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Cieplik, Fabian ; Buchalla, Wolfgang ; Hellwig, Elmar ; Al-Ahmad, Ali ; Hiller, Karl-Anton ; Maisch, Tim ; Karygianni, Lamprini

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1 **Antimicrobial photodynamic therapy as an adjunct for**
2 **treatment of deep carious lesions – a systematic review**

3
4 **Fabian Cieplik^{1*}, Wolfgang Buchalla¹, Elmar Hellwig², Ali Al-Ahmad², Karl-**
5 **Anton Hiller¹, Tim Maisch³, Lamprini Karygianni²**

6
7 ¹ Department of Conservative Dentistry and Periodontology, University Medical Center
8 Regensburg, Regensburg, Germany

9 ² Department of Operative Dentistry and Periodontology, Center for Dental Medicine,
10 University of Freiburg, Freiburg, Germany

11 ³ Department of Dermatology, University Medical Center Regensburg, Regensburg,
12 Germany

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23 *** Corresponding author:**

24 Dr. Fabian Cieplik

25 Department of Conservative Dentistry and Periodontology

26 University Medical Center Regensburg

27 Franz-Josef-Strauß-Allee 11, 93053 Regensburg, Germany

28 tel.: +49 941 944 6163

29 fax: +49 941 944 6025

30 email: fabian.cieplik@ukr.de

31 **Declaration of interest**

32 Fabian Cieplik declares that he has no conflict of interest.

33 Wolfgang Buchalla declares that he has no conflict of interest.

34 Elmar Hellwig declares that he has no conflict of interest.

35 Ali Al-Ahmad declares that he has no conflict of interest.

36 Karl-Anton Hiller declares that he has no conflict of interest.

37 Tim Maisch declares that he has no conflict of interest.

38 Lamprini Karygianni declares that she has no conflict of interest.

39 **Abstract**

40 For deep carious lesions, a more conservative treatment modality (“selective caries
41 removal”) has been proposed, where only the heavily contaminated dentine is
42 removed. In this regard, effective adjuncts for cavity disinfection such as the
43 antimicrobial photodynamic therapy (aPDT) can be valuable clinically prior to
44 definitive restoration. Therefore, the aim of this study was to systematically assess
45 clinical studies on the effectiveness of aPDT as a supplementary tool in the
46 treatment of deep caries lesions. Searches were performed in four databases
47 (PubMed, EMBASE, ISI Web of Science, ClinicalTrials.gov) from 1st January, 2011
48 until 21st June, 2016 for search terms relevant to the observed parameters,
49 pathological condition, intervention and anatomic entity. The pooled information was
50 evaluated according to PRISMA guidelines. At first, 1,651 articles were recovered,
51 of which 1,249 full-text articles were evaluated, 270 articles thereof were reviewed
52 for eligibility and finally 6 articles met all inclusion criteria. The aPDT protocols
53 involved Methylene Blue, Toluidine Blue and aluminium-chloride-phthalocyanine as
54 photosensitizers and diode lasers, light-emitting diodes and halogen light-sources.
55 The data from five reports, utilizing both culture-dependent and -independent
56 methods, disclosed significant reduction of cariogenic bacterial load after
57 mechanical caries removal with adjunct aPDT. As these studies exhibit some
58 methodological limitations, e.g. lack of positive controls, this systematic review can
59 support the application of aPDT to a limited extent only in terms of reducing the
60 microbial load in deep carious lesions before restorative treatment.

61

62 **Introduction**

63 According to the Global Burden of Disease 2010 study, untreated dental caries in
64 permanent teeth constituted the most prevalent disease across the globe, affecting
65 2.4 billion people, while untreated dental caries in deciduous teeth was found the
66 tenth-most prevalent condition, affecting 621 million children worldwide [1]. Dental
67 caries is defined as the “localized destruction of susceptible dental hard tissues by
68 acidic by-products from bacterial fermentation of dietary carbohydrates” [2]. Hence,
69 dental caries is considered as a highly dynamic process on the tooth surface with
70 the cariogenic biofilm representing the vital driving force [3].

71 When the mineral loss has advanced to the point where a cavity forms on the tooth
72 surface, operative dentistry’s role is to restore the structural integrity of the tooth,
73 giving patients the chance to remove/brush off the adherent cariogenic biofilm
74 sufficiently during their daily oral hygiene routine [4]. Traditional treatment concepts
75 for excavation of deep carious lesions suggest the complete and nonselective
76 mechanical removal to hard dentine in order to prevent further cariogenic activity
77 and provide non-demineralized dentine prior to definitive restoration. However, this
78 approach entails the risk of pulp exposure during the excavation process, thus
79 frequently making the application of further therapeutic measures such as pulp
80 capping, pulpotomy or even pulpectomy inevitable [4,5].

