

Mechanism and Efficacy Analysis of Minocycline Hydrochloride Combined with Metronidazole in the Treatment of Periodontitis

Xiaohan Wang*

School of Stomatology, Nanchang University, Nanchang 330031, China

**Corresponding author: Xiaohan Wang.*

Abstract

Periodontitis is a chronic infectious disease initiated by dental plaque biofilm and characterized by the gradual destruction of periodontal supporting tissues. As one of the primary causes of tooth loss in adults, it affects a large proportion of the global population and has been linked to a range of systemic diseases, creating a considerable public health burden. Conventional mechanical therapy and single-agent drug treatment remain widely used, but their clinical effectiveness is often limited, particularly in patients with persistent or recurrent disease. This review examines the pathogenesis of periodontitis and discusses the pharmacological rationale for combining metronidazole with minocycline hydrochloride. Available evidence regarding clinical efficacy, therapeutic advantages, and possible optimization strategies is also summarized, with comparisons made between combination therapy and traditional monotherapy. Current findings suggest that the combined regimen provides broader antimicrobial coverage and may achieve more consistent clinical outcomes in the management of periodontitis. Nevertheless, concerns related to long-term antibiotic use, including antimicrobial resistance and adverse reactions, remain unresolved. The limitations of the combined approach are therefore considered, and several potential directions for future research are outlined to support the development of more effective and rational treatment strategies for periodontitis.

Keywords

periodontitis, metronidazole, minocycline hydrochloride, combination therapy, mechanism and efficacy analysis

1. Introduction

Periodontitis is a chronic oral disease associated with specific pathogenic microorganisms within dental plaque biofilms. Its development is not simply the result of bacterial colonization; rather, tissue destruction occurs through a complex interaction between microbial infection and host immune responses. Persistent inflammation can gradually damage the periodontal supporting structures, including the gingiva, periodontal ligament, and alveolar bone, ultimately leading to irreversible periodontal breakdown [1].

The disease represents a major global oral health challenge. Epidemiological investigations conducted between 2011 and 2020 reported an overall prevalence of approximately 62%, while severe forms of periodontitis affected nearly one-quarter of the population worldwide [2]. In recent years, increasing attention has also been paid to the relationship between periodontitis and systemic health. Evidence suggests that periodontal inflammation is closely linked to conditions such as cardiovascular disease and diabetes and may contribute to broader systemic inflammatory processes. Consequently, the prevention and management of periodontitis have implications that extend beyond the maintenance of oral health alone.

Current treatment strategies primarily focus on controlling infection, limiting inflammatory destruction, and preserving or restoring periodontal tissue function. Subgingival scaling and root planing remain the cornerstone of periodontal therapy because they effectively remove dental plaque and calculus from the root surface. Nevertheless, complete elimination of pathogenic microorganisms is often difficult to achieve through mechanical debridement alone, particularly in anatomically complex sites such as furcation areas and root concavities. For this reason, adjunctive antimicrobial therapy is frequently incorporated into clinical treatment protocols.

Among the antibiotics commonly used in periodontal therapy, metronidazole exhibits strong activity against anaerobic bacteria and has demonstrated effectiveness against major periodontal pathogens, including *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and *Tannerella forsythia*. However, its therapeutic effect may be limited when administered as a single agent [3]. Minocycline hydrochloride, a semisynthetic tetracycline derivative, possesses broad-spectrum antibacterial activity and can inhibit bacterial protein synthesis. In addition to its antimicrobial properties, it has been reported to reduce collagenase activity and help limit periodontal tissue destruction, thereby supporting the healing process [4]. Owing to their complementary pharmacological characteristics, the combination of metronidazole and minocycline hydrochloride has attracted increasing attention in the treatment of periodontitis.

Against this background, the present review examines the pathological basis of periodontitis and discusses the mechanisms and clinical applications of combined metronidazole and minocycline hydrochloride therapy. Particular attention is given to its therapeutic advantages, current limitations, and potential directions for future optimization in periodontal treatment.

2. Pathogenesis of Periodontitis and Treatment Principles

Dental plaque is widely recognized as the principal etiological factor in periodontitis. It consists of a complex microbial biofilm in which Gram-negative anaerobic bacteria play a particularly important role in disease initiation and progression [5]. Under normal conditions, oral microorganisms coexist with the host immune system in a relatively stable state. As plaque accumulates and remains undisturbed, however, bacterial colonization increases and the local microbial environment becomes progressively dysbiotic. Mineralization of plaque into dental calculus further promotes plaque retention and sustains chronic irritation of the periodontal tissues.

