

DENTAL CEMENTS – NEED OF EVERY DENTIST

^{1*}**Dr. Jayashree Jankar**, ²**Dr. Apeksha Nalwade**, ³**Dr. Nakul Rathod**, ⁴**Dr. Shirish Aghav**,
⁵**Dr. Sagar Khairnar**, ⁶**Dr. Rutuja Nirbhavane**

^{1,2}Senior Lecturer, Dept of Pedodontics & Preventive Dentistry, PDU Dental College,
Solapur.

³Senior Lecturer, Dept of Conservative and Endodontics, Rural Dental College, Paravara
Nagar, Loni.

⁴Assistant Professor, Dept of Prosthodontics and Crown & Bridge & Implantology, PDU
Dental College, Solapur.

⁵Assistant Professor, Dept of Oral Medicine and Radiology, YCMM and RDF'S Dental
College and Hospital, Ahmednagar.

⁶Tutor, Dept. of Prosthodontics, YCMM and RDF'S Dental College and Hospital,
Ahmednagar.

Article Received on
14 August 2021,

Revised on 04 Sept. 2021,
Accepted on 24 Sept. 2021

DOI: 10.20959/wjpr202112-16856

***Corresponding Author**

Dr. Jayashree Jankar

Senior Lecturer, Dept of
Pedodontics & Preventive
Dentistry, PDU Dental
College, Solapur.

ABSTRACT

The number of choices for indirect restorations has evolved significantly over the previous decade. The appropriate choice of the dental cements is an key feature to reach a successful restoration and raise the standard of the restoration. The assortment of appropriate dental cement for a precise clinical application has become ever more complicated for the most experienced dentists. The rationale of this article is to review the presently existing dental cements and to help the dentists to decide the most suitable materials for clinical applications.

KEYWORDS: Restoration, Cement, Dentist, Decade, Application.

INTRODUCTION

The chief function of dental cement is to seal the space between restorative material and tooth preparation, as well as to enhance the resistance to restoration dislodgement during function.^[1,2] The long-term success of a restoration is heavily dependent on the proper selection and manipulation of dental cements. Loss of retention has been found to be one of

the most common causes of restoration failure.^[3] In dentistry we should be aware of the three terms cement, luting and bonding. Luting refers to a mechanism in which micromechanical locking occurs between the objects to be joining. Bonding is chemical or physical interaction occurs to both surfaces that to be attracted. Cement is defined as a joining medium provided adhesion and/or micromechanical locking between the two surfaces to be connected.^[4]

According to the durability of the restoration, dental cements are classified into 2 groups:

- 1) Provisional (Temporary)
- 2) Definitive cements.

All definitive cements can be further divided into 2 subgroups

- a) Luting cements
- b) Bonding cements.

The most commonly used luting cements are zinc phosphate cement, zinc polycarboxylate cement, conventional glass-ionomer cement and resin-modified glass-ionomer cement. There is only one bonding cement which is resin cement.

Ideal requirement^[5-7]

- 1) Good biocompatibility
- 2) Low solubility
- 3) Short setting time
- 4) Low viscosity,
- 5) Radiopaque;
- 6) High shear/tensile/compressive strength
- 7) High bonding strength
- 8) Easy to mix/clean-up.

Provisional (Temporary) cement

Provisional (temporary) cements are of further two a category first is calcium hydroxide and second one is zinc oxide cements with eugenol. The most primitive provisional dental cement was zinc oxide eugenol cement, which was made-up in 1850. ZOE cement is created by mixing zinc oxide powder and eugenol liquid. Since many years ZOE cement has been often used for provisional cementation.^[8] The main disadvantages is inhibition on the

polymerization of resin cement and high film thickness.^[9,10] Many researchers found a reduced bonding strength of resin cement when eugenol containing provisional cement were used.^[11,12]

It is important to point out that the application of the provisional cements with or without eugenol, contaminates the tooth structure, which might eventually affect the bonding strength of definitive cement.^[13] According to recent studies it has been found that the bonding strength of self-adhesive resin cement remained unchanged when provisional cement was used previously.^[14,15]

Definitive cement

In the earlier period permanent cement has been commonly employed for the final restorations. As a matter of fact it was called as a cement until which is removed.^[2] Various cements in this category includes: zinc phosphate cement, zinc polycarboxylate cement, conventional glass ionomer cement, resin-modified glass ionomer cement and resin cement.