81 To avoid unnecessary vital pulp- or root canal treatment, a more conservative
82 removal of carious dentine (“selective caries removal”) has been proposed, in which
83 only the soft and heavily contaminated (“infected”) dentine is removed, while the
84 demineralized leathery and rarely colonized (“affected”) dentine remains, yielding a
85 cavity ready to be sealed by a definitive restoration [5-7]. This approach is based on
86 the premise that cariogenic bacteria whose carbohydrate supply is cut off either
87 become non-viable or remain quiescent and thus, the caries process is arrested
88 [3,5]. However, although unlikely, it cannot be completely ruled out that remaining
89 bacteria or their metabolites may have any detrimental long-term effects on pulp
90 vitality [7]. Furthermore, distinguishing between the similar-looking layers of dentine
91 from the contaminated or the demineralized zone is quite difficult in most clinical
92 settings [8]. Therefore, effective supplementary approaches for disinfecting
93 remaining bacterially contaminated dentine can be valuable clinically before placing
94 a restoration. Here, the antimicrobial photodynamic therapy (aPDT) may be a
95 promising adjunct for dentine disinfection. Briefly, aPDT involves the application of a

96 *per se* non-toxic dye, the so-called photosensitizer (PS), and irradiation with visible
97 light of an appropriate wavelength. Upon irradiation of the PS molecules, either
98 charge (type I) or energy (type II) is transferred to molecular oxygen or other
99 substrates to generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) that kill bacteria via an
100 immediate oxidative burst [9,10]. While oxygen radicals ($O_2^{\bullet-}$, HO^{\bullet} , H_2O_2) emerge
101 from the type I mechanism, in the type II mechanism an energized molecular
102 oxygen (+0.98 eV) named singlet oxygen is formed and considered to play the
103 major role in photodynamic action; the singlet oxygen quantum yield Φ_{Δ} describes
104 the proportion of type II mechanism [11].
105 By applying distinct classes of PS, aPDT has already shown promising results for
106 inactivation of cariogenic bacteria in numerous *in vitro* [12-16] and *in situ* studies
107 [17-20]. Keeping in mind the deficiencies of complete or partial caries removal, the
108 aim of the present review was to systematically assess clinical studies investigating
109 the effectiveness of aPDT as a supplementary modality in the treatment of deep
110 carious lesions.

111 **Methods**

112 **Focused question**

113 Is aPDT effective as a supplementary modality in the treatment of deep carious
114 lesions?

115

116 **Search Strategy**

117 The following electronic databases were screened from 1st January, 2011 until 21st
118 June, 2016 in order to detect eligible papers: PubMed, EMBASE, ISI Web of
119 Science, ClinicalTrials.gov. The search terms for retrieving articles related to dental
120 caries, suitable treatment interventions including aPDT and the evaluation of
121 treatment outcomes with microbiological parameters were divided into four groups:

122 • **anatomic entity:**

123 (tooth [Title/Abstract] OR teeth [Title/Abstract] OR dentine [Title/Abstract] OR
124 enamel [Title/Abstract] OR root [Title/Abstract] OR dental hard tissues
125 [Title/Abstract])

126 • **ethological condition:**

127 (dental caries [Mesh] OR carious [Title/Abstract] OR tooth decay [Title/Abstract] OR
128 dental disease [Title/Abstract])

129 • **intervention:**

130 (prevention OR control OR therapy OR treatment OR microinvasive OR intervention
131 OR inactivation OR eradication OR removal OR management OR medication OR
132 remineralization OR remineralisation OR demineralization OR demineralisation OR
133 modification OR killing OR inhibition OR suppression OR elimination OR reduction
134 OR restoration OR excavation)

135 • **observed parameters:**

136 (microbiology OR bacteria OR antibacterial OR antimicrobial OR probiotic OR
137 photodynamic OR microbe OR microbiome OR microbiota OR microorganisms OR
138 oral biofilm OR dental plaque OR streptococci OR streptococcus OR lactobacilli OR
139 lactobacillus OR mono-species OR multi-species OR poly-species OR monospecies
140 OR multispecies OR polyspecies OR polymicrobial OR aerobic OR anaerobic OR
141 dmf OR colony forming units OR CFU OR quantification OR bacterial count).

142

143 The grouped listed terms were appropriately combined to yield 16.560 search term
144 matches. Additionally, relevant reviews were also screened for possible literature

145 matches among their citations, which when considered relevant to the topic, were
146 imported into a mutual EndNote library (EndNote, Thomson Reuters, Toronto,
147 Canada) for all of the screened databases and electronic journals. Finally, all
148 duplicates were automatically discarded from EndNote yielding the total number of
149 relevant articles to be searched.

150

151 **Inclusion Criteria**

152 In this systematic review the term antimicrobial photodynamic therapy (aPDT) is
153 used to summarize all relevant, mostly non-invasive bacteria-targeting
154 photochemical techniques against cariogenic bacteria with or without the application
155 of a non-toxic local PS in the framework of diverse chairside therapeutic protocols.
156 Therefore, only clinical studies investigating the *in vivo* effect of aPDT on caries-
157 related oral microorganisms in dentine caries lesions in children and adults were
158 taken into consideration. Since aPDT cannot replace but only supplement the
159 routine dental therapy, reports allowing for a co-intervention between aPDT and
160 mechanical caries removal were taken into account. Studies published in both
161 English and German were included.

162

163 **Exclusion Criteria**

164 Epidemiological reports and systematic or non-systematic reviews were excluded
165 from this study. Studies filtered out of this review mainly comprised *in vitro* reports,
166 as well as all other types of experimental and histological studies. Reports not
167 associated with cariogenic bacteria or involving periodontal or endodontic bacteria
168 were omitted from this review. Moreover, studies on the impact of various
169 preventive or therapeutic interventions against cariogenic microorganisms such as
170 the use of chemical agents e.g. chlorhexidine, fluoride, xylitol, natural extracts,
171 probiotics, mechanical inactivation protocols, and restorative materials were not
172 reviewed.

173

174 **Study Selection**

175 Two independent examiners (LK, FC) were recruited to conduct the primary
176 literature research utilizing the main search terms. Thereafter, the same authors
177 reevaluated the selected titles and abstracts in a second screening round, in which
178 the studies not adhering to the established eligibility and exclusion principles were

179 omitted. Subsequently, the remaining reports were introduced into a third screening
180 round, in which the full-text articles were further appraised for compatibility. In case
181 of any disagreement between the examiners after independent evaluation,
182 consensus was reached by reevaluation and discussion. The remaining studies
183 were finally introduced into the final review step of qualitative synthesis.

184

185 **Data Organization**

186 To systematize the data yielded from each report, a standard document was
187 utilized. This document contained year of publication, study design, number of
188 participants, treatment groups, type of intervention, technical parameters of aPDT
189 (light source, peak wavelength, diameter of optical fiber, power output, energy
190 fluence), PS concentration, (pre)irradiation period, methodological aspects such as
191 study design and measurement methods, types of oral microorganisms tested,
192 clinical indices, main outcomes, conclusions and limitations. The dental libraries of
193 the Universities of Freiburg and Regensburg as well as all other contributing authors
194 expertizing in the scientific fields of cariology and aPDT were asked for further
195 interpretation of the collected data when necessary. Additionally, the source reports
196 were evaluated once more in order to guarantee the validity of the yielded data. Due
197 to the small number of the selected reports, no further classification was required.

198

199 **Data Quality Evaluation**

200 The guidelines of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-
201 Analyses (PRISMA, <http://www.prisma-statement.org/statement.htm>) were followed
202 for the evaluation of the yielded data [21]. The systemization of the obtained data
203 and quality assessment were conducted by two independent examiners (LK, FC) to
204 minimize inconsistencies.

205 **Results**

206 **Description of selected studies**

207 Figure 1 shows an overview of the steps followed in the study selection process.
208 After running searches through two English databases and the electronic archives
209 of five German journals, a total number of 1,651 relevant articles could be detected.
210 Following the removal of duplicates 1,249 articles were screened by title and
211 abstract, and 270 full-text articles were further assessed for eligibility after the
212 exclusion of a total of 979 non-eligible articles. The review process then proceeded
213 to further exclude 264 full-text articles for not meeting the prerequisites for inclusion.
214 Finally, seven eligible studies in English language published from 1st January, 2011
215 until the 21st June, 2016 were selected for the final review [14,22-26]. One study
216 consequently had to be excluded due to the inadequate description of
217 microbiological sampling procedures [22]. Summarized information on the six
218 remaining reports with regard to study design, treatment protocols, clinical and
219 technical parameters, PS, laboratory assays, main outcomes and conclusions are
220 listed in Tables 1-3. The selected reports described the *in vivo* treatment of carious
221 dentine lesions in the primary and permanent dentition using diverse aPDT
222 protocols with combinations of different PS and light sources.

223

224 **Treatment design and caries removal protocols**

225 In total, six *in vivo* studies were included in this review. In five of these reports aPDT
226 was used to aid the treatment of occlusal dentine caries lesions (class I) in primary
227 and permanent molars of children [14,23,25-27], while two studies involved
228 supportive use of aPDT in treatment of dentine caries lesions (class I, class II) in
229 permanent teeth of adults [24,27]. The number of aPDT-treated teeth in all studies
230 ranged between 10 – 32 among child and 12 – 90 among adult patients. The cavity
231 preparation initially involved the removal of dentine from the lateral walls of carious
232 lesions, which was performed with high-speed hand-pieces and burs [24,25] or
233 excavators [14,23,27]. Thereafter, the removal of carious dentine from the pulp
234 walls was conducted with low-speed carbide burs [23-25] or excavators [26,27]. The
235 collection of the remaining carious dentine from the pulp wall was done prior to
236 (untreated control groups) and after the application of the respective aPDT protocol
237 (test groups) by using micro-punches [23,26], excavators [14,24,27] or low-speed
238 carbide burs [25].

239

240 **aPDT clinical protocols**

241 With reference to the light-sources, in four studies [23,25-27] aPDT was performed
242 by diode lasers with wavelengths ranging between 630 and 660 nm, two reports
243 [24,26] described the use of light-emitting diodes (LED) at a peak wavelength of 630
244 nm, while in one study halogen curing light with a wavelength range of 500 – 800
245 nm was utilized [14].

246 Methylene Blue (MB, 100 µg/ml) [14,23,25,26], Toluidine Blue (TBO, 100 µg/ml)
247 [24,26] and aluminium-chloride-phthalocyanine (AlClPc, 100 µg/ml) [27] were used
248 as PS. Most commonly, laser irradiation was combined with MB, whereas LED
249 irradiation followed the incubation of dentine in TBO. In all studies the incubation
250 period of the PS in carious dentine ranged between 1 min and 5 min, the irradiation
251 period varied between 1 min and 3 min, while carious dentine was irradiated from
252 distances ranging from 0.5 to 25 mm.

253

254 **Microbiological outcomes**

255 To investigate the dentine samples obtained prior to (untreated control groups) and
256 after aPDT (test groups), the culture method was applied in four studies [23-25,27]
257 and real-time PCR was applied in one study [26], while one report employed both
258 methods [14]. In five studies [14,23,24,26,27] mechanical caries removal with
259 adjunct aPDT was found to significantly reduce the cariogenic bacterial load and
260 thus to be a potent treatment modality for deep dentine caries. In particular, aPDT
261 therapy yielded a CFU reduction in the range of 0.91 – 2.5 log₁₀ for total viable
262 bacteria, 0.5 – 2.4 log₁₀ for streptococci, and 0.93 – 2.5 log₁₀ for *Lactobacillus* spp.
263 Real-time PCR confirmed these results in one study [26], while in another report
264 [14] no differences could be detected between the control and the aPDT-treated
265 dentine following *S. mutans* DNA quantification. However, in one report [25] aPDT
266 was ineffective at eradicating the viable cariogenic bacteria. Interestingly, one report
267 comparing two different aPDT protocols (LED irradiation + TBO; laser irradiation +
268 MB) disclosed comparable therapeutic outcomes [26].

269 **Discussion**

270 In recent times, there has been a paradigm shift with respect to the controversy, as
271 to how much of the carious tissue in deep dentine lesions has to be removed before
272 placing a restoration [3]. In this regard, effective adjunct approaches for the
273 disinfection of remaining bacterially contaminated carious dentine, such as aPDT
274 may be of great clinical significance. Therefore, a systematic review of clinical
275 studies evaluating the effect of aPDT in deep carious lesions was performed
276 yielding six eligible studies. As a result, aPDT was shown to be effective in reducing
277 the microbial load during restorative treatment of deep carious lesions. However,
278 more clinical trials are required to ensure that this reduction is clinically relevant or
279 not.

280 At first glance, the fact that all reports considered in this review come from Brazilian
281 groups seems to be a major drawback possibly implying a potential bias. However,
282 it has to be kept in mind that aPDT and even more so anti-cancer photodynamic
283 therapy represent a current research focus in Brazil and are extensively funded by
284 the Brazilian government [28].

285 In all reviewed studies, the allocation of patients to treatment groups was random.
286 However, blinding the operators is hardly possible in studies involving aPDT due to
287 the necessary application of PS and irradiation with light. Nevertheless, the
288 microbiological analyses of the samples were blinded in all cases. In four out of six
289 studies the traditional culture method was applied for microbial analysis [23-25,27]
290 and in one study real-time PCR was employed [26], while in one study both
291 methods were used [14]. Here, it has to be considered that the culture method
292 measures the viability of cultivable bacterial cells, while real time-PCR is not able to
293 discern between live and dead cells and just measures the amount of DNA
294 belonging to both cultivable and non-cultivable bacterial cells [29]. In that context, it
295 is hardly surprising that Araujo *et al.* did not manage to confirm the significant post-
296 aPDT CFU reduction by applying real time-PCR [14]. On the contrary, the fact that
297 Steiner-Oliveira *et al.* found a significant decline in total bacterial DNA content
298 following aPDT may suggest that an oxidation of nucleic acids occurred in this case
299 [26].

300 The role of PS is of great importance for the bactericidal outcome of aPDT.
301 Interestingly, five out of six studies outlined in this review used phenothiazinium
302 derivatives (MB, TBO) as PS [14,23-26]. Phenothiazinium dyes show a strong

303 absorption in the red spectral region ($\approx 600 - 680\text{nm}$) [30]. The remaining study
304 employed aluminium-chloride-phthalocyanine (AlClPc) as PS [27], which exhibits
305 high absorbance in the red spectral region ($\approx 650 - 680 \text{ nm}$), too [31]. AlClPc is
306 highly hydrophobic, which is why this PS has to be associated to drug delivery
307 systems for clinical application evolving among others its encapsulation in cationic
308 liposomes as described in the relevant study [27]. The strong blue color of the
309 aforementioned PS may be a drawback for their application in the treatment of
310 dentine caries lesions. In particular, the PS molecules can easily diffuse into
311 dentinal tubules, inevitably leading to a persistent staining of the dentinal structure,
312 which then necessitates a further discoloration treatment [32]. Phenothiazinium
313 derivatives and AlClPc exhibit singlet oxygen quantum yields $\Phi_{\Delta} \approx 0.5$ or $\Phi_{\Delta} \approx 0.3$,
314 respectively, thus representing low capacity of singlet oxygen generation compared
315 to other PS classes [33]. As a consequence, the results reported from *in vitro*
316 studies evaluating phenothiazinium derivatives or AlClPc for inactivation of biofilms
317 are quite conflicting [34,35]. Thus, the application of PS with higher singlet oxygen
318 quantum yields like porphyrin derivatives (*e.g.* TMPyP: $\Phi_{\Delta} \approx 0.74$ [33]) or phenalen-
319 1-one derivatives (*e.g.* SAPYR: $\Phi_{\Delta} \approx 0.99$ [36]) should be considered for future
320 studies. Indeed, SAPYR was found to be distinctly more effective in inactivation of
321 mono-species biofilms *in vitro* compared to MB when irradiation parameters such as
322 applied light doses or numbers of absorbed photons were adjusted [37].
323 In general, the inhomogeneous tubular, moist and organic substrate of carious
324 dentine makes the bacterial inactivation by aPDT quite challenging, since sufficient
325 penetration of PS and light transmission are considered key factors for its
326 antimicrobial effectiveness. With respect to PS penetration, the dentinal fluid flow
327 may hamper the PS penetration into the wet demineralized dentine. In recent *in*
328 *vitro* studies the penetration depths ranged from 45 – 60 μm for MB as measured by
329 Raman spectroscopy [38] to 190 μm for TBO as measured by photoacoustic
330 spectroscopy [39]. While penetration depths of approximately 200 μm are found for
331 oral streptococci in sound dentine [40], the depth of bacterial penetration can be
332 considerably higher in carious dentine [41]. Therefore, improving the PS diffusion
333 rates through dental tissues could be achieved by employing carrier systems for
334 reducing dentinal surface tension or by the introduction of amphiphilic PS that act as
335 detergents [36].

336 Sufficient light propagation is another key factor for effective application of aPDT in
337 deep carious lesions. It was reported that the irradiance of two given laser light
338 sources was reduced by more than 50% when 150 μm demineralized dentine
339 sections had been interposed, whereby the extent of dentine demineralization had
340 no influence on the aPDT-light distribution [42]. However, our group has recently
341 shown that intra-canal PS could be activated effectively enough from outside the
342 tooth to reach a killing efficacy of 5 \log_{10} steps against *Enterococcus faecalis* [43].
343 Interestingly, for sound dentine not merely the dentine thickness, but the direction of
344 its tubules seems to have a major impact on light penetration due to multiple
345 scattering caused by the cylindrical microstructure of the dentinal tubules [44,45].
346 This is the reason why light transmission is hampered by the irregular carious
347 dentinal structure, evolving the presence of some amount of organic and anorganic
348 material in the dentinal tubules which is produced during the biofilm-driven
349 demineralization process. Overall, it is well known that activation of a given PS by
350 red light is favorable since light from longer wavelengths accomplishes greater
351 depth of penetration than short-wave light [46]. Thereby, the irradiation-related
352 temperature changes seem to be negligible with regard to their effect on pulp
353 vitality. Recent studies demonstrated a maximum increase of only 1°C in intrapulpal
354 temperature after aPDT, while a temperature rise of 3°C is considered the safety
355 limit for pulp injury [47,48].

356 Besides that, the effect of aPDT on dental pulp cells is of pronounced importance,
357 particularly in areas with thin residual dentine layers. Diniz *et al.* observed no
358 reduction in cell viability of dental pulp cells after the application of an aPDT
359 protocol (MB, red laser) in an artificial pulp chamber, where dentine slides with a
360 thickness range from 0.5 to 1.5 mm simulated the pulp chamber roof [49]. Likewise,
361 Longo *et al.* reported no decline in the cell viability of primary human dental pulp
362 cells after their direct exposure to AICIPc-cationic liposomes and irradiation with red
363 laser [27]. Nevertheless, when aPDT (MB, red laser) was directly applied to primary
364 human pulp cell cultures, cell death rates rose proportionally with increased MB
365 concentrations [50]. Surprisingly, while apoptosis remained stable in all aPDT-
366 treated groups, a notably increased amount of necrotic pulp cells was recovered.
367 Consequently, the authors suggested that post-aPDT necrosis in superficial dental
368 pulp tissue might occur *in vivo* as well, potentially leading to the desirable response
369 of mineralization nucleation and the subsequent formation of tertiary dentine [50].

370 In a recent systematic review investigating aPDT for microbial reduction in deep
371 carious lesions, the authors stated that “aPDT is an effective coadjuvant therapy to
372 reduce microorganisms in deep carious lesions” [51]. According to the data
373 summarized in this review, we unfortunately cannot agree with these conclusions.
374 Although aPDT was effective in reducing the microbiological load in the treated
375 deep carious lesions in five out of six reviewed reports, the overall lack of a positive
376 control group for cavity disinfection is their major shortcoming and severely
377 interferes with their clinical impact. Consequently, it cannot be investigated from the
378 literature whether aPDT may be more effective than standard protocols for cavity
379 disinfection involving the application of chlorhexidine (CHX) in various
380 concentrations. For instance, Wicht *et al.* applied a 1% CHX- and 1% thymol-
381 containing varnish (Cervitec, Ivoclar Vivadent, Schaan, Liechtenstein) on the cavity
382 floors of deep carious lesions, upon their atraumatic restorative treatment (ART),
383 and finally restored them with a compomer (Dyract AP, Dentsply DeTrey, Konstanz,
384 Germany) [52]. After an exposure period of 6 weeks to the CHX- and thymol-
385 containing varnish, microbiological samples exhibited a reduction in microbiological
386 counts by about 1.5 log₁₀ steps. This decline is similar to those that were achieved
387 by aPDT, although in the reviewed studies this was achieved within a notably
388 shorter treatment time period in the range of 1 to 5 min. However, it has to be
389 questioned, whether a microbial reduction of about 1 to 2 log₁₀ steps has any
390 meaningful clinical relevance, as the American Society of Microbiology (ASM) has
391 determined in 2010 that a CFU-reduction of 3 log₁₀ is necessary to use the terms
392 “antimicrobial” or “antibacterial.”

393 In general, the depth effect of given antimicrobial procedures may be questionable
394 in some part because all of the published microbiological sampling procedures
395 comprise removal of superficial dentine only and subsequent CFU-assay or PCR-
396 analysis from the collected dentinal shavings and (little is known about the
397 penetration properties of given antimicrobials (*e.g.* CHX) in carious dentine.
398 Therefore, this point has to be investigated in future studies. In this regard, novel PS
399 based on a phenalen-1-one that have already shown their detergent potential may
400 be auspicious [36].

401

402 **Conclusion**

403 Until now, only a few studies on the adjunctive use of aPDT during treatment of
404 deep carious lesions are available. These studies exhibit some methodological
405 limitations, *e.g.* lack of positive controls. Therefore, this systematic review can only
406 support the application of aPDT to a limited extent as an adjunct for the treatment of
407 deep carious lesions in terms of reducing the microbial load in carious lesions
408 before placement of a restoration.

409 To confirm this assumption more clinical trials are required. In particular, future
410 reports should aim at comparing aPDT directly with standard techniques for cavity
411 disinfection in order to provide useful data for the clinically-relevant evaluation of
412 promising aPDT protocols compared to conventional approaches. Furthermore, the
413 penetration properties of given antimicrobials throughout carious dentine and their
414 depth effects have to be investigated in future studies.

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422

423

424

425 **Author contributions**

426 **Conception and design of the experiments:** FC, WB, EH, LK.

427 **Literature search:** FC, LK.

428 **Data Analysis:** FC, WB, KAH, TM, LK.

429 **Authors of the paper:** FC, WB, KAH, TM, AAA, EH, LK.

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629 **Table legends**

630 **Table 1**

631 Overview of the authors, study design, number of subjects and treated teeth, type of
632 treatment, treatment groups, major outcomes and conclusions of the reviewed
633 studies on photodynamic therapy of cariogenic bacteria.

634

635 **Table 2**

636 Overview of the used PS, the light sources and the technical features with reference
637 to the aPDT devices as described in the reviewed studies.

638

639 **Table 3**

640 Overview of the number and type of treated teeth, cavity class and depth,
641 International Caries Detection and Assessment System (ICDAS) index, pulpal
642 involvement, symptoms and exclusion criteria as described in the reviewed *ex vivo*
643 studies on photodynamic therapy of cariogenic bacteria.

644

645

646

647 **Figure legends**

648 **Figure 1**

649 Flowchart of the search strategy as well as study selection and data management
650 procedure

Table 1

Authors Year	Study design	Number of subjects / treated teeth	Treatment groups / Treatment type	Microbiological methods	Main Outcomes	Conclusions
[Guglielmi et al., 2011]	<i>in vivo</i>	22 child patient / 26 teeth with carious lesions	Control group: no treatment Intervention group: Treatment with aPDT (laser irradiation + MB)	Culture method	aPDT therapy yielded a significant CFU reduction of 0.91 log ₁₀ for total viable bacteria, 1.38 log ₁₀ for mutans streptococci, and 0.93 log ₁₀ for <i>Lactobacillus</i> spp. compared to the control group.	aPDT was effective at reducing the microbial loads and has beneficial clinical potential for the treatment of deep carious lesions.
[Steiner-Oliveira et al., 2015]	<i>in vivo</i>	32 child patients / 32 teeth with carious lesions	Control group: Treatment of carious dentine with 2 % CHX Intervention group: Treatment with aPDT (LED irradiation + TBO or laser irradiation + MB)	real-time PCR	With the exception of <i>Streptococcus sobrinus</i> the two aPDT therapies induced a significant reduction in total bacterial content, <i>Streptococcus mutans</i> , <i>Lactobacillus casei</i> , <i>Fusobacterium nucleatum</i> and <i>Atopobium rima</i> . No differences were detected between the two aPDT protocols.	The two tested aPDT-therapies may serve as microinvasive strategies for the effective treatment of deep primary caries.
[Araújo et al., 2015]	<i>in vivo</i>	10 child patients / 10 molars with deep active carious lesions	Control group: no treatment (superficial and deep dentine) Intervention group: Treatment of superficial and deep dentine with aPDT (halogen irradiation + MB)	Culture method real-time PCR	Superficial dentine, deep dentine directly and non-directly irradiated: aPDT therapy allowed for a significant CFU decrease of 2.5 ± 0.6, 1.9 ± 0.9 and 2.3 ± 0.8 log ₁₀ for total viable bacteria, 2.4 ± 0.8, 2.2 ± 0.9 and 2.2 ± 0.9 log ₁₀ for streptococci, and 2.5 ± 0.7, 2.1 ± 1 and 2.0 ± 0.9 log ₁₀ for <i>Lactobacillus</i> spp., respectively, compared to the untreated carious dentine.	Using conventional culture methods, the effectiveness of aPDT against all estimated viable bacteria was confirmed. However, real-time PCR failed to detect differences in regard to <i>S. mutans</i> DNA content. The maintenance of superficial dentine had no impact on aPDT outcomes in deep dentine

					Regarding <i>S. mutans</i> DNA quantification by real-time PCR, no differences between the control and the aPDT-treated groups were found.	
[Neves et al., 2016]	<i>in vivo</i>	19 child patients / 19 molars with active carious lesions	Control group: no treatment Intervention group: Treatment with aPDT (laser irradiation + MB)	Culture method	aPDT therapy resulted in a statistically insignificant CFU reduction of 0.61 log ₁₀ for total viable bacteria, 0.44 log ₁₀ for mutans streptococci, and 0.46 log ₁₀ for <i>Lactobacillus</i> spp. compared to the untreated carious lesions.	aPDT was not effective at eliminating the viable cariogenic microorganisms and is therefore clinically irrelevant for caries treatment in deep dentine
[Melo et al., 2015]	<i>in vivo</i>	45 adult patients / 90 teeth with carious lesions	Control group: Treatment of carious dentine with 0.89 % NaCl Intervention group: Treatment with aPDT (LED irradiation + TBO)	Culture method	aPDT group showed a significant CFU reduction of 1.07 log ₁₀ CFU, while the control group showed a CFU decrease of 0.47 log ₁₀ . After aPDT the bacterial count of lactobacilli and mutans streptococci reached the greatest log ₁₀ reduction of 1.69 and 0.5 CFU, respectively, compared to the control.	aPDT-treated dentine from deep carious lesions yielded a significant decrease in cariogenic microbial load
[Longo et al., 2012]	<i>ex vivo / in vivo</i>	10 adult and child patients / 12 teeth with carious lesions	Control group: no treatment Intervention group: Treatment with aPDT (laser irradiation + AICIPc)	Culture method	After aPDT the bacterial count of total cariogenic bacteria was reduced by 82% compared to the control.	aPDT was effective at reducing the bacterial load and thus allows for the treatment of deep carious lesions.

Table 2

Authors Year	Light source (peak wavelength [nm])	PS (concentration [µg/ml])	Optical fiber diameter [µm]	Power output [mW]	Energy fluence [J/cm ²]	Pre-irradiation / irradiation period [min]	Distance of irradiation [mm]
[Guglielmi et al., 2011]	low power diode laser(InGaAlP - Indium Gallium Aluminum Phosphide) (630 nm)	MB (Formula & Ação, Sao Paulo, Brazil) (100 µg/ml)	6000 µm	100 mW	320 J/cm ²	5 min / 1.5 min	0.5 mm
[Steiner-Oliveira et al., 2015]	red light-emitting diode (LED, MM Optics, São Carlos-SP, Brazil) (630 nm) / red low power laser (Photon Lase III- DMC, São Carlos, São Paulo, Brazil) (630 nm)	TBO (100 µg/ml) / MB (Chimiolux [®] -Hyrofarma, BeloHorizonte, Minas Gerais, Brazil) (100 µg/ml)	-	LED: 100 mW Laser: 100 mW	LED: 30 J/cm ² Laser: 320 J/cm ²	LED: 1 min / 1 min Laser: 5 min / 1.5 min	-
[Araújo et al., 2015]	halogen light curing unit (Curing Light 3M Espe [®] , 3M Espe, USA) (500-800 nm)	MB (Chimiolux [®] , Aptivalux [®] , Belo Horizonte, Brazil) (100 µg/ml)	-	260 mW	-	5 min / 1 min (with an interval of 20 s between two applications of 30 s)	-
[Neves et al., 2016]	low power diode laser(InGaAlP - Indium Gallium Aluminum	MB (Chimiolux [®] , Aptivalux [®] , Belo Horizonte, Brazil) (100 µg/ml)	10000 µm	40 mW	120 J/cm ²	5 min / 2 min	25 mm

	Phosphide) (660 nm)						
[Melo et al., 2015]	red light-emitting diode (LED, MM Optics,São Carlos-SP, Brazil) (630 nm)	TBO (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) (100 µg/ml)	6000 µm	150 mW	94 J/cm ²	5 min / -	2 mm
[Longo et al., 2012]	red light-emitting diode (LED, MM Optics,São Carlos-SP, Brazil) (660 nm)	AICIPc (Aldrich Chemical Company, St. Louis, MO, USA) (5 µM)	1200 µm	40 mW	180 J/cm ²	5 min / 3 min	-

TBO: toluidine blue ortho, MB: methylene blue, AICIPc: aluminum-chloride-phthalocyanine

Table 3

Authors Year	Number / type of treated teeth	Cavity class	Cavity depth	ICDAS index	Pulpal involvement / Symptoms	Exclusion criteria
[Guglielmi et al., 2011]	26 permanent molars	Class I	Deep carious lesions beyond the inner half of dentine	6	No / No	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use of antibiotics within last 6 months prior to study - Irreversible pulp inflammation
[Steiner-Oliveira et al., 2015]	32 primary molars	Class I	Deep carious lesions extending to 2 / 3 of the inner half of dentine	6	Compatible with reversible pulpitis / No	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use of antibiotics for medical reasons - Pain / Irreversible pulp inflammation - missed appointments
[Araújo et al., 2015]	10 molars	Class I	Deep carious lesions extending to 2 / 3 of the inner half of dentine	6	No / No	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Proximal carious lesions - Pulpal / periodontal infection - Insufficient crowns
[Neves et al., 2016]	19 molars	Class I	Deep carious lesions extending to the inner half of dentine	6	No / No	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use of antibiotics within last 3 months prior to study - Systemic diseases - Irreversible pulp inflammation, pain, fistula, periapical lesion
[Melo et al., 2015]	90 posterior teeth	Class I	Bilateral moderate to deep carious lesions extending to 2 / 3 of the inner half of dentine	6	No / No	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use of antibiotics within last 3 months prior to study - Irreversible pulp inflammation, abscess, fistula, periapical lesion - Pain, periodontal swelling, tooth mobility
[Longo et al., 2012]	12 primary / permanent molars	Class I	Deep carious lesions extending to 2 / 3 of the inner half of dentine	6	No / No	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Irreversible pulp inflammation - Periodontal disease