

Potential Applications of Photobiomodulation in Combinatorial Cancer Therapy: Developments in Diagnosis and Treatment

^{1b} Ebru Nur AY^a, ^{1b} Duygu Hüsna ACAR^b, ^{1b} Ferda KALEAĞASIOĞLU^c

^aDepartment of Biology and Genetics, İstinye University Faculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences, İstanbul, Türkiye

^bİstinye University Faculty of Medicine, İstanbul, Türkiye

^cDepartment of Pharmacology and Clinical Pharmacology, İstinye University Faculty of Medicine, İstanbul, Türkiye

ABSTRACT Objective: Over the last two decades, the potential applications of photobiomodulation therapy (PBMT) have garnered increasing attention. The mechanism of PBMT involves the absorption of light energy by cellular components, such as chromophores. This absorption initiates a cascade of biochemical reactions, including cellular signaling pathways, gene expression, and the production of various molecules such as reactive oxygen species, adenosine triphosphate, and growth factors. In this review, we aimed to investigate the potential applications of PBMT when combined with chemotherapy (CT), radiotherapy (RT), and immunotherapy. **Material and Methods:** PubMed (National Library of Medicine, ABD), Scopus (Elsevier, Hollanda), and Google Scholar (Google, ABD) were searched to obtain data. **Results:** Based on the results of in vitro and in vivo studies, PBMT acts as a chemo- and radio-sensitizer. It facilitates dose reduction and, notably, does not decrease but may increase the viability of noncancer cells. This property enables the protection of noncancerous cells against antineoplastic CT-related toxicity. The important factor in effectively employing PBMT for cancer treatment depends on selecting the correct dosage, including wavelength, power density, energy density, and exposure time. The accumulating evidence supporting the benefits of PBMT has led to its recommendation by the World Association for Laser Therapy for managing CT-related adverse effects. **Conclusion:** PBMT is a promising strategy for the combination therapy of cancer. Nevertheless, further studies are warranted to establish the precise protocols for PBMT. These studies are essential to address its limitations and uncover the benefits of light therapy that have not yet been fully explored.

Keywords: Low level laser therapy; chemotherapy; immunotherapy; radiotherapy

BRIEF HISTORY OF LIGHT THERAPY

Electromagnetic energy encompasses a broad spectrum with frequencies ranging from below 1 hertz to above 10^{25} hertz. Within this electromagnetic spectrum, the human eye can only detect a narrow band of 380 nm to 750 nm (Figure 1). The human body can interact with electromagnetic energy in diverse ways, such as by modulating physiological functions or initiating pathological outcomes. Electromagnetic waves are reflected, transmitted through, or absorbed, based on their wavelengths and the composition of the biological system. Ultraviolet (UV), visible, and infrared (IR) bands are either reflected from the body

surface or penetrate through the skin and eyes. Based on their wavelengths, the penetrating waves can be absorbed by certain tissue components. UV radiation can be absorbed by organic molecules, such as protein, lipids, and DNA; visible radiation can be absorbed by pigments and blood; and IR radiation can be absorbed by water. While some UV-mediated photochemical reactions are beneficial for the human body, such as light absorbed by the retinal photoreceptors resulting in electrical signals for visual processing or the conversion of 7-dehydrocholesterol to pre-cholecalciferol (pre-vitamin D3) in the skin when exposed to UV, UV exposure is usually harmful to the skin and the eyes.^{1,2}

TO CITE THIS ARTICLE:

AY EN, Acar DH, Kaleağasıoğlu F. Potential Applications of Photobiomodulation in Combinatorial Cancer Therapy: Developments in Diagnosis and Treatment. Journal of Oncological Sciences. 2024;10(1):47-59.

Correspondence: Ferda KALEAĞASIOĞLU

Department of Pharmacology and Clinical Pharmacology, İstinye University Faculty of Medicine, İstanbul, Türkiye

E-mail: ferda.kaleagasioglu@istinye.edu.tr

Peer review under responsibility of Journal of Oncological Sciences.

Received: 30 Aug 2023 **Accepted:** 26 Nov 2023 **Available online:** 13 Dec 2023

2452-3364 / Copyright © 2024 by Turkish Society of Medical Oncology. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).



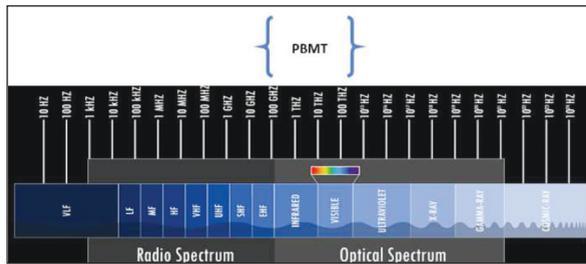


FIGURE 1: Electromagnetic spectrum and the range of PBMT.

PBMT: Photobiomodulation therapy; VLF: Very low frequency; LF: Low frequency; MF: Medium frequency; HF: High frequency; VHF: Very high frequency; UHF: Ultra-high frequency; SHF: Super high frequency; EHF: Extremely high frequency (modified from https://www.nasa.gov/directorates/heo/scan/spectrum/txt_electromagnetic_spectrum.html).

The history of light therapy dates back to the 14th century BC. In ancient civilizations of Egypt, China, Greece, India, and Rome, plant extracts (such as *Psoralea corylifolia*, *Ammi majus*, parsnip, parsley, and Saint John's wort) followed by exposure to sunlight (heliotherapy) were used to treat disorders, such as vitiligo, psoriasis, rickets, skin cancer, and psychosis.^{3,4} The health benefits of light therapy were appreciated gradually during history. The pioneering studies of the 19th and 20th centuries report the use of sunlight- or UV-based artificial light, such as carbon arc lamp and quartz lamp therapies for peritoneal and cutaneous tuberculosis, nonneoplastic and neoplastic skin disorders (such as acne, vitiligo, psoriasis, prurigo, syphilis, leprosy, pellagra, cutaneous T-cell lymphoma, and superficial basal cell carcinoma), venous leg ulcers, wound healing, and neonatal jaundice.^{5,6} The novel applications of photobiomodulation therapy (PBMT) are now available or under development. In this review, we have discussed the mechanism of action of photobiomodulation and its potential applications in combination with chemotherapy (CT), immunotherapy, or radiotherapy (RT) for treating cancer.

DEFINITIONS OF PHOTOBIMODULATION AND PHOTODYNAMIC THERAPIES

Today, light therapy is known as PBMT and photodynamic therapy (PDT). In the Conference of The North American Association for Laser Therapy and the World Association for Laser Therapy (WALT) in 2014, PBMT was included as an official MeSH term

under low-level light therapy (LLLT). After resolving the nomenclature conflict, PBMT was defined as “The therapeutic use of light, such as visible, near-IR, IR, absorbed by endogenous chromophores, triggering non-thermal, non-cytotoxic, and biological reactions through photochemical or photophysical events, causing physiological changes”.⁷ The parameters employed in PBMT are usually within the range of 600-1000 nm with a power density of 5-150 mW/cm². However, in PDT, a specific wavelength of light is used to activate a photosensitizer (PS) agent, which can kill cancer cells by inducing oxidative stress, cell necrosis, cell damage, and cell apoptosis. PSs can also be used as carriers to deliver chemotherapeutics to the tumor site to obtain a synergistic therapeutic effect.⁸

MOLECULAR MECHANISMS UNDERLYING PBMT

Light energy is used in PBMT to stimulate cellular processes and promote various biological effects. It typically involves the use of low-level laser devices to target tissues. The mechanism underlying photobiomodulation involves the absorption of light energy by cellular components, including chromophores, which trigger a cascade of biochemical reactions. These reactions can affect cellular signaling pathways, gene expression, and the production of various molecules, such as reactive oxygen species (ROS), adenosine triphosphate (ATP), and growth factors. The precise mechanisms and pathways involved can depend on various factors, such as the specific parameters of the light used, the target tissue, and the desired therapeutic outcomes (Figure 2).

MOLECULAR MECHANISMS OF ACTION OF PBMT ON CELLULAR PROCESSES

Two key characteristics of photobiomodulation are assumed to exhibit significant cellular effects. First, wavelengths ranging from 600 nm-1070 nm exhibit the most remarkable effect on promoting cell proliferation, which is likely due to their light absorption properties.⁹ Second, energy density plays an important role as well. Low energy density can stimulate cell proliferation, whereas high-energy density increases apoptotic processes. The data obtained from

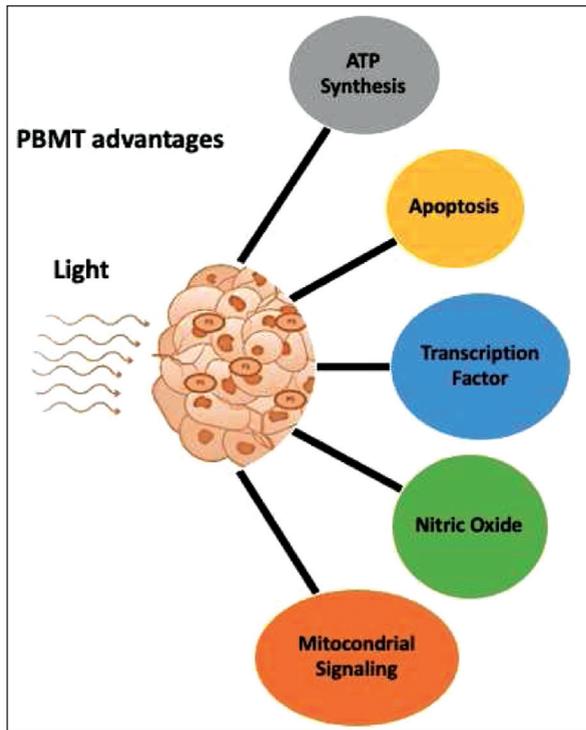


FIGURE 2: Cellular effects of PBMT.
PBMT: Photobiomodulation therapy; ATP: Adenosine triphosphate.

previous studies suggest that PBMT is a safe therapeutic option; however, its applications are limited because its potential proliferative effects on tumor biology remain uncovered. Once these limitations are

addressed, PBMT can be safely used for cancer treatment in several clinical studies. While the full investigation of the effects of PBMT on biological processes is challenging, this section will highlight its effect on the molecular mechanisms of cancer cells (Figure 3).

The Effect of PBMT on ATP Synthesis

The mitochondrion is a dynamic organelle that plays an important role in intracellular signaling, energy production, and metabolic processes. It is responsible for synthesizing ATP, the primary energy currency of cells. Mitochondria convert nutrients into ATP via oxidative phosphorylation, which fuels different cellular activities. Furthermore, mitochondria are involved in regulating cellular metabolism and can affect important processes, such as apoptosis and calcium signaling.¹⁰ Oxidative phosphorylation is the process of generating high-energy ATP. During metabolic processes, when energy levels are depleted, ATP is converted to adenosine diphosphate or adenosine monophosphate. ATP is primarily synthesized in the mitochondria, where high-energy electrons are transported via the electron transport chain. The electron transport chain depends on cytochrome c, which acts as an electron carrier in the respiratory chain.¹¹ *In vitro* studies have revealed that PBMT increases mi-

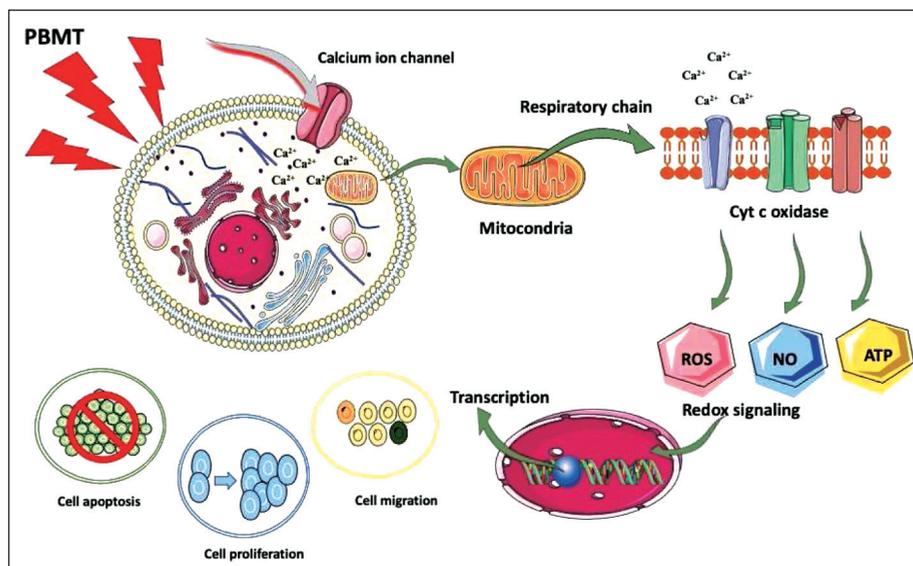


FIGURE 3: The major molecular mechanisms of action of PBMT on cellular activity.
PBMT: Photobiomodulation therapy; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; NO: Nitric oxide; ATP: Adenosine triphosphate.

tochondrial function and ATP production.^{12,13} This effect is mediated via the effect of laser irradiation on cytochrome c oxidase (Cox), a transmembrane protein within mitochondria.¹⁴ Consequently, increasing Cox activity can stimulate ATP synthesis.¹⁵ The improvement in ATP synthesis after laser irradiation can exhibit various biological effects, such as healing burn wounds, anti-inflammatory effects, and increased muscle endurance during severe physical exercise.¹⁶⁻¹⁹

The Effect of PBMT on Mitochondria

The effects of PBMT on mitochondrial membrane potential, ROS, pH, and nitric oxide (NO) are well reported.¹⁰ PBMT stimulates mitogen-activated protein kinase/extracellular signal-regulated kinase signaling by promoting the phosphorylation of tyrosine kinase receptors. This activity has been demonstrated to enhance cell proliferation.^{20,21} Furthermore, ROS plays a direct role in amplifying mitochondrial signaling, thus contributing to increased proliferation. PBMT stimulates ROS production and affects the action of various protein kinases.²² For instance, Src tyrosine kinases activated by ROS regulate essential cellular functions, such as cell proliferation and migration. Importantly, PBMT can exhibit bio-stimulatory effects via the activation of Src kinases by increasing ROS levels.²³ Moreover, PBMT-induced ROS generation activates the transcription factor nuclear factor-kappa B (NF- κ B), thereby regulating cell growth and apoptosis.²⁴

The Effect of PBMT on NO

NO is acknowledged for its dual role in tumor development, possessing both pro-oncogenic and anti-cancer properties.²⁵ In both *in vivo* and *in vitro* experimental models, it has been shown that low-energy laser irradiation, such as in PBMT, can enhance the production of NO.²⁶⁻²⁸ Additionally, PBMT serves as a potent activator of the mitochondrial respiratory chain, thereby increasing NO production through Cox. PBMT stimulates the release of NO by increasing the activity of the Cox complex.²⁹

The Effect of PBMT on Calcium Ions

Calcium ions, playing a vital role in intracellular signal transduction and influencing various biological

functions, impact cell viability and activity based on their concentrations. Studies have indicated an increase in calcium permeability following PBMT.^{30,31} Moreover, the increase in Ca²⁺ concentrations induced by PBMT appears to be linked to the increased release of Ca²⁺ from intracellular stores.³² De Lima Santos Hde et al. reported a direct correlation between the increase of calcium and ROS levels after PBMT application. Additionally, PBMT was shown to influence the basal concentrations of sodium and potassium ions and change the ATPase activity of membrane ion pumps in a dose-dependent manner, which results in either an increase or decrease in Na(+), and K(+) ATPase activity.³³

The Effect of PBMT on Growth Factors

Transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) is a cytokine that influences the transcription of many target genes involved in the differentiation, proliferation, and activation of different cells.³⁴ TGF- β plays a significant role in collagen production by inducing the expression of extracellular matrix components and inhibiting their degradation by interfering with matrix metalloproteinases.³⁵ PBMT has been linked with increased collagen synthesis via the TGF- β molecular pathway, thereby promoting increased regeneration of connective tissue.³⁶ Notably, PBMT is assumed to suppress the immune response via the TGF- β signaling.

In angiogenesis, vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) plays a crucial role. PBMT increases the expression of VEGF, playing a pivotal role in the etiopathogenesis of several tumors.^{37,38}

The Effect of PBMT on Transcription Factors

PBMT modulates various transcription factors. One of these factors is NF- κ B, which controls various cellular processes, such as migration, proliferation, and inflammation.³⁹ NF- κ B activation can be induced by different factors, such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), ROS, interleukins, and PMDT.^{24,40} An appropriate dose of radiation activates this enzyme, promoting cell proliferation and anti-inflammatory potential.^{41,42} However, exceeding the optimal radiation dosage can result in increased oxidative stress and excessive NF- κ B activation.⁴³ Another transcription factor that undergoes modification in response

to PBMT is the hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF), a small protein involved in the response of cells to hypoxia. Activation of HIF results in the upregulation of genes associated with glycolysis, allowing for ATP synthesis in an oxygen-independent manner, particularly under hypoxic conditions.

The Effect of PBMT on Apoptosis

The mechanism of action of PBMT enhances cellular metabolism and proliferation; however, it causes apoptosis at high doses. The precise mechanism is not yet fully elucidated, but it has been indirectly linked to the production of ROS. Laser irradiation initiates the activation of glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3), which can trigger apoptosis.⁴⁴ Another ROS-related mechanism that promotes apoptosis is the Akt/GSK3 pathway.⁴⁵ PBMT irradiation affects proliferation and apoptosis by modulating the activity of specific kinases, such as C-kinase.⁴⁶ Furthermore, PBMT inhibits apoptosis via the activation of the ROS/Src/Stat3 signaling pathway.⁴⁴ Although the mechanism of apoptosis induced by LLLT is not entirely known, existing knowledge indicates that the energy delivered by the laser plays a differentiating role in determining whether proliferation or apoptosis can occur.⁴⁷ After PBMT, the upregulation of proapoptotic genes, such as BCL-2-associated X, has been observed at the mitochondrial membrane, along with the release of cytochrome c.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁵

PBMT: MOLECULAR MECHANISMS OF ACTION IN CANCER

PBMT has the potential to influence the immune system by activating the anti-tumor immune response (Figure 4). The stress and damage induced in cells by ROS may augment the recognition of tumor antigens by the immune system. This, in turn, can facilitate an immune attack against cancer cells, thereby strengthening the systemic anti-tumor immune response. These effects underscore the crucial impact of photobiomodulation on the molecular targets within tumor cells.⁵⁶ PBMT stimulates the generation of ROS, inducing oxidative stress and cellular damage in cancer cells. The heightened production of ROS amplifies oxidative stress, causing damage to cellular components such as lipids, proteins, and DNA. This disruption impairs the functions of cancer cells, either inhibiting tumor proliferation or leading to cell death. Additionally, PBMT can induce vascular damage in tumor blood vessels. The oxidative stress created by ROS affects blood flow within the tumor, diminishing the supply of nutrients and oxygen uptake. Consequently, hypoxia occurs in the cells, negatively impacting tumor growth and metastasis.⁵⁶

PBMT holds the potential to either destroy cancer cells or control their growth. However, in utilizing PBMT for cancer treatment, it is crucial to establish an appropriate treatment protocol that takes

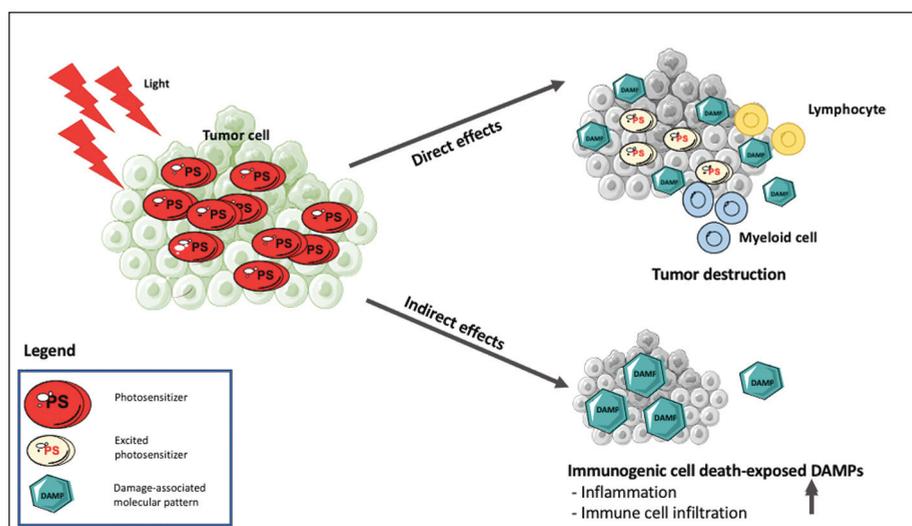


FIGURE 4: PBMT in cancer.

PBMT: Photobiomodulation therapy; DAMPs: Damage-associated molecular patterns; PS: Photosensitizer.

into account factors such as tumor type, location, and patient characteristics. The direct anti-tumor effects of PBMT-mediated damage lead to the reduction of tumor size through the activation of various cell death pathways, including apoptosis, autophagy, and necrosis. The localization of PS to mitochondria has been shown to induce apoptosis, whereas the localization at the plasma membrane is more likely to trigger necrosis.⁵⁷⁻⁶¹ Necrosis typically occurs due to excessive low-level radiation damage to the cell, disrupting the structural integrity of the plasma membrane.⁶²

PBMT facilitates mitochondrial membrane permeability by opening the inner membrane pore of the mitochondria, causing photosensitization and the inhibition of cytochrome c release after photodynamic injury, and finally inducing apoptosis.⁶³⁻⁶⁷ PBMT can also induce autophagy, which is another cell death pathway.^{52,68-70} PBMT-induced autophagy contributes to photodynamic damage to cellular structures, such as organelles, causing irreversible oxidation damage.^{52,71} Furthermore, autophagy markers LC3-I and LC3-II proteins are increased after PBMT.⁷²

The Effect of PBMT on Immunogenic Cell Death

Immunostimulatory molecules released from dying cells are called damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs). Cell death pathways, such as apoptosis, can initiate the release of DAMPs, causing immunogenic cell death (ICD) and inflammation.⁷³⁻⁷⁷ PBMT using various PSs can release DAMPs.⁷⁸⁻⁸⁶ During ICD, certain heat shock proteins, which are among the critical DAMPs, translocate to the cell surface, affecting phagocytosis by immune cells such as dendritic or recognition of CD94-mediated natural killer (NK).⁷⁷ Triggering ICD can also lead to the extracellular release of ATP, which signals dendritic cells (DCs) and promotes the release of proinflammatory cytokines.^{87,88} Nevertheless, the signaling mechanism underlying ATP release during ICD is complex and depends on the specific type of ICD initiation and the apoptotic stage of the cell.⁸⁰

The Effect of PBMT on Anti-Tumor Immune Responses

The effectiveness of PBMT in inducing ICD and exposing DAMPs can cause critical inflammation in the

tumor microenvironment, triggering an anti-tumor immune response. During the earlier stage of the immune reaction, tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes of myeloid lineage play an important role in neutralizing injured cells generated by PBMT.^{89,90}

Photodamage to the tumor vasculature can cause contraction of endothelial cells, facilitating neutrophil adhesion via integrin receptors.^{90,91} PBMT-induced damage can activate macrophages and induce the production of TNF- α through the stimulation of toll-like receptor 2/4.⁸⁶ NK cells, along with CD8+ cytotoxic T cells, are involved in the immune reaction following PBMT.⁹² Nevertheless, dying cancer cells following PBMT can promote the maturation of DCs, a process inhibited by the neutralization of DAMPs.^{84,93-95} Despite the crucial role of DCs in the PBMT-induced anti-tumor immune activation via cross-presentation of tumor antigens and phagocytosis, all functions of DCs have not been completely elucidated.

PBMT initiates a tumor-specific adaptive immune defense while decreasing tumor size and/or disrupting tumor vascularity. Previous studies have reported an increase in the number of CD8+ T cells within the tumor and the inhibition of treatment-induced tumor growth compared with those in control groups.⁹⁶⁻⁹⁹ Furthermore, the intra-tumoral injection of naive DCs after PBMT can arrest tumor antigens, migrate to draining lymph nodes, and amplify tumor-specific T cells.¹⁰⁰ Furthermore, CD8+ T cell deficiency can significantly decrease tumor growth and increase PBMT-induced progression-free survival.^{84,92,93,101-103}

IN VITRO COMBINATION STUDIES IN CANCER

PBMT may display a biphasic effect, either stimulating proliferation or triggering cell death, based on the parameters used, such as wavelength, power, and energy density, and dosing style and duration. In *in vitro* studies, PBMT was usually used as a continuous wave in the range of 660-810 nm and 0-150 J/cm² for wavelength and energy density, respectively. As shown in Table 1, PBMT acts as a chemo- and radio-sensitizer, allowing for dose reduction and thus alleviating chemotherapeutic-related adverse effects.¹⁰⁴⁻¹⁰⁷ PBMT

increases autophagy to kill cancer cells, decreases osteoclastogenic potential, and does not promote cancer stem cell self-renewal.¹⁰⁸⁻¹¹⁰ Furthermore, PBMT does not decrease but may increase the viability of non-cancer cells, protecting against antineoplastic-induced toxicity (Table 1).¹¹¹⁻¹¹⁵

IN VIVO COMBINATION STUDIES IN CANCER

In vivo studies have used PBMT as a continuous wave in the range of 600-850 nm and up to 1050 J/cm² for wavelength and energy density, respectively with exposure time usually between 10 and 420 s. A recent review analyzing 15 *in vivo* studies concluded that PBMT is safe and effective; however, the applied PBMT parameters result in variable responses in diverse tumor models, and the cellular microenvironment is a crucial factor affecting the outcome.¹²¹ PBMT can also decrease antineoplastic drug-induced adverse effects. Following PBMT, hair regrowth occurred 5 days early compared with the control groups (cyclophosphamide, etoposide, or a combination of cyclophosphamide and doxorubicin or sham laser-treated).¹²² *In vivo*, combination studies reported some beneficial effects of PBMT. When combined with antineoplastic agents, immunotherapeutics, and RT, PBMT can decrease tumor size, increase efficacy, and protect healthy cells (Table 2).

PHOTOBIMODULATION IN TODAY'S CLINICAL PRACTICE

Over the past two decades, the significance of PBMT has been increasingly recognized. In 2022, the WALT published a position paper that underscored the potential of PBMT in managing adverse effects associated with CT, RT, and hematopoietic stem cell transplantation (HSCT). Adverse effects induced by cancer therapy, such as dysphagia, xerostomia, dysgeusia, trismus, radiodermatitis, alopecia, oral and dermatologic chronic graft versus host disease, voice/speech alterations, peripheral neuropathy, and late fibrosis, may find potential prophylaxis and treatment through PBMT.¹²⁶

PBMT has been incorporated into a clinical practice guideline. The latest guideline from the Mu-

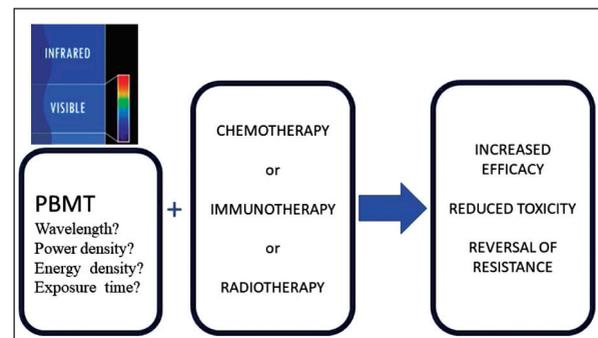
cositis Guidelines Leadership Group of the Multi-national Association of Supportive Care in Cancer and International Society of Oral Oncology guideline recommends intraoral PBMT (LLLT) to prevent of oral mucositis in adults undergoing HSCT with high-dose CT, RT, and combined RT plus CT for head and neck (H&N) carcinoma.¹²⁷ Extraoral PBMT, which reaches distal mucosa, seems to be more advantageous.¹²⁸ In pediatric practice, the use of intraoral PBMT in the red-light spectrum (620-750 nm) is also recommended in pediatric practice in patients undergoing HSCT and RT for H&N conditions. The pediatric guideline also emphasizes strong evidence against the routine use of palifermin due to its associated short- and long-term adverse effects.¹²⁹

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

The effectiveness of PBMT in various cancer types is influenced by specific parameters, such as wavelength, power density (irradiance), energy density (fluence), and exposure time. For instance, low-energy density exhibits a stimulatory effect on proliferation, whereas high-energy density inhibits proliferation (Appendix 1).

Selecting the appropriate dosage for PBMT in cancer treatment exhibits the following advantages: It can trigger the apoptotic process in the cancerous tissue while protecting and even increasing the number of healthy cells.

- It improves the efficacy of antineoplastic agents, immunomodulators, and RT.
- It can reverse antineoplastic drug resistance.



APPENDIX 1: Graphical Abstract: Photobiomodulation therapy
PBMT: Photobiomodulation therapy.

TABLE 1: *In vitro* efficacy studies on the combination of PBMT with CT or RT in cancer.

Light Source (wavelength, nm; power density, W/cm ² ; energy density, J/cm ²)	Combined treatment	Cell line	Results	Therapeutic potential	Reference
CW; 670 nm; for 2 min at power outputs of 100 mW/cm ²	Cis Zoledronic acid (PS)	PHF; HNSCC	LLLT increases cytotoxicity of Cis and zoledronic acid in PHF and HNSCC cells	PBMT plus Cis may also be a novel therapeutic option for keratocystic odontogenic tumors in the crano-maxillofacial region and other appropriate indications	116
CW; 660 nm; 30, 90 and 150 J/cm ²	IR, 2.5 and 10 Gy	Human gingival fibroblasts (FMM1); human breast cancer cells (MDA-MB-231)	PBMT increased cell viability and proliferation in a fluence-dependent manner but reduced senescence in FMM1. PBMT decreased proliferation but increased senescence in MDA-MB-231.	LLLT (90 J cm ² and 150 J cm ²) stimulates proliferation in fibroblasts, while its influence in cancer cells could not be observed	114
CW, once 685 nm; 16.6 mW/cm ² ; 0-20 J/cm ² ; 0-20 minutes	X-ray/IR	Human cervix adenocarcinoma cell line HeLa	PBMT induced no toxicity at 5-20 J/cm ² . 685 nm PBMT at 20 J/cm ² enhanced inhibition of colony formation following IR (4 and 6 Gy). Mechanisms include oxidative stress, DNA damage, apoptosis, and autophagy.	685 nm PBMT at 5-20 J/cm ² may be used as a radiosensitizer in cervical cancer to enable reduction of the radiation dose, hence adverse effects	117
660 nm; 1.07 mW/cm ² ; 0.2, 0.4, and 0.7 J	DOX	Rat adipose tissue-derived MSC	PBMT (0.2 J) inhibited DOX-induced apoptosis, and oxidative stress in the MSCs.	PBMT is protective against DOX-induced toxicity	118
CW, once Red; 660 nm; 60 mW; 11.7 J/cm ²	Cis	Keratinocytes (HaCat); tongue squamous cell carcinoma cells (SCC25); upper aerodigestive tract carcinoma cells (HN12)	Cis-PBMT treatment increased proliferation index Ki-67 in all cell lines, when compared to Cis alone. Cis or Cis-PBMT significantly decreased VEGF expression in cancer cells. The expression of TGF-β ¹ or EGF were not changed as compared to control	PBMT may potentiate Cis-induced cytotoxicity and death	104
Diode laser, CW (808 nm, 350 mW, 3 min, 190.91 J/cm ²)	Cis	Laryngeal cancer (HEp-2) cells	Photobiomodulation increases Cis-induced apoptotic effect	PBMT by enabling dose reduction for Cis, may reduce Cis-associated morbidity and mortality	119
660 nm, 3 J/cm ² for 90 seconds	Sinensetin	Cervical cancer cells (HeLa) and CHO cell lines	LLLT and sinensetin combination decreases cancer cell survival and increases ROS production in both cell lines	Only combined therapy (LLLT plus sinensetin) but neither LLT or sinensetin alone, can decrease viability of CHO and HeLa cells	105
610, 630 and 810 nm; 0.45 J/cm ²	Cis	Prostate cancer cell line (LnCap)	LLLT + Cis combination reduced cell viability more than Cis, alone. LLLT alone did not change cell viability	PBMT alone is not effective but may enhance Cis cytotoxicity in LnCap cells	106
780 nm, 30 mW/cm ² at a total energy density of 5 J/cm ² , delivered in 2 min and 46 s.	Radiotherapy, 1.7 Gy	Human epidermoid carcinoma cell line A431	PBMT did not increase proliferation	PBMT acts as a radiosensitizer	107
660 nm; 21.6 mW/cm ² ; 0-6 J/cm ²	IR; 4Gy	HaCaT, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cell line (SCC61)	PBMT w/o increased HaCaT proliferation and migration PBMT at 3-6 J/cm ² did not increase proliferation of irradiated SCC61 cells	PBMT supports wound healing without promoting cancer development	112
681 nm; CW 14 min.; 20, 50, 100 J/cm ²	ZnPcS4/ps; PDT	Resistant MCF-7 breast cancer cells	Additive effect on the viability and Annexin-V/PI-staining cell death	PBMT might improve the anti-tumor effect of PDT by inducing autophagy in resistant MCF-7 breast cancer cells that evade apoptosis	120

CW: Continuous wave; Cis: Cisplatin; PS: Photosensitizer; IR: Ionizing radiation; DOX: Doxorubicin; RT: Radiotherapy; ZnPcS4: Zinc tetrasulfonic acid phthalocyanine; PDT: Photodynamic therapy; PHF: Primary human fibroblasts; HNSCC: Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cells; MSC: Mesenchymal stem cells; CHO: Chinese hamster ovary; LLLT: Low-level laser irradiation; PBMT: Photobiomodulation therapy; VEGF: Vascular endothelial growth factor; TGF-β: Transforming growth factor-β; EGF: Epithelial growth factor; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; CT: Chemotherapy.

TABLE 2: *In vivo* safety and efficacy studies on the combination of PBMT with CT or RT in cancer.

Light source (wavelength, nm; power density, W/cm ² ; energy density, J/cm ²)	Combined treatment	In vivo model	Results	Therapeutic potential	Reference
CW 830 nm, 60 mW	ACNU, Mu-β-IFN	Gloma cell line 203 GL Anti-cancer drug (ACNU) group (n=10), Mu-β-IFN group (n=10) Direct LLLT plus Mu-β-IFN group (n=11) Mu-β-IFN plus ACNU group (n=10) Indirect LLLT plus Mu-β-IFN plus ACNU group (n=7)	The direct PBMT plus Mu-β-IFN group was the most successful in reducing tumor growth and incidence	Both direct (site of implantation) and indirect PBMT (abdominal skin) reduces tumor growth. Combination of PBMT with cancer- and immune-therapeutic agents increases efficacy.	123
λ660nm, 50 mW, CW, Ø= 3 mm, 0.07 cm ² , 714.2 mW/cm ² , 133 s, 95 J/cm ² , 6.65 J at every other day for 4 weeks	Imiquimod cream (applied topically)	DMBA-induced SCC in Syrian hamster cheek pouch model n=5 in each group G1, G2 (control) G3: PBMT G4: imiquimod G5: PBMT +imiquimod	Malignant tumors Mild dysplasia: G1, G2 and G3 (0%); G4 (60%) G5 (40%) Well differentiation: G1 (80%), G2 (100%), G3, G4 and G5 (40%) S100+ dendritic cells: G1, G2 and G3 (-); G4 (+); G5 (+); normal mucosa (++++)	PBMT and imiquimod, alone and in combination reduce tumor development. Imiquimod treatment supports immune surveillance which decreases when PBMT is added	124
5 J using a GaAlAs diode laser system at 780 nm, 20 mW/cm ² and a spot area of 4.0 mm ²	RT (1.7 Gy)	Human epidermoid carcinoma cell line A431 xenografts n=56, 7 per group	PMB and radiation increased median animal life by +4 days PBMT increases tumor necrosis due to radiation PMB increased mean differentiation grade and mean vascular density and decreased mitotic count Consistent tumor regression after treatment	PBMT is a radiosensitizer. PBMT protects normal tissue PBMT use is convenient (low cost and low staff training requirements)	107
NIR-II (100-1700 nm) laser, cw Dual treatment: 1064 nm, 300-6000 mW/cm ² + 1270 nm, 50-1000 mW/cm ²	Immune checkpoint inhibitor (anti- mouse PD-1-specific monoclonal antibody)	Syngeneic mouse model of breast cancer	Dual laser illumination induced T cell proliferation and decreased ROS generation in T cells in vitro. PBMT (1064 nm, 3 W/cm ² plus 1270 nm, 1 W/cm ²) decreased PD-1 expression in CD8+ T cells, enhanced tumor growth delay by the adoptive transfer of laser treated CD8+ T cells ex vivo against a model tumor antigen and augmented the effect of the immune checkpoint inhibitor on tumor growth	PBMT increases the efficacy of immunotherapy via CD8+ T cells. PBMT is safe and low-cost. PBMT has the potential to be combined with other treatment modalities.	125

CW: Continuous wave; Mu-β-IFN: Mouse-β-interferon; RT: Radiotherapy, PD-1: Programmed cell death protein 1; LLLT: Low-level laser irradiation; SCC: Squamous cell carcinoma; PBMT: Photobiomodulation therapy; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; PMB: Photobiomodulation

Furthermore, PBMT does not promote cancer stem cell renewal and phenotypes in certain cancer types.

To conclude, further studies are warranted to establish the precise protocols for PBMT dosage. These studies are essential to address the aforementioned limitations and uncover the potential advantages of light therapy that have not yet been fully explored.

Source of Finance

During this study, no financial or spiritual support was received neither from any pharmaceutical company that has a direct connection with the research subject, nor from a company that provides or produces medical instruments and materials which may negatively affect the evaluation process of this study.

Conflict of Interest

No conflicts of interest between the authors and / or family members of the scientific and medical committee members or members of the potential conflicts of interest, counseling, expertise, working conditions, share holding and similar situations in any firm.

Authorship Contributions

Idea/Concept: Ferda Kaleağasioğlu; **Design:** Ebru Nur Ay, Ferda Kaleağasioğlu; **Control/Supervision:** Ferda Kaleağasioğlu; **Data Collection and/or Processing:** Ebru Nur Ay, Ferda Kaleağasioğlu, Duygu Hüsna Acar; **Analysis and/or Interpretation:** Ebru Nur Ay, Ferda Kaleağasioğlu; **Literature Review:** Ebru Nur Ay, Ferda Kaleağasioğlu, Duygu Hüsna Acar; **Writing the Article:** Ebru Nur Ay, Ferda Kaleağasioğlu, **Critical Review:** Ferda Kaleağasioğlu.

REFERENCES

- Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly Identified Health Risks. Health Effects of Artificial Light.; 2012. Accessed: 14 December 2023 [Link]
- Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly-Identified Health Risks. Scientific Opinion on Light Sensitivity.; 2008. [Link]
- Liebert A, Kiat H. The history of light therapy in hospital physiotherapy and medicine with emphasis on Australia: Evolution into novel areas of practice. *Physiother Theory Pract.* 2021;37(3):389-400. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Abdel-Kader MH. The journey of PDT throughout history: PDT from pharos to present. In: Kostron H, Tayyaba H, eds. *Comprehensive Series in Photochemical & Photobiological Sciences Photodynamic Medicine: From Bench to Clinic.* 1st ed. Royal Society of Chemistry; 2016. p.1-21. [Crossref]
- Roelands R. The history of phototherapy: something new under the sun? *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2002;46(6):926-930. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Grzybowski A, Sak J, Pawlikowski J. A brief report on the history of phototherapy. *Clin Dermatol.* 2016;34(5):532-537. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- THOR [Internet]. © 2023 THOR Photomedicine Ltd All Rights [Cited:]. Pubmed to adopt "Photobiomodulation Therapy" as a MeSH term. Cited: 14.12.2023 Available from: [Link]
- Aghajanzadeh M, Zamani M, Rajabi Kouchi F, et al. Synergic antitumor effect of photodynamic therapy and chemotherapy mediated by nano drug delivery systems. *Pharmaceutics.* 2022;14(2):322. [Crossref] [PubMed] [PMC]
- Tam SY, Tam VCV, Ramkumar S, Khaw ML, Law HKW, Lee SWY. Review on the Cellular Mechanisms of Low-Level Laser Therapy Use in Oncology. *Front Oncol.* Jul 2020;10:1255. [Crossref] [PubMed] [PMC]
- Montes de Oca Balderas P. Mitochondria-plasma membrane interactions and communication. *J Biol Chem.* 2021;297(4):101164. [Crossref] [PubMed] [PMC]
- Santucci R, Sinibaldi F, Cozza P, Polticelli F, Fiorucci L. Cytochrome c: An extreme multifunctional protein with a key role in cell fate. *Int J Biol Macromol.* Sep 2019;136:1237-1246. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Tucker LD, Lu Y, Dong Y, et al. Photobiomodulation Therapy Attenuates Hypoxic-Ischemic Injury in a Neonatal Rat Model. *J Mol Neurosci.* 2018;65(4):514-526. [Crossref] [PubMed] [PMC]
- Huang YY, Chen AC, Carroll JD, Hamblin MR. Biphasic dose response in low level light therapy. *Dose Response.* 2009;7(4):358-383. [Crossref] [PubMed] [PMC]
- Karu TI. Mitochondrial signaling in mammalian cells activated by red and near-IR radiation. *Photochem Photobiol.* 2008;84(5):1091-1099. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Salehpour F, Mahmoudi J, Kamari F, Sadigh-Eteghad S, Rasta SH, Hamblin MR. Brain Photobiomodulation Therapy: a Narrative Review. *Mol Neurobiol.* 2018;55(8):6601-6636. [Crossref] [PubMed] [PMC]
- Yadav A, Gupta A, Keshri GK, Verma S, Sharma SK, Singh SB. Photobiomodulatory effects of superpulsed 904nm laser therapy on bioenergetics status in burn wound healing. *J Photochem Photobiol B.* Sep 2016;162:77-85. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Hamblin MR. Mechanisms and applications of the anti-inflammatory effects of photobiomodulation. *AIMS Biophys.* 2017;4(3):337-361. [Crossref] [PubMed] [PMC]
- Kasprzyk-Kucewicz T, Szurko A, Stanek A, Sieroń K, Morawiec T, Cholewka A. Usefulness in developing an optimal training program and distinguishing between performance levels of the athlete's body by using of thermal imaging. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2020;17(16):5698. [Crossref] [PubMed] [PMC]
- Ferraresi C, de Sousa MV, Huang YY, Bagnato VS, Parizotto NA, Hamblin MR. Time response of increases in ATP and muscle resistance to fatigue after low-level laser (light) therapy (LLLT) in mice. *Lasers Med Sci.* 2015;30(4):1259-1267. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Shefer G, Oron U, Irintchev A, Wernig A, Halevy O. Skeletal muscle cell activation by low-energy laser irradiation: a role for the MAPK/ERK pathway. *J Cell Physiol.* 2001;187(1):73-80. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Hu WP, Wang JJ, Yu CL, Lan CC, Chen GS, Yu HS. Helium-neon laser irradiation stimulates cell proliferation through photostimulatory effects in mitochondria. *J Invest Dermatol.* 2007;127(8):2048-2057. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Stocker R, Keaney JF Jr. Role of oxidative modifications in atherosclerosis. *Physiol Rev.* 2004;84(4):1381-1478. [Crossref] [PubMed]
- Zhang J, Xing D, Gao X. Low-power laser irradiation activates Src tyrosine kinase through reactive oxygen species-mediated signaling pathway. *J Cell Physiol.* 2008;217(2):518-528. [Crossref] [PubMed]

24. Chen AC, Arany PR, Huang YY, et al. Low-level laser therapy activates NF- κ B via generation of reactive oxygen species in mouse embryonic fibroblasts. *PLoS One*. 2011;6(7):e22453. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
25. Kopp-Scheinpflug C, Forsythe ID. Nitric oxide signaling in the auditory pathway. *Front Neural Circuits*. Oct 2021;15:759342. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
26. Mitchell UH, Mack GL. Low-level laser treatment with near-infrared light increases venous nitric oxide levels acutely: a single-blind, randomized clinical trial of efficacy. *Am J Phys Med Rehabil*. 2013;92(2):151-156. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
27. Karu TI, Pyatibrat LV, Afanasyeva NI. Cellular effects of low power laser therapy can be mediated by nitric oxide. *Lasers Surg Med*. 2005;36(4):307-314. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
28. Tuby H, Maltz L, Oron U. Modulations of VEGF and iNOS in the rat heart by low level laser therapy are associated with cardioprotection and enhanced angiogenesis. *Lasers Surg Med*. 2006;38(7):682-688. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
29. Karu TI, Pyatibrat LV, Kalendo GS. Photobiological modulation of cell attachment via cytochrome c oxidase. *Photochem Photobiol Sci*. 2004;3(2):211-216. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
30. Lubart R, Friedmann H, Sinyakov M, Cohen N, Breitbart H. Changes in calcium transport in mammalian sperm mitochondria and plasma membranes caused by 780 nm irradiation. *Lasers Surg Med*. 1997;21(5):493-499. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
31. Abdel-Magied N, Elkady AA, Abdel Fattah SM. Effect of low-level laser on some metals related to redox state and histological alterations in the liver and kidney of irradiated rats. *Biol Trace Elem Res*. 2020;194(2):410-422. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
32. Harraz OF, Jensen LJ. Vascular calcium signalling and ageing. *J Physiol*. 2021;599(24):5361-5377. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
33. Santos Hde L, Rigos CF, Tedesco AC, Ciancaglini P. Biostimulation of Na,K-ATPase by low-energy laser irradiation (685 nm, 35 mW): comparative effects in membrane, solubilized and DPPC:DPPE-liposome reconstituted enzyme. *J Photochem Photobiol B*. 2007;89(1):22-28. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
34. Hao Y, Baker D, Ten Dijke P. TGF- β -Mediated Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition and Cancer Metastasis. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2019;20(11):2767. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
35. Nouruzian M, Alidoust M, Bayat M, Bayat M, Akbari M. Effect of low-level laser therapy on healing of tenotomized Achilles tendon in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Lasers Med Sci*. 2013;28(2):399-405. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
36. Dang Y, Liu B, Liu L, et al. The 800-nm diode laser irradiation induces skin collagen synthesis by stimulating TGF- β /Smad signaling pathway. *Lasers Med Sci*. 2011;26(6):837-843. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
37. de Oliveira TS, Serra AJ, Manchini MT, et al. Effects of low level laser therapy on attachment, proliferation, and gene expression of VEGF and VEGF receptor 2 of adipocyte-derived mesenchymal stem cells cultivated under nutritional deficiency. *Lasers Med Sci*. 2015;30(1):217-223. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
38. Silveira PC, Scheffer Dda L, Glaser V, et al. Low-level laser therapy attenuates the acute inflammatory response induced by muscle traumatic injury. *Free Radic Res*. 2016;50(5):503-513. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
39. Gaptulbarova KA, Tsyganov MM, Pevzner AM, Ibragimova MK, Litviakov NV. NF- κ B as a potential prognostic marker and a candidate for targeted therapy of cancer. *Exp Oncol*. 2020;42(4):263-269. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
40. Ji Y, Li M, Chang M, et al. Inflammation: Roles in Skeletal Muscle Atrophy. *Antioxidants (Basel)*. 2022;11(9):1686. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
41. Rizzi CF, Mauriz JL, Freitas Corrêa DS, et al. Effects of low-level laser therapy (LLLT) on the nuclear factor (NF)- κ B signaling pathway in traumatized muscle. *Lasers Surg Med*. 2006;38(7):704-713. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
42. Tamura A, Matsunobu T, Tamura R, Kawauchi S, Sato S, Shiotani A. Photobiomodulation rescues the cochlea from noise-induced hearing loss via upregulating nuclear factor κ B expression in rats. *Brain Res*. Sep 2016;1646:467-474. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
43. Yin K, Zhu R, Wang S, Zhao RC. Low level laser (LLL) attenuate LPS-induced inflammatory responses in mesenchymal stem cells via the suppression of NF- κ B signaling pathway in vitro. *PLoS One*. 2017;12(6):e0179175. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
44. Chang H, Zou Z, Li J, et al. Photoactivation of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species-mediated Src and protein kinase C pathway enhances MHC class II-restricted T cell immunity to tumours. *Cancer Lett*. Dec 2021;523:57-71. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
45. Gupta R, Ambasta RK, Pravir Kumar. Autophagy and apoptosis cascade: which is more prominent in neuronal death? *Cell Mol Life Sci*. 2021;78(24):8001-8047. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
46. Gao X, Chen T, Xing D, Wang F, Pei Y, Wei X. Single cell analysis of PKC activation during proliferation and apoptosis induced by laser irradiation. *J Cell Physiol*. 2006;206(2):441-448. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
47. Rola P, Włodarczak S, Lesiak M, Doroszko A, Włodarczak A. Changes in cell biology under the influence of low-level laser therapy. *Photonics*. 2022;9(7):502. [[Crossref](#)]
48. Mai NNH, Yamaguchi Y, Chojookhoo N, et al. Photodynamic therapy using a novel phosphorus tetraphenylporphyrin induces an anticancer effect via Bax/Bcl-xL-related mitochondrial apoptosis in biliary cancer cells. *Acta Histochem Cytochem*. 2020;53(4):61-72. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
49. Movahedi MM, Alamzadeh Z, Hosseini-Nami S, et al. Investigating the mechanisms behind extensive death in human cancer cells following nanoparticle assisted photo-thermo-radiotherapy. *Photodiagnosis Photodyn Ther*. Mar 2020;29:101600. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
50. Li Y, Xu Y, Peng X, Huang J, Yang M, Wang X. A novel photosensitizer ZnIn2S4 mediated photodynamic therapy induced-HepG2 cell apoptosis. *Radiat Res*. 2019;192(4):422-430. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
51. Cho H, Zheng H, Sun Q, et al. Development of novel photosensitizer using the *Buddleja officinalis* extract for head and neck cancer. *Evid Based Complement Alternat Med*. Jun 2018;2018:6917590. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
52. Buytaert E, Callewaert G, Hendrickx N, et al. Role of endoplasmic reticulum depletion and multidomain proapoptotic BAX and BAK proteins in shaping cell death after hypericin-mediated photodynamic therapy. *FASEB J*. 2006;20(6):756-758. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
53. Chiu SM, Xue LY, Usuda J, Azizuddin K, Oleinick NL. Bax is essential for mitochondrion-mediated apoptosis but not for cell death caused by photodynamic therapy. *Br J Cancer*. 2003;89(8):1590-1597. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
54. Granville DJ, Shaw JR, Leong S, et al. Release of cytochrome c, Bax migration, Bid cleavage, and activation of caspases 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, and 9 during endothelial cell apoptosis. *Am J Pathol*. 1999;155(4):1021-1025. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
55. Srivastava M, Ahmad N, Gupta S, Mukhtar H. Involvement of Bcl-2 and Bax in photodynamic therapy-mediated apoptosis. Antisense Bcl-2 oligonucleotide sensitizes RIF 1 cells to photodynamic therapy apoptosis. *J Biol Chem*. 2001;276(18):15481-15488. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
56. Huis In 't Veld RV, Heuts J, Ma S, Cruz LJ, Ossendorp FA, Jager MJ. Current Challenges and Opportunities of Photodynamic Therapy against Cancer. *Pharmaceutics*. 2023;15(2):330. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
57. Oleinick NL, Morris RL, Belichenko I. The role of apoptosis in response to photodynamic therapy: what, where, why, and how. *Photochem Photobiol Sci*. 2002;1(1):1-21. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
58. Kessel D, Luo Y, Deng Y, Chang CK. The role of subcellular localization in initiation of apoptosis by photodynamic therapy. *Photochem Photobiol*. 1997;65(3):422-426. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
59. Agostinis P, Buytaert E, Breyssens H, Hendrickx N. Regulatory pathways in photodynamic therapy induced apoptosis. *Photochem Photobiol Sci*. 2004;3(8):721-729. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
60. Almeida RD, Manadas BJ, Carvalho AP, Duarte CB. Intracellular signaling mechanisms in photodynamic therapy. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2004;1704(2):59-86. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]

61. Hsieh YJ, Wu CC, Chang CJ, Yu JS. Subcellular localization of Photofrin determines the death phenotype of human epidermoid carcinoma A431 cells triggered by photodynamic therapy: when plasma membranes are the main targets. *J Cell Physiol.* 2003;194(3):363-375. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
62. Fabris C, Valduga G, Miotto G, et al. Photosensitization with zinc (II) phthalocyanine as a switch in the decision between apoptosis and necrosis. *Cancer Res.* 2001;61(20):7495-7500. [[PubMed](#)]
63. Lam M, Oleinick NL, Nieminen AL. Photodynamic therapy-induced apoptosis in epidermoid carcinoma cells. Reactive oxygen species and mitochondrial inner membrane permeabilization. *J Biol Chem.* 2001;276(50):47379-47386. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
64. Minamikawa T, Sriratana A, Williams DA, Bowser DN, Hill JS, Nagley P. Chloromethyl-X-rosamine (MitoTracker Red) photosensitises mitochondria and induces apoptosis in intact human cells. *J Cell Sci.* 1999;112 (Pt 14):2419-2430. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
65. Chaloupka R, Petit PX, Israël N, Sureau F. Over-expression of Bcl-2 does not protect cells from hypericin photo-induced mitochondrial membrane depolarization, but delays subsequent events in the apoptotic pathway. *FEBS Lett.* 1999;462(3):295-301. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
66. Chiu SM, Oleinick NL. Dissociation of mitochondrial depolarization from cytochrome c release during apoptosis induced by photodynamic therapy. *Br J Cancer.* 2001;84(8):1099-1106. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
67. Belzacq AS, Jacotot E, Vieira HL, et al. Apoptosis induction by the photosensitizer verteporfin: identification of mitochondrial adenine nucleotide translocator as a critical target. *Cancer Res.* 2001;61(4):1260-1264. [[PubMed](#)]
68. Scherz-Shouval R, Shvets E, Fass E, Shorer H, Gil L, Elazar Z. Reactive oxygen species are essential for autophagy and specifically regulate the activity of Atg4. *EMBO J.* 2007;26(7):1749-1760. Erratum in: *EMBO J.* 2019;38(10): [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
69. Xue LY, Chiu SM, Azizuddin K, Joseph S, Oleinick NL. The death of human cancer cells following photodynamic therapy: apoptosis competence is necessary for Bcl-2 protection but not for induction of autophagy. *Photochem Photobiol.* 2007;83(5):1016-1023. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
70. Kessel D, Vicente MG, Reiners JJ Jr. Initiation of apoptosis and autophagy by photodynamic therapy. *Lasers Surg Med.* 2006;38(5):482-488. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
71. Scherz-Shouval R, Elazar Z. ROS, mitochondria and the regulation of autophagy. *Trends Cell Biol.* 2007;17(9):422-427. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
72. Sasnauskienė A, Kadziauskas J, Veželytė N, Jonušienė V, Kirvelienė V. Apoptosis, autophagy and cell cycle arrest following photodamage to mitochondrial interior. *Apoptosis.* 2009;14(3):276-286. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
73. Firczuk M, Nowis D, Gołaż J. PDT-induced inflammatory and host responses. *Photochem Photobiol Sci.* 2011;10(5):653-663. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
74. Garg AD, Nowis D, Golab J, Vandenabeele P, Krysko DV, Agostinis P. Immunogenic cell death, DAMPs and anticancer therapeutics: an emerging amalgamation. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 2010;1805(1):53-71. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
75. Yang H, Ma Y, Chen G, et al. Contribution of RIP3 and MLKL to immunogenic cell death signaling in cancer chemotherapy. *Oncoimmunology.* 2016;5(6):e1149673. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
76. Aaes TL, Kaczmarek A, Delvaeye T, et al. Vaccination with necroptotic cancer cells induces efficient anti-tumor immunity. *Cell Rep.* 2016;15(2):274-287. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
77. Kroemer G, Galluzzi L, Kepp O, Zitvogel L. Immunogenic cell death in cancer therapy. *Annu Rev Immunol.* Nov 2013;31:51-72. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
78. Obeid M, Tesniere A, Ghiringhelli F, et al. Calreticulin exposure dictates the immunogenicity of cancer cell death. *Nat Med.* 2007;13(1):54-61. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
79. Scaffidi P, Misteli T, Bianchi ME. Release of chromatin protein HMGB1 by necrotic cells triggers inflammation. *Nature.* 2002;418(6894):191-195. Erratum in: *Nature.* 2010;467(7315):622. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
80. Krysko DV, Garg AD, Kaczmarek A, Krysko O, Agostinis P, Vandenabeele P. Immunogenic cell death and DAMPs in cancer therapy. *Nat Rev Cancer.* 2012;12(12):860-875. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
81. Panzarini E, Inguscio V, Fimia GM, Dini L. Rose Bengal acetate photodynamic therapy (RBAC-PDT) induces exposure and release of Damage-Associated Molecular Patterns (DAMPs) in human HeLa cells. *PLoS One.* 2014;9(8):e105778. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
82. Garg AD, Krysko DV, Verfaillie T, et al. A novel pathway combining calreticulin exposure and ATP secretion in immunogenic cancer cell death. *EMBO J.* 2012;31(5):1062-1079. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
83. Korblick M. PDT-associated host response and its role in the therapy outcome. *Lasers Surg Med.* 2006;38(5):500-508. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
84. Huis In 't Veld RV, Da Silva CG, Jager MJ, Cruz LJ, Ossendorf F. Combining photodynamic therapy with immunostimulatory nanoparticles elicits effective anti-tumor immune responses in preclinical murine models. *Pharmaceutics.* 2021;13(9):1470. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
85. Li W, Yang J, Luo L, et al. Targeting photodynamic and photothermal therapy to the endoplasmic reticulum enhances immunogenic cancer cell death. *Nat Commun.* 2019;10(1):3349. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
86. Korblick M, Sun J, Cecic I. Photodynamic therapy-induced cell surface expression and release of heat shock proteins: relevance for tumor response. *Cancer Res.* 2005;65(3):1018-1026. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
87. Riteau N, Baron L, Villeret B, et al. ATP release and purinergic signaling: a common pathway for particle-mediated inflammasome activation. *Cell Death Dis.* 2012;3(10):e403. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
88. Sun J, Cecic I, Parkins CS, Korblick M. Neutrophils as inflammatory and immune effectors in photodynamic therapy-treated mouse SCCVII tumours. *Photochem Photobiol Sci.* 2002;1(9):690-695. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
89. Lobo ACS, Gomes-da-Silva LC, Rodrigues-Santos P, Cabrita A, Santos-Rosa M, Arnaut LG. Immune responses after vascular photodynamic therapy with redaporfin. *J Clin Med.* 2019;9(1):104. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
90. Krosli G, Korblick M, Dougherty GJ. Induction of immune cell infiltration into murine SCCVII tumour by photofrin-based photodynamic therapy. *Br J Cancer.* 1995;71(3):549-55. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
91. de Vree WJ, Fontijne-Dorsman AN, Koster JF, Sluiter W. Photodynamic treatment of human endothelial cells promotes the adherence of neutrophils in vitro. *Br J Cancer.* 1996;73(11):1335-1340. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
92. Kabingu E, Vaughan L, Owczarczak B, Ramsey KD, Gollnick SO. CD8+ T cell-mediated control of distant tumours following local photodynamic therapy is independent of CD4+ T cells and dependent on natural killer cells. *Br J Cancer.* 2007;96(12):1839-1848. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
93. Gollnick SO, Brackett CM. Enhancement of anti-tumor immunity by photodynamic therapy. *Immunol Res.* 2010;46(1-3):216-226. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
94. Wang X, Ji J, Zhang H, et al. Stimulation of dendritic cells by DAMPs in ALA-PDT treated SCC tumor cells. *Oncotarget.* 2015;6(42):44688-446702. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
95. Zheng Y, Yin G, Le V, et al. Photodynamic-therapy activates immune response by disrupting immunity homeostasis of tumor cells, which generates vaccine for cancer therapy. *Int J Biol Sci.* 2016;12(1):120-132. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
96. Ji J, Fan Z, Zhou F, et al. Improvement of DC vaccine with ALA-PDT induced immunogenic apoptotic cells for skin squamous cell carcinoma. *Oncotarget.* 2015;6(19):17135-17146. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
97. Zhang H, Wang P, Wang X, et al. Antitumor effects of DC vaccine with ALA-PDT-induced immunogenic apoptotic cells for skin squamous cell carcinoma in mice. *Technol Cancer Res Treat.* Jan 2018;17:1533033818785275. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
98. Baert T, Garg AD, Vindevogel E, et al. In vitro generation of murine dendritic cells for cancer immunotherapy: an optimized protocol. *Anticancer Res.* 2016;36(11):5793-5801. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]

99. Trempolec N, Doix B, Degavre C, et al. Photodynamic therapy-based dendritic cell vaccination suited to treat peritoneal mesothelioma. *Cancers (Basel)*. 2020;12(3):545. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
100. Jalili A, Makowski M, Switaj T, et al. Effective photoimmunotherapy of murine colon carcinoma induced by the combination of photodynamic therapy and dendritic cells. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2004;10(13):4498-4508. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
101. Kleinovink JW, van Driel PB, Snoeks TJ, et al. Combination of photodynamic therapy and specific immunotherapy efficiently eradicates established tumors. *Clin Cancer Res*. 2016;22(6):1459-1468. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
102. Kleinovink JW, Fransen MF, Löwik CW, Ossendorp F. Photodynamic-immune checkpoint therapy eradicates local and distant tumors by CD8+ T cells. *Cancer Immunol Res*. 2017;5(10):832-838. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
103. Preise D, Oren R, Glinert I, et al. Systemic antitumor protection by vascular-targeted photodynamic therapy involves cellular and humoral immunity. *Cancer Immunol Immunother*. 2009;58(1):71-84. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
104. Diniz IMA, Souto GR, Freitas IDP, et al. Photobiomodulation enhances cisplatin cytotoxicity in a culture model with oral cell lineages. *Photochem Photobiol*. 2020;96(1):182-190. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
105. Javaheri B, Esmaeeli Djavid G, Parivar K, Hekmat A. Effect of low-level laser therapy and sinensetin (Combination therapy) on tumor cells (Hela) and normal cells (CHO). *J Lasers Med Sci*. Dec 2021;12:e85. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
106. Zafari J, Abbasinia H, Gharehyazi H, Javani Jouni F, Jamali S, Razzaghi M. Evaluation of biological activity of different wavelengths of low-level laser therapy on the cancer prostate cell line compared with cisplatin. *J Lasers Med Sci*. May 2021;12:e17. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
107. de Faria CMG, Barrera-Patiño CP, Santana JPP, da Silva de Avó LR, Bagnato VS. Tumor radiosensitization by photobiomodulation. *J Photochem Photobiol B*. Dec 2021;225:112349. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
108. Stefenon L, Boasquevisque M, Garcez AS, et al. Autophagy upregulation may explain inhibition of oral carcinoma in situ by photobiomodulation in vitro. *J Photochem Photobiol B*. Aug 2021;221:112245. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
109. Dias Schalch T, Porta Santos Fernandes K, Costa-Rodrigues J, et al. Photomodulation of the osteoclastogenic potential of oral squamous carcinoma cells. *J Biophotonics*. 2016;9(11-12):1136-1147. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
110. Ibarra AMC, Garcia MP, Ferreira M, et al. Effects of photobiomodulation on cellular viability and cancer stem cell phenotype in oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Lasers Med Sci*. 2021;36(3):681-690. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
111. Xia Y, Yu W, Cheng F, et al. Photobiomodulation With Blue Laser Inhibits Bladder Cancer Progression. *Front Oncol*. Oct 2021;11:701122. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
112. Courtois E, Guy JB, Axisa F, et al. Photobiomodulation by a new optical fiber device: analysis of the in vitro impact on proliferation/migration of keratinocytes and squamous cell carcinomas cells stressed by X-rays. *Lasers Med Sci*. 2021;36(7):1445-1454. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
113. Kara C, Selamet H, Gökmenoğlu C, Kara N. Low level laser therapy induces increased viability and proliferation in isolated cancer cells. *Cell Prolif*. 2018;51(2):e12417. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
114. Ramos Silva C, Cabral FV, de Camargo CF, et al. Exploring the effects of low-level laser therapy on fibroblasts and tumor cells following gamma radiation exposure. *J Biophotonics*. 2016;9(11-12):1157-1166. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
115. Gonçalves de Faria CM, Ciol H, Salvador Bagnato V, Pratavieira S. Effects of photobiomodulation on the redox state of healthy and cancer cells. *Biomed Opt Express*. 2021;12(7):3902-3916. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
116. Heymann PG, Mandic R, Kämmerer PW, et al. Laser-enhanced cytotoxicity of zoledronic acid and cisplatin on primary human fibroblasts and head and neck squamous cell carcinoma cell line UM-SCC-3. *J Craniomaxillofac Surg*. 2014;42(7):1469-1474. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
117. Djavid GE, Bigdeli B, Goliaei B, Nikoofar A, Hamblin MR. Photobiomodulation leads to enhanced radiosensitivity through induction of apoptosis and autophagy in human cervical cancer cells. *J Biophotonics*. 2017;10(12):1732-1742. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
118. de Lima RDN, Vieira SS, Antonio EL, et al. Low-level laser therapy alleviates the deleterious effect of doxorubicin on rat adipose tissue-derived mesenchymal stem cells. *J Photochem Photobiol B*. Jul 2019;196:111512. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
119. Seragel-Deen F, Abdel Ghani SA, Baghdadi HM, Saafan AM. Combined cisplatin treatment and photobiomodulation at high fluence induces cytochrome c release and cytomorphologic alterations in HEp-2 cells. *Open Access Maced J Med Sci*. 2020;8(A):366-373. [[Crossref](#)]
120. Anigo EC, George BP, Abrahamse H. Photobiomodulation improves anti-tumor efficacy of photodynamic therapy against resistant MCF-7 cancer cells. *Bio-medicines*. 2023;11(6):1547. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
121. Bensadoun RJ, Epstein JB, Nair RG, et al; World Association for Laser Therapy (WALT). Safety and efficacy of photobiomodulation therapy in oncology: A systematic review. *Cancer Med*. 2020;9(22):8279-8300. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
122. Wikramanayake TC, Villasante AC, Mauro LM, et al. Low-level laser treatment accelerated hair regrowth in a rat model of chemotherapy-induced alopecia (CIA). *Lasers Med Sci*. 2013;28(3):701-706. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
123. Abe M, Fujisawa K, Suzuki H, Sugimoto T, Kanno T. Role of 830 nm low reactive level laser on the growth of an implanted glioma in mice. *Keio J Med*. 1993;42(4):177-179. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
124. de C Monteiro JS, de Oliveira SC, Reis Júnior JA, et al. Effects of imiquimod and low-intensity laser (λ660 nm) in chemically induced oral carcinomas in hamster buccal pouch mucosa. *Lasers Med Sci*. 2013;28(3):1017-1024. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
125. Katagiri W, Yokomizo S, Ishizuka T, et al. Dual near-infrared II laser modulates the cellular redox state of T cells and augments the efficacy of cancer immunotherapy. *FASEB J*. 2022;36(10):e22521. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
126. Robijns J, Nair RG, Lodewijckx J, et al. Photobiomodulation therapy in management of cancer therapy-induced side effects: WALT position paper 2022. *Front Oncol*. Aug 2022;12:927685. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
127. Elad S, Cheng KKF, Lalla RV, et al; Mucositis Guidelines Leadership Group of the Multinational Association of Supportive Care in Cancer and International Society of Oral Oncology (MASCC/ISOO). MASCC/ISOO clinical practice guidelines for the management of mucositis secondary to cancer therapy. *Cancer*. 2020;126(19):4423-4431. Erratum in: *Cancer*. 2021;127(19):3700. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
128. Adnan A, Yaroslavsky AN, Carroll JD, et al. The path to an evidence-based treatment protocol for extraoral photobiomodulation therapy for the prevention of oral mucositis. *Front Oral Health*. Jul 2021;2:689386. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)] [[PMC](#)]
129. Patel P, Robinson PD, Baggott C, et al. Clinical practice guideline for the prevention of oral and oropharyngeal mucositis in pediatric cancer and hematopoietic stem cell transplant patients: 2021 update. *Eur J Cancer*. Sep 2021;154:92-101. [[Crossref](#)] [[PubMed](#)]