


Topical preparations to reduce SARS-CoV-2 aerosolization in head and neck mucosal surgery

Harman S. Parhar MD, MPH¹  | Kendall Tasche MD¹ | Robert M. Brody MD¹ | Gregory S. Weinstein MD¹ | Bert W. O'Malley Jr MD¹ | Rabie M. Shanti DMD, MD^{1,2} | Jason G. Newman MD¹

¹Department of Otorhinolaryngology—Head and Neck Surgery, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

²Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Correspondence

Harman S. Parhar, MD, MPH,
Department of Otorhinolaryngology—
Head and Neck Surgery, University of
Pennsylvania, 3400 Spruce Street,
5 Ravdin, Philadelphia, PA 19104.
Email: harman.parhar@pennmedicine.
upenn.edu

Abstract

Aim: The COVID-19 pandemic caused by the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has put health care workers at risk when exposed to aerosolized viral particles during upper airway mucosal surgery. The objective of this review was to discuss topical preparations that could be utilized preoperatively to help to decrease viral load and potentially reduce the risks of viral transmission.

Methods: A PubMed/MEDLINE database review of articles was performed querying topical preparations with virucidal activity against coronaviruses.

Results: Povidone-iodine (PVP-I) solutions ranging from 0.23% to 7% have been found to demonstrate highly effective virucidal activity against a broad range of viruses including several coronaviruses responsible for recent epidemics including SARS-CoV-1 and MERS-CoV.

Conclusions: While specific evidence regarding SARS-CoV-2 is lacking, PVP-I-based preparations have been successfully demonstrated to reduce viral loads of coronaviruses. They are relatively safe to use in the upper airway and may reduce risk of SARS-CoV-2 aerosolization during upper airway mucosal surgery.

KEYWORDS

coronavirus, COVID-19, head and neck cancer, safety, SARS-CoV-2

1 | INTRODUCTION

As the COVID-19 pandemic caused by the novel severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) continues to escalate globally, we are faced with developing methods to provide care to our patients while also keeping them our coworkers and ourselves safe. Health care workers are at increased risk of exposure to the virus, and there is mounting evidence that otolaryngologists are among the highest at risk. This is likely due to a high viral load of SARS-CoV-2 in the upper aerodigestive

tract and because of the direct contact that practitioners have with the mucosa during both diagnostic and therapeutic procedures.¹⁻³ Once the respiratory mucosa is manipulated, viral particles have the ability to become aerosolized, can become airborne for 3 or more hours, and may spread to contaminate multiple surfaces in the surrounding area.⁴⁻⁶ Of particular concern is that even asymptomatic patients may be responsible for viral aerosolization, given its long incubation period (5-7 days) and that these asymptomatic patients may unknowingly place our surgical teams at risk.^{1,7-9}

We do, however, still have an obligation to perform urgent and emergent cases for life-threatening situations or diseases, such as cancer, where failure to act will lead to high morbidity. Indeed, it is known that patients with cancer are susceptible to infection. Early data from China have shown that among patients with COVID-19, there is an approximately 3-fold higher proportion of patients with cancer than the incidence of cancer in the general population.¹⁰ Open, endoscopic and robotic oncologic surgery of the upper airway may expose providers to high levels of viral particles in the respiratory mucosa and saliva.^{2,11} Several institutions have generated head- and neck-specific algorithms to help risk stratify patients and procedures advocating strongly for preoperative SARS-CoV-2 testing and appropriate utilization of personal protective equipment in patients undergoing head and neck mucosal surgery.^{12,13} There has been very little published, however, regarding whether there exist any topical agents that could be utilized preoperatively to potentially lower the viral load in the upper aerodigestive tract thereby mitigating any risk of viral aerosolization in persons undergoing head and neck mucosal surgery. In this review, we aimed to review the literature discussing topical agents that are safe to use as oral rinses and that may have virucidal activity against SARS-CoV-2.

2 | METHODS

We conducted a search of the PubMed/MEDLINE databases for articles relevant to topical agents with virucidal activity against coronaviruses. Search terms included are alcohol, peridex, iodine, chlorhexidine, topical, mouthwash, virus, coronavirus, and COVID-19. To focus the search, we concentrated on articles that focused either on *in vitro* studies or studies examining their utilization on mucosal surfaces. We supplemented the searches by reviewing references from each relevant manuscript. The selection of data was determined subjectively to be synthesized into this review. Institutional review board approval was not required for this study.

