Laser phototherapy in acute posttraumatic trismus – Case-series study

Emilia Rasca, Amaury Namour, Aude Fauchon-Giumelli, Samir Nammour

Department of Dental Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Liège, Belgium Institut de dentisterie – Polycliniques Brull, Liège, Belgium

Backgroud and aims: There are very few studies on laser phototherapy (LPT) in acute temporomandibular disorders (TMDs). Our objective is to assess the effectiveness of laser phototherapy (LPT) on the limitation of the mouth opening due to an acute mandibular trauma.

Subjects and methods: Fourteen women of 41 ± 3 years and 24 men of 38 ± 3 years, with no history of TMD and having sustained a mandibular trauma within the prior 20 hours, were treated exclusively by using an 810-nm laser beam in a continuous wave mode, with an output power of 1 W. At a speed of 2 cm/s, it scanned twice, for 60 seconds, with a pause in between of 2 minutes, a large cutaneous area (25 cm²), covering the temporomandibular joint (TMJ), the masseter muscle and a part of the temporalis fossa; also, it scanned just once, for 7 seconds, a small mucous area (3 cm²), covering the internal pterygoid muscle. The clinical outcomes were evaluated by comparing the maximum unassisted opening (MUO), measured at the baseline and immediately after the end of the LPT procedure.

Results: The MUO improvement of 24.6 ± 4.4 mm represented a highly significant difference (p < .0001) between the measurements, in all the patients, regardless of gender.

Conclusions: By scanning with an 810-nm laser beam, within less than 20 hours after the trauma, large areas of all the involved tissues and not just a few points, as described until now, the limited mouth opening in acute posttraumatic trismus was immediately and greatly resolved.

Key words: laser phototherapy • low-level laser therapy • temporomandibular joint disorders • mandibular trauma • masticatory muscles • temporomandibular joint • acute trismus

Introduction

Derived from the Greek word 'trismos', which means 'gnashing', the term trismus defines any restricted mouth opening, regardless of etiology, which can be traumatic, inflammatory, neoplastic, metabolic or neurogenic¹⁾. Commonly, it refers to a prolonged, tetanic spasm of the jaw muscles. Acute trismus is most often of inflammatory and/or traumatic origin. Orofacial traumas generate nociceptive inputs processed in the spinal trigeminal nuclear complex (STNC), which induce sustained bilateral increase in electromyographic activity of both elevators and depressors of the jaw^{2, 3)}. This results in mouth opening limitation, occurring within minutes after trauma and involving two pathophysiological mechanisms. The first

Addressee for Correspondence: Dr Emilia Rasca, MD, DDS Immeuble Le Rond Point 8, route de la Sablière 13011 Marseille, France Phone: +33-980-682-867 Fax: +33-985-682-867 e-mail: emilia.rasca@orange.fr

mechanisms. The first giene. Conventional etal traumas, incl based on an emp 85-682-867 Received date: Janua Accepted date: July

one is a purely reflex trismus, also called protective co-contraction ⁴), which is not always associated with myalgia ⁵). When prolonged, it may be followed by local muscle soreness ⁶), characterized by the release of algogenic substances, such as bradykinin, substance P and histamine, which activate and sensitize the muscle nociceptors and thus reinforce the STNC activation. This primary, non-inflammatory, myalgia can also be induced by an excessive use or a local trauma of the muscle. So, at the beginning, when the patient is asked to open slowly, full opening is achieved; after a while, he/she becomes unable to reach the maximal opening of the mouth. Consequently, acute posttraumatic trismus can seriously impair all the mandibular functions, as well as the oral hygiene.

Conventional primary therapy of acute musculoskeletal traumas, including masticatory system, is largely based on an empirical pharmacotherapy ⁷⁾, including

Received date: January 17th, 2018 Accepted date: July 13th, 2018

muscle relaxants, nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), and/or analgesics. Laser phototherapy (LPT) has been used for more than three decades for the treatment of musculoskeletal disorders ⁸⁾, including those of the masticatory system ⁹⁾. The LPT effectiveness in the treatment of chronic temporomandibular disorders (TMDs) is supported by many studies ¹⁰⁻¹⁵⁾, although unsuccessful results have also been reported ¹⁶⁻¹⁹⁾.

So far, very few studies $^{20, 21, 14)}$ addressed the LPT efficacy in acute (< 30 days) or recent (< 6 months) TMDs. Besides, their conclusions were somewhat confusing: one of these studies reported better outcomes in acute than in chronic TMDs $^{14)}$, while another one reported that the same LPT protocol was successful in chronic cases and totally unsuccessful in recent cases of both muscular and articular TMDs $^{20)}$. Our previous study $^{22)}$ has demonstrated that LPT alone can resolve in 15 minutes an acute posttraumatic painful trismus with a history of less than 48 hours, by using a combined red-infrared laser beam. The aim of this study is to assess the effectiveness of laser phototherapy (LPT) on the limitation of the mouth opening due to an acute mandibular trauma.

Subjects and methods

Study population

Fifty consecutive patients presenting acute posttraumatic painful trismus, following either a mandibular blow (occurred as a consequence of car or bicycle accident, falling-down, sports, violent attack) or iatrogenic procedures (jaw overextension), were recruited for this study, which was conducted with respect to the recommendations of our university ethic committee. Also, this human study was approved by the relevant Institutional Review Board.

The including criteria were an acute posttraumatic trismus with an onset within the prior 20 hours and no treatment preceding the LPT. The exclusion criteria were: previous TMD history, any radiological sign of mandibular fracture or TMJ abnormality, and any therapy prior to the baseline examination, as well as systemic diseases of any etiology, and psychiatric disorders. Finally, 38 patients have been enrolled, 14 women of ages between 22 and 54 (41 ± 3 years) and 24 men aged between 18 and 64 (38 ± 3 years). All of them gave written, informed consent. The time elapsed between the symptoms onset and the clinical examination was between 4 and 19 hours (9.6 ± 3.7 hours).

Clinical examinations

The clinical examination of all the patients was performed according to the examination protocol of diagnostic criteria of TMD (DC/TMD)²³⁾. Because of the intense pain experienced by most of the participants the maximum assisted opening could not always be measured, so the maximum unassisted opening (MUO), including incisor overbite, was chosen as the representative measurement of the jaw mobility. Each recorded value was a mean of three measurements, read to the nearest millimeter on an interincisally-placed ruler. A panoramic radiograph was taken for each patient and it ruled out any fracture or visible TMJ abnormality. The MUO improvement was assessed immediately after the LPT procedure.

LPT protocol

An 810-nm laser beam (Digilase PDT 5W250 laser, Biophoton, Saint Alban, France, 2014) with an out power of 1 W, delivered in a continuous wave mode by an optic fibre of 600 µm kept perpendicular to the epithelium at a



Figure 1: The laser scanned a surface of about 25 cm², including: 1 - the TMJ lateral aspect and the auriculotemporal nerve, running between the condyle neck and the external auditory canal, at minimum 8 mm in front of the posterior aspect of the tragus; 2 - the whole surface of the masseter muscle, underneath the zygomatic arch, including the mandibular notch, from which the masseteric nerve emerges; 3 - the lower part of the temporalis muscle, about 1.5 cm above the zygomatic arch, between the auricle and the orbital ridge, by avoiding the haired skin. The deep temporalis nerves travel upwards at the temporalis bone contact, just above the superior ridge of the zygomatic arch.

distance of 2 to 4 mm, scanned a cutaneous and a mucous area, at a speed of 2 cm/s. The cutaneous area covered the TMJ lateral aspect and part of the auriculotemporal nerve, the masseter muscle and its innervation, as well as the lower part of the temporalis fossa, including the muscle and its innervation (Figure 1). It was 25 cm² (6.5 x 4 cm) and was irradiated twice during 60 seconds, with a pause in between of 2 minutes. As soon as the mouth opening allow it, a systematic LPT of the internal pterygoid muscle was performed, by scanning just a single time 3 cm² (2 x 1.5 cm) of the inner cheek mucous surface overlaying the muscle, during 7 seconds. Hence, LPT was administered in a unique session, bilaterally in case of bilateral myalgia, with the same irradiance at target between 796.2 and 3184.7 W/cm2, on both cutaneous and mucous areas (Table 1).

Statistical analyses

The statistics and their graphs were performed by Prism®

software version 6 (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, USA). The threshold of significance was set at p < 0.05 for all the tests. In the overall group and the gender subgroups, D'Agostino-Pearson omnibus test was used to check the Gaussian distribution of all the parameters: age, time elapsed between the symptoms onset and the clinical examination, MUO before LPT, MUO after LPT and MUO improvement. The variances' homogeneity was checked by the F test.

The gender groups were compared as regards with ages, MUO before and after LPT and MUO improvement by unpaired parametric t test; for the elapsed time from the onset of symptoms, whose distribution was not Gaussian in the women's group, we used Mann-Whitney test. Two-way analysis of variance with repeated measures (ANOVA-RM) in conjunction with Tukey's multiple comparisons test served to compare the MUO before and after treatment in the overall group. Since we have noted, for each patient, the number of hours elapsed between

Table 1: Irradiation parameters and dosimetry of the laser beam. The radiantexposure was about 2.3 J/cm² for both the cutaneous and themucous areas.

| PARAMETER | VALUE | | |
|---|---|--|--|
| Central wavelength (nm) | 810 | | |
| Spectral bandwidth (FWHM), nm | 1.3 | | |
| Emitter Type | GaAlAs | | |
| Operating mode | continuous wave | | |
| Radiant power (mW) | 1000 | | |
| Aperture diameter (cm) | 6.10-2 | | |
| Beam divergence (radians) | 0.1 | | |
| Beam spot size at target (cm ²) | 3.14·10 ⁻⁴ to 12.56·10 ⁻⁴ | | |
| Irradiance at target (W/cm ²) | 796.2 to 3184.7 | | |
| Exposure duration (s) | Cutaneous: 60 x 2 (pause 120) Mucous: 7 x 1 | | |
| Radiant exposure (J/cm ²) | Cutaneous: 2.4 Mucous: 2.3 | | |
| Radiant energy (J) | Cutaneous: 60 x 2 Mucous: 7 x 1 | | |
| Irradiated area (cm ²) | Cutaneous: 25 Mucous: 3 | | |
| Polarization | no | | |
| Beam shape | circular | | |
| Beam profile | top hat | | |
| Beam Delivery System | silica optical fibre | | |
| Application technique | Scanning at a distance of 2 to 4 mm | | |
| No. of treatment sessions | 1 | | |

trauma and LPT, Spearman nonparametric correlation and linear regression allowed us to search for a relationship between the MUO improvement and the duration of symptoms.

Results

Established according to DC/TMD, the pain-related TMD diagnoses **(Table 2 and 3)** always associated acute arthralgia to myalgia. Most often, the masseter and temporalis muscles were both affected, either unilaterally (on the side of the arthralgia or on the opposite side) or bilaterally. Headache associated to TMD was present in 5 patients (13 %), all of them suffering of bilateral myalgia, in both masseter and temporalis muscles. Most often, myalgia was spread in the whole muscle (myofascial pain). Globally, the masseters were more affected (49 locations from 76 muscles, in 38 patients) than the temporalis muscles (43 locations). When present, referral masseteric pain was always observed in the TMJ area.

As soon as the LPT procedure was completed we observed a MUO improvement of 24.6 ± 4.4 mm. Unsurprisingly, a highly significant difference (p < .0001) was revealed between the baseline and the final values of the MUO **(Table 3 and Figures 2 and 3)**. None of the studied parameters revealed statistical difference between

Table 2: The pain-related TMD diagnoses in patients with posttraumatic acute trismus evolving for 4 to 19 hours. All the patients suffered of arthralgia, at least on one side. Myalgia and/or headache was present either unilaterally (on the side of arthralgia or on the opposite side) or bilaterally. For each diagnose, the number of cases was reported to the whole group of 38 patients (percentage).

| Acute Pair | n-Related TMD Diagnoses | Same side | Opposite side | Both sides |
|------------|-------------------------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| Arthralgia | without myalgia | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| | associated to myalgia | 19 (50 %) | 7 (18 %) | 12 (32 %) |
| Myalgia | temporalis & masseter muscles | 20 (53 %) | 5 (13 %) | 9 (24 %) |
| | masseter muscle only | 2 (5 %) | 0 | 2 (5 %) |
| | temporalis muscle only | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Headache | attributed to TMD | 3 (8 %) | 0 | 2 (5 %) |

Table 3: For each painful muscle, the
myalgia type was noted regardless
of its association to muscle pain(s)
in other location(s). For each
myalgia type, the number of cases
was reported to the number of 49
masseters, respectively 43
temporalis muscles, affected in all
of the 38 patients (percentage).

| Myalgia type | Masseter | Temporalis |
|----------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Local myalgia | 4 (8 %) | 0 |
| Myofascial pain | 41 (84 %) | 40 (93 %) |
| Myofascial pain with referral | 4 (8 %) | 3 (7 %) |

Table 4: Mean, standard error of mean (SEM) and
standard deviation (SD) of maximal unassisted
opening (MUO) before and immediately after
LPT, as well as the MUO gain, have been
calculated for the overall group and for each
gender.

| MUO (n | nm) | Overall (n = 38) | Females (n = 14) | Males (n = 24) |
|------------|------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| before LPT | Mean | 13.6 | 14.1 | 13.3 |
| | SEM | 0.6 | 1.0 | 0.8 |
| | SD | 3.8 | 3.6 | 3.9 |
| after LPT | Mean | 38.2 | 37.1 | 38.9 |
| | SEM | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.5 |
| | SD | 2.7 | 2.7 | 2.6 |
| | Mean | 24.6 | 23.1 | 25.5 |
| gain | SEM | 0.7 | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| | SD | 4.4 | 3.8 | 4.6 |

genders. Spearman nonparametric correlation (r = 0.04) and linear regression **(Figure 4)** showed that the number of hours elapsed between trauma and LPT does not influence the MUO improvement.

Discussion

Any blow to the jaw induces a trauma in the TMJ, always responsible – at an extent depending on the individual functional reserves – of discal ligaments elongation, over-

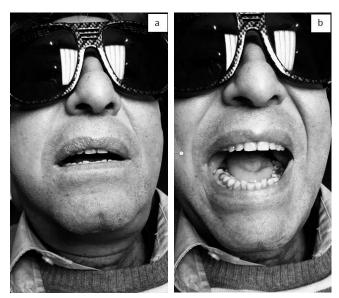


Figure 2: Maximum unassisted opening (MUO) before LPT (a) and immediately after LPT (b).

Maximum unassisted opening (MUO)

before and after LPT

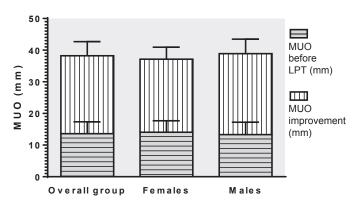


Figure 3: ANOVA-RM in conjunction with Tukey's multiple comparisons test have revealed a MUO mean significantly higher after LPT in all the patients. No between-groups significant differences have been observed in the MUO before LPT, after LPT or in the MUO gain.

loading of the articular surfaces, capsular abusive strain and/or acute retrodiscitis ^{24, 25)}. However, the chief complaint is not the arthralgia, but a painful trismus, which occurs within hours after the facial trauma. Moreover, the MUO poorest values were associated to the longer durations of symptoms, in patients which received, for 48 hours or more, pharmacological therapy only, as the conventional primary care of acute posttraumatic trismus²²⁾.

Beyond the poor effectiveness of the current conventional therapy, responsible of longer durations of symptoms, the greatest concern should be the higher prevalence, in these patients, of neuroplasticity manifestations, such as heterotopic pain, including headache attributed to TMD, and myalgia of myofascial type (with/ without referral), located on the opposite side of the arthralgia or bilaterally 22). The reasons of this great concern are the observations about chronic posttraumatic TMDs: in these patients, compared to those without trauma history, the maximal mouth opening is significantly more reduced ²⁶⁾ and their response to therapies is much poorer ²⁶⁻²⁸⁾. It should be mentioned that acute trauma has been incriminated as the precipitating event in 43 % of chronic TMDs²⁹⁾. Unlikely the acute posttraumatic TMDs, where the painful dysfunction has a double origin, articular and muscular, in chronic posttraumatic TMDs the masticatory musculature is the main source of pain and dysfunction ^{27, 28)}. This underlines the strong involvement of central and peripheral sensitization mechanisms, which should be a therapeutic target in itself, from the very beginning of the symptoms, within hours after the facial trauma.

The rational of the necessity to stop theses mechanisms as soon as possible is provided by the animal ex-

Correlation of MUO improvement to the time elapsed until the LPT

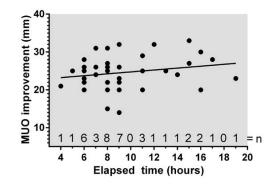


Figure 4: The MUO improvement is not correlated to the number of hours (4 to 19) elapsed between trauma and LPT. The number of cases (n) is indicated for each elapsed hour in this interval.

periments. They have shown that a stronger and more widespread central neuronal activation in the STNC 30-32), as well as a greater activation of the masticatory muscles³³⁾ are induced by the inflammation of orofacial deep tissues than by cutaneous inflammation. Moreover, neuronal activation, as indicated by Fos protein expression, is induced bilaterally by the masseter inflammation, while it is ipsilateral following a skin-cut over the masseter muscle 34, 35). The inflammation of the orofacial deep tissues, provoked by inflammatory substances injected into masticatory muscles 36) or TMJs 37) increase the excitability and expand the receptive fields of trigeminal nociceptive neurons. As early as at 30 minutes afterwards, reactive astrocytes were seen in the STNC and lasts for about one week after the disappearance of the inflammation ³⁸⁾. Glial hyperactivity induced by masseter inflammation was correlated to the hyperalgesia onset 39, 40). Noxious stimulation emanating from injured craniofacial tissues triggers a cascade of cellular events in the central nervous system, including the activation of neurotransmitter receptors and neuron-glia-cytokine interactions, which leads to long-term increases in excitability and plasticity, referred to as central sensitization 41) and underlies the mechanisms of persistent pain 42, 43). On the other hand, studies on acute posttraumatic muscular dysfunctions in rats revealed an impairment of the mitochondrial function, as indicated by a linear decline of the cytochrome-c oxidase activity of 32 % during the first 5 hours after the injury 44.

Put together, these clinical and experimental data suggest that is extremely important to block the noxious stimuli generated by trauma in all the involved deep orofacial tissues, and to reduce very quickly and as much as possible the muscular dysfunctions at both cellular and tissue levels. Now LPT already demonstrated its ability to optimize the muscular function in hypoxic conditions, such as mechanical stress, fatigue and neurogenic inflammation, responsible of electrolytic and metabolic changes, amongst which ATP and glycogen depletion, oxidative stress, tissue hypoxia and acidification 45, 46). These LPT effects are considered to be mainly due to the mitochondrial activation, resulting in an increase of electron transport, cell respiration, oxygen consumption and ATP production. Meanwhile, via reactive oxygen species, nitric oxide, and cyclic AMP, an enhanced mitochondrial activity initiates signaling pathways leading to the activation of several transcription factors; by regulating the expression of genes, they modulate the levels of cytokines, growth factors and inflammatory mediators 47). Beside these anti-inflammatory mechanisms, direct effects on somatosensory and/or motor nerves could participate to LPT-induced muscle relaxation and analgesia by the neural blockade of nociceptors and motor nerves inhibition 48, 49).

It has been stated that one of the major factors re-

sponsible for LPT negative outcomes in the treatment of musculoskeletal disorders is an inappropriate irradiation dose ⁴⁸⁾. Indeed, to generate favorable clinical outcomes, the LPT has to induce biomodulation in an appropriate volume of the target tissue. Fortunately, most of the masticatory muscles' surface is accessible to LPT. Due to its tissue penetration depth of several centimeters, a laser beam with a wavelength of 810 nm appears to be appropriate for the LPT in acute posttraumatic trismus. So, the present study proposes a LPT protocol using a unique wavelength. However, the major point of this protocol is the irradiation area, which has to cover at the same time all the pathologically-involved tissues, namely TMJs, masticatory muscles (often bilaterally involved), and their afferent/efferent innervation.

To our knowledge, no other study on LPT in TMDs described such large irradiated areas. So far, it is generally considered enough to irradiate just a few points. Together with the treatment moment (very early after the trauma), the large irradiated areas, both cutaneous and mucous, could make a major difference in the clinical outcomes. Our opinion is supported by studies on muscular pre-conditioning with LPT, in which the distribution of the energy applied on muscles, so as to cover the largest area, appears to be an important parameter ⁵⁰). On the other hand, the best LPT effectiveness on nerves appears to be due to an additive effect caused by the irradiation at several points rather than to a single point ⁵¹⁾. Such effects are most likely obtained by scanning a large surface, if not the whole volume of a muscle. However, in order to avoid the unpleasant feeling of skin/mucosa overheating that the patient could experience, the defocused mode (2 to 4 mm) and the scanning speed (2 cm/s) need to be thoroughly respected.

To confirm these very encouraging outcomes and their stability, as well as the effectiveness of this LPT protocol to prevent the developing of chronic posttraumatic TMDs, further clinical studies are needed.

Conclusion

Our preliminary results demonstrated the perfect ability of LPT to resolve the mouth opening limitation in acute posttraumatic trismus with a history of less than 20 hours. Consequently, we propose a new protocol, to be applied as a primary care alone: an 810-nm laser beam of 1 W has to scan twice in one session, as soon as possible after the trauma, in a defocused mode at a speed of 2 cm/s, large cutaneous and mucous areas, in order to irradiate as much as possible of the involved structures, i.e. TMJ, masticatory muscles and their respective innervation (bilaterally if necessary).

References

- 1: Tveterås K, and Kristensen S (1986): The aetiology and pathogenesis of trismus. Clinical otolaryngology and allied sciences; 11:383 387.
- 2: Broton JG, Sessle BJ (1988): Reflex excitation of masticatory muscles induced by algesic chemicals applied to the temporomandibular joint of the cat. Archives of oral biology, 33:741-747.
- 3: Tsai CM, Chiang CY, Yu XM, and Sessle BJ (1999): Involvement of trigeminal subnucleus caudalis (medullary dorsal horn) in craniofacial nociceptive reflex activity. Pain, 81:115-128.
- Okeson JP: The Central Processing of Pain. In: (Okeson JP) Bell's Oral and Facial Pain, 7th edition. 2014, Quintessence, Chicago. pp 71-91.
- 5: Ten Bosch JJ, and van Gool AV (1977): The interrelation of postoperative complaints after removal of the mandibular third molar. International journal of oral surgery, 6:22-28.
- Okeson JP: Pains of Muscle Origin. In: (Okeson JP) Bell's Oral and Facial Pain, 7th edition. 2014, Quintessence, Chicago. pp 287-326.
- 7: Cairns BE (2010): Pathophysiology of TMD pain basic mechanisms and their implications for pharmacotherapy. Journal of Oral Rehabilitation, 37:391-410.
- 8: Goldman JA, Chiapella J, Casey H, Bass N, Graham J, Mc-Clatchey W, Dronavalli RV, Brown R, Bennett WJ, Miller SB, Wilson CH, Pearson B, Haun C, Persinski L, Huey H, and Muckerheide M. (1980): Laser therapy of rheumatoid arthritis. Lasers in surgery and medicine, 1:93-101.
- 9: Palano D, Martelli M, Avi R, Gaurneri L, and Palmieri B (1985): A clinicostatistical investigation of laser effect in the treatment of pain and dysfunction of temporomandibular joint (TMJ). Medical Laser Report, 2:21-29.
- Cetiner S, Kahraman SA, and Yücetaş S (2006): Evaluation of low-level laser therapy in the treatment of temporomandibular disorders. Photomedicine and laser surgery, 24:637-641.
- 11: Marini I, Gatto MR, and Bonetti GA (2010): Effects of superpulsed low-level laser therapy on temporomandibular joint pain. The Clinical journal of pain, 26:611-616.
- 12: Mazzetto MO, Hotta TH, and Pizzo RC (2010): Measurements of jaw movements and TMJ pain intensity in patients treated with GaAlAs laser. Brazilian Dental Journal, 21:356-360.
- 13: Shinozaki EB, dos Santos MBF, Okazaki LK, Marchini L, and Brugnera Junior A (2010): Clinical assessment of the efficacy of low-level laser therapy on muscle pain in women with temporomandibular dysfunction, by surface electromyography. Brazilian Journal of Oral Sciences, 9:434–438.
- 14: Salmos-Brito JA, de Menezes RF, Teixeira CE, Gonzaga RK, Rodrigues BH, Braz R, Bessa-Nogueira RV, and Gerbi ME (2013): Evaluation of low-level laser therapy in patients with acute and chronic temporomandibular disorders. Lasers in medical science, 28:57-64.
- 15: Ahrari F, Madani AS, Ghafouri ZS, and Tunér J (2014): The efficacy of LLLT for the treatment of myogenous TMDs. Lasers in medical science 29:551-557.
- 16: De Abreu Venancio R, Camparis CM, and De Fátima Zantirato Lizarelli R (2005): Low intensity laser therapy in the treatment of temporomandibular disorders: a double-blind study. Journal of oral rehabilitation, 32:800-807.
- 17: Emshoff R, Bösch R, Pümpel E, Schöning H, and Strobl H (2007): Low-level laser therapy for treatment of temporomandibular joint pain: a double-blind and placebo-controlled trial. Oral surgery, oral medicine, oral pathology, oral radiology, and endodontics, 105:452-456.

- 18: Petrucci A, Sgolastra F, Gatto R, Mattei A, and Monaco A (2011): Effectiveness of low-level laser therapy in temporomandibular disorders: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Journal of orofacial pain, 25:298-307.
- 19: Leal de Godoy CH, Motta LJ, Santos Fernandes KP, Mesquita-Ferrari RA, Deana AM, and Bussadori S (2015): Effect of low-level laser therapy on adolescents with temporomandibular disorder: a blind randomized controlled pilot study. Journal of oral and maxillofacial surgery, 73:622-629.
- 20: Fikácková H, Dostálová T, Navrátil L, and Klaschka J (2007): Effectiveness of low-level laser therapy in temporomandibular joint disorders: a placebo-controlled study. Photomedicine and laser surgery, 25:297-303.
- 21: Shirani AM, Gutknecht N, Taghizadeh M, and Mir M (2009): Low-level laser therapy and myofascial pain dysfunction syndrome: a randomized controlled clinical trial. Lasers in medical science, 24:715-720.
- 22: Rasca E, Fauchon-Giumelli A, and Nammour S (2016): Laser phototherapy as primary treatment in acute trismus. Indian Journal of Applied Research, 6:556-564.
- 23: Orbach R, Gonzales Y, List T, Michelotti A, and Schiffman E (2014): Diagnostic Criteria for Temporomandibular Disorders (DC/TMD) Clinical Examination Protocol: Version 02 June 2013. www.rdc-tmdinternational.org Accessed on Mars 29, 2015.
- 24: Merrill RD (1990): Discussion. Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, 48:784. In: Goss AN, Bosanquet AG (1990): The arthroscopic appearance of acute temporomandibular joint trauma. Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, 48:780– 783.
- 25: Goss AN, Bosanquet AG (1990): The arthroscopic appearance of acute temporomandibular joint trauma. Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, 48:780–783.
- 26: De Boever JA, and Keersmaekers K (1996): Trauma in patients with temporomandibular disorders: frequency and treatment outcome. Journal of oral rehabilitation, 23:91-96.
- 27: Romanelli GG, Mock D, and Tenenbaum HC (1992): Characteristics and response to treatment of posttraumatic temporomandibular disorder: a retrospective study. The Clinical journal of pain, 8:6-17.
- 28: Kim HI, Lee JY, Kim YK, and Kho HS (2010): Clinical and psychological characteristics of TMD patients with trauma history. Oral diseases, 16:188-192.
- 29: Harkins SJ, and Marteney JL (1985): Extrinsic trauma: a significant precipitating factor in temporomandibular dysfunction. The Journal of prosthetic dentistry, 54:271-272.
- 30: Zhou Q, Imbe H, Dubner R, and Ren K (1999): Persistent Fos protein expression after orofacial deep or cutaneous tissue inflammation in rats: implications for persistent orofacial pain. The Journal of comparative neurology, 412:276-291.
- 31: Imbe H, Iwata K, Zhou QQ, Zou S, Dubner R, and Ren K (2001): Orofacial deep and cutaneous tissue inflammation and trigeminal neuronal activation: Implications for persistent temporomandibular pain. Cells Tissues Organs, 169:238-247.
- 32: Iwata K, Tsuboi Y, Tashiro A, Imai T, Sumino R, Dubner R, and Ren K (1999): Medullary dorsal horn neuronal activity in rats with persistent temporomandibular joint and perioral inflammation. Journal of neurophysiology, 82:1244-1253.
- 33: Yu XM, Sessle BJ, and Hu JW (1993): Differential effects of cutaneous and deep application of inflammatory irritant on mechanoreceptive field properties of trigeminal brain stem nociceptive neurons. Journal of neurophysiology, 70:1704-1707.

ORIGINAL ARTICLES

- 34: Imbe H, Dubner R, and Ren K (1999): Masseter inflammation-induced Fos protein expression in the trigeminal interpolaris/caudalis transition zone: contribution of somatosensory-vagal-adrenal integration. Brain research, 845:165-175.
- 35: Ikeda T, Terayama R, Jue SS, Sugiyo S, Dubner R, and Ren K (2003): Differential rostral projection of caudal brainstem neurons receiving trigeminal input after masseter inflammation. Journal of comparative neurology, 465:220-233.
- 36: Amano N, Hu JW, and Sessle BJ (1986): Responses of neurons in feline trigeminal subnucleus caudalis (medullary dorsal horn) to cutaneous, intraoral, and muscle afferent stimuli. Journal of neurophysiology, 55:227–243.
- 37: Lam DK, Sessle BJ, and Hu JW (2009): Glutamate and capsaicin effects on trigeminal nociception II: activation and central sensitization in brainstem neurons with deep craniofacial afferent input. Brain research, 1253:48–59.
- 38: Guo W, Wang H, Watanabe M, Shimizu K, Zