

The management of dry socket alveolar osteitis

Item type	Article
Authors	Bowe, Dr Denise C
Publisher	Irish Dental Association
Journal	Journal of Irish Dental Association
Downloaded	4-Nov-2017 13:52:14
Link to item	http://hdl.handle.net/10147/236012

The management of dry socket/ alveolar osteitis

Abstract

Dry socket/alveolar osteitis is a very debilitating, severely painful but relatively common complication following dental extractions. Its incidence is approximately 3% for all routine extractions and can reach over 30% for impacted mandibular third molars.

A number of methods have been suggested in the literature as to how this condition may be prevented and managed. Most of these suggestions are empirical and not evidence based.

This paper is a review of the literature on dry socket. The results of an audit carried out in the Dublin Dental School and Hospital are also presented and a suggestion is made as to how best this painful condition may be managed.

Our audit showed that a wide range of treatments are being used in the treatment of dry socket: rinsing of the socket with chlorhexidine (74%) or saline (26%); placement of a non-resorbable obtundant dressing (56%); and, instruction in home rinsing of the socket with chlorhexidine (44%).

This condition is one of the most examined topics in dentistry and is currently being researched in the Dublin Dental School and Hospital. Over the years little progress has been made in establishing firm conclusions as to how best dry socket should be managed. Our recommendations are based on a review of the literature, being the best available evidence on which to base our clinical practice.

Journal of the Irish Dental Association 2011; 57 (6): 305-310.

Dr Denise C. Bowe

House Officer

Dublin Dental School and Hospital

Dr Seamus Rogers

Specialist Registrar in Oral Surgery

Dublin Dental School and Hospital

Prof Leo F.A. Stassen

Dept of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery

Dublin Dental School and Hospital

Address for correspondence:

Prof. Leo F.A. Stassen

Dept of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery

Dublin Dental School and Hospital

Lincoln Place

Dublin 2

Email: leo.stassen@dental.tcd.ie

Introduction/review of literature

Alveolar osteitis, also known as dry socket, is a severely painful complication arising between one and three days post extraction. It is very common. The incidence of dry socket ranges from 0.5-5% for all routine extractions, but can reach up to 38% for extractions of impacted mandibular third molars.^{1,2}

Blum (2002) described alveolar osteitis as being the presence of "postoperative pain in and around the extraction site, which

increases in severity at any time between one and three days after the extraction, accompanied by a partially or totally disintegrated blood clot within the alveolar socket, with or without halitosis".³

A localised fibrinolysis (resulting from conversion of plasminogen to plasmin, which acts to dissolve fibrin crosslinks) occurring within the socket and subsequently leading to loss of the blood clot is believed to underlie the pathogenesis of alveolar osteitis.⁴ There are many

contributing or risk factors reported in the literature, which act together to precipitate a dry socket.

Bacteria are cited to play a role in the breakdown of the clot.⁵ This is supported by an increased incidence of dry socket being seen in patients with poor oral hygiene, higher pre- and postoperative microbial counts in particular anaerobic bacterial counts and, in the presence of periapical infection, pericoronitis or periodontitis pre extraction.^{6,7}

Nitzan *et al.* (1983) proposed, in particular, the role for anaerobic bacteria, especially *Treponema denticola*, which showed plasmin-like fibrinolytic activity *in vitro*. Although bacteria may play a role, no direct cause-effect relationship has been demonstrated between bacteria and dry socket.⁸

Difficulty of extraction or trauma during extraction has also been postulated as a major causative factor. Difficult extractions tend to be in older denser bone, which may have a decreased vascularity and a greater propensity to traumatic thrombosis of the blood vessels. Birn (1973) proposed that trauma during the removal of a tooth leads to a localised inflammation of the socket with accompanying release of tissue activators, which act to increase the levels of plasmin in the socket, leading to lysis of the blood clot.⁴ A more traumatic extraction leads to increased release of these activators. These tissue activators also release kininogenase enzymes and bradykinins, which play a key role in pain generation. However, others believe that trauma during surgery results in delayed wound healing due to traumatic thrombosis of blood vessels and hence decreased tissue resistance with resultant wound infection. There is a reported inverse relationship between operator experience and the incidence of dry socket.⁵ Surgical extractions in comparison to non-surgical extractions are reported to result in a ten-fold increase in the incidence of alveolar osteitis, which may be due to the increased trauma associated with surgical extractions.⁹

A consistent relationship between smoking and dry socket is reported in the literature. Following extraction, tobacco smokers demonstrate reduced filling of the wound with blood and an increased incidence of dry socket.¹⁰ This is thought to be due to the vasoconstrictive activity of nicotine, which acts to reduce perfusion in the area.

Dry socket occurs more frequently in females than males, pointing to a possible hormonal cause. Sweet and Butler (1978) found the incidence of dry socket to be 4.1% in females versus 0.5% in males.¹¹

The incidence of dry socket was reported to be similar between males and females prior to 1960. However, after this time there was a reported increase in females taking oral contraceptive medication. Oestrogen in oral contraceptives has been shown to increase plasma fibrinolytic activity (due to increased plasminogen levels) and it is hypothesised that this may contribute to instability of the blood clot in the socket. It has been suggested that extractions should be carried out on days 23-28 of the oral contraceptive tablet cycle, when oestrogen levels are at their lowest, so as to reduce this effect.¹² Similarly, in a recent prospective study looking at risk factors for the development of dry socket in a Nigerian population it was found that avoidance of surgery on days one to 22 of the menstrual cycle may reduce the

incidence of dry socket.¹³ Garcia *et al.* (2003) found that in a study of 267 women, 87 of whom were taking the oral contraceptive pill, dry socket occurred more frequently in those taking oral contraceptives (11%) than in those not taking oral contraceptives (4%).¹⁴

Dry socket rarely occurs in those younger than 20 years, which may be due to the greater bone elasticity, a better blood circulation and/or a more efficient healing capacity of bone in younger patients. It occurs most frequently between 20 and 40 years of age, which may be confounded by an increased number of third molar extractions carried out and a greater prevalence of smoking in this age group.

It was previously thought that the use of local anaesthetic with vasoconstrictor may lead to increased risk of developing alveolar osteitis post extraction due to the temporary local ischaemia caused by the vasoconstrictor. However, it was found that this ischaemia lasts for approximately two hours and is then followed by a reactive hyperaemia.^{2,4} This contests the role of vasoconstrictors in local anaesthetic in the development of alveolar osteitis, which is currently accepted to be inconsequential.^{1,15}

Inadequate irrigation following removal of the tooth has been reported to be associated with increased incidence of dry socket. This was considered, possibly, to be due to contamination of the socket by bacteria and the reduction of this by high-volume lavage of the socket. This is no longer held to be true as bacteria are not thought to be the cause of a dry socket.^{1,5}

Signs and symptoms

Following removal of the tooth, patients report an initial improvement or reduction in pain experienced over the first 24 hours and then subsequently go on to develop a severe, debilitating, constant pain that continues through the night, becoming most intense at 72 hours post extraction. It can be associated with foul taste and halitosis. The pain responds poorly to over-the-counter analgesic medication. Clinically, an empty socket (lacking a blood clot) with exposed bone is seen. The socket may be filled with a mixture of saliva and food debris. A slough is also sometimes present. The adjacent gingivae tend to be red, inflamed, tender and oedematous. There is generally no evidence of suppuration, swelling or systemic infection such as a fever or systemic upset.

Prevention

As there is still uncertainty surrounding the aetio-pathogenesis of dry socket, this condition is difficult to prevent. The dentist should ask preoperatively whether or not the patient has had a dry socket previously as some patients appear to be more susceptible than others. The patient should also be advised not to smoke for at least 48 hours post extraction.

It was postulated that the use of gauze soaked in Whitehead's varnish sutured into the socket post surgery would reduce the incidence of postoperative discomfort, haemorrhage and swelling.¹⁶ This is then removed one week postoperatively. Unfortunately, a large number of patients would receive unnecessary treatment if this was routinely carried out.

There is also evidence to support the use of a 0.12% chlorhexidine rinse prior to the extraction and one week post extraction to prevent the occurrence of dry socket following tooth extraction. In a prospective, randomised, double-blind placebo-controlled study, this regime was associated with a 50% reduction in alveolar osteitis compared to the control group.¹⁷

Field *et al.* (1987) similarly reported a significant reduction in the incidence of dry socket following irrigation of the gingival crevice and a two-minute mouth rinse with 0.2% chlorhexidine digluconate immediately prior to removal of the tooth, in comparison to the use of no irrigation or the use of saline as the irrigant.¹⁸

The placement of 0.2% chlorhexidine gel in the socket at the time of surgery was also shown to reduce the incidence of dry socket in a randomised, double-blind study.¹⁹

The use of both systemic and topical antibiotics has been shown to reduce the incidence of dry socket.³ Systemic penicillins, clindamycin and metronidazole, and topical tetracycline powder have all been shown to be effective.^{20,21,22} Preoperative administration of antibiotics is more effective in reducing the incidence of dry socket than when given postoperatively.^{20,23} Ren and Malmstrom (2007) showed in a meta-analysis of 2,932 patients that antibiotics reduce the risk of alveolar osteitis and wound infection only when the first dose was given before surgery.²⁴ The reason for the reduction in incidence of dry socket following preoperative administration of antibiotics is unclear as infection is not believed to be of significance in the pathogenesis of a dry socket, although a reduction in bacterial count does decrease the incidence.

Although antibiotics may decrease the incidence of dry socket, antibiotics should not be used in preventing or treating dry socket in a non-immune-compromised subject, due to the potential for development of resistant strains to the antibiotics and other side effects such as hypersensitivity.^{3,20,23,24}

Management

Dry socket is a self-limiting condition. However, due to the severity of pain experienced by the patient, it usually requires some symptomatic treatment.

The range of treatments for a dry socket include treatments directed locally to the socket, including: irrigation of the socket with a 0.12-0.2% chlorhexidine rinse and instructing in home use of a syringe for irrigation; placement of a self-eliminating dressing such as Alvogyl (containing eugenol, butamben and iodoform); placement of an obtundant dressing such as zinc oxide, eugenol and lidocaine gel; or, a combination of these therapies and, where appropriate, the prescription of systemic antibiotics.

The Royal College of Surgeons in England laid down National Clinical Guidelines in 1997, which were subsequently reviewed in 2004, on how a dry socket should be managed.²⁵ They suggest the following:

1. In appropriate cases, a radiograph should be taken to eliminate the possibility of retained root or bony fragments as a source of the pain, usually in cases when a new patient presents with such symptoms.

2. The socket should be irrigated with warmed 0.12% chlorhexidine digluconate to remove necrotic tissue and so that any food debris can be gently evacuated. Local anaesthesia may occasionally be required for this.
3. The socket can then be lightly packed with an obtundant dressing to prevent food debris entering the socket and to prevent local irritation of the exposed bone. This dressing should aim to be antibacterial and antifungal, resorbable and not cause local irritation or excite an inflammatory response.
4. Patients should be prescribed non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug (NSAID) analgesia, if there is no contra-indication in their medical history.
5. Patients should be kept under review and steps 2 and 3 repeated until the pain subsides and the patient can then be instructed in irrigation of the socket with chlorhexidine digluconate 0.2% with a syringe at home.

The level of this evidence is quite low. These guidelines are based only on expert opinions and clinical experience.

Traditionally, it was suggested that bleeding should be encouraged in the socket; however, this is no longer thought to be necessary and only serves to increase pain.^{15,26}

It is widely accepted that systemic antibiotics should not be prescribed for the treatment of a true dry socket as they have no additional advantage over local treatments directed to the socket in a non-immune-compromised patient.^{1,26,27}

The irrigation of the socket with warmed 0.12% chlorhexidine digluconate and instructing the patient in home use of the monoject syringe with chlorhexidine should be part of this treatment.

The aim of placing an obtundant dressing, most commonly made up of a cotton pellet, zinc oxide powder, eugenol and lidocaine 5% topical gel, is to ease the pain experienced by the patient and is supported by some.²⁶ However, it is important to remember that such a non-resorbable dressing is a foreign body in the socket and will delay healing.³ The eugenol is also reported to cause local irritation and bone necrosis.²⁸ A similar dressing available commercially is Alvogyl (non-resorbable) containing eugenol, butamben and iodoform. The eugenol acts as an obtundant and butamben is a topical local anaesthetic, while the iodoform, an antimicrobial, aims to eliminate any low-grade infection that may be present. Alvogyl is reported to be self-eliminating, as it does not adhere as tightly to the socket as the dressing described above. However, if any such dressing is to be used the patient must be recalled at least every two days to assess the pain, possibly replace the dressing and ultimately remove the dressing when the symptoms have subsided sufficiently.

There is no definitive verdict on the most effective intra-alveolar dressing or treatment method for a dry socket. Indeed, a protocol has been submitted to the Cochrane Library to ascertain this based on the best available evidence.²⁹

Audit

The audit was carried out in the Accident and Emergency Department of the Dublin Dental School and Hospital. A questionnaire was

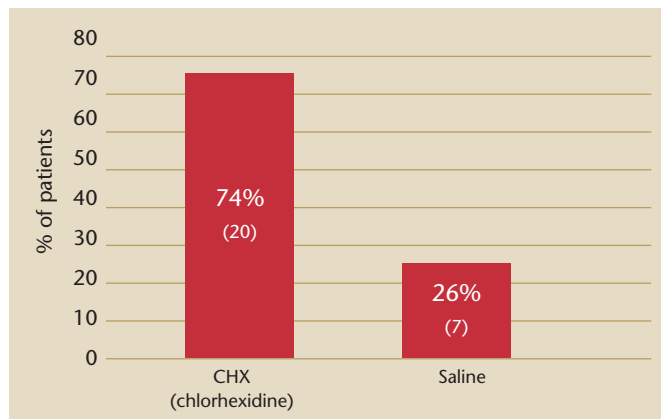


FIGURE 1: Chlorhexidine was the most commonly used irrigant.

formulated, which included a number of questions pertaining to the source of the dry socket cases, the length of time between presentation and onset of symptoms, the symptoms experienced by the patient, and the method of treatment enlisted by the dentist treating the case. The treating dentist was asked to complete the survey to record the treatment carried out.

The questionnaire was designed to determine the number of true dry sockets. It was possible following education and training of the dentists working in the Accident and Emergency Department to determine this by the signs and symptoms present and thus to differentiate it from a spreading infection.

The presence of pain, altered taste, malodour, food impaction, a slough and a socket devoid of a clot all indicated a dry socket. The recording of the patient's temperature, presence of any extra-oral or intra-oral swelling, trismus and any effect on the patient's airway or floor of mouth was used to eliminate the possibility of the case being a spreading infection rather than a dry socket/localised alveolar osteitis. The next section of the questionnaire dealt with what treatment was provided. This was divided into treatments localised to the socket and whether or not antibiotics were prescribed. Treatments localised to the socket may have been irrigation with saline or chlorhexidine, giving home instructions on rinsing of the socket, dressing the socket with a resorbable dressing, or the placement of an obtundant dressing. The questionnaires were collected and the results collated.

Results

A total of 24 cases of dry socket were recorded in the six-month period between October 2009 and March 2010. Of the 24 cases, six resulted from extractions carried out by the patient's general dental practitioner and the remaining 18 cases resulted from extractions carried out within the Accident and Emergency Department of the Dublin Dental School and Hospital. During this time, 517 (495 simple, 22 surgical) teeth were removed in the Accident and Emergency Department of Dublin Dental School and Hospital, giving a possible incidence of 3.5%. Of these 18 cases of dry socket, three resulted from surgical extractions and the remaining 15 resulted from simple extractions. The time between extraction and onset of symptoms ranged from one to three

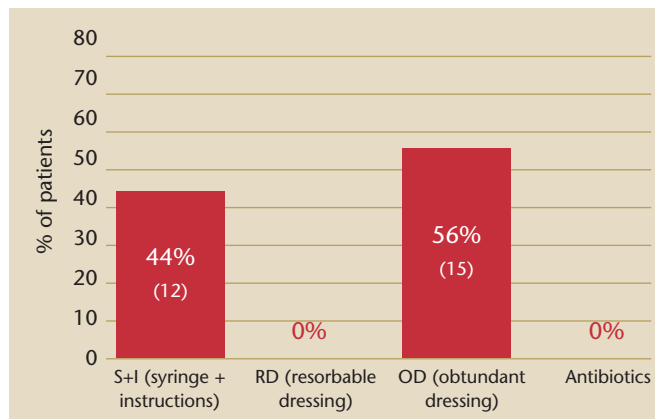


FIGURE 2: Treatments provided following irrigation of the socket.

days post extraction. The time between the onset of symptoms and the presentation of the patient was on average four to six days.

All patients presenting had severe pain, the severity of this ranging from seven to 10 as measured by the visual analogue scale, scored with 10 as a maximum. Eighteen (70%) had halitosis and 25 (94%) of the cases experienced an altered taste. All cases showed the presence of a slough and the presence of food impaction was recorded in 20 (74%) of the cases.

The temperature was not recorded by any of the treating dentists, as this test was not indicated due to the lack of systemic symptoms. There was no extra-oral or intra-oral swelling evident in any of the cases and the airway and floor of the mouth also remained unaffected. The range of movement recorded ranged from 37-46mm, which would indicate that none of the cases suffered from limited movement or trismus.

The most common treatment provided was irrigation of the socket with a 0.2% chlorhexidine digluconate rinse, with 20 patients (74%) receiving this treatment (Figure 1). The remaining seven (26%) chose saline to rinse the socket. However, in only 12 cases (44%), the patient was provided with a syringe and given instructions in home rinsing with chlorhexidine. A non-resorbable obtundant dressing was placed in 15 of the cases (56%). No resorbable dressings were placed, as these are currently unavailable in the Dublin Dental School and Hospital. Finally, no antibiotics were prescribed in any of the 27 cases (Figure 2).

Discussion

The results of the audit suggest that the best form of management for a dry socket remains unconfirmed. Indeed, there is a lack of evidence to support one treatment method over another.

In aiming to reduce the incidence of dry socket, each patient's risk of developing dry socket should be assessed pre extraction and any preventive measures should be implemented, such as avoiding smoking pre and post surgery, and an atraumatic surgical technique with the use of copious irrigation of the socket. The prophylactic placement of any dressing in the post-extraction alveolar socket is not supported by the literature and should not be carried out.

In preventing the occurrence of dry socket, a systematic review of the literature found that rinsing with chlorhexidine on the day of the

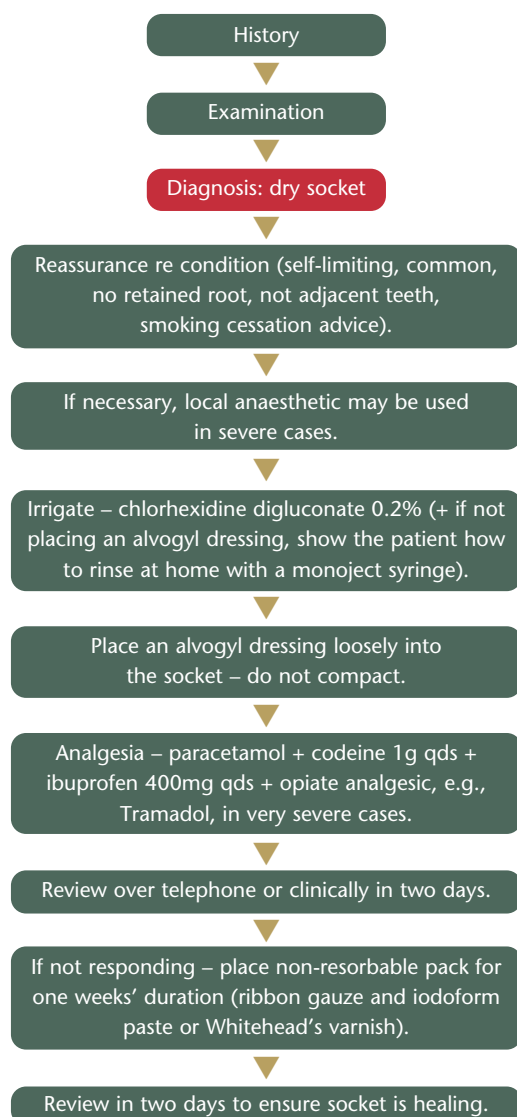


FIGURE 3: Our recommendations.

extraction and for seven days post extraction resulted in a reduction in the incidence of dry socket.³⁰

A recent meta-analysis of the available literature suggests that although 0.12% chlorhexidine rinse has demonstrated effectiveness in reducing the incidence of dry socket, 0.2% chlorhexidine gel applied to the socket every 12 hours for seven days post extraction is the most effective therapeutic option to prevent dry socket. It indicates that further studies are required to compare the effectiveness of a 0.12% versus a 0.2% chlorhexidine rinse.³¹

In managing a dry socket, chlorhexidine has been shown to be a more effective irrigant than saline and so irrigation of the socket and instruction in home use of a syringe with chlorhexidine should form the mainstay of managing cases of dry socket.^{13,14,32}

The placement of a non-resorbable obtundant dressing such as zinc



FIGURE 4: Dry socket.



FIGURE 5: Monoject syringe.



FIGURE 6: Alvogyl.

oxide and eugenol will relieve pain but cause bone necrosis and delay socket healing. Such a dressing should not be placed in managing dry socket, as these dressings are quite adherent to the socket and tend not to be eliminated. They must be removed. A dressing such as Alvogyl is self-eliminating and safe.

Antibiotics should not be prescribed in the treatment of dry socket unless the patient is systemically toxic, immune-compromised, or there is a risk of developing osteomyelitis.

The prescription of analgesics is appropriate and necessary. A short course of NSAIDs and a preparation of paracetamol with codeine is recommended.

We present an algorithm (Figure 3) based on a review of the literature, clinical practice and our audit. These recommendations are under study at present.

Conclusion

Dry socket is a self-limiting condition, the cause of which remains elusive. Management is aimed at relieving the patient's pain until healing of the socket occurs. Healing is facilitated and accelerated through reducing the insult to the wound by food debris and microorganisms, by irrigation of the socket with chlorhexidine, followed by placement of Alvogyl dressing or, if unavailable, instructing the patient in home use of a syringe for irrigation of the socket until the socket no longer collects debris, and the prescription of potent oral analgesics. The patient should be kept under regular review to ensure that the socket is healing, especially if a dressing has been placed.

References

- Kolokythas, A., Olech, E., Miloro, M. Alveolar osteitis: a comprehensive review of concepts and controversies. *International Journal of Dentistry* 2010; 249073 Epub 2010.
- Fridrich, K.L., Olson, R.A. Alveolar osteitis following surgical removal of mandibular third molars. *Anesth Prog* 1990; 37 (1): 32-41.
- Blum, I.R. Contemporary views on dry socket (alveolar osteitis): a clinical appraisal of standardisation, aetiopathogenesis and management: a critical review. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 2002; 31: 309-317.
- Birn, H. Etiology and pathogenesis of fibrinolytic alveolitis ('dry socket'). *Int J Oral Surg* 1973; 2: 215-263.
- Larsen, P.E. Alveolar osteitis after surgical removal of impacted mandibular third molars. Identification of the patient at risk. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1992; 73 (4): 393-397.
- Krekmanov, L., Nordenram, A. Postoperative complications after surgical removal of mandibular third molars. Effects of penicillin V and chlorhexidine. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 1986; 15 (1): 25-29.
- Awang, M.N. The aetiology of dry socket: a review. *Int Dent J* 1989; 39 (4): 236-240.
- Nitzan, D.W. On the genesis of 'dry socket'. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 1983; 41: 706-710.
- Torres-Lagares, D., Serrera-Figalo, M.A., Romero-Ruiz, M.M., Infante-Cossio, P., Garcia-Calderon, M., Gutierrez-Perez, J.L. Update on dry socket: a review of the literature. *Medicina Oral Patologia Oral y Cirugia Bucal* 2005; 10 (1): 77-85.
- Meechan, J.G., Macgregor, I.D.M., Rogers, S.N., Hobson, R.S., Bate, J.P.C., Dennison, M. The effect of smoking on immediate post-extraction socket filling with blood and on the incidence of painful socket. *British Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery* 1988; 26 (5): 402-409.
- Sweet, D.B., Butler, D.P. Predisposing and operative factors: effect on the incidence of localised osteitis in mandibular third-molar surgery. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* 1978; 46 (2): 206-215.
- Catellani, J.E., Harvey, S., Erickson, H., Cherkin, D. Effect of oral contraceptive cycle on dry socket (localised alveolar osteitis). *Journal of the American Dental Association* 1980; 101 (5): 777-780.
- Oginni, F.O. Dry socket: a prospective study of prevalent risk factors in a Nigerian population. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 2008; 66: 2290-2295.
- Garcia, A.G., Grana, P.M., Sampedro, F.G., Diago, M.P., Rey, J.M. Does oral contraceptive use affect the incidence of complications after extraction of a mandibular third molar? *Br Dent J* 2003; 194 (8): 453-455.
- Cardoso, C.L., Rodrigues, M.T.V., Ferreira, O., Garlet, G.P., Perri de Carvalho, P.S. Clinical concepts of dry socket. *J Oral Maxillofacial Surg* 2010; 68: 1922-1932.
- Hellem, S., Nordenram, A. Prevention of postoperative symptoms by general antibiotic treatment and local bandage in removal of mandibular third molars. *Int J Oral Surg* 1973; 2 (6): 273-278.
- Larsen, P.E. The effect of a chlorhexidine rinse on the incidence of alveolar osteitis following the surgical removal of impacted mandibular third molars. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 1991; 49 (9): 932-937.
- Field, E.A., Speechley, J.A., Rotter, E., Scott, J. Dry socket incidence compared after a 12-year interval. *Br J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 1988; 23: 419-427.
- Torres-Lagares, D., Gutierrez-Perez, J.L., Infante-Cossio, P., Garcia-Calderon, M., Romero-Ruiz, M.M., Serrera-Figallo, M.A. Randomized, double-blind study on effectiveness of intra-alveolar chlorhexidine gel in reducing the incidence of alveolar osteitis in mandibular third molar surgery. *Int J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 2006; 35 (4): 348-351. Epub November 9, 2005.
- Laird, W.R., Stenhouse, D., Macfarlane, T.W. Control of post-operative infection. A comparative evaluation of clindamycin and phenoxymethylpenicillin. *Br Dent J* 1972; 133 (3): 106-109.
- Rood, J.P., Danford, M. Metronidazole in the treatment of 'dry socket'. *Int J Oral Surg* 1981; 10: 345-347.
- Sorensen, D.C., Preisch, J.W. The effect of tetracycline on the incidence of post-extraction alveolar osteitis. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 1987; 45 (12): 1029-1033.
- Rood, J.P., Murgatroyd, J. Metronidazole in the prevention of 'dry socket'. *Br J Oral Surg* 1979; 17: 62-70.
- Ren, Y.F., Malmstrom, H.S. Effectiveness of antibiotic prophylaxis in third molar surgery: a meta-analysis of randomised controlled clinical trials. *J Oral Maxillofac Surg* 2007; 65: 1909-1921.
- National Clinical Guidelines 1997. Reviewed 2004 RCS England by Avery, B., Brown, J.S., Carter, J.L.B., Corrigan, A.M., Haskell, R., Leopard, P.J., Williams, J.L., Loukota, R.A., Lowry, J., McManners, J., Mitchell, D., Pedlar, J., Shepherd, D., Taylor, G., Whear, N., Williams, J.K., and Worrall S.F.
- Colby, R.C. The general practitioner's perspective of the aetiology, prevention and treatment of dry socket. *Gen Dent* 1997; 45 (5): 461-467.
- Fazakerley, M., Field, E.A. Dry socket: a painful post extraction complication (a review). *Dental Update* 1991; 18: 31-34.
- Seward, G.R., Harris, M., McGowan, D.A. *An Outline of Oral Surgery Part One* (2nd ed.). Wright; Oxford, 1987.
- Daly, B., Newton, T., Nasser, M., Jones, K., Fedorowicz, Z. Intrasocket interventions for the treatment of dry socket. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews* 2008, Issue 1.
- Caso, A., Hung, L.K., Beirne, O.R. Prevention of alveolar osteitis with chlorhexidine: a meta-analytic review. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 2005; 99: 155-159.
- Minguez-Serra, M.P., Salort-Llorca, C., Silvestre-Donat, F.J. Chlorhexidine in the prevention of dry socket: effectiveness of different dosage forms and regimens. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Buccal* 2009; 14 (9): e445-449.
- Rango, J.R., Szkutnik, A.J. Evaluation of 0.12% chlorhexidine rinse on the prevention of alveolar osteitis. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 1991; 72: 524-526.