3 | DISCUSSION

3.1 | Povidone-iodine

Povidone-iodine (PVP-I) is a widely used iodine complex carried in a polyvinylpyrrolidone carrier that was developed in the 1950s and is available as a surgical skin prep agent and as a mouthwash.¹⁴ It has demonstrated both antibacterial and antiviral activities in past studies.¹⁴ While studies on virucidal activity of PVP-I have not yet

been performed specifically on SARS-CoV-2, there have been numerous *in vitro* studies demonstrating its effectiveness against multiple viruses including related coronaviruses. A 1997 study compared PVP-I to other antiseptics in inactivating a broad range of both enveloped and nonenveloped viruses (adenovirus, mumps, rotavirus, poliovirus, Coxsackievirus, rhinovirus, herpes simplex virus, rubella, measles, influenza, and HIV) and demonstrated PVP-I to have the broadest spectrum of antiviral activity among agents tested.¹⁵ Kariwa et al tested several different commercially available PVP-I formulations against SARS-CoV-1 viral samples (responsible for the SARS epidemic) and found that the viral infectivity was reduced to below detectable levels within 2 minutes of application.¹⁶ In an industry-sponsored study, Eggers et al carried out *in vitro* tests of PVP-I solutions (1%-7.5%) against Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV; responsible for the MERS epidemic) and found that the viral titer reduction of >99.99% within 15 seconds of application.¹⁷ A subsequent study examined a diluted PVP-I (0.23%) formulation against SARS-CoV-1, MERS-CoV, and influenza A (H1N1) applied for 15 seconds and again found a >99.99% reduction of viral titers.¹⁸ Despite ample *in vitro* studies, there are few clinical studies of PVP-I specifically against viruses. Still, in a small prospective Japanese study of school-aged children, it was found that cohorts who were encouraged to use PVP-I gargle had significantly lower rates of absences from school due to the common cold and influenza.¹⁹

From a safety perspective, it has been tolerated for use in the upper airway as has been demonstrated in numerous human studies. In the oral cavity and oropharynx it has been used safely at a range of doses from 1% to 10% for oropharyngeal infection prophylaxis, mucositis, and prevention of ventilator-associated pneumonia.²⁰⁻²⁴ Commercial over-the-counter oral mouthrinse formulations are typically of 1% PVP-I. Though there is some degree of mucosal absorption, even long-term oral utilization has not been shown to cause thyroid dysfunction.²⁵ It has also been utilized in the sinonasal mucosa at lower concentrations (0.08%) in the treatment of recalcitrant chronic rhinosinusitis without evidence of thyroid dysfunction, olfactory dysfunction, or mucociliary clearance changes.²⁶ Other studies have examined the effect of PVP-I in varying concentrations from 0.5% to 5% on the sinonasal mucosa without detrimental effect to the nasal epithelium; however, one recent *in vitro* study found that iodine preparations of 5% to 10% demonstrated ciliotoxicity.²⁷⁻³⁰ Fortunately, PVP-I also exhibits the least ototoxicity of topical preparation solutions and is safe to use as an ophthalmic preparation agent (1%-5%), which is relevant to head and neck procedure that involves or exposes the skull base otologic or orbital apparatuses.^{31,32} Unlike alcohol-based preparations, it is

not flammable which is relevant when using electrocautery in the airway.³³

3.2 | Chlorhexidine

Chlorhexidine is a disinfectant and antiseptic that has been in medical use since the 1950s. Oral rinse preparations are commonly used in dentistry to reduce plaque build-up and treat gingivitis, and studies show that it can reduce bacterial counts in saliva after as little as 30 seconds of exposure.³⁴ There is more limited evidence showing its virucidal effects. *in vitro* studies in the 1970s first demonstrated the activity of chlorhexidine gluconate against herpes virus strains though not poliovirus or adenovirus.³⁵ Later studies showed that chlorhexidine tends to have virucidal activity against enveloped viruses, though does not show the same effect against nonenveloped viruses. Bernstein et al showed virucidal activity of chlorhexidine gluconate against the enveloped viruses herpes virus 1, cytomegalovirus, influenza A, parainfluenza, and hepatitis B after 5 minutes of exposure *in vitro*, with no activity against poliovirus.³⁶ Baqui demonstrated this effect against HIV-1 *in vitro* as well with two preparations of chlorhexidine as well as Listerine mouthwashes.³⁷ There are few studies examining chlorhexidine and coronaviruses, and those that do exist examine the effects of chlorhexidine on sterilization of inert surfaces rather than living tissue. These studies do, however, show sensitivity of coronavirus to chlorhexidine though only when used in combination with other compounds such as ethanol or cetrimide.³⁸ In isolation, chlorhexidine has been found to be less effective against coronaviruses than PVP-I in both *in vitro* studies and studies of disinfection of inanimate surfaces.^{15,39} Overall, there are limited data demonstrating the activity of chlorhexidine against coronaviruses and it is also associated with high levels of ototoxicity and can be flammable when utilized in commercial preparations that commonly include alcohol.^{31,33}

3.3 | Recommendation

On the basis of this review, the authors believe that the topical application of PVP-I is safe and may help to reduce the viral load, and the potential aerosolization, of SARS-CoV-2. Until confirmatory studies are conducted, our institutional consensus is to dilute commonly available PVP-I (typically 7.5%) 1:3 with saline to achieve a less than 2% concentration and bulb syringe the solution into the oral/nasal cavity, after intubation, but immediately prior to head and neck procedures that require instrumentation of the upper

airway mucosa during the COVID-19 pandemic. We suggest leaving the solution in for approximately 1 minute before irrigating with saline and suctioning it out to reduce residual absorption and limit tissue staining – though the optimal concentration and application time, if any, are currently unknown. This procedure is applied to both COVID-19-positive adult patients and to patients with unknown status unless they have a contraindication to topical iodine (allergy/anaphylaxis, labile thyroid disease, contact dermatitis, pregnancy/nursing, active radioiodine therapy). This concentration is over 8 times the lowest PVP-I concentration found to be effective *in vitro* to eliminate related coronaviruses but still likely a safe concentration for one-time use based upon past studies described. Due to a paucity of supporting literature, no recommendation can be made for the use of chlorhexidine-based rinses.


4 | CONCLUSIONS

Though no topical therapies have been studied to specifically reduce the viral load and potential aerosolization of SARS-CoV-2 during upper airway mucosal surgery, PVP-I solutions have demonstrated effective virucidal activity against related coronaviruses in numerous studies. They are relatively safe to use in the upper airway, require very brief application times, and may potentially reduce the risk of SARS-CoV-2 aerosolization and transmission during upper airway mucosal surgery.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

This work has never been published or presented anywhere. The authors declare no potential conflict of interest.

ORCID

Harman S. Parhar  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7975-8452>

REFERENCES

1. Chang D, Xu H, Rebaza A, Sharma L, Dela Cruz CS. Protecting health-care workers from subclinical coronavirus infection. *Lancet Respir Med*. 2020;8(3):e13. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600\(20\)30066-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2213-2600(20)30066-7).
2. Zou L, Ruan F, Huang M, et al. SARS-CoV-2 viral load in upper respiratory specimens of infected patients. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;382(12):1177-1179. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMc2001737>.
3. Lu D, Wang H, Yu R, Yang H, Zhao Y. Integrated infection control strategy to minimize nosocomial infection of coronavirus disease 2019 among ENT healthcare workers. *J Hosp Infect*. 2020;104:454-455. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2020.02.018>.
4. van Doremalen N, Bushmaker T, Morris DH, et al. Aerosol and surface stability of SARS-CoV-2 as compared with SARS-CoV-1. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;382:1564-1567. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMc2004973>.

5. Ong SWX, Tan YK, Chia PY, et al. Air, surface environmental, and personal protective equipment contamination by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) from a symptomatic patient. *JAMA*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.3227>.
6. Workman AD, Welling DB, Carter BS, et al. Endonasal instrumentation and aerosolization risk in the era of COVID-19: simulation, literature review, and proposed mitigation strategies. *Int Forum Allergy Rhinol*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1002/alr.22577>.
7. Chan JF-W, Yuan S, Kok K-H, et al. A familial cluster of pneumonia associated with the 2019 novel coronavirus indicating person-to-person transmission: a study of a family cluster. *Lancet*. 2020;395(10223):514-523. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30154-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30154-9).
8. Lai C-C, Liu YH, Wang C-Y, et al. Asymptomatic carrier state, acute respiratory disease, and pneumonia due to severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2): facts and myths. *J Microbiol Immunol Infect*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmii.2020.02.012>.
9. Rothe C, Schunk M, Sothmann P, et al. Transmission of 2019-nCoV infection from an asymptomatic contact in Germany. *N Engl J Med*. 2020;382(10):970-971. <https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMc2001468>.
10. Liang W, Guan W, Chen R, et al. Cancer patients in SARS-CoV-2 infection: a nationwide analysis in China. *Lancet Oncol*. 2020;21(3):335-337. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045\(20\)30096-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045(20)30096-6).
11. To KK-W, Tsang OT-Y, Chik-Yan Yip C, et al. Consistent detection of 2019 novel coronavirus in saliva. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciaa149>.
12. Givi B, Schiff BA, Chinn SB, et al. Safety recommendations for evaluation and surgery of the head and neck during the COVID-19 pandemic. *JAMA Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoto.2020.0780>.
13. Vukkadala N, Qian ZJ, Holsinger FC, Patel ZM, Rosenthal E. COVID-19 and the otolaryngologist—preliminary evidence-based review. *Laryngoscope*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1002/lary.28672>.
14. Berkelman RL, Holland BW, Anderson RL. Increased bactericidal activity of dilute preparations of povidone-iodine solutions. *J Clin Microbiol*. 1982;15(4):635-639.
15. Kawana R, Kitamura T, Nakagomi O, et al. Inactivation of human viruses by povidone-iodine in comparison with other antiseptics. *Dermatology (Basel)*. 1997;195(suppl 2):29-35. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000246027>.
16. Kariwa H, Fujii N, Takashima I. Inactivation of SARS coronavirus by means of povidone-iodine, physical conditions and chemical reagents. *Dermatology (Basel)*. 2006;212(suppl 1):119-123. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000089211>.
17. Eggers M, Eickmann M, Zorn J. Rapid and effective virucidal activity of povidone-iodine products against Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) and modified vaccinia virus Ankara (MVA). *Infect Dis Ther*. 2015;4(4):491-501. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40121-015-0091-9>.
18. Eggers M, Koburger-Janssen T, Eickmann M, Zorn J. In vitro bactericidal and virucidal efficacy of povidone-iodine gargle/mouthwash against respiratory and oral tract pathogens. *Infect Dis Ther*. 2018;7(2):249-259. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40121-018-0200-7>.
19. Shiraishi T, Nakagawa Y. Evaluation of the bactericidal activity of povidone-iodine and commercially available gargle preparations. *Dermatol (Basel)*. 2002;204(suppl 1):37-41. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000057723>.
20. Nagatake T, Ahmed K, Oishi K. Prevention of respiratory infections by povidone-iodine gargle. *Dermatol (Basel)*. 2002; 204(suppl 1):32-36. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000057722>.
21. Tsuda S, Soutome S, Hayashida S, Funahara M, Yanamoto S, Umeda M. Topical povidone iodine inhibits bacterial growth in the oral cavity of patients on mechanical ventilation: a randomized controlled study. *BMC Oral Health*. 2020;20(1):62. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12903-020-1043-7>.
22. Okuda M, Kaneko Y, Ichinohe T, Ishihara K, Okuda K. Reduction of potential respiratory pathogens by oral hygienic treatment in patients undergoing endotracheal anesthesia. *J Anesth*. 2003;17(2):84-91. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s005400300022>.
23. Seguin P, Tanguy M, Laviolle B, Tirel O, Mallédant Y. Effect of oropharyngeal decontamination by povidone-iodine on ventilator-associated pneumonia in patients with head trauma. *Crit Care Med*. 2006;34(5):1514-1519. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.CCM.0000214516.73076.82>.
24. Adamietz IA, Rahn R, Böttcher HD, Schäfer V, Reimer K, Fleischer W. Prophylaxis with povidone-iodine against induction of oral mucositis by radiochemotherapy. *Support Care Cancer*. 1998;6(4):373-377. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s005200050179>.
25. Ader AW, Paul TL, Reinhardt W, et al. Effect of mouth rinsing with two polyvinylpyrrolidone-iodine mixtures on iodine absorption and thyroid function. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1988;66(3):632-635. <https://doi.org/10.1210/jcem-66-3-632>.
26. Panchmatia R, Payandeh J, Al-Salman R, et al. The efficacy of diluted topical povidone-iodine rinses in the management of recalcitrant chronic rhinosinusitis: a prospective cohort study. *Eur Arch Otorhinolaryngol*. 2019;276(12):3373-3381. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00405-019-05628-w>.
27. Ramezanpour M, Smith JLP, Psaltis AJ, Wormald PJ, Vreugde S. In vitro safety evaluation of a povidone-iodine solution applied to human nasal epithelial cells. *Int Forum Allergy Rhinol*. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1002/alr.22575>.
28. Kim JH, Rimmer J, Mrad N, Ahmadzada S, Harvey RJ. Betadine has a ciliotoxic effect on ciliated human respiratory cells. *J Laryngol Otol*. 2015;129(suppl 1):S45-S50. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0022215114002746>.
29. Gluck U, Martin U, Bosse B, Reimer K, Mueller S. A clinical study on the tolerability of a liposomal povidone-iodine nasal spray: implications for further development. *ORL J Otorhinolaryngol Relat Spec*. 2007;69(2):92-99. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000097758>.
30. Safety & Efficacy Information 3M Skin and Nasal Antiseptic; 2015. <https://multimedia.3m.com/mws/media/7167880/3m-skin-and-nasal-antiseptic-safety-and-efficacy-brochure.pdf>. Accessed April 6, 2020.
31. Singh S, Blakley B. Systematic review of ototoxic pre-surgical antiseptic preparations—what is the evidence? *J Otolaryngol Head Neck Surg*. 2018;47(1):18. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40463-018-0265-z>.
32. Ferguson AW, Scott JA, McGavigan J, et al. Comparison of 5% povidone-iodine solution against 1% povidone-iodine solution in preoperative cataract surgery antiseptics: a prospective randomised double blind study. *Br J Ophthalmol*. 2003;87(2): 163-167. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bjo.87.2.163>.

33. Hemani ML, Lepor H. Skin preparation for the prevention of surgical site infection: which agent is best? *Rev Urol*. 2009;11(4):190-195.
34. Gultz J, Kaim JM, DeLeo J, Scherer W. An in vivo comparison of the antimicrobial activities of three mouthrinses. *J Clin Dent*. 1998;9(2):43-45.
35. Bailey A, Longson M. Virucidal activity of chlorhexidine on strains of herpesvirus hominis, poliovirus, and adenovirus. *J Clin Pathol*. 1972;25(1):76-78. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jcp.25.1.76>.
36. Bernstein D, Schiff G, Echler G, Prince A, Feller M, Briner W. In vitro virucidal effectiveness of a 0.12%-chlorhexidine gluconate mouthrinse. *J Dent Res*. 1990;69(3):874-876. <https://doi.org/10.1177/00220345900690030901>.
37. Baqui AA, Kelley JI, Jabra-Rizk MA, Depaola LG, Falkler WA, Meiller TF. In vitro effect of oral antiseptics on human immunodeficiency virus-1 and herpes simplex virus type 1. *J Clin Periodontol*. 2001;28(7):610-616. <https://doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-051x.2001.028007610.x>.
38. Geller C, Varbanov M, Duval RE. Human coronaviruses: insights into environmental resistance and its influence on the development of new antiseptic strategies. *Viruses*. 2012;4(11):3044-3068. <https://doi.org/10.3390/v4113044>.
39. Kampf G, Todt D, Pfaender S, Steinmann E. Persistence of coronaviruses on inanimate surfaces and their inactivation with biocidal agents. *J Hosp Infect*. 2020;104(3):246-251. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhin.2020.01.022>.

How to cite this article: Parhar HS, Tasche K, Brody RM, et al. Topical preparations to reduce SARS-CoV-2 aerosolization in head and neck mucosal surgery. *Head & Neck*. 2020;42:1268–1272. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hed.26200>