disease, encompassing conditions like gingivitis and periodontitis, significantly affects a large portion of the global population and exhibits unique manifestations in women due to hormonal influences throughout their lives.¹⁻³Hormones, particularly estrogen, progesterone, and androgens, play pivotal roles in modulating the oral environment, impacting oral tissues' responses to microbial biofilms and local irritants.⁴⁻⁵

Women experience hormonal fluctuations across various life stages, such as puberty, menstrual cycles, pregnancy, and menopause. These fluctuations are known to affect the

composition of sub-gingival bacterial plaques and the immune responses of gingival tissues. Estrogen and progesterone, in particular, influence gingival health by increasing sensitivity to local irritants and promoting gingival inflammation.⁶ This heightened inflammatory response typically resolves after hormonal events, such as menstrual cycles or pregnancy, without significant long-term consequences on periodontal attachment levels.⁸

The gingival tissue serves as a target organ for sex hormones due to the presence of estrogen and progesterone receptors. Estrogen has been shown to induce cellular proliferation while reducing collagen and non-collagen protein production in gingival fibroblasts. These effects can impact the structural integrity of periodontal tissues and alter responses to therapeutic interventions in periodontics. Progesterone, on the other hand, affects local vasculature in gingival tissues, potentially leading to increased vascular permeability and immune cell accumulation in the gingival sulcus.⁷⁻⁸

Moreover, the interaction between sex steroid hormones and oral microbiota is increasingly recognized. Certain pathogenic bacteria in the oral biofilm possess enzymes capable of metabolizing steroids, which may influence their virulence and persistence in the periodontal environment. This interaction underscores the complex interplay between hormonal changes, microbial ecology, and the immune responses in periodontal disease pathogenesis.⁹⁻¹⁰

Clinical implications of hormonal influences on periodontal health necessitate tailored diagnostic and therapeutic approaches based on a woman's hormonal status. For instance, during pregnancy, hormonal changes can exacerbate gingival inflammation, necessitating careful monitoring and possibly adjusted oral hygiene regimens. Similarly, menopausal women may experience decreased estrogen levels, which could impact oral mucosal integrity and bone density, potentially leading to increased susceptibility to periodontitis.¹¹

Understanding these hormonal influences is crucial for periodontal therapy decision-making. Clinicians must consider hormonal status when evaluating periodontal health and planning interventions to ensure optimal outcomes. Periodontal treatments may need to be adjusted based on the phase of the menstrual cycle or other hormonal conditions to mitigate potential exacerbations of inflammation or tissue sensitivity¹².

In conclusion, the complex interactions between sex hormones, oral microbiota, and immune responses significantly influence periodontal health in women throughout their lives. While hormonal fluctuations can increase susceptibility to gingival inflammation and periodontal disease, these effects are typically reversible and manageable with appropriate dental care and hygiene practices. Clinicians play a crucial role in recognizing and addressing these hormonal influences to provide effective periodontal care tailored to the individual needs of women at different stages of life.¹³

PUBERTY

Pubertyoccurs, on average, between the ages of 11 to 14 in most girls. It is acomplex process of sexual maturation, and it is responsible for changes in physical appearance and behaviour that are related to increased levels of the steroid sex hormones, testosterone in males and estradiol in females.

Pubertygingivitisis characterized clinicallyby the onset of exuberant inflammation of the marginal and, by direct extension, adjacent attached gingiva, especially in the interdental papillae,¹⁴⁻¹⁵ with increased gingival bleeding during puberty.¹⁴ This gingivalenlargement, is found primarily on the facial surfaces, withthelingual surfaces remaining relatively unaltered. Several reports¹⁵⁻¹⁷ have indicated that there is a significant increase in gingivitis in children entering puberty and during the pubertal period.

A peak prevalence of gingivitis has been determined at 12 years, 10 months in females and 13 years,7 months in males, which is consistent with theonset of puberty. ¹⁸ This increase is

believed to be related, at least in part, to an alteration in the subgingival microflora.¹⁹⁻²⁰ including the presence of Prevotella intermedia, which can substitute estrogen and progesterone for vitamin K, an essential bacterial growth factor.²¹⁻²² There also is an increase in the quantity of plaquein general²³ and other species in particular, including spirochetes, Capnocytophagia species, Actinomy cetesspecies and Eikenella corrodens^{14-15,24}. Capnocy to phaga species have been associated with atendencytowards increased bleeding Tiainen et al. showed that the severity of puberty gingivitis was related more closely to plaque build-up than to hormones.

During puberty, period ontaltissues can have an exaggerated response to local factors. A hyperplastic reaction of the gingiva can occur in areas where food debris, materia alba, plaque, and calculus are deposited. The inflamed tissues become erythematous, lobulated, and retractable. Bleeding may occureasily with mechanical debridement of the gingival tissues. Histologically, the appearance is consistent with inflammatory hyperplasia. During the reproductive years, women tend to have a more vigorous immune response, including higher immunoglobulin concentrations, stronger primary and secondary responses, increased resistance to the induction of immunologic tolerance, and a greater ability to reject tumors and homografts.²⁴ Allergy, sensitivity and asthma occur more often in young men, but after puberty, women become more susceptible than their male counterparts.

The removal of local factors by oral hygiene techniques was the key to management of hormone-related gingivitis, as it was pointed by Oh et al. However, other studies have not confirmed these relationships. In a longitudinal study Yanover and Ellen²⁵⁻²⁶ were unable to detect any changes in the oral microbiota during puberty and found no correlation between plasma estradiol levels and levels of black pigmented anaerobic bacteria.

