

CLINICAL STUDY

Efficiency of photodynamic inactivation *Actinomyces israelii* and *Prevotella melaninogenica*

Iryna VORONKINA¹, Adriana LIPTAKOVA¹, Valentina DYACHENKO²,
Svetlana DERKACH², Nadejda SKLYAR²

Institute of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Comenius University Bratislava and University Hospital Bratislava, Bratislava, Slovakia. adriana.liptakova@fmed.uniba.sk

ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND: The goal of our work was to develop a composition for antimicrobial photodynamic inactivation (aPDI) of anaerobic periodontopathogenic pathogens.

METHODS: The three test groups were as follows: light plus doxycycline (L+DOX+), light plus doxycycline and hypericin (L + DOX + HYP +), and control groups. aPDI was evaluated by the number of grown colonies on a dense nutrient medium after 12, 24, and 48 hours of bacterial suspension cultivation.

RESULTS: Based on the results of microbiological studies, the combined photosensitising effect of a subinhibitory dose of doxycycline and hypericin was determined. The delay of growth of *A. israelii*, *P. melaninogenica* in the second group (L+DOX+HYP) was significantly significant compared to the first group (L+DOX+), and the statistical difference in colony formation activity was found for both gram-positive and gram-negative cultures (p<0.05).

CONCLUSIONS: aPDI is a promising therapeutic alternative for the local treatment of purulent-inflammatory diseases of various localisation caused by antibiotic-resistant bacteria, including in the oral cavity (Fig. 3, Ref. 57). Text in PDF www.elis.sk

KEY WORDS: peri-implant diseases, photodynamic therapy, photosensitiser, anaerobic bacteria.

Introduction

One of the most common diseases facing dentists recently is inflammatory and dystrophic periodontal disease. According to the WHO, severe periodontal disease is widespread and affects 19% of people over 15 years of age, which is more than 1 billion cases worldwide (1, 2).

The experience of studying the etiology of inflammatory periodontal diseases accumulated over the past decades shows the leading role of the facultatively anaerobic obligate and microaerophilic microflora in the development of inflammatory processes in the oral cavity. Currently, such microorganisms as *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans*, *Actinomyces naeslundii*, *Tannerella forsythia*, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Prevotella intermedia*, *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, *Treponema denticola*, as well as *Parvimonas micra*

have been proven etiological in the development of inflammatory and dystrophic periodontal diseases (3–6).

Systemic antibiotic therapy is one of the additional methods of periodontal treatment (7–9). One of the negative consequences of antibiotic use is the selection of polyresistant strains of microorganisms. According to scientists' predictions, the constant increase in the resistance of pathogenic agents to the action of antibiotics causes the threat of the "end of the antibiotic era". The search for ways to solve this problem encourages the creation/study of new alternative methods of fighting infections, which allow the destruction of pathogens with multiple antimicrobial resistance but do not themselves lead to the development of such resistance (10–14).

aPDI of microorganisms is considered one of these methods, which in its essence is the selective oxidative destruction of microorganisms due to the combined effect of a photosensitiser (PS) and radiation of a certain wavelength that corresponds to its absorption spectrum. When local irradiation is performed with light of a certain wavelength, PS goes into an excited state and transfers energy to the third component, oxygen. The interaction of these components provides the fundamental photobiological process on which aPDI is based. In microbial cells, a photochemical reaction begins with the formation of singlet oxygen and oxygenfree radicals, creating a toxic effect on pathogenic microorganisms (15, 16). Microorganisms don't develop resistance to photodynamic exposure; the bactericidal effect is local, limited to the area of laser irradiation of tissues, and does not create a harmful effect on the normal microflora of the human body. All this reveals broad prospects for the improvement and spread of the aPDI method

¹Institute of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Comenius University Bratislava and University Hospital Bratislava, Bratislava, Slovakia, and

²Laboratory of anaerobic infection, State Institution I. Mechnikov Institute of Microbiology and Immunology National Academy of Medical Sciences of Ukraine, Kharkiv, Ukraine

Address for correspondence: Adriana LIPTAKOVA, MD, Assoc Prof, PhD, MPH, Institute of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Comenius University, Bratislava, Sasinkova 4, SK-811 08 Bratislava, Slovakia. Phone: +02/9011 9315

Acknowledgements: This research was funded by the EU NextGenerationEU through the Recovery and Resilience Plan for Slovakia under the project No. 09I03-03-V01-00109 and National Academy of Medical Science of Ukraine. The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

for the treatment of purulent inflammatory diseases of various localisations (17–19).

Various compounds are most often used as PS, which have intense absorption bands in the visible and ultraviolet regions of the spectrum and are capable of transitioning into long-lasting triplet states after exposure to light. An ideal photosensitizer should be non-toxic and exhibit local toxicity only after activation by light. Today, more than 1000 compounds are known, which are considered PS. Among them are specially developed dyes and traditional drugs capable of performing PS functions and are used for aPDT). Natural products are also used: hypericin, riboflavin, and curcumin (20–21).

An important role in the development of aPDI was played by the discovery of radiationsensitive, phototoxic properties of natural antibiotics of the tetracycline group. It has been confirmed that tetracyclines have PS properties and are activated under the influence of blue or ultraviolet radiation. Most drugs of this group have an absorption peak in the UV spectrum. The antibiotic doxycycline, like tetracycline, has a bacteriostatic effect; in experiments on *A. actinomycetemcomitans*, it was proven that doxycycline can block collagenase enzymes and inhibit the growth of these bacteria. Also, doxycycline can act as an exogenous photosensitizer at a wavelength of 375–780 nm. The study of the chemical processes of photosensitivity of tetracyclines showed that they can act as light-activated antibiotics due to the participation of oxygen-dependent and independent mechanisms. Covalent bonds appear between the PS molecule and the microbial structure, which can be called the creation of “photoadducts” (22–23).

Nowadays, biologically active substances of plant origin are part of many drugs. St. John’s wort (*Hypericum perforatum L.*), which is widely used worldwide, can be a source of such compounds. The red pigment of St. John’s wort (hypericin) exhibits photosensitising properties, and by its nature is a condensed derivative of anthraquinone. It was established that such derivatives have a chromophoric groups of atoms in their composition, because of which they can be widely used as PS in the treatment of various diseases, including oncological. The quantitative content of hypericin in different types of St. John’s wort ranges from 0.03% to 0.34% (24–25). However, the use of hypericin, as a biological compound in a chemically pure form, is hindered by the possibility of unwanted side effects. Hypericin in its pure chemical form has been established to be phototoxic to human skin and eyes, can lead to macular degeneration, and has other toxic properties (26).

We aimed to develop a composition for aPDI of anaerobic periodontopathogens, which, because of the use of natural PS and a photosensitive antibiotic, will ensure the effectiveness of the reaction regardless of the presence of oxygen in the tissues.

Materials and methods

Growth and culture conditions of *A. israelii* and *P. melaninogenica*

We selected two types of bacteria for experiencing the genus *Actinomyces* and *Prevotella* (*A. israelii*, *P. melaninogenica*) which are periodontopathogens and have different tinctorial properties.

The strains were obtained from the SI «I. Mechnikov Institute of Microbiology and Immunology National Academy of Medical Sciences of Ukraine». *A. israelii* and *P. melaninogenica* were stored in Microbank™ and placed at –80°C until use. The agar plating medium used was Schaedler agar. The determination of biochemical activity of test cultures was carried out in Rapid ID 32A.

Preparation of the culture suspension for aPDI

The *A. israelii* and *P. melaninogenica* strains were grown for 24 hours on Schaedler agar at 37°C in anaerobic conditions. Microbial suspension for aPDI was prepared on phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) with a density of 0.5 McF ($5,0 \cdot 10^7$ CFU/ml *A. israelii*) and ($1,5 \cdot 10^8$ CFU/ml *P. melaninogenica*).

Preparation of PS

To conduct aPDI experiments, a stock solution of doxycycline in distilled water at a concentration of 100,0 mg/l was used, from which a series of tenfold dilutions were prepared and the minimal inhibition concentration was determined. Subinhibitory concentrations were used to establish the reaction aPDI, which were equal to 3,0 mg/l for *A. israelii* and 6,0 mg/l for *P. melaninogenica*. As an additional PS, a standardised alcoholic extract of St. John’s wort (*Hypericum perforatum L.*) containing hypericin in a concentration of at least 0.08% was used (27).

Source of radiation

The source of irradiation was a highly intense LED with a light wavelength of 460–480 nm and a radiation power of 1200 mW/cm². The LED was placed above the plate in such a way that the distance between the surface of the bacterial suspension and the light-emitting end was 4–5 mm, which allowed covering the entire well during irradiation. The duration of irradiation was 2 and 4 min (Fig. 1).

Photosensitisation procedure

The three test groups were as follows: light plus doxycycline (L+DOX+), light plus doxycycline and hypericin (L + DOX + HYP +), and control groups. In previous studies, we selected the optimal irradiation regimens for *A. israelii* and *P. melaninogenica*. We followed two groups: one light alone (L+PS–) and a second group without PS and light (L–PS–). The duration of irradiation was 2 min for *A. israelii* and 4 min for *P. melaninogenica* (28).

For the L+DOX+ group, a solution of doxycycline (3,0 mg/l) was added to the suspension of the daily culture of the studied strain of *A. israelii* in PSB. The bacteriological suspension was applied in triplicate wells on a 96 well flat bottomed plate in 200 µl portions and the culture was exposed to irradiation. Tablet with the bacterial suspension was cultivated under anaerobic conditions at 37°C. To carry out the aPDI reaction of *P. melaninogenica*, a doxycycline solution at a concentration of 6,0 mg/l was added to the daily culture suspension in PSB.

For the L + DOX + HIP + group, 100 µl of microbial suspension in PSB, 100 µl of doxycycline solution, and 100 µl of St. John’s wort alcoholic extract were added to the wells of



Fig. 1. The process of the irradiation of *A. israelii* with a blue laser ($\lambda=460\text{--}480\text{ nm}$, 1200 mW/cm^2).

a 96 well flat bottomed plate. Next, irradiation and cultivation was carried out.

aPDI was evaluated by the number of grown colonies on a dense nutrient medium after 12, 24, and 48 hours of bacterial suspension cultivation.

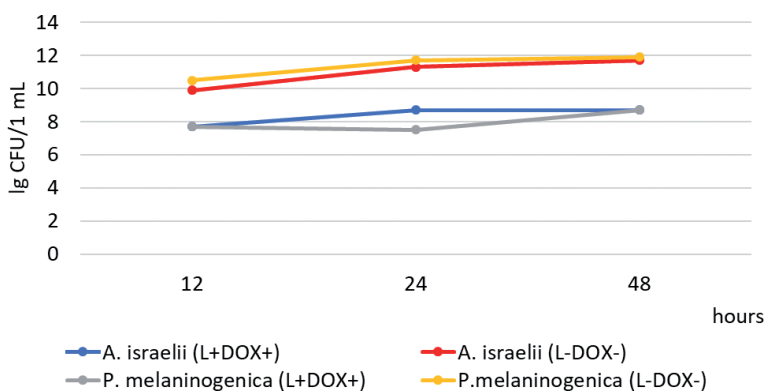


Fig. 2. Effectiveness of antimicrobial PDI of periodontopathogenic pathogens in the presence of doxycycline (CFU – colony forming unit; L+DOX+ – light plus doxycycline; L-DOX- – control group).

For the control group (L-PS-), 200 μ l of microbial suspension in PSB was introduced into the wells of a 96 well flat bottomed plate and incubated (37°C). The sowing of the control wells was carried out in parallel with the sowing of the studied wells.

Statistical analysis

Results were reported as mean values \pm standard deviations (SD) performed at least in triplicate ($n=3$). Significant differences were estimated by applying a t-test. In all cases, differences were considered significant at $p<0.05$. All statistical tests were performed with Microsoft Exel 2019.

Results

As the results of the study show, the effect of the combined action of irradiation and PS (doxycycline) was observed in the first observation group (L+DOX+). Thus, in experimental wells with *A. israelii* after 12 hours of incubation, the number of bacteria (lg CFU/1 mL) was 7.7 ± 0.8 , after 24 and 48 hours – 8.7 ± 0.3 , which was significantly less compared to the control wells that were not exposed to irradiation and PS action (Fig. 2). aPDI was also observed in wells with *P. melaninogenica*. After 12 hours of incubation, the number of colonies was 9.9 ± 0.5 lg CFU/1 mL, after 24 and 48 hours – 7.5 ± 0.3 and 8.7 ± 0.5 , which also significantly less compared to the control wells (in the control wells the number of bacteria was 10.5 ± 0.7 after 12 hours of cultivation; 11.7 ± 0.5 and 11.9 ± 0.5 after 24 and 48 hours of cultivation, respectively) ($p<0.05$).

The results obtained showed that the delay in culture growth, compared to the control, was observed after 12 hours of cultivation of the microbial suspension cultivation and was maintained throughout the observation period, that is, up to 48 hours. It should be noted that a statistical difference in colonyforming activity was found for both gram-positive and gram-negative cultures ($p<0.05$).

Thus, based on the results obtained, it can be stated that aPDI of periodontopathogenic cultures is possible when the antibiotic doxycycline is used as a PS even in anaerobic cultivation conditions, which is especially important for studies with anaerobic periodontopathogenic pathogens.

To obtain the optimal photosensitizing composition, we compared the effectiveness of two compositions. L+DOX+ and L+DOX+HYP+ (Fig. 3).

As can be seen from the results shown in Figure 3, the difference in the number of colonies between the culture inactivated in the presence of hypericin and the culture in which hypericin was not added was revealed after 12 hours of bacterial cultivation. Thus, in the first group (L+DOX+), the number of microorganisms *A. israelii* after 12 hours of incubation was 7.3 ± 0.2 lg CFU/1 mL, in the second group (L+DOX+HYP) – 6.5 ± 0.3 lg CFU/1 mL, seeds after 24 hours of incubation showed the number of bacteria in the first group 8.6 ± 0.3 lg CFU/1 mL, in the second – 4.5 ± 0.2 lg CFU/1 mL, the same trend was maintained in both groups was maintained even after 48 hours of incubation.

About *P. melaninogenica*, the photosensitising composition L+DOX+HYP was also several times more effective than the composition without hypericin after 12 hours of incubation. The number of bacteria when seeded after 12 hours in the first group was 7.8 ± 0.2 lg CFU/1 mL, in the second – 6.7 ± 0.4 lg CFU/1 mL, after 24 hours – 6.7 ± 0.4 and 4.3 ± 0.3 lg CFU/1 mL, respectively, after 48 hours – 7.7 ± 0.4 lg CFU/1 mL in the first group (L+DOX+) and 3.7 ± 0.3 lg CFU/1 mL in the second (L+DOX+HYP).

Therefore, it can be stated that the effect of the combined photosensitising effect of the sub-inhibitory dose of doxycycline and hypericin was observed during exposure to the cultures studied. The delay in the growth of cultures in the second group (L+DOX+HYP) was significantly significant compared to the first group (L+DOX+), the statistical difference in colonyforming activity was found for both gram-positive and gram-negative cultures ($p < 0.05$).

Discussion

Modern periodontal treatment consists of removing tartar, rinsing with antiseptics, and using systemic antibiotics. Among antiseptics, povidone-iodine, chlorhexidine, and sodium hypochlorite, which also have a hemostatic effect, are used actively in dentistry (29–34). Despite the high effectiveness of antiseptics, it is already known about the development of resistance to these drugs in representatives of the oral microbiome. *S. sanguinis*, *S. mitis*, *E. faecalis*, *Capnocytophaga spp.*, *P. gingivalis*, *A. actinomycetemcomitans*, *F. nucleatum*, and *C. albicans* isolates with reduced sensitivity to chlorhexidine were identified (35–38). The existence of microorganisms in the oral cavity in the form of a biofilm contributes to the development of resistance to antiseptics. Living in the deep layers of dental plaque, bacteria are less accessible to the action of antiseptics and can adapt to low concentrations of biocides, which contributes to resistance development of resistance (39, 40).

Antibacterial therapy is often used to treat inflammatory processes in periodontal tissues and can stop aggressive periodontitis. Systemic antibiotic therapy is prescribed simultaneously with mechanical treatment or immediately after it, using combinations of antibiotics amoxicillin-metronidazole, azithromycin-metronidazole, and clindamycin, which turned out to be more effective than regimens with doxycycline (41–43). To avoid the side effects of systemic antibiotic therapy, Szulc et al suggest a local application of antibiotics, directly in periodontal pockets (29). Considering the growth of antibiotic resistance of bacteria all over the world, there is a need to find therapeutic alternatives.

Interest in the possibility of using aPDT in dentistry has recently been growing, which is related to the safety of the method, ease of use, and lack of development of resistance in bacteria. aPDT studies include the study of the cytotoxicity of various PSs, their efficacy against biofilms, and their effects on macroorganism immunological responses. aPDT has already shown its effectiveness

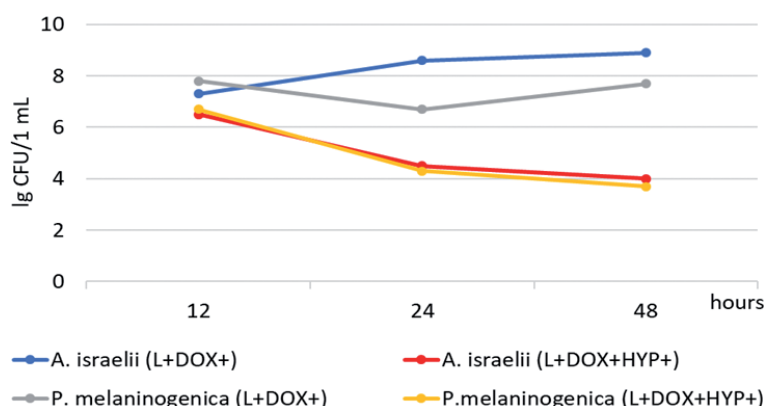


Fig. 3. Effectiveness of antimicrobial PDI of periodontopathogenic pathogens in the presence of doxycycline and hypericin (L+DOX+ – light plus doxycycline; L+DOX+HYP+ – light plus doxycycline and hypericin; CFU – colony forming unit).

against microorganisms resistant to antimicrobial agents (44–46). Studies by Legéňová et al have proven the effectiveness of aPDI against the biofilm of *S. mutans*. aPDI using PS methylene blue was shown to be more effective than the antimicrobial activity of an antiseptic (0.1% chlorhexidine digluconate), the latter being more toxic and less effective against the biofilm of *S. mutans* (47). In oral candidiasis and subgingival yeast colonisation, aPDT reduced the number of infected an-anatomical sites and reduced soft tissue inflammation (48, 49).

The positive effects of aPDT are also the immunomodulatory effect, which is provided by neutrophil stimulation, and the acceleration of wound healing, due to rapid regeneration and remodeling (14). The effects of aPDT on rat pulp tissue were evaluated by Takahashi et al, showing that aPDT used to sterilize carious dentin could induce pulpal tissue reversal by laser penetration and the generation of singlet oxygen with subsequent healing, and the formation of tertiary dentin (50).

In systematic review studies, Lopez et al showed that the reduction of bacterial load after aPDT in the treatment of periodontal and peri-implant diseases can reach 99%. But when studying antimicrobial action in vitro, parameters such as constant formation and accumulation, variable salivation, and factors of the immune system are not taken into account, due to the difficulty of reproducing such conditions in an experiment, so the development of adequate models to study aPDT is also promising (51, 52).

The effectiveness of aPDT on bacteria of the genus *Actinomyces* was shown in studies by Hafner in patients with osteonecrosis of the jaw. Photodynamic inactivation during 10 seconds decreased the bacterial load by more than 4 orders of magnitude and was superior to polyhexanide and chlorhexidine exposure for 60 seconds (53).

Although scaling and root planing are the mainstay of treatment for periodontal and peri-implant diseases, the combined use of scaling and root planing and aPDT produces better results in terms of reduced probing bleeding, reduced probing depth, and improved clinical attachment than scaling and root planing alone. Haas in their review concluded that repeated use of aPDT in addi-

tion to scaling and root planing is more effective for the treatment of deep pockets in aggressive periodontitis than scaling and root planing alone (54).

It is believed that aPDT is better used in chronic periodontitis or as an additional method of treatment of periodontal and peri-implant diseases. aPDT can be combined with systemic antibiotic therapy for the treatment of stage III-IV periodontitis (55–57).

Conclusions

Our studies have shown that the original composition developed for the photodynamic inactivation of anaerobic periodontopathogens pathogens *A. israelii* and *P. melaninogenica* provides aPDI regardless of the presence of oxygen.

Although dentists now actively use aPDT as an adjuvant for the treatment of periodontal and peri implant diseases and has its positive results. aPDT remains a relevant object of study to understand better the issues related to the mechanisms of antibacterial action of lasers, the search for new safe PS and their combinations, optimal models for studying aPDT, and studying the effect of aPDT on the immune system of the macroorganism. The development of bacterial resistance to aPDT is currently considered unlikely; therefore, aPDT is a promising therapeutic alternative for the local treatment of purulent-inflammatory diseases of various localisation caused by antibiotic-resistant bacteria, including in the oral cavity.

References

1. Peres MA, Macpherson LMD, Weyant RJ, Daly B, Venturelli R et al. Oral diseases: a global public health challenge. *Lancet* 2019; 394 (10194): 249–260. DOI: 10.1016/S0140-6736(19)31146-8.
2. World Health Organization. Global oral health status report: towards universal health coverage for oral health by 2030. <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240061484>.
3. Jungbauer G, Stähli A, Zhu X, Auber Alberi L, Sculean A, Eick S. Periodontal microorganisms and Alzheimer disease – A causative relationship? *Periodontology* 2000 2022; 89 (1): 59–82. DOI: 10.1111/prd.12429.
4. Xu B, Han YW. Oral bacteria, oral health, and adverse pregnancy outcomes. *Periodontology* 2000 2022; 89 (1): 181–189. DOI: 10.1111/prd.12436.
5. Hakkers J, Liu L, Hentenaar DFM, Raghoebar GM, Vissink A. et al. The Peri-Implant Microbiome—A Possible Factor Determining the Success of Surgical Peri-Implantitis Treatment? *Dent J* 2024; 12: 20. DOI: 10.3390/dj12010020.
6. Perepelova T, Faustova M, Dvornyk V, Dobrovolskyi O, Koval Y, Loban G. The level of dysbiosis of the oral cavity depends on the type of dental prosthesis of the patient. *Bratisl Med J* 2023; 124 (8): 599–603. DOI: 10.4149/BLL_2023_093.
7. Kolakovic M, Held U, Schmidlin PR, Sahrman P. An estimate of pocket closure and avoided needs of surgery after scaling and root planing with systemic antibiotics: a systematic review. *BMC oral health* 2014; 14: 159. DOI: 10.1186/1472-6831-14-159.
8. Abullais Saquib S, Abdullah AlQahtani N, Ahmad I, Arora S, Mohammed Asif S. et al. Synergistic antibacterial activity of herbal extracts with antibiotics on bacteria responsible for periodontitis. *J Infection Developing Countries* 2021; 15 (11): 1685–1693. DOI: 10.3855/jidc.14904.
9. Baima G, Citterio F, Romandini M, Romano F, Mariani GM et al. Surface decontamination protocols for surgical treatment of peri-implantitis: A systematic review with meta-analysis. *Clin Oral Implants Res* 2022; 33 (11): 1069–1086. DOI: 10.1111/clr.13992.
10. Collins JR, Arredondo A, Roa A, Valdez Y, León R, Blanc V. Periodontal pathogens and tetracycline resistance genes in subgingival biofilm of periodontally healthy and diseased Dominican adults. *Clin Oral Invest* 2016; 20 (2): 349–356. DOI: 10.1007/s00784-015-1516-2.
11. Haque M, Sartelli M, Haque SZ. Dental Infection and Resistance—Global Health Consequences. *Dent J* 2019; 7: 22. DOI: 10.3390/dj7010022.
12. Viens AM, Littmann J. Is antimicrobial resistance a slowly emerging disaster? *Publ Health Ethics* 2015; 8(3): 255–265. DOI: 10.1093/phe/phv015.
13. Trajčiková E, Kurin E, Slobodníková L, Straka M, Lichváriková A et al. Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Properties of Four *Lycopus* Taxa and an Interaction Study of Their Major Compounds. *Molecules* 2020; 25 (6): 1422.
14. Koren J, Hubenakova Z, Drahovska H, Ozaee E, Markuskova B, Lichvarikova A. Emergence of extended-spectrum β -lactamase (ESBL) and/or carbapenemase producing Enterobacteriaceae (CPE) and their antimicrobial resistance. *Bratisl Med J* 2019; 120 (12): 935–940. DOI: 10.4149/BLL_2019_157.
15. Mochalov YuO, Tukalo IV. Theoretical justification of the use of a complex of photodynamic therapy and ozone therapy in inflammatory periodontal diseases (literature review). *Young Scientist* 2016; 5 (32): 297–301.
16. Sidash YV, Kostyrenko OP. Morphological justification of the effectiveness of photodynamic therapy in patients with chronic generalized periodontitis against the background of hypertension. *Herald Problems Biol Med* 2021; 3 (161): 332–336. DOI: 10.29254/2077-4214-2021-3-161-332-336.
17. Tim M. Strategies to optimize photosensitizers for photodynamic inactivation of bacteria. *J Photochem Photobiol* 2015; 150: 2–10. DOI: 10.1016/j.jphotobiol.2015.05.010.
18. Cieplik F, Deng D, Crielaard W, Buchalla W et al. Antimicrobial photodynamic therapy – what we know and what we don't. *Crit Rev Microbiol* 2018; 44 (5): 571–589. DOI: 10.1080/1040841X.2018.1467876.
19. Bugyna L, Kendra S, Bujdaková H. Galleria mellonella-A Model for the Study of aPDT-Prospects and Drawbacks. *Microorganisms* 2023; 11 (6): 1455. DOI: 10.3390/microorganisms11061455.
20. Abrahamse H, Hamblin MR. New photosensitizers for photodynamic therapy. *Biochem J* 2016; 473 (4): 347–364. DOI: 10.1042/BJ20150942.
21. Fonseca ADG, Sampaio GHF, Araujo WP, da Silva RE et al. Photodynamic Therapy With Propolis: Antibacterial Effects on *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Streptococcus mutans* and *Escherichia coli* Analysed by Atomic Force Microscopy. *J Lasers Med Sci* 2020; 11 (1): 107–112. DOI: 10.34172/jlms.2020.S17.
22. Hamblin MR, Abrahamse H. Oxygen-Independent Antimicrobial Photoinactivation: Type III Photochemical Mechanism? *Antibiotics* 2020; 9: 53. DOI: 10.3390/antibiotics9020053.
23. Astuti SD, Utomo IB, Setiawatie EM et al. Combination effect of laser diode for photodynamic therapy with doxycycline on a wistar rat model of periodontitis. *BMC Oral Health* 2021; 21 (80). DOI: 10.1186/s12903-021-01435-0.
24. Zhang J, Gao L, Hu J et al. Hypericin: Source, Determination, Separation, and Properties. *Separation Purification Rev* 2022; 51 (1). DOI: 10.1080/15422119.2020.1797792.
25. Huntosova V, Stroffekova K. Hypericin in the Dark: Foe or Ally in Photodynamic Therapy? *Cancers (Basel)* 2016; 8 (10): 93. DOI:10.3390/cancers8100093.
26. Kashef N, Karami S, Djavid GE. Phototoxic effect of hypericin alone and in combination with acetylcysteine on *Staphylococcus aureus* biofilms. *Photodiagnosis Photodyn Ther* 2015; 12 (2): 186–192. DOI: 10.1016/j.pdpdt.2015.04.001.
27. State Pharmacopoeia of Ukraine / SE “Scientific Expert Pharmacopoeia Center”, 2nd ed.; Scientific and expert pharmacopoeia center: Kharkiv, UA, 2014; pp. 327–330.

28. Voronkina I, Serdechna E, Maryushchenko A, Dyachenko V. Experimental determination of parameters of photodynamic influence on *A. israelii* and *P. melaninogenica*. *Infectious Dis* 2022; 2: 39–45. DOI: 10.11603/1681-2727.2022.2.13188.
29. Szulc M, Zakrzewska A, Zborowski J. Local drug delivery in periodontitis treatment: A review of contemporary literature. *Dental Med Problems* 2018; 55 (3): 333–342. DOI: 10.17219/dmp/94890.
30. Brookes ZLS, Belfield LA, Ashworth A, Casas-Agustench P, Raja M et al. Effects of chlorhexidine mouthwash on the oral microbiome. *J Dent* 2021; 113: 103768. DOI: 10.1016/j.jdent.2021.103768.
31. Ruksakiet K, Hanák L, Farkas N, Hegyi P, Sadaeng W et al. Antimicrobial Efficacy of Chlorhexidine and Sodium Hypochlorite in Root Canal Disinfection: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials. *J Endod* 2020; 46 (8): 1032–1041. DOI: 10.1016/j.joen.2020.05.002.
32. Mishra R, Chandrashekar KT, Tripathi VD, Hazari A, Sabu BS, Sahu A. Comparative evaluation of efficacy of 0,2% sodium hypochlorite (Hi Wash) mouthwash with 0,2% chlorhexidine mouthwash on plaque-induced gingivitis: A clinical trial. *J Indian Soc Periodontol* 2019; 23 (6): 534–538. DOI: 10.4103/jisp.jisp_32_19.
33. Gonzalez S, Cohen CL, Galván M, Alonizan FA, Rich SK, Slots J. Gingival bleeding on probing: relationship to change in periodontal pocket depth and effect of sodium hypochlorite oral rinse. *J Periodontol Res* 2015; 50 (3): 397–402. DOI: 10.1111/jre.12219.
34. Hage W, De Moor RJG, Hajj D, Sfeir G, Sarkis DK, Zogheib C. Impact of Different Irrigant Agitation Methods on Bacterial Elimination from Infected Root Canals. *Dent J* 2019; 7; 64. DOI: 10.3390/dj7030064.
35. Cieplik F, Jakobovics NS, Buchalla W, Maisch T, Hellwig E, Al-Ahmad A. Resistance Toward Chlorhexidine in Oral Bacteria – Is There Cause for Concern? *Front Microbiol* 2019; 10: 587. DOI: 10.3389/fmicb.2019.00587.
36. Kulik EM, Waltimo T, Weiger R, Schweizer I, Lenkeit K et al. Development of resistance of *S. mutans* and *Porphyromonas gingivalis* to chlorhexidine digluconate and amine fluoride/stannous fluoride-containing mouthrinses, in vitro. *Clin Oral Invest* 2015; 19 (6): 1547–1553. DOI: 10.1007/s00784-014-1379-y.
37. Kitagawa H, Izutani N, Kitagawa R, Maezono H, Yamaguchi M et al. Evolution of resistance to cationic biocides in *Streptococcus mutans* and *Enterococcus faecalis*. *J Dentistry* 2016; 47: 18–22. DOI: 10.1016/j.jdent.2016.02.008.
38. Buxser S. Has resistance to chlorhexidine increased among clinically-relevant bacteria? A systematic review of time course and subpopulation data. *PloS one* 2021; 16 (8). DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0256336.
39. Abbood HM, Hijazi K, Gould IM. Chlorhexidine Resistance or Cross-Resistance, That Is the Question. *Antibiotics (Basel, Switzerland)* 2023; 12 (5): 798. DOI: 10.3390/antibiotics12050798.
40. Seneviratne CJ, Zhang CF, Samaranayake LP. Dental plaque biofilm in oral health and disease. *Chin J Dental Res* 2011; 14 (2): 87.
41. Slots J. Periodontitis: facts, fallacies and the future. *Periodontology* 2017; 75 (1): 7–23. DOI: 10.1111/prd.12221.
42. Sheridan RA, Wang HL, Eber R, Oh TJ. Systemic Chemotherapeutic Agents as Adjunctive Periodontal Therapy: A Narrative Review and Suggested Clinical Recommendations. *J Internat Acad Periodontol* 2015; 17 (4): 123–134.
43. Baima G, Citterio F, Romandini M, Romano F, Mariani GM et al. Surface decontamination protocols for surgical treatment of peri-implantitis: A systematic review with meta-analysis. *Clinical Oral Implants Res* 2022; 33 (11): 1069–1086. DOI: 10.1111/clr.13992.
44. Wimmer A, Glueck M, Ckurshumova W, Liu J, Fefer M, Plaetzer K. Breaking the Rebellion: Photodynamic Inactivation against *Erwinia Amylovora* Resistant to Streptomycin. *Antibiotics* 2022; 11: 544. DOI: 10.3390/antibiotics11050544.
45. Amorim CF, Iglesias BA, Pinheiro TR, Lacerda LE, Sokolonski AR et al. Photodynamic Inactivation of Different *Candida* Species and Inhibition of Biofilm Formation Induced by Water-Soluble Porphyrins. *Photodiagnosis Photodyn Ther* 2023; 42: 103343. DOI: 10.1016/j.pdpdt.2023.103343.
46. Felix Gomez GG, Lippert F, Ando M, Zandona AF, Eckert GJ, Gregory RL. Photoinhibition of *Streptococcus mutans* Biofilm-Induced Lesions in Human Dentin by Violet-Blue Light. *Dent J* 2019; 7: 113. DOI: 10.3390/dj7040113.
47. Legěňová K, Kovalčíková M, Černáková L, Bujdáková H. The Contribution of Photodynamic Inactivation vs. Corsodyl Mouthwash to the Control of *Streptococcus mutans* Biofilms. *Curr Microbiol* 2020; 77 (6): 988–996. DOI: 10.1007/s00284-020-01901-y.
48. Fonseca LL, Durães CP, Menezes ASDS, Tabosa ATL, Barbosa CU et al. Comparison between two antimicrobial photodynamic therapy protocols for oral candidiasis in patients undergoing treatment for head and neck cancer: A two-arm, single-blind clinical trial. *Photodiagnosis Photodyn Ther* 2022; 39: 102983. DOI: 10.1016/j.pdpdt.2022.102983.
49. Shetty B, Ali D, Ahmed S, Ibraheem WI, Preethanath RS et al. Role of antimicrobial photodynamic therapy in reducing subgingival oral yeasts colonization in patients with peri-implant mucositis. *Photodiagnosis Photodyn Ther* 2022; 38: 102803. DOI: 10.1016/j.pdpdt.2022.102803.
50. Takahashi T, Sato F, Shinkai K. The Effects of Antimicrobial Photodynamic Therapy Used to Sterilize Carious Dentin on Rat Dental Pulp Tissue. *Dentistry J* 2023; 11 (12): 283. DOI: 10.3390/dj11120283.
51. Lopez MA, Passarelli PC, Marra M, Lopez A, Moffa A et al. Antimicrobial efficacy of photodynamic therapy (PDT) in periodontitis and peri-implantitis: A systematic review. *J Biol Regulators Homeostatic Agents* 2020; 34: 59–65. PMID: 33386035.
52. Mohammed N Alasqah. Antimicrobial efficacy of photodynamic therapy on dental implant surfaces: A systematic review of in vitro studies. *Photodiagnosis Photodyn Ther* 2019; 25: 349–353. DOI: 10.1016/j.pdpdt.2019.01.018.
53. Hafner S, Ehrenfeld M, Storz E, Wieser A. Photodynamic Inactivation of *Actinomyces naeslundii* in Comparison with Chlorhexidine and Polyhexanide – A New Approach for Antiseptic Treatment of Medication-Related Osteonecrosis of the Jaw? *J Oral Maxillofac Surg.* 2016; 74 (3): 516–522. DOI: 10.1016/j.joms.2015.09.014.
54. Haas AN, Furlaneto F, Gaio EJ, Gomes SC, Palioto DB et al. New tendencies in non-surgical periodontal therapy. *Brazil Oral Res* 2021; 35 (Suppl 2): e095. DOI: 10.1590/1807-3107bor-2021.vol35.0095.
55. Alves-Silva EG, Arruda-Vasconcelos R, Louzada LM, de-Jesus-Soares A, Ferraz CCR. Effect of antimicrobial photodynamic therapy on the reduction of bacteria and virulence factors in teeth with primary endodontic infection. *Photodiagnosis Photodyn Ther* 2023; 41: 103292. DOI: 10.1016/j.pdpdt.2023.103292.
56. Sculean A, Deppe H, Miron R, Schwarz F, Romanos G, Cosgarea R. Effectiveness of Photodynamic Therapy in the Treatment of Periodontal and Peri-Implant Diseases. *Monographs Oral Sci* 2021; 29: 133–143. DOI: 10.1159/000510189.
57. Pal A, Paul S, Perry R, Puryer J. Is the Use of Antimicrobial Photodynamic Therapy or Systemic Antibiotics More Effective in Improving Periodontal Health When Used in Conjunction with Localised Non-Surgical Periodontal Therapy? A Systematic Review. *Dent J* 2019; 7: 108. DOI: 10.3390/dj7040108.

Received May 21, 2024.

Accepted July 15, 2024.