The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Faculty of Medicine, Department of Microbiology Joint Graduate Student Seminar

Cleansing light: Antimicrobial photodynamic therapy (aPDT)/

Supervisor: Prof. Mamie Hui Student: Poon Yeuk Lan, Nana (PhD student, Yr4) Date: 14th December 2018

Outline



- Fundamental mechanisms
- Light sources and Photosensitizers
- Main target structures
- •Complementary interventions
- Possibility of development of resistances

aPDT applications

Dentistry

- Denture stomatitis
- Diabetic foot ulcers
- •Other applications

Advantages and limitations

Future direction

Fundamental mechanisms of PDT

► 3 components

Photosensitizer (PS)

• *per* se non-toxic

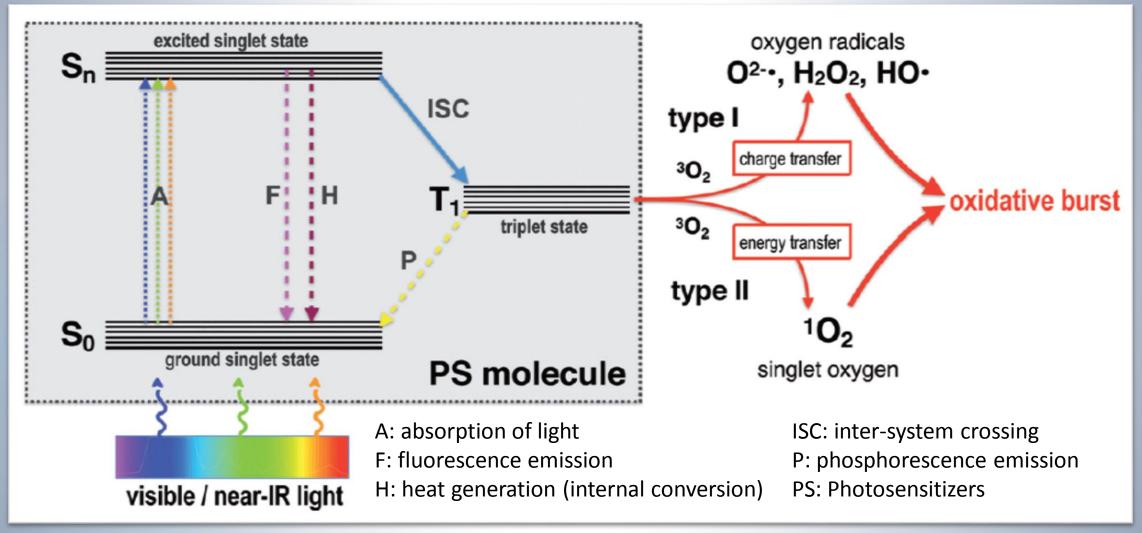
Visible light

- Of specific wavelength that excite PS
- Sources: Lasers, Light-emitting diodes (LEDs), and Halogen lamps

Molecular oxygen (O₂)

(Cieplik et al., 2018)

Fundamental mechanisms of PDT

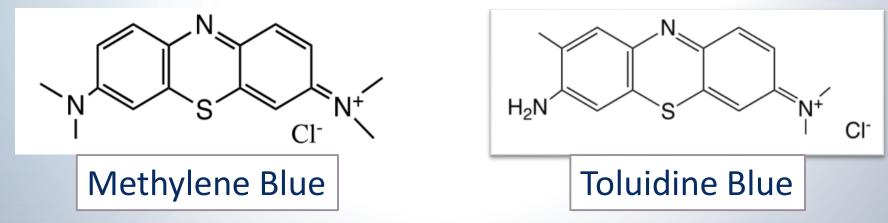


(Figure: Cieplik et al., 2018)

Photosensitizers of aPDT

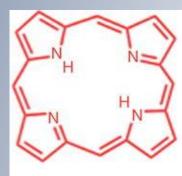
Phenothiazinium derivatives

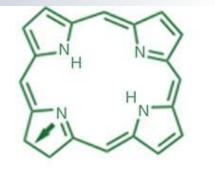
- Three-ring π -system with auxochromic side groups
- Mainly Type I mechanism
- Absorption in red spectrum (600-680nm)
- **Two PS were clinically approved for aPDT:**

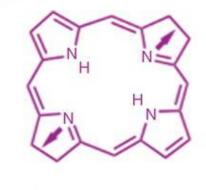


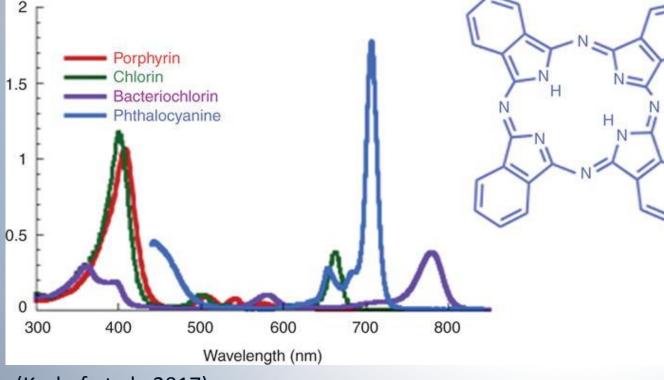
(Cieplik et al., 2018; Hu et al., 2018)

Porphyrins, chlorins, and phthalocyanines









- Mainly Type II mechanism
- Absorption:
 - Porphyrins & chlorins: Around 405 nm
 - Phthalocyanines: Around 700 nm

⁽Kashef et al., 2017)

Porphyrins

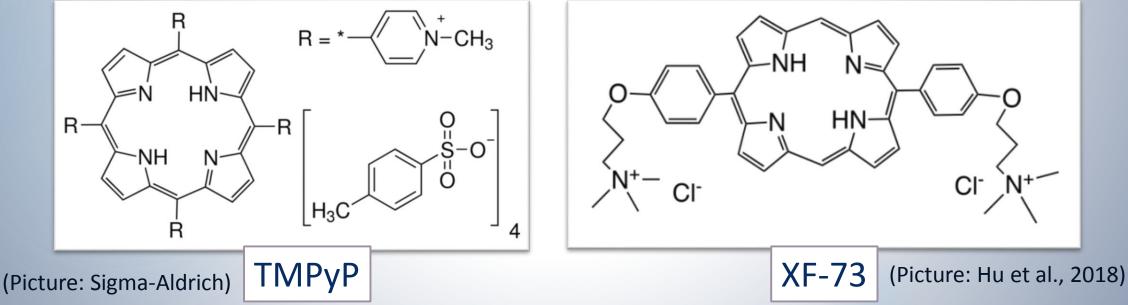
Endogenous produced by bacteria

Helicobacter pylori (Hamblin et al., 2005)

Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans (Cieplik et al., 2014)

Prevotella and Porphyromonas species (Pummer et al., 2017)

Chemical modified porphyrins



Chlorins

Mainly cationic derivatives of chlorin-e6

e.g. Photodithazine[®] produced by VETA-GRAND Company

Phthalocyanines

- ▶ Hydrophobic and uncharged \rightarrow Low solubility
- Solubilization could be accomplished by
 - ► Nano-emulsion
 - Modification of structure

Other PS classes

Classes	Examples	Absorption range	Mechanism
Xanthene	Eosin Y, Erythrosine, Rose Bengal	≈ 480 to 550 nm	Type II
Fullerenes	C60	UV and visible range	Type I or II*
Cationic water-soluble Phenalenone derivatives	SAPYR	≈ 320 to 430 nm	Type II
Riboflavin		≈ 350 to 470 nm	Type II
Curcumin		≈ 300 to 500 nm	Type I

*depending on modifications and solvents

(Cieplik et al., 2018)

Examples of microorganisms inhibited by aPDT

Classes	Microorganisms	Reviewed by
Viruses	Vesicular stomatitis virus, Herpes simplex virus, Suid herpes virus, Hepatitis C virus, Human immunodeficiency virus, Adenovirus, Dengue virus etc.	Costa et al., 2012
Fungi	Candida spp., Malassezia app., Aspergillus fumigatus	Lyon et al., 2011
Bacteria	Escherichia coli, Staphylococcus aureus (including MSSA and MRSA), Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Enterococcus faecalis etc.	Liu et al., 2015

Putative main target structures of aPDT

- Properties of oxidative damage in aPDT
 - Non-selective, wide range of targets
 - Located in close vicinity to the PS molecules
- Targets depend on the locations of PS molecules

Location of PS	Possible targets	Consequences
Inside biofilm	Extracellular polymeric substances (EPSs), lipids	Disruption of biofilm
Binds to cell walls	Cell wall, cytoplasmic membrane	个Membrane permeability, 个PS uptake
Inside the cell	Cytoplasmic proteins and DNA	Inhibition of metabolism and cell growth

(Cieplik et al., 2018)

Putative main target structures of aPDT

Reported location of PS

- Phenothiazinium classes: Intracellular
 - Addition of efflux pump inhibitors enhanced inactivation efficacy of MB and TBO (Tegos et al. 2008)
- TMPyP (Porphyrin derivative): Extracellular
 - ▶ No uptake in Escherichia coli (Preuß et al. 2013)
 - Minor accumulation in cytoplasm of Staphylococcus aureus (Gollmer et al. 2017)

Complementary interventions to potentiate aPDT efficacy

- Addition of inorganic salts, e.g. potassium iodide
 - Increase killing by up to 6 log₁₀ (Hamblin, 2017)
- Addition of efflux pump inhibitors (Tegos et al., 2008; Kishen et al., 2010)
- Addition of saponins
 - Increase cell permeability and thus facilitate penetration of PS
 - Increased susceptibility to photodynamic inactivation of *Candida albicans* (Coleman et al., 2010)
- Conjugation of PS with chitosan
 - Increased uptake of PS in biofilm and increased biofilm disruption (Shrestha and Kishen, 2012)

Possibility of development of resistances to aPDT

- Oxidative damage of aPDT is non-selective and multi-targeted
- Studies had shown incapability of bacteria to develop resistance after continual exposure to aPDT (Giuliani et al., 2010; Lauro et al., 2002; Pedigo et al., 2009; Tavares et al., 2010)
- Highly improbable for microbes to develop resistances and tolerance against aPDT (Kashef and Hamblin, 2017; Maisch, 2015; Wainwright et al., 2017)
- More evidences are required

aPDT applications

- Dentistry
- Denture stomatitis
- Diabetic foot ulcers
- Other applications

aPDT application in dentistry

- ► Two approved aPDT systems: Periowave[™] & HELBO[®]
- PS: Methylene blue
- Light source: Laser (650-675nm)
- Used for disinfection in
 - Periodontitis
 - Gingivitis
 - Endodontics
 - Peri-implantitis disease



(Picture: Periowave[™])

aPDT application in dentistry

Brief procedures for periodontitis:

- 1. Scaling and root planning
- 2. Applying PS into root pocket
- 3. Illumination
- Outcome reported in clinical trials: Reduction of bacterial load, pocket depth and bleeding on probing





(Pictures: Periowave[™])

aPDT application on denture stomatitis

Clinical trial by Mima et al. (2012)

- PS: PHOTOGEM[®] (hematoporphyrin derivative)
- Light source: LED light at 455nm

Results

Treatment	aPDT (3 sessions weekly for 15 days)	Nystatin (4 times daily for 15 days)
No. of patients	20	20
Clinical success* rates	45%	53%

*absent or lower degree of inflammation at the end of treatment

Conclusion

aPDT was as effective as topical nystatin

aPDT application on diabetic foot ulcers

- Clinical trial by Tardivo et al. (2014)
 - PS: 1:1 solution of Methylene blue and O-toluidine blue
 - Light sources:
 - 1. LED (640nm) for whole infected tissue
 - 2. Halogen light source (400nm to 725nm) with optical fibers for foot bones through fistula
 - Study design:
 - All patients presented with ulcers of Wagner Grade 3 (deep ulcer with abscess or osteomyelitis)
 - 16 patients in control group (Systemic antibiotics + debridement)
 18 patients in treatment group (Systemic antibiotics + aPDT)
 - aPDT treatment was performed twice a week

aPDT application on diabetic foot ulcers

- Clinical trial by Tardivo et al. (2014)
 - Outcome
 - Control group: All patients resulted in amputation
 - Treatment group
 - 17 out of 18 patients were considered cured (Wagner Grade 0, intact skin)
 - Accelerated healing of the fistulas and tissue reconstruction
 - 2 cured patients were previously infected by multi-resistant *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and carbapenemase-producing *Klebsiella pneumoniae*





A. Pre-treatmentB. Post-treatment

Other possible applications

Summarized in the review by Hu et al. (2018)

Preclinical animal studies

- Burn injury
- Osteomyelitis
- Nasal infection
- Superficial fungal skin infection
- Otitis media

Clinical trials and patient studies

- Nasal Decontamination
- *H. pylori* infection

Advantages of aPDT over antibiotic treatment

Broad spectrum

- Effective against bacteria, fungi, and viruses
- Effective against antimicrobial resistant microorganisms
- Unlikely for microorganisms to develop resistance against aPDT
- Light-activated action
 - Immediate reduction of pathogen load
 - Reactive oxygen species production ceases without light
- Less adverse effects
 - Less damage to host cells and tissue
 - No reported allergy
 - Less disruption to microbiome

Limitations of aPDT

Limited to localized infections at easily accessible parts

- Oxygen level
- Illumination

Lower efficacy when used against biofilm

EPS hinder the diffusion of PS

Future directions

Understanding of the mechanism of action of different classes of PS

To apply complementary interventions to increase efficacy

To predict potential for development of resistances

In vitro testing on biofilm, preferably on clinical specimens

- Translation into clinical practice
 - Dose and regimen
 - Cost

Take home messages

Principle of antimicrobial photodynamic therapy (aPDT)

- 1. Photosensitizers are excited by light
- 2. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are generated
- 3. ROS cause oxidative damage and kill nearby microorganisms
- aPDT is broad-spectrum and effective even against antimicrobial resistant microorganisms
- aPDT was already being applied in dentistry for years
- Future applications of aPDT include tropical and oral infection, nasal decontamination, and *H. pylori* infection



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