MANAGEMENT

During puberty, educating parents or caregivers about proper periodontal therapy is crucial.²⁷ Preventive care, including rigorous oral hygiene programs, is essential²⁸. Mild cases of gingivitis respond well to scaling and root planing and regular reinforcement of oral hygiene. Severe cases may require microbial culturing, antimicrobial mouthwashes, local antibiotic therapy, or a combination.²⁹ Periodontal maintenance appointments may need to be more frequent for unstable cases. A thorough review of medical history and potential medical referrals should occur as necessary.³⁰ Clinicians should also consider the impact of chronic regurgitation from conditions like bulimia on oral tissues, including enamel erosion and gland enlargement.³¹ Decreased saliva flow associated with these conditions can exacerbate oral health issues like gingival inflammation and caries.Enlargement of the parotid glands (occasionally sublingual glands) has been estimated to occur in 10% to 50% of patients who binge and purge. A diminished salivary flow rate may be identified, which can increase oral mucous membrane sensitivity, gingival erythema, and caries susceptibility.³²

MENSTRUATION CYCLE

During the reproductive years, the ovarian cycle is controlled by the anterior pituitary gland. The gonadotropin follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) and luteinizing hormone (LH) are produced by the anterior pituitary gland. The secretion of gonadotropins also depends on the hypothalamus. Ongoing changes in the concentration of the gonadotropins and ovarian hormones occur during the monthly menstrual cycle Under the influence of FSH and LH, estrogen and progesterone are steroid hormones produced by the ovaries during the menstrual cycle. During the reproductive cycle, the purpose of estrogen and progesterone is to prepare the uterus for implantation of an egg. The menstrual cycle is a 25-30-day period, controlled by the secretion of sex hormones, which is responsible for continued ovulation until

menopause. It can be divided into two phases: a proliferative/follicular phase and a secretory phase/luteal phase, corresponding to pre- and post-ovulatory events in the ovaries. During the menstrual cycle, hormonal fluctuations, particularly of estrogen and progesterone, exert significant influences on gingival health and inflammation in women. Understanding these dynamics is crucial for effective periodontal management tailored to the cyclical changes in hormone levels.³³



FEMALE MENSTRUAL CYCLE, SHOWING THE PEAK LEVELS OF PROGESTERONE AND ESTROGEN COMPARED WITH FOLLICLE-STIMULATING HORMONE (FSH) AND LUTEINIZING HORMONE (LH)

Hormonal Phases and Gingival Effects:

The menstrual cycle consists of two main phases: the follicular phase and the luteal phase. In the follicular phase, follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) stimulates the development of ovarian follicles, leading to the secretion of estrogen (primarily estradiol) by the developing follicle. Estrogen during this phase stimulates the proliferation of stromal cells, blood vessels, and glands in the endometrium, preparing it for potential implantation of a fertilized egg.³⁴⁻³⁵ As ovulation approaches, estrogen levels peak, facilitating the release of the egg from the ovary. Following ovulation, the luteal phase begins, during which the ruptured follicle transforms into the corpus luteum, producing both estradiol and progesterone. These hormones act synergistically to further prepare the endometrium for implantation. If fertilization does not occur, the corpus luteum regresses, hormone levels drop, and menstruation commences.³⁶⁻³⁷

Impact on Gingival Tissues:

Research suggests that heightened levels of estrogen and progesterone during certain phases of the menstrual cycle contribute to increased inflammation in gingival tissues, exaggerating responses to local irritants such as dental plaque. Estrogen has been implicated in stimulating the production of prostaglandin E2 (PGE2), a mediator of inflammation, while progesterone

increases the permeability of microvasculature and alters immune responses in gingival tissues.³⁸⁻³⁹

Studies have observed increased gingival fluid flow during ovulation and premenstrual phases in women with existing gingivitis, indicating a cyclic exacerbation of inflammation. This phenomenon highlights the need for tailored periodontal care during these hormonal peaks to mitigate potential worsening of gingival health.⁴⁰

Management Considerations:

Managing periodontal health in women influenced by menstrual cycle-related hormonal changes requires a proactive approach:

- **1. Periodontal Monitoring:** Increased gingival bleeding and tenderness may necessitate more frequent periodontal maintenance appointments, typically every 3 to 4 months. This schedule helps manage cyclic inflammation effectively.
- 2. Oral Hygiene Emphasis: Rigorous oral hygiene practices, including regular brushing, flossing, and possibly antimicrobial mouth rinses, are crucial to minimize plaque accumulation and gingival inflammation.
- **3. Timing of Procedures:** Surgical interventions should ideally be scheduled postmenstruation to avoid complications related to increased menstrual flow and associated heightened sensitivity.
- 4. Collaboration with Healthcare Providers: Given the potential impact of menstrual cycle-related changes on oral health, collaboration with gynecologists or other healthcare providers may be necessary, especially in cases of severe cyclic symptoms or systemic implications like anemia.
- **5. Symptom Management:** For women experiencing premenstrual syndrome (PMS) symptoms, including oral manifestations like heightened gingival sensitivity or mucosal lesions, supportive care may involve medications to manage symptoms, such as antidepressants or NSAIDs under medical supervision.⁴¹⁻⁴⁴

Clinical Approach:

In the dental setting, awareness of these hormonal influences allows clinicians to adopt a sensitive and tailored approach to periodontal care. Gentle handling of oral tissues, avoidance of irritants, and consideration of patient comfort during procedures are essential. Moreover, educating patients about the cyclical nature of hormonal effects on gingival health empowers them to maintain optimal oral hygiene throughout their menstrual cycles.

The menstrual cycle's hormonal fluctuations significantly impact gingival inflammation and oral health in women. By understanding these dynamics and implementing targeted periodontal management strategies, clinicians can effectively mitigate cyclic exacerbations of gingival inflammation and promote long-term oral health in female patients. Periodontal care should be personalized based on the individual's hormonal profile and menstrual cycle phase, ensuring proactive maintenance and timely interventions when needed.⁴⁴

PERIODONTALMANIFESTATIONOFPREGNANCY

Pregnancy is characterized by profound hormonal changes, notably elevated levels of progesterone and estrogen due to continuous production by the corpus luteum. These hormones reach significantly heightened levels by the end of the third trimester, with progesterone peaking at 100 ng/ml and estrogen at 6 ng/ml—levels that are 10 to 30 times higher than those observed during the menstrual cycle. These hormonal fluctuations have

notable implications for periodontal health, as evidenced by the well-documented link between pregnancy and increased susceptibility to gingival inflammation.⁴⁵⁻⁴⁶

Impact on Periodontal Health:

Pregnant women commonly experience pregnancy gingivitis, affecting between 30% to 100% of all pregnancies. Clinically, this condition is characterized by increased gingival inflammation, bleeding upon probing, and elevated gingival crevicular fluid flow. These changes are attributed to hormonal influences that amplify the body's response to dental biofilm and microbial flora. Research suggests that progesterone may modulate local production of matrix metalloproteinases, potentially explaining why pregnancy gingivitis typically does not progress to periodontitis despite increased gingival inflammation.⁴⁷

Moreover, pregnancy can lead to localized gingival enlargement known as pregnancyassociated pyogenic granuloma or pregnancy tumor. These lesions, though non-neoplastic, manifest as painless, exophytic masses that bleed easily and vary in color from purplish-red to deep blue, often arising from the gingival margin or interproximal tissues. They are triggered by exaggerated inflammatory responses to local irritants, such as calculus, and may recur if not completely removed after pregnancy.⁴⁹

Microbial and Immunological Changes:

Studies have demonstrated that pregnancy alters the oral microbial flora, with increased levels of anaerobic bacteria such as Bacteroides species and Prevotella intermedia. These bacteria thrive in the altered hormonal environment, with estradiol and progesterone selectively accumulated by P. intermedia, potentially acting as growth factors. The shift in bacterial composition, despite constant plaque levels, underscores the hormonal influence on microbial dynamics in periodontal disease during pregnancy.⁴⁹

Systemic and Foetal Health Implications:Beyond oral health, periodontal disease during pregnancy has broader implications for systemic health, potentially impacting fetal wellbeing. Evidence suggests a link between periodontal disease and adverse pregnancy outcomes, including an elevated risk for preterm birth and low birth weight infants. The mechanisms underlying this association are multifaceted, involving systemic inflammation triggered by oral pathogens and the release of inflammatory mediators into the bloodstream.⁵⁰

Clinical Management:Managing periodontal health in pregnant patients necessitates a multidisciplinary approach involving dental and obstetric care providers. Periodontal maintenance becomes crucial, with tailored strategies to mitigate gingival inflammation and minimize the risk of oral infections. This includes regular professional cleanings, meticulous oral hygiene practices, and, when necessary, antimicrobial therapies that are safe during pregnancy.

In summary, pregnancy induces significant hormonal changes that profoundly affect periodontal health. Pregnancy gingivitis and pregnancy-associated pyogenic granulomas are common manifestations, exacerbated by hormonal fluctuations and altered microbial dynamics. Understanding these interactions is essential for implementing effective periodontal care strategies that not only promote maternal oral health but also contribute to favourable pregnancy outcomes. Collaborative efforts between dental and medical professionals are pivotal in managing periodontal health throughout pregnancy, thereby supporting both maternal and foetal well-being.⁵¹



Mild form of pregnancy gingivitis



Moderate form of pregnancy gingival enlargement.



Pyogenic granuloma of pregnancy (i.e., pregnancy tumour)



Severe gingival enlargement of pregnancy

PERIODONTAL DISEASE AND PRETERM, LOW-BIRTH-WEIGHT INFANTS

Preterm birth (PTB), defined as delivery before 37 weeks of gestation, remains a significant global health challenge due to its association with increased mortality and morbidity rates among newborns. Low birth weight (LBW), defined as less than 2500 grams, often accompanies PTB and further exacerbates these risks. Both PTB and LBW are critical biological determinants of infant survival across all socio-economic settings, highlighting their profound impact on public health and necessitating effective preventive strategies.

The incidence of PTB appears to be rising worldwide despite extensive efforts to mitigate its prevalence. PTB accounts for approximately 75% of perinatal mortality and contributes significantly to long-term morbidity rates among survivors (Goldenberg et al., 2008). In addition to the immediate health risks, PTB places substantial medical and economic burdens on societies globally (Alves and Ribeiro, 2006). Efforts to prevent or reduce PTB have faced challenges, partly due to the complex and multifactorial nature of its etiology.

Several risk factors contribute to PTB and LBW. Maternal factors such as advanced maternal age (>34 years) or young maternal age (<17 years), smoking, alcohol or drug use during pregnancy, inadequate prenatal care, and underlying health conditions like hypertension and diabetes play significant roles (Verkerk et al., 1993; Copper et al., 1996; Nordstrom and

Cnattingius, 1996; Romero et al., 2002; Marakoglu et al., 2008). Socio-economic factors, racial disparities, and maternal psychological characteristics further influence the likelihood of PTB and LBW occurrences.

Microbial factors, particularly intrauterine infections, contribute to a substantial proportion (25-40%) of PTBs. Microorganisms can access the amniotic cavity via various routes, including ascending from the vagina and cervix, hematogenous dissemination through the placenta, accidental introduction during invasive procedures, and retrograde spreading through the fallopian tubes (Goldenberg et al., 2000). Notably, bacterial vaginosis, characterized by an overgrowth of anaerobic bacteria in the vagina, has been implicated in spontaneous preterm labour. The inflammatory response triggered by bacterial vaginosis can lead to placental damage, foetal growth restriction, and subsequent PTB (Gibbs, 2001; Romero et al., 1992; Winkler et al., 1998).

Interestingly, studies have also highlighted a potential link between maternal periodontal disease and PTB. Periodontal disease is a chronic inflammatory condition affecting the gums and supporting structures of the teeth. Research suggests that periodontal pathogens or inflammatory mediators from oral infections may enter the bloodstream, reach the placenta, and trigger systemic inflammation or direct infection of the fetal-placental unit (Offenbacher et al., 1996). Elevated levels of cytokines such as interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 β), IL-6, and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) associated with periodontal disease have been detected in the gingival tissues, saliva, and serum/plasma of affected individuals (Lin et al., 2003a; Offenbacher et al., 2006). These cytokines are known to induce prostaglandin synthesis and uterine contractions, potentially leading to PTB (Romero et al., 2006).

Two main biological mechanisms have been proposed to explain the association between periodontal disease and adverse pregnancy outcomes. First, periodontal disease may induce systemic inflammation, leading to elevated levels of inflammatory markers like C-reactive protein (CRP), which are associated with complications such as preeclampsia and PTB (Han, 2011). Second, oral bacteria or their by-products could directly colonize the placenta, triggering a localized inflammatory response that contributes to PTB (Lin et al., 2003b; Boggess et al., 2005).

Studies have shown that pregnant women with periodontal disease are at an increased risk of developing preeclampsia, a hypertensive disorder that can lead to serious maternal and fetal complications. Preeclampsia is characterized by intravascular inflammation and endothelial dysfunction, which can impair placental vascular development and necessitate preterm delivery to mitigate fetal morbidity (Boggess et al., 2006; Roberts et al., 2003). The association between periodontal disease and preeclampsia underscores the systemic impact of oral health on pregnancy outcomes.

The immune response during pregnancy, characterized by immunosuppression to tolerate the semi-allogeneic fetus, may also influence maternal susceptibility to gingival inflammation and periodontal disease. Hormonal changes, particularly elevated levels of estrogen and progesterone, further contribute to gingival inflammation and exacerbate periodontal conditions during pregnancy (Vittek et al., 2004). These physiological changes underscore the importance of maintaining optimal oral hygiene and addressing periodontal disease as part of comprehensive prenatal care.

Management of periodontal disease during pregnancy involves a multidisciplinary approach, including regular periodontal examinations, preventive measures such as nutritional counselling and rigorous plaque control, and appropriate therapeutic interventions when necessary (Brambilla et al., 1998; Boggess and Edelstein, 2006). Dental treatments, including scaling, polishing, and root planing, can be safely performed during pregnancy, preferably

during the second trimester when fetal susceptibility to environmental influences is reduced (Boggess et al., 2003).

In conclusion, PTB and LBW remain significant public health challenges with profound implications for infant mortality and morbidity worldwide. Despite efforts to understand and mitigate their prevalence, the multifaceted nature of their etiology necessitates continued research and comprehensive preventive strategies. Addressing maternal periodontal disease as a potential risk factor offers a promising avenue for improving pregnancy outcomes and reducing the burden of PTB and LBW on maternal and child health. Integrating oral health into prenatal care can potentially enhance overall maternal well-being and contribute to healthier birth outcomes.⁴⁶

POSSIBLE BIOLOGICAL MECHANISM LINKING PERIODONTAL DISEASE AND PREGNANCY COMPLICATIONS



ORAL CONTRACEPTIVES

The use of oral contraceptives (OCs) has significant implications for oral health, particularly in relation to gingival health and periodontal tissues. Research indicates that OCs can lead to various oral manifestations and exacerbate existing periodontal conditions, primarily due to their hormonal composition, which mimics the hormonal changes observed during pregnancy.

OCs contain synthetic versions of estrogen and progesterone, which are essential for their contraceptive action. These hormones, however, can also influence oral tissues and the periodontium. Studies have consistently shown that women using OCs experience heightened gingival inflammation compared to non-users. This inflammation can range from mild gingivitis to more severe forms characterized by increased gingival bleeding, swelling, and hyperplasia. The response in gingival tissues to OCs resembles that seen in pregnancy, where hormonal changes similarly affect oral health.

Mechanisms underlying the exacerbated gingival response in OC users include altered microvasculature, increased gingival permeability, and enhanced synthesis of inflammatory mediators such as prostaglandins. Elevated levels of sex hormones, particularly estrogen, are implicated in these processes, contributing to a pro-inflammatory environment within the gingiva. Moreover, changes in the oral microbiota have been observed, with an increase in certain bacterial species associated with gingival inflammation in OC users.

The duration and type of OC used may also influence oral health outcomes. While some studies suggest that longer-term use of OCs can worsen gingival conditions, others highlight variations in response based on different formulations or brands of contraceptives. Further research is needed to clarify the specific effects of dosage, duration, and formulation of OCs on periodontal health.

Beyond gingival inflammation, OCs have been associated with other oral manifestations. Studies from the 1970s reported changes in salivary composition among OC users, including alterations in protein levels, electrolyte concentrations, and salivary flow rates. These changes could potentially impact oral hygiene and predispose individuals to oral health issues such as dental caries and periodontal diseases.⁵²⁻⁵⁵

In dental practice, managing oral health in OC users requires a comprehensive approach. Dentists should routinely inquire about OC use as part of the medical history, particularly in women of childbearing age. Patients should be informed about the potential oral side effects of OCs and educated on the importance of meticulous oral hygiene practices and regular periodontal maintenance visits. Treatment strategies for OC-associated gingival inflammation typically involve establishing a tailored oral hygiene regimen, addressing local predisposing factors, and considering periodontal interventions such as scaling and root planing or, in severe cases, periodontal surgery.

Concerns have also been raised regarding potential interactions between antibiotics and OCs, which could theoretically reduce the contraceptive efficacy of OCs. Although animal studies have shown adverse effects on contraceptive hormone levels with antibiotic use, human studies have yielded conflicting results. Current recommendations suggest informing women about the potential risk and considering additional contraception during short-term antibiotic therapy or discussing alternative contraceptive options during long-term antibiotic use.

In conclusion, while oral contraceptives are highly effective in preventing pregnancy, they can influence oral health, particularly gingival and periodontal tissues, through hormonal mechanisms. Dental professionals play a crucial role in recognizing and managing the oral manifestations associated with OC use, promoting oral health education, and collaborating with healthcare providers to ensure comprehensive care for women using OCs. Further

research is needed to elucidate the specific mechanisms and optimal management strategies for addressing these oral health concerns in OC users.⁵⁴

FERTILITY TREATMENT INCLUDING IVF

Periodontitis, an inflammatory disease affecting the supporting structures of teeth, has garnered attention not only for its impact on oral health but also for its potential systemic implications, including its association with infertility and assisted reproductive technologies (ART) outcomes.

Periodontitis and Infertility:

Periodontitis is characterized by the progressive destruction of the periodontal ligament and alveolar bone, leading to periodontal pocket formation and gingival recession. Research has explored its connection with infertility, particularly in women. While direct causality remains unclear, systemic bacteremia resulting from chronic periodontal infection is a well-established phenomenon that can impact reproductive health in both sexes. In women, this bacteremia can potentially hinder reproductive functions, although the exact mechanisms are not fully elucidated.

Studies have indicated that women with periodontitis may take longer to achieve pregnancy compared to those without. For instance, Hart et al. found that women with periodontitis took approximately two months longer to conceive compared to women with healthy periodontal tissues. This delay in conception has been attributed to systemic effects of periodontal bacteria and their products, including lipopolysaccharides (LPS) and inflammatory cytokines, which can induce an immune response that might interfere with reproductive processes.

Moreover, the metabolic activity of hormones in gingival tissues can exacerbate periodontal inflammation during pregnancy or hormonal therapy for infertility. Pregnancy gingivitis, characterized by increased gingival inflammation and possibly pregnancy tumors (epulis), is commonly observed due to hormonal changes. This heightened inflammation can worsen pre-existing periodontitis, affecting the microflora, increasing gingival permeability, and promoting a pro-inflammatory environment. Such conditions may contribute to difficulties in achieving pregnancy naturally or through fertility treatments.⁵⁶

Periodontitis and In Vitro Fertilization (IVF):

In vitro fertilization (IVF) is a complex fertility treatment involving ovarian stimulation, egg retrieval, embryo culture, and implantation. The success of IVF can be influenced by various factors, including the health status of the mother. Research exploring the impact of maternal periodontal health on IVF outcomes is emerging. Pavlatou's study suggested a correlation between gingival health before IVF and the number of oocytes obtained during ovarian stimulation. This highlights a potential link between periodontal inflammation and ovarian response to hormonal stimulation, although the exact mechanisms require further investigation.

Furthermore, the presence of periodontal pathogens and their inflammatory by-products in the bloodstream can pose risks during IVF. These substances have been associated with systemic inflammation, which might compromise the success of embryo implantation and early pregnancy maintenance. The inflammatory mediators produced in response to periodontitis, such as prostaglandins and interleukins, can also potentially affect the implantation process and early embryonic development.

Clinical Implications and Recommendations:

Dental and reproductive health professionals should consider the interplay between periodontitis and fertility outcomes when managing patients. Routine oral health assessments and appropriate periodontal treatment may be beneficial for women undergoing infertility treatments like IVF. Addressing periodontal health before IVF may potentially optimize treatment outcomes by reducing systemic inflammatory burden and improving overall health status.

Patients planning IVF should undergo a comprehensive dental evaluation to identify and manage any existing periodontal disease. Treatment strategies may include scaling and root planing to reduce inflammation and eliminate periodontal pathogens. Maintaining optimal oral hygiene practices and regular dental visits are crucial to mitigate the risks associated with periodontitis.

While the direct causal relationship between periodontitis and infertility/IVF outcomes requires further investigation, emerging evidence suggests a potential impact of periodontal health on reproductive health. Periodontitis, through its systemic effects and inflammatory pathways, may contribute to delays in conception and suboptimal outcomes in fertility treatments like IVF. Therefore, interdisciplinary collaboration between dental and reproductive health professionals is essential to comprehensively address and manage the potential implications of periodontal disease on fertility and assisted reproductive technologies.

By integrating dental care into preconception and fertility treatment protocols, healthcare providers can potentially enhance reproductive outcomes and promote overall health and well-being for patients navigating infertility challenges. Continued research in this area will further clarify the mechanisms and optimize strategies for managing periodontal health in the context of fertility treatments.⁵⁶

MENOPAUSE

Menopause represents a significant stage in a woman's life, characterized by hormonal changes that extend beyond reproductive implications to impact various aspects of health, including oral health. Dental clinicians play a crucial role in recognizing and managing these effects to ensure comprehensive care for their patients.

Hormonal Changes and Oral Health:

Menopause marks the end of reproductive years, typically occurring around age 50. Estrogen levels decline gradually during perimenopause, leading to significant systemic and oral changes. Estrogen receptors are present in oral tissues, influencing cellular proliferation, differentiation, and keratinization of the gingival epithelium. This hormonal shift contributes to oral mucosal thinning, increased gingival inflammation, and alterations in the oral microbiome.⁵⁷

Oral Changes Associated with Menopause:

- **1.** Thinning of Oral Mucosa: Reduced estrogen levels contribute to mucosal thinning, making the tissues more susceptible to injury and discomfort. This can manifest as a burning sensation in the mouth (burning mouth syndrome) and increased sensitivity.
- 2. Gingival Changes: Estrogen deficiency is linked to inflammatory changes in the gingiva, such as increased gingival recession, hypertrophy, or atrophy. These changes can exacerbate pre-existing periodontal conditions and affect the stability of teeth due to diminished support from the gingival tissues.

- **3.** Xerostomia (Dry Mouth): Decreased estrogen levels can lead to reduced salivary flow and dry mouth, which not only affects oral comfort but also predisposes the oral cavity to infections and dental caries.
- **4.** Altered Taste Sensation: Menopausal hormonal shifts may cause changes in taste perception, affecting a woman's enjoyment of food and nutritional intake.
- **5.** Alveolar Bone Loss and Osteoporosis: Estrogen plays a crucial role in maintaining bone density, including in the jawbones. Menopausal estrogen deficiency contributes to osteopenia and osteoporosis, conditions characterized by bone loss and increased risk of fractures. In the oral cavity, this can lead to alveolar bone loss and subsequent tooth loss, as well as contribute to alveolar ridge resorption, which can complicate dental prosthetic treatments.⁵⁷⁻⁶⁰

Impact of Hormone Replacement Therapy (HRT):

Hormone replacement therapy (HRT), aimed at supplementing estrogen levels in menopausal women, has shown potential benefits for oral health. Studies suggest that HRT can improve periodontal health by reducing gingival inflammation, preserving alveolar bone density, and decreasing the risk of tooth loss. For instance, Krall and colleagues found that longer durations of HRT use correlated with a lower risk of tooth loss, highlighting its potential protective effects on oral structures.⁶¹⁻⁵⁴

Clinical Management Considerations:

- 1. Comprehensive Medical History: Dental clinicians should routinely inquire about menopausal status and hormonal therapies as part of the patient's medical history. Understanding a patient's hormonal status can help tailor dental treatment plans and anticipate oral health challenges associated with menopause.
- 2. Oral Hygiene and Maintenance: Patients should be educated about maintaining meticulous oral hygiene practices, including gentle brushing with soft toothbrushes and the use of mild dentifrices and alcohol-free rinses to minimize trauma to delicate oral tissues. Regular dental visits for professional cleanings and periodontal maintenance are crucial for monitoring oral health status and detecting early signs of periodontal disease or bone loss.
- **3.** Collaboration with Physicians: Collaboration between dental and medical professionals is essential for managing menopausal symptoms and associated health risks comprehensively. Dentists may need to consult with patients' physicians regarding the appropriateness of HRT or other therapies to mitigate the impact of estrogen deficiency on oral and systemic health.
- **4.** Nutritional Counseling: Adequate calcium and vitamin D intake is essential for maintaining bone health, including in the jawbones. Patients at risk for osteoporosis should be advised on dietary modifications and supplementation, as recommended by current guidelines.
- **5. Symptom Management:** Addressing symptoms such as oral discomfort, dry mouth, and altered taste sensation is crucial for improving patients' quality of life during menopause. Symptomatic relief can often be achieved through appropriate oral care practices and, if indicated, pharmacological interventions.

Future Directions

Research continues to explore the complex interplay between menopause, oral health, and systemic conditions like osteoporosis. Longitudinal studies with larger sample sizes are needed to further elucidate the causal relationships and mechanisms underlying these associations. Additionally, advancements in personalized medicine may lead to tailored approaches for managing oral health in menopausal women based on individual hormonal profiles and health status.

In conclusion, menopause brings about significant hormonal changes that influence various aspects of oral health, including periodontal tissues and bone density in the jawbones. Dental clinicians are pivotal in recognizing these effects, implementing preventive strategies, and collaborating with medical professionals to optimize oral health outcomes for menopausal patients. By addressing hormonal deficiencies and associated oral manifestations proactively, clinicians can contribute to enhancing the overall well-being and quality of life of menopausal women.

National Institutes of Health Consensus Conference Recommendations for Optimal Calcium Intake

- Premenopausal women (25 to 50 years old): 1000 mg/day
- Postmenopausal women (estrogen therapy): 1000 mg/day
- Postmenopausal women (no estrogen therapy): 1500 mg/day
- Men (25 to 65 years old): 1000 mg/day
- Women and men >65 years old: $1500 \text{ mg/day}^{60-54}$

SUMMARY

Steroid sex hormones have a significant effect on different organ systems. As far as gingiva are concerned, they can influence the cellular proliferation, differentiation and growth of keratinocytes and fibroblasts. Estrogen is mainly responsible for alterations in blood vessels and progesterone stimulates the production of inflammatory mediators. In addition, some micro-organisms found in the human mouth synthesize enzymes needed for steroid synthesis and catabolism. In women, during puberty, ovulation and pregnancy, there is an increase in the production of sex steroid hormones which results in increased gingival inflammation, characterized by gingival enlargement, increased gingival bleeding and crevicular fluid flow and microbial changes.

Clinical periodontal therapy includes an understanding of the clinician's role in the total health and well-being of female patients. Dentists do not treat localized infections without affecting other systems and the foetus or the breastfed infant. The periodontal and systemic difficulties of female patients can alter conventional therapy.

The cyclic nature of the female sex hormones often is reflected in the gingival tissues as initial signs and symptoms. Medical histories and discussions should include thoughtful investigation of the individual patient's problems and needs. Questioning should reflect hormonal stability and medications associated with regulation.

Patients should be educated regarding the profound effects sex hormones have on periodontal and oral tissues and the consistent need for home and office removal of local irritants.

Drug	During breastfeeding
Local Anaesthetics	
Lidocaine	Yes
Mepivacaine	Yes
Prilocaine	Yes
Bupivacaine	Yes
Etidocaine	Yes
Procaine	Yes
Analgesics	
Aspirin	Avoid
Acetaminophen	Yes
Ibuprofen	Yes
Codeine	Yes
Hydrocodone	No data
Oxycodone	Yes
Propoxyphene	Yes

Sedative-Hypnotic Drug Administration During Pregnancy

DURGS	FDA CATEGORY	DURING PREGNANCY	
BENZODIAZEPINES	D	AVOID	
BARBITURATES	D	AVOID	
NITROUD OXIDE	NOT ASSIGNED	AVOID IN FIRST TRIMESTER,	
		OTERWISE USE WITH	
		CAUTION; CONSULT PHYSICIAN	

FDA, U.S FOOD AND DRYG ADMINISTRATION

DRUGS	FDA CATEGORY	DURING PREGNANCY	RISKS
PENICILLINS	В	YES	DIARRHEA
ERYTHROMYCIN	В	YES; AVOID ESTOLATE	INTRAHEPATIC
		FORM	JAUNDICE IN MOTHER
CLINDAMYCIN	В	YES; WITH CAUTION	DRUG
			CONCENTRATED IN
			FETAL BONE, SPLEEN,
			LUNG, AND LIVER
CEPHALOSPORINS	В	YES	LIMITED
			INFORMATION
TETRACYCLINE	В	YES	DEPRESSION OF BONE
			GROWTH, ENAMEL
			HYPOPLASIA, GRAY-
			BROWN TOOTH DIS
			OLOURATION
CIPROFLOXACIN	D	AVOID	POSSIBLE
			DEVELOPING
			CARTILAGE EROSION
METRONIDAZOLE	С	AVOID;	THEORETIC
		CONTROVERSIAL	CARCINOGENIC DATA
			IN ANIMALS
GENTAMICIN	В	CAUTION; CONSULT	LIMITED
07070//0/7/		PHYSICIAN	INFORMATION
OTOTOXICITY			
VANCOMYCIN	С	CAUTION; CONSULT	LIMITED
		PHYSICIAN	INFORMATION
CLARITHROMYCIN	D	AVOID; USE ONLY IF	LIMITED
		POTENTIALBENEFIT	INFORMATION
		JUSTIFIES RISK TO	ADVERSE EFFECTS ON
		FOETUS	PREGNANCY,
			COTCOMES, AND
			DEVELOPIVIENTS IN
	1		ANIMALS

FDA, U.S FOOD AND DRG ADMINISTRATION

÷			
	DRUG	FDA CATEGORY	DURING PREGNANCY
	LOCAL ANESTHETICS		
	LIDOCAINE	В	YES
	MEPIVACAINE	с	USE WITH CAUTION;
			CONSULT PHYSICIAN
	PRILOCAINE	В	YES
	BUPIVACAINE	с	USE WITH CAUTION;
			CONSULT PHYSICIAN
	ETIDOCAINE	В	YES
	PROCAINE	с	USE WITH CAUTION;
			CONSULT PHYSICIAN
	ARTICAINE	В	YES; NO BLOCKS
	ANALGESICS		
	ASPIRIN	C/D, THIRD TRIMESTER	CAUTION; AVOID IN THIRD
			TRIMESTER
	ACETAMINOPHEN	В	YES
	IBUPROFEN	B/D	CAUTION; AVOID IN THIRD
			TRIMESTER
	CODEINE	с	USE WITH CAUTION;
			CONSULT PHYSICIAN
	HYDRODODONE	В	USE WITH CAUTION;
			CONSULT PHYSICIAN
	OXYCODONE	В	USE WITH CAUTION;
			CONSULT PHYSICIAN
	PROPOXYPHENE	с	USE WITH CAUTION;
			CONSULT PHYSICIAN

Local Anaesthetic and Analgesic Administration During Pregnancy

REFERENCES

- 1. Heaton B, Dietrich T. Analytic epidemiology and periodontal diseases. Peri- odontology 2000 2012;58:112–120.
- 2. Petersen PE, Ogawa H. The global burden of periodontal disease: towards integration with chronic disease prevention and control. Periodontology 2000 2012;60:15–39.
- 3. Borrell LN, Papapanou PN. Analytical epidemiology of periodontitis. J Clin Periodontol 2005;32(Suppl 6):132–158.
- 4. Pihlstrom BL, Michalowicz BS, Johnson NW. Periodontal diseases. Lancet 2005;366:1809–1820.
- 5. Armitage GC. Periodontal diagnosis and classification of periodontal diseases. Periodontology 2000 2004;34:9–21
- 6. A Critical Review on Periodontal Therapy For Female Patients Paarvathi Thenappan, Vijayalakshmi Rajaram, Jaideep Mahendra*, AmbalavananNamasivayam, BurniceNalina Kumari
- 7. Mariotti A. Sex steroid hormones and cell dynamics in the periodontium. Crit Rev Oral Biol Med 1994; 5: 27-53.
- Mealey L, Moritz J. Hormonal influences on periodontium. Periodontol 2000 2003; 32: 59-81

- 9. Keijser BJ, Zaura E, Huse SM, et al. Pyrosequencing analysis of the oral microflora of healthy adults. J Dent Res 2008; 87(11): 1016-20
- 10. Fischer C, Persson E, Persson R. Influence of the menstrual cycle on the oral microbial flora in women: a case-control study including men as control subjects. J Periodontol 2008; 79(10): 1966 73.
- Mealey L, Moritz J. Hormonal influences on periodontium. Periodontol 2000 2003; 32: 59-81
- 12. Yu D, Panossian V, Hatch D, Liu H, Finerman A. Combined effects of estrogen and progesterone on the anterior cruciate ligament. Clin Orthop 2001; 383: 268-81
- 13. Ferris M. Alteration in female sex hormones: their effect on oral tissues and dental treatment. Compend Contin Educ Dent 1993; 14: 1558-70
- 14. Cook M, Robaire B. Modulation of epididymal delta 4-steroid 5 alpha-reductase activity in vitro by the phospholipid environment. J Biol Chem 1985; 260: 7489-95.
- 15. Angold A, Costello J, Erkanli A, Worthman M. Pubertal changes in hormone levels and depression in girls. Psychol Med 1999; 29: 1043-53.
- 16. Rose F, Mealey L, Genco J, Cohen W. Periodontics: Medicine, Surgery and Implants. St. Louis: Elsevier Mosby 2004; pp. 799-800.
- 17. Glickman I, Smulow B. Periodontal Disease: Clinical, Radiographic and Histopathologic Features. Philadelphia: WB Saunders 1974; pp. 52-3.
- 18. Nakagawa S, Machida Y, Nakagawa T, et al. Infection by Porphyromonasgingivalis and Actinobacillus actinomycetemcamitans, and antibody responses at different ages in humans. J Periodontal Res 1994; 29: 9-16.
- 19. Sutcliffe P. A longitudinal study of gingivitis and puberty. J Period Res 1972; 7: 52-8.
- 20. Mombelli A, Lang P, Burgin B, Gusberti A. Microbial changes associated with the development of puberty gingivitis. J Periodontal Res 1990; 25: 331-8.
- 21. Nakagawa S, Fujii H, Machida Y, Okud K. A longitudinal study from prepuberty to puberty of gingivitis. Correlation between the occurrence of Prevotella intermedia and sex hormones. J Clin Periodontol 1994; 21: 658-65.
- 22. Kormman S, Loesce J. Effects of estradiol and progesterone on Bacteroides melaninogenicus and Bacteroides gingivalis. Infect Immun 1982; 35: 256-63.
- 23. Gusberti F, Mombelli A, Lang N, Minder C. Changes in subgingival microbiota during puberty. A 4-year longitudinal study. J Clin Periodontol 1990; 17: 685-92.
- 24. Schuurs A, Verheul H. Effects of gender and sex steroids on the immune response and autoimmune disease. J Steroid Biochem. 1990;35:157.
- 25. Oh J, Eber R, Wang L. Periodontal diseases in the child and adolescent. J Clin Periodontol 2002; 29(5): 400-10.
- 26. Gusberti F, Syed S, Bacon G, Grossman N, Laosche W. Puberty gingivitis in insulin dependent diabetic children I. Cross-sectional observations. J Periodontol1983; 54: 714-20.
- 27. Yanover L, Ellen R. A clinical and microbiologic examination of gingival disease in parapubescent females. J Periodontol 1986; 57: 562-7
- 28. American Dental Association (ADA). Council on Access, Prevention, and Interpersonal Relations: Women's oral health issues. [Chicago] 1995 [ADA].
- 29. Dakovic D, Pavlovic MD. Periodontal disease in children and adolescents with type 1 diabetes in Serbia. J Periodontol.2008;79:987
- 30. Oh TJ, Ber R, Wang L. Periodontal disease in the child and adolescent. J Clin Periodontol. 2002;29:400.
- 31. Bretz WA. Oral profiles of bulimic women: Diagnosis and management. What is the evidence? J Evid Based Dent Pract.2012;2:267

- 32. Brown S, Bonifaz DZ. An overview of anorexia and bulimia nervosa and the impact of eating disorders on the oral cavity. Compend Contin Educ Dent. 1993;14:1594
- 33. Hormonal effect on gingiva: pubertal gingivitis Pedodontics Department, Kothiwal Dental College and Research Centre, Moradabad, Uttar Pradesh, India
- 34. Jafri A, Bhardwaj A, Sawai M, et al. Influence of female sex hormones on periodontium: a case series. J Nat Sci Biol Med.2015;6(Suppl 1):S146–S149
- 35. Han K, Ko Y, Park YG, et al. Associations between the periodontal disease in women before menopause and menstrual cycle irregularity. Medicine (Baltimore).2016;95:e2791
- 36. Aschkenazi S, Naftolin F, Mor G. Menopause, sex hormones and the immune system. Menopause Manag. 2000;9:6.
- 37. Cutolo M, Sulli A, Seriolo B, et al. Estrogens, the immune response and autoimmunity. Clin Exp Rheumatol. 1995;13:217
- 38. Pack AR, Thomson ME. Effects of topical and systemic folic acid supplementation on gingivitis in pregnancy. J Clin Periodontol. 1980;7:402.
- 39. Thomson ME, Pack AR. Effects of extended systemic and topical folate supplementation on gingivitis in pregnancy. J Clin Periodontol. 1982;9:275
- 40. Robb-Nicholson C. PMS: it's real. Harv Women Health Watch.1994;1(11):29
- 41. Machtei E, Mahler D, Sanduri H, Peled M. The effect of menstrual cycle on periodontal health. J Periodontol 2004; 75: 408-12
- 42. Miyagi ,orishita M, wamoto Y. Effects of sex hormones on production of prostaglandin E2 by human peripheral monocytes. J Periodontol 1993; 64: 1075-8.
- 43. Robb-Nicholson C. Gastroesophageal reflux disease. Harv Women Health Watch. 1999;4(6):4.n gingivitis in pregnancy. J Clin Periodontol. 1982;9:275
- 44. Zoeller J. The top 200 drugs. Am Drug. 1999;41
- 45. The Influence of Sex Steroid Hormones on Gingiva of Women Eleni Markou1, Boura Eleana2, Tsalikis Lazaros3 and Konstantinides Antonios3 The Open Dentistry Journal, 2009, 3, 114-119
- 46. Oral Health and Adverse Pregnancy Outcomes Sukumaran Anil, Raed M. Alrowis, Elna P. Chalisserry, Vemina P. Chalissery, Hani S. AlMoharib and Asala F. Al-Sulaimani Emerging Trends in Oral Health Sciences and Dentistry 2011
- 47. Valdimarsson H, Mulholland C, Fridriksdottir V, et al. A longitudinal study of leukocyte blood counts and lymphocyte responses in pregnancy: a marked early increase of monocyte lymphocyte ratio. Clin Exp Immunol.1983;53:437.
- 48. Raber-Durlacher JE, Zeylemaker WP, Meinesz AA, et al. CD4 to CD8 ratio and in vitro lymphoproliferative responses during experimental gingivitis in pregnancy and postpartum. J Periodontol. 1991;62:663.
- 49. Raber-Durlacher JE, Leene W, Palmer-Bouva CC, et al. Experimental gingivitis during pregnancy and postpartum: immunohistochemical aspects. J Periodontol. 1993;64:211
- 50. Muramatsu Y, Takaesu Y. Oral health status related to subgingival bacterial flora and sex hormones in saliva during pregnancy. Bull Tokyo Dent Coll. 1994;35:139
- 51. Cruikshank O, Hayes PM. Maternal physiology. Gabbe S, Niebyl JR, Simpson JL. Pregnancy in obstetrics: normal and problem pregnancies. Churchill Livingstone: New York; 1986
- 52. Purnima S. Kumar 2013. Sex and the subgingival microbiome: Do female sex steroids affect periodontal bacteria? Perio 2000 vol 61
- 53. Asha Prabhu et al 2014. Periodontal Therapy in Female Patients A Review. Journal of Medical and Dental Science Research.
- 54. Clinical periodontology, Carranza 10th edition
- 55. Philip M. Preshaw 2013. Oral contraceptives and the periodontium. Perio 2000 vol 61

- 56. Oral Health Status and Fertility Treatment Including IVF Sunali Sundeep Khanna1,2 Prita A. Dhaimade2 • Shalini Malhotra3The Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology of India (November–December 2017) 67(6):400–404
- 57. Brennan RM, Genco RJ, Wilding G, et al. Bacterial species in subgingival plaque and oral bone loss in postmenopausal women. J Periodontol. 2007;78:1051
- 58. Wactawski-Wende J, Grossi SG, Trevisan M, et al. The role of osteopenia in oral bone loss and periodontal disease. J Periodontol. 1996;67:1076
- 59. Kaye EK. Bone health and oral health. J Am Dent Assoc. 2007;138:616.
- 60. Mohammed AR, Brunsvold M, Bauer R. The strength of association between systemic postmenopausal osteoporosis and periodontal disease. Int J Prosthodont. 1996;9:479
- 61. Jeffcoat MK. Osteoporosis: a possible modifying factor in oral bone loss. Ann Periodontol. 1998;3:312