1. Zinc phosphate cement

It is the dental cements having a long-term successful track record of more than a century since its introduction in 1880.^[16] Zinc phosphate cement is mixed using phosphoric acid liquid, and powder that is composed of ZnO and magnesium oxide. There are good clinical results of for zinc phosphate cement.^[17]

Zinc phosphate cements lack chemical bond to tooth structure and exhibit a moderate compressive strength, a low tensile strength, a high degree of solubility Brannstrom and Nyborg^[18] reported that zinc phosphate cement has no irritating effect on the dental pulp and the probable irritant effect of zinc phosphate cement might be due to the bacteria left on the prepared tooth surface. Though, in clinical practice, the tooth preparation with low Residual Dentin Thickness (RDT) to be cemented with zinc phosphate cement may bear from sensitivity during and after cementation. So zinc phosphate cement is well thought-out as the gold standard against other ultimate dental cements compared.^[19]

2. Zinc polycarboxylate cement

Zinc polycarboxylate cement is an acid-base reaction cement. It is prepared by mixture of polyacrylic acid and a powder containing zinc oxide and magnesium oxide.^[1] Zinc polycarboxylate cement in 1968 was the foremost cement which exhibit chemical bond to

tooth structure.^[17] Its adhesive properties produce a weak bond to enamel and an even weaker bond to dentin through the interaction of free carboxylic acid groups with calcium from tooth structure.^[20] Zinc polycarboxylate cements exhibit a low compressive strength, and a low tensile strength. It has been reported that zinc polycarboxylate cement may undergo significant plastic deformation under dynamic loading after set.^[21] This property limits the use of zinc polycarboxylate cement for single unit restoration or short span fixed partial denture cementation.

The foremost advantage of this cement is its good biocompatibility with the dental pulp, which could be partially due to a rapid rise in pH after mixing and lack of tubular penetration from the large and poorly dissociated polyacrylic acid molecule.^[22] This property reduces the possibility of post-cementation sensitivity for tooth preparations with low RDT. Although zinc polycarboxylate cement has the merit of producing a chemical bonding with tooth, its use has decreased over the recent years.^[8]

3. Glass-ionomer cement Conventional glass-ionomer cement

Glass-ionomer cements were introduced as hybrids of silicate cements and they adhere to enamel and to some extent to dentin.^[23] It consists of a powder containing aluminosilicates with more fluoride content, and a liquid composed of polyacrylic acid and tartaric acid. When conventional glass-ionomer cements are mixed, the polyacrylic acid reacts with the outer layer of the particles which releases calcium, aluminum and fluoride ions. When an adequate amount of metal ions are present, gelation occurs. Hardening of the material continues for 24 hours. Conventional glass-ionomer cements reveal a low bonding strength to tooth structure, a moderate compressive strength, and a low tensile strength.

It is significant that the physical properties of conventional glass-ionomer cement can be extremely variable based upon different powder/liquid ratio.^[24] One of the main rewards of conventional glass-ionomer cement is the constant long-term fluoride release which is helpful to caries prevention. The bonding strength between conventional glass-ionomer cement and dentin drastically reduces when dentin is excessively dried, which also contributes to post-cementation sensitivity.^[25] So before cementation the wet dentin surface should be dry with cotton wool. The main drawback of this cement is vulnerability to moisture contamination and desiccation during the critical initial setting period.^[26] Early on exposure to water and saliva contamination has been shown to considerably increase the solubility and lessen the ultimate hardness of conventional glass-ionomer cements.^[27] When working with

conventional glass ionomer cement, the material at the restoration margins should be sheltered with petroleum jelly.^[28] Moreover, conventional glass-ionomer cement has rather low resistance to acid attack and bleaching so it not recommended in gastric reflux problems.^[29,30]

4. Resin-modified glass-ionomer cement

Resin-modified glass-ionomer cements merge the technology and chemistry of resin and conventional glass-ionomer cement. This class of dental cement was produced to conquer the two important weakness of conventional glass-ionomer cement, which are sensitivity to early moisture contamination & high solubility.^[31] Resin-modified glass-ionomers were formed by replacing part of the polyacrylic acid in conventional glass-ionomer cements with polymerizable functional methacrylate monomers.

As a comparassion to conventional glassionomer cement, resin-modified glass ionomer cement showed improved adhesion to tooth structure, higher compressive tensile strength, and low solubility to ensure the long-term integrity of the margins and low option of post-cementation sensitivity while maintaining high levels of fluoride release which is similar to conventional glass-ionomer cement.^[32]

Resin-modified glass-ionomer cements show moderate bonding strength to tooth structure, good compressive strength and tensile strength. An *in vivo* study pointed out that the patients with restorations cemented with resin modified glass-ionomer cement confirmed the least post-cementation sensitivity compared to the ones cemented with conventional glass-ionomer cement and zinc phosphate cement at all different intervals of time tested.^[33] Setting reaction of this cement is a dual mechanism, which includes acid-base reaction and polymerization. When the powder and the liquid are mixed, acid base reaction occurs with the formation of polyacrylate salt. Beginning of polymerization can be triggered by either light or sufficient free radicals.^[34]

5. Resin cement

An substitute to acid-base reaction cements, resin cements were introduced in the mid-1970s.^[35] Resin cements are based on bisphenol-a-glycidyl methacrylate (Bis-GMA) resin and other methacrylates, which are modified from the composite resin (restorative material). This class of cements has a setting reaction based on polymerization. Resin cements have the benefit of high compressive/tensile/ bonding strength, low solubility, and esthetics.^[36] These

properties allow them to be employed in cases where there are concerns about retention or with weak and esthetic restorations.

While earlier studies considered high film thickness as one of the major disadvantages of resin cements, Kiouss et al.^[37] showed all the recently introduced dental cements meet the ISO standard of film thickness (25 microns) for up to 2 minutes after mixing. Also, some resin cements contain ytterbium trifluoride or barium aluminium fluorosilicate filler and are capable of releasing fluoride after setting stage. This may mean that these types of resin cements offer cariostatic potential.^[38]

Resin cements vary in curing mechanism (light-cured, self-cured, and dual-cured).^[39] Self-cured and dual-cured resin cements can be used for all cementation.

Applications. However, conflicting results have been reported in the literature.^[40,41] It has been reported that dual-cured resin cement showed a reduced bonding strength and microhardness without curing light.^[42-44] Therefore, it is important to light cure all dual-cured resin cements at all accessible restorative margins for enough time periods. As mentioned previously, resin cements can be divided into 3 subtypes based on bonding mechanism (total-etch, self-etch, selfadhesive).^[39]

The total-etch (etch-andrinse) systems have 3 main steps

- 1) Acid etching, rinse, gently dried
- 2) Bonding agents applied, cured
- 3) Resin cement applied, cured

For the self-etch systems, the acid etching and bonding steps are replaced with the self-etch bonding agent application, which combines the conditioner, primer, and adhesive.^[17] The total-etch and self-etch resin cements could be considered as conventional resin cement. In order to improve the ease of use, the self-adhesive resin cements were developed and introduced in 2002. Although this subtype of resin cements does not have long-term clinical track record, it is already the most popular subtype of resin cements.^[45] The first product, RelyX Unicem from 3M ESPE, has been well studied and widely used around the world. These cements do not require surface pretreatment and bonding agents to maximize their performance.^[46]

The technique sensitivity of self-adhesive resin cement has been really condensed compared to the conventional resin cements.^[47] All resin cements are fairly insoluble when compared to the dental cements mentioned before. They have the highest mechanical and physical properties as well as they are cheaper.^[2,48] This cement has a more tooth-like translucency. Prominently, for resin-containing dental cements (resin cement and resinmodified glass-ionomer cement), polymer degradation over time is still an issue. Mineralized dentin contains matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) and MMPs are fossilized and activated during bonding procedure. The collagen fibers to be bonded might be slowly degraded by the activated MMPs, resulting in reduced bonding stability over time.^[49] As a matter of fact, this action is far beyond the control of dentists. Pre-treat dentin with chlorhexidine or combination of chlorhexidine and bonding agents might prevent this action of the endogenous enzymes.^[50,51]

CONCLUSION

The clinician should give special consideration to the advantages and disadvantages of any dental cement and select them scientifically, and of utmost importance, adhere strictly to manufacturers instructions. So the appropriate choice of the dental cements is an key feature to reach a successful restoration and raise the standard of the restoration.

REFERENCES

1. Hill EE. Dental cements for definitive luting: a review and practical clinical considerations. *Dental Clinics of North America*, 2007; 51: 643-658.
2. Hill EE, Lott J. A clinically focused discussion of luting materials. *Australian Dental Journal*, 2011; 56 (1): 67-76.
3. Walton JN, Gardner FM, Agar JR. A survey of crown and fixed partial denture failures: length of service and reasons for replacement. *Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry*, 1986; 56: 416-421.
4. Simon JF, de Rijk WG. Dental cements. *Inside Dentistry*, 2006; 2: 42-47.
5. Attar N, Tam LE, Mc Comb D. Mechanical and physical properties of contemporary dental luting agents. *Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry*, 2003; 89: 127-134.
6. de la Macorra JC, Pradies G. Conventional and adhesive luting cements. *Clinical Oral Investigations*, 2002; 6: 198-204.
7. Pegoraro TA, da Silva NR, Carvalho RM. Cements for use in esthetic dentistry. *Dental Clinics of North America*, 2007; 51: 453-471.

8. Shillingburg HT, Hobo S, Whitsett LD. Fundamentals of Fixed Prosthodontics. Chicago: Quintessence Publishing, 1997; 3.
9. Erkut S, Kucukesmen HC, Eminkahyagil N, Imirzalioglu P, Karabulut E. Influence of previous provisional cementation on the bond strength between two definitive resin-based luting and dentin bonding agents and human dentin. *Operative Dentistry*, 2007; 32: 84-93.
10. Ribeiro JC, Coelho PG, Janal MN, Silva NR, Monteiro AJ, et al. The influence of temporary cements on dental adhesive systems for luting cementation. *Journal of Dentistry*, 2011; 39: 255-262.
11. Silva JP, Queiroz DM, Azevedo LH, Leal LC, Rodrigues JL, et al. Effect of eugenol exposure time and postremoval delay on the bond strength of a self-etching adhesive to dentin. *Operative Dentistry*, 2011; 36: 66-71.
12. Altintas SH, Tak O, Secilmis A, Usumez A. Effect of provisional cements on shear bond strength of porcelain laminate veneers. *European Journal of Dentistry*, 2011; 5: 373-379.
13. Pameijer CH. A review of luting agents. *International Journal of Dentistry*, 2012; 752861.
14. Sailer I, Oendra AE, Stawarczyk B, Hammerle CH. The effects of desensitizing resin, resin sealing, and provisional cement on the bond strength of dentin luted with self adhesive and conventional resin cements. *Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry*, 2012; 107: 252-260.
15. Bagis B, Bagis YH, Hasanreisoglu U. Bonding effectiveness of a selfadhesive resin-based luting cement to dentin after provisional cement contamination. *Journal of Adhesive Dentistry*, 2011; 13: 543-550.
16. Ames WB. A new oxyphosphate for crown seating. *Dental Cosmos*, 1892; 34: 392-393.
17. Rosenstiel SF, Land MF, Crispin BJ. Dental luting agents: A review of the current literature. *Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry*, 1998; 80: 280-301.
18. Brannstrom M, Nyborg H. Pulpal reaction to polycarboxylate and zinc phosphate cements used with inlays in deep cavity preparations. *Journal of American Dental Association*, 1977; 94: 308-310.
19. Donovan TE, Cho GC. Contemporary evaluation of dental cements. *Compendium of Continuing Education in Dentistry*, 1999; 20: 197-199.
20. Smith DC. A new dental cement. *British Dental Journal*, 1968; 124: 381-384.
21. Craig RG, Powers JM. *Restorative Dental Materials*. St Louis: Mosby, 2002; 1.
22. Charlton DG, Moore BK, Swartz ML. Direct surface pH determinations of setting cements. *Operative Dentistry*, 1991; 16: 231-238.

23. Christensen GJ. Why is glass ionomer cement so popular? *Journal of American Dental Association*, 1994; 125: 1257-1258.
24. Habib B, von Fraunhofer JA, Driscoll CF. Comparison of two luting agents used for the retention of cast dowel and cores. *Journal of Prosthodontics*, 2005; 14: 164-169.
25. Rosenstiel SF, Rashid RG. Postcementation hypersensitivity: scientific data versus dentists' perceptions. *Journal of Prosthodontics*, 2003; 12: 73-81.
26. Um CM, Oilo G. The effect of early water contact on glass-ionomer cements. *Quintessence International*, 1992; 23: 209-214.
27. Mojon P, Kaltio R, Feduik D, Hawbolt EB, MacEntee MI. Shortterm contamination of luting cements by water and saliva. *Dental Materials*, 1996; 12: 83-87.
28. Johnson GH, Hazelton LR, Bales DJ, Lepe X. The effect of a resin-based sealer on crown retention for three types of cement. *Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry*, 2004; 91: 428-435.
29. Yu H, Li Q, Cheng H, Wang Y. The effects of temperature and bleaching gels on the properties of tooth colored restorative materials. *Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry*, 2011; 105: 100-107.
30. Yu H, Buchalla W, Cheng H, Wiegand A, Attin T. Topical fluoride application is able to reduce acid susceptibility of restorative materials. *Dental Materials Journal*, 2012; 31: 433-442.
31. Peutzfeldt A. Compomers and glass ionomers: bond strength to dentin and mechanical properties. *American Journal of Dentistry*, 1996; 9: 259-263.
32. Xu X, Burgess JO. Compressive strength, fluoride release and recharge of fluoride-releasing materials. *Biomaterials*, 2003; 24: 2451-2461.
33. Chandrasekhar V. Post cementation sensitivity evaluation of glass Ionomer, zinc phosphate and resin modified glass Ionomer luting cements under class II inlays: An *in vivo* comparative study. *Journal of Conservative Dentistry*, 2010; 13: 23-27.
34. McCabe JF, Walls AWG. *Applied Dental Materials*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Company, 2005; 8.
35. Bowen RL. Properties of a silica reinforced polymer for dental restorations. *Journal of American Dental Association*, 1963; 66: 57-64.
36. O'Brien W. *Dental Materials and their selection*. Chicago: Quintessence International, 2002; 3.
37. Kious AR, Roberts HW, Brackett WW. Film thicknesses of recently introduced luting cements. *Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry*, 2009; 101: 189-192.

38. Diaz-Arnold AM, Vargas MA, Haselton DR. Current status of luting agents for fixed prosthodontics. *Journal of Prosthetic Dentistry*, 1999; 81: 135-141.
39. Ladha K, Verma M. Conventional and contemporary luting cements: an overview. *Journal of Indian Prosthodontic Society*, 2010; 10: 79-88.
40. Hekimoglu C, Anil N, Etikan I. Effect of accelerated aging on the color stability of cemented laminate veneers. *International Journal of Prosthodontics*, 2000; 13: 29-33.
41. Turgut S, Bagis B. Colour stability of laminate veneers: an in vitro study. *Journal of Dentistry*, 2011; 39: e57-e64.
42. Pereira SG, Fulgencio R, Nunes TG, Toledano M, Osorio R, et al. Effect of curing protocol on the polymerization of dual-cured resin cements. *Dental Materials*, 2010; 26: 710-718.
43. Aguiar TR, Di Francescantonio M, Ambrosano GM, Giannini M. Effect of curing mode on bond strength of self-adhesive resin luting cements to dentin. *Journal of Biomedical Materials Research Part B: Applied Biomaterials*, 2010; 93: 122-127.
44. Cadenaro M, Navarra CO, Antonioli F, Mazzoni A, Di Lenarda R, et al. The effect of curing mode on extent of polymerization and microhardness of dual-cured, self-adhesive resin cements. *American Journal of Dentistry*, 2010; 23: 14-18.
45. Behr M, Rosentritt M, Wimmer J, Lang R, Kolbeck C, et al. Self-adhesive resin cement versus zinc phosphate luting material: a prospective clinical trial begun 2003. *Dental Materials*, 2009; 25: 601-604.
46. Radovic I, Monticelli F, Goracci C, Vulicevic ZR, Ferrari M. Selfadhesive resin cements: a literature review. *Journal of Adhesive Dentistry*, 2008; 10: 251-258.
47. Gomes G, Gomes O, Reis A, Gomes J, Loguercio A, et al. Effect of operator experience on the outcome of fiber post cementation with different resin cements. *Operative Dentistry*, 2013; 38: 555-564.
48. Yu H, Wegehaupt FJ, Wiegand A, Roos M, Attin T, et al. Erosion and abrasion of tooth-colored restorative materials and human enamel. *Journal of Dentistry*, 2009; 37: 913-922.
49. Pashley DH, Tay FR, Yiu C, Hashimoto M, Breschi L, et al. Collagen degradation by host-derived enzymes during aging. *Journal of Dental Research*, 2004; 83: 216-221.
50. Ricci HA, Sanabe ME, de Souza Costa CA, Pashley DH, Hebling J. Chlorhexidine increases the longevity of *in vivo* resin-dentin bonds. *European Journal of Oral Sciences*, 2010; 118: 411-416.
51. Zhou J, Tan J, Yang X, Xu X, Li D, et al. MMP-inhibitory effect of chlorhexidine applied in a selfetching adhesive. *Journal of Adhesive Dentistry*, 2011; 13: 111-115.