The progression of periodontitis is driven not only by bacterial infection itself but also by the host inflammatory response. Bacterial stimulation activates immune cells and induces the release of inflammatory mediators, including tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) and interleukin-6 (IL-6). Although these mediators contribute to antimicrobial defense, excessive or prolonged inflammatory activity may result in collateral damage to surrounding periodontal tissues [6]. Current evidence suggests that disruption of immune homeostasis is a key mechanism underlying periodontal tissue destruction.

Several anaerobic pathogens have been strongly associated with periodontitis, particularly *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Tannerella forsythia*, and *Treponema denticola*. These microorganisms can colonize periodontal pockets and produce a range of virulence factors, toxins, and proteolytic enzymes that contribute to tissue breakdown. At the same time, their presence perpetuates local immune activation. Chronic inflammation may eventually impair host defense capacity, while some inflammatory mediators can enter the systemic circulation and contribute to oxidative stress and inflammatory responses beyond the oral cavity.

The development of periodontitis is also influenced by a variety of local and systemic risk factors. Local conditions such as food impaction and occlusal abnormalities may facilitate plaque accumulation and periodontal irritation. Systemic factors are likewise important. Smoking has been shown to impair local blood

supply and reduce the effectiveness of immune cell function, whereas poor glycemic control in patients with diabetes can aggravate plaque accumulation and amplify inflammatory responses [7]. The interaction between these factors often accelerates periodontal breakdown and increases the risk of tooth mobility and eventual tooth loss.

Given the multifactorial nature of the disease, periodontal treatment is primarily directed toward infection control and the preservation of periodontal tissues. Subgingival scaling and root planing remain the cornerstone of therapy because they effectively remove plaque and calculus deposits. Nevertheless, complete elimination of pathogenic microorganisms can be difficult in anatomically complex sites, including deep periodontal pockets and furcation regions. Adjunctive antibiotic therapy is therefore frequently employed to enhance bacterial control. In addition to reducing the microbial burden, certain antimicrobial agents may help limit excessive inflammatory responses and thereby reduce tissue destruction. However, concerns regarding antimicrobial resistance and treatment-related adverse effects continue to restrict the long-term use of antibiotics. Despite substantial advances in periodontal therapy, predictable regeneration of severely damaged periodontal tissues remains challenging, and the restoration of lost periodontal structures continues to be an important area of clinical and research interest.

3. Mechanisms Underlying the Combined Use of Minocycline Hydrochloride and Metronidazole in Periodontitis Treatment

Metronidazole is a nitroimidazole antimicrobial agent with pronounced activity against anaerobic bacteria. Under anaerobic conditions, its nitro group is reduced to reactive metabolites that interfere with bacterial DNA synthesis and ultimately disrupt cellular replication and transcription. Major periodontal pathogens, including *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and *Prevotella intermedia*, are generally susceptible to metronidazole, making it a frequently used adjunct in periodontal therapy. In addition to its antimicrobial effects, metronidazole has been reported to reduce leukocyte chemotaxis and limit the release of certain inflammatory mediators, which may contribute to the control of local periodontal inflammation. Nevertheless, its antibacterial spectrum remains relatively restricted, and monotherapy may be insufficient in the presence of complex polymicrobial infections [3].

Minocycline hydrochloride, a semisynthetic tetracycline derivative, exerts its antibacterial activity primarily through binding to the 30S ribosomal subunit and inhibiting bacterial protein synthesis. Compared with metronidazole, it exhibits a broader antimicrobial spectrum and can suppress a variety of periodontal pathogens, including *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Prevotella melaninogenica*, and *Eikenella corrodens*, as well as certain facultative anaerobic and aerobic bacteria. Beyond its direct antibacterial activity, minocycline hydrochloride has attracted attention for several host-modulating effects. In particular, inhibition of matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), especially collagenase, may help reduce collagen degradation and slow connective tissue destruction. Experimental and clinical studies have also suggested a potential role in supporting periodontal ligament cell attachment and proliferation, processes that are important for periodontal healing and regeneration. When administered locally in sustained-release formulations, therapeutic drug concentrations can be maintained within periodontal pockets for extended periods, improving local drug availability and reducing the need for frequent administration [8].

The rationale for combining metronidazole with minocycline hydrochloride lies in their complementary pharmacological characteristics. Metronidazole primarily targets obligate anaerobes, whereas minocycline hydrochloride covers a broader range of microorganisms. Their combined use may therefore improve control of the diverse microbial populations that inhabit periodontal pockets [9]. The two agents also act through distinct biological pathways. While metronidazole interferes with bacterial DNA synthesis, minocycline hydrochloride suppresses protein synthesis and modulates tissue-destructive enzymes. Such differences suggest the possibility of additive or synergistic therapeutic effects, involving both bacterial suppression and protection of periodontal tissues.

Another potential advantage of the combination is the prolonged local activity provided by sustained-release minocycline formulations. This characteristic may compensate for the relatively limited duration of action associated with metronidazole and help maintain stable antimicrobial pressure within periodontal pockets [3, 8]. Evidence from clinical studies has further indicated that combined treatment may be associated

with reductions in inflammatory mediators such as TNF- α and IL-6, reflecting an attenuation of the inflammatory response accompanying periodontal disease [10].

Oxidative stress has increasingly been recognized as an important component of periodontitis pathogenesis. Patients with periodontitis often exhibit elevated levels of reactive oxygen species together with impaired antioxidant defense mechanisms. By reducing bacterial burden and inflammatory activity, the combined use of metronidazole and minocycline hydrochloride may contribute indirectly to the alleviation of oxidative stress, thereby limiting further periodontal tissue injury.

Taken together, available evidence suggests that the combination of minocycline hydrochloride and metronidazole offers potential advantages over single-agent therapy. In addition to broader antimicrobial coverage, the regimen may contribute to inflammatory control, inhibition of tissue-destructive enzymes, and support of periodontal healing processes. Although the precise magnitude of these benefits may vary across patient populations and treatment settings, the combination has emerged as a promising adjunctive approach in the management of chronic periodontitis.

4. Clinical Evidence and Therapeutic Optimization of Combination Therapy

4.1 Clinical Efficacy of Combination Therapy

An increasing number of clinical studies have evaluated the use of minocycline hydrochloride in combination with metronidazole for the management of periodontitis. Overall, available evidence indicates that combined therapy may provide greater clinical benefits than either agent used alone, particularly with respect to periodontal parameters and inflammatory status.

One randomized controlled trial enrolled 70 patients with chronic periodontitis, all of whom received basic mechanical periodontal treatment before drug intervention. Patients in the control group were treated with either minocycline hydrochloride or metronidazole alone for four consecutive weeks, whereas those in the observation group received additional metronidazole adhesive patches during the same treatment period. After four weeks, notable improvements were observed in several clinical indicators among patients receiving combination therapy. The gingival bleeding index decreased from 3.12 to 1.15, probing depth was reduced from 6.18 mm to 3.95 mm, TNF- α levels declined from 5.75 to 2.89, and IL-6 levels fell from 6.35 to 2.36. The reported overall response rate was also higher in the combination group than in the monotherapy group (82.86% vs. 57.14%, $P < 0.05$), while no increase in adverse reactions was observed [11]. These findings suggest that the complementary antibacterial activities of the two drugs may contribute to more effective microbial control and improved management of periodontal inflammation.

Changes in inflammatory biomarkers provide additional support for the potential advantages of combination therapy. TNF- α and IL-6 are widely regarded as important mediators of periodontal inflammation, influencing immune cell activation, osteoclast differentiation, and tissue destruction. Reductions in these cytokines may therefore reflect improvements in both local periodontal conditions and systemic inflammatory status [9]. Several studies have reported greater decreases in inflammatory marker levels following combined treatment than after monotherapy, although the magnitude of these effects varies across study populations. Such observations suggest that the combined regimen may exert benefits beyond direct antimicrobial activity by influencing host inflammatory responses. Improvements in oxidative stress status have also been reported, potentially creating a more favorable environment for periodontal tissue healing.

Safety remains an important consideration in the clinical use of antibiotics. Current evidence indicates that the incidence of adverse reactions associated with combination therapy is generally comparable to that observed with single-drug treatment, suggesting acceptable tolerability in most patients [12]. A retrospective case-control study conducted at Zhejiang University included 86 patients with periodontitis who were assigned either to a minocycline hydrochloride monotherapy group or to a combined treatment group receiving both minocycline hydrochloride and metronidazole. Following four weeks of treatment, adverse events such as vomiting and diarrhea occurred at similar rates in the two groups (11.63% vs. 4.65%), and no statistically significant difference was reported [13]. These findings imply that improved therapeutic outcomes may be achieved without a corresponding increase in treatment-related safety concerns.

The favorable safety profile of the combined regimen may partly be explained by the route of drug administration. Minocycline hydrochloride is commonly delivered locally into periodontal pockets, resulting in limited systemic exposure. Metronidazole, although administered orally, is generally well tolerated when used for short treatment courses according to standard clinical protocols. Nevertheless, careful monitoring remains necessary, particularly in patients who require repeated or prolonged antimicrobial treatment.

4.2 Limitations and Optimization of Combination Therapy

Although the combination of minocycline hydrochloride and metronidazole has shown encouraging clinical results, several limitations should still be considered. One of the major concerns relates to the long-term use of antibiotics and the potential emergence of antimicrobial resistance. Combination therapy may reduce selective pressure on individual bacterial species compared with single-drug treatment; however, inappropriate prescribing practices or unnecessarily prolonged treatment courses can still contribute to the development of resistant microorganisms [14].

Patient selection also warrants careful consideration. The therapeutic benefits of combination therapy may not be equally applicable to all individuals with periodontitis. Patients with a history of hypersensitivity to either drug require particular attention, and treatment decisions should be made after a comprehensive evaluation of potential risks and benefits [15]. In addition, while antimicrobial therapy can effectively reduce bacterial load and control inflammation, its ability to restore already damaged periodontal structures remains limited. Alveolar bone loss, periodontal attachment destruction, and other advanced tissue changes often require additional regenerative approaches. Consequently, achieving predictable periodontal regeneration continues to represent a significant challenge in contemporary periodontal therapy.

Given these considerations, optimization of treatment strategies remains an important area of clinical interest. Current evidence generally supports the use of antibiotics as adjuncts to mechanical periodontal therapy rather than as routine first-line interventions. The decision to initiate antimicrobial treatment should ideally take into account disease severity, microbiological findings, previous treatment history, and individual patient characteristics. Such an approach may help maximize therapeutic benefit while minimizing unnecessary antibiotic exposure.

The method of drug delivery may also influence treatment outcomes. Sustained-release local formulations of minocycline hydrochloride are often preferred because they can maintain therapeutic concentrations within periodontal pockets while limiting systemic drug exposure [8]. The dosage and duration of metronidazole treatment should likewise be tailored according to the patient's clinical condition and overall health status. Attention should also be paid to potential drug interactions, particularly in patients receiving multiple medications. Careful treatment planning and appropriate monitoring may improve treatment effectiveness while reducing the likelihood of adverse reactions and antimicrobial resistance.

5. Conclusion

Periodontitis is a multifactorial infectious disease, and its management has long relied on a combination of mechanical debridement and adjunctive pharmacological approaches. In this context, the combined use of minocycline hydrochloride and metronidazole has received increasing attention because it targets both microbial infection and inflammatory processes. Overall, the available evidence suggests that this combination may offer certain advantages over single-agent therapy. The two drugs act on different bacterial targets and, to some extent, through different pharmacological pathways, which may help improve bacterial control in periodontal pockets and reduce inflammatory activity. Clinical studies have generally reported better periodontal parameters with combination therapy, although the degree of benefit is not entirely consistent across studies and patient populations.

At the same time, it is difficult to ignore the limitations associated with current evidence. Differences in dosage regimens, treatment duration, and patient selection make it hard to establish a unified standard for clinical use. In addition, most existing studies are relatively short-term, and long-term outcomes, particularly regarding recurrence and resistance development, remain insufficiently clarified. The issue of antibiotic resistance is also still present in the background of repeated or inappropriate use. For these reasons, combination therapy is probably better viewed as an adjunct rather than a definitive solution in periodontal

treatment. Its use tends to be more appropriate in cases with persistent infection or more advanced periodontal destruction, where mechanical therapy alone is not sufficient.

Looking forward, periodontal therapy is likely to continue moving toward more individualized and multidisciplinary approaches. Antimicrobial strategies will probably become more precise, with greater attention to timing, dosage, and delivery methods. At the same time, regenerative approaches such as tissue engineering and biologically active scaffolds are gradually being explored, although their clinical applicability is still developing and not yet fully established.

Overall, while the combination of minocycline hydrochloride and metronidazole appears to be a useful option in specific clinical situations, it should be integrated cautiously into a broader treatment framework rather than considered a standalone solution.

References

- [1] Agnese, C. C. D., Schöffner, C., Kantorski, K. Z., Zanatta, F. B., Susin, C., & Antoniazzi, R. P. (2025). Periodontitis and oral health-related quality of life: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Clinical Periodontology*, 52(3), 408-420.
- [2] Zhang, X., Wang, X., Wu, J., et al. (2024). The global burden of periodontal diseases in 204 countries and territories from 1990 to 2019. *Oral Diseases*, 30(2), 754-768.
- [3] Geng, Y. J., Wang, C. Y., & Geng, Y. Q. (2024). Clinical study of metronidazole combined with minocycline hydrochloride ointment in the treatment of chronic periodontitis. *Shenzhen Journal of Integrated Traditional Chinese and Western Medicine*, 34(07), 113-116. <https://doi.org/10.16458/j.cnki.1007-0893.2024.07.033>.
- [4] Jiao, J., Zhang, S. H., Zhang, H. W., et al. (2022). Efficacy of minocycline hydrochloride ointment combined with metronidazole medicinal film in the treatment of periodontitis and its effect on levels of C-reactive protein and elastase in gingival crevicular fluid. *Chinese Community Doctors*, 29(3), 402-406.
- [5] Li, Y. Q., Fu, Y. N., Zhang, L. J., et al. (2023). Significance of TGF- β 1, TNF- α , and VEGF in chronic periodontitis. *Medical Information*, 36(23), 88-91.
- [6] Cai, M. (2021). Analysis of the therapeutic value of Cydiodine buccal tablets combined with hyaluronic acid gel for chronic periodontitis. *Drug and Clinic*, 21(08), 1316-1318.
- [7] Hou, M. Y. (2025). Construction and validation of a risk prediction model for chronic periodontitis in community-dwelling middle-aged and elderly people (Doctoral dissertation). Southern Medical University. <https://doi.org/10.27003/d.cnki.gojyu.2025.001648>.
- [8] Mao, T. T., Huang, L., Peng, R. B., et al. (2021). Effects of minocycline hydrochloride ointment assisted subgingival scaling and root planing on subgingival periodontal pathogens and inflammatory factors in gingival crevicular fluid of patients with chronic periodontitis. *Progress in Modern Biomedicine*, 21(04), 650-653+672. <https://doi.org/10.13241/j.cnki.pmb.2021.04.010>.
- [9] Shen, Y. B. (2026). Effects of minocycline hydrochloride combined with metronidazole on gingival bleeding index and plaque index in patients with chronic periodontitis. *China Repository of Pharmaceutical Knowledge*, 1-5. <https://link.cnki.net/urlid/11.9119.R.20260304.1025.004>.
- [10] Liu, H., Wang, N., & Zhao, H. B. (2024). Therapeutic effect of metronidazole medicinal film combined with minocycline hydrochloride ointment on periodontitis and its influence on elastase. *Systems Medicine*, 9(14), 163-166. <https://doi.org/10.19368/j.cnki.2096-1782.2024.14.163>.
- [11] Wang, J. H., Zhang, X. S., & Yuan, M. H. (2024). Clinical efficacy and safety analysis of metronidazole combined with minocycline hydrochloride for chronic periodontitis. *Chinese Journal of Drug Application and Monitoring*, 21(09), 34-38.
- [12] Shi, T. (2024). Efficacy of minocycline hydrochloride ointment combined with metronidazole in the treatment of periodontitis and its influence on periodontal indexes. *China Prescription Drug*, 22(07), 120-123.

- [13] Jin, E. W., & Wu, Y. M. (2026). Effects of metronidazole tablets combined with minocycline hydrochloride ointment on oral environment and periodontal index in the treatment of periodontitis. *Journal of Clinical Rational Drug Use*, 19(02), 133-135+147. <https://doi.org/10.15887/j.cnki.13-1389/r.2026.02.039>.
- [14] He, P. (2018). Comparison of efficacy between minocycline hydrochloride and metronidazole sticks in the treatment of periodontitis. *China Modern Medicine*, 25(29), 100-102.
- [15] Huang, Q. Y., & Chen, Y. Y. (2022). Clinical efficacy of metronidazole combined with minocycline hydrochloride ointment in the treatment of chronic periodontitis. *Chinese Journal of Clinical Rational Drug Use*, 15(36), 154-156+160. <https://doi.org/10.15887/j.cnki.13-1389/r.2022.36.046>.

Funding

This research received no external funding.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgment

This paper is an output of the science project.

Open Access

This chapter is licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), which permits any noncommercial use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license and indicate if changes were made.

The images or other third party material in this chapter are included in the chapter's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the chapter's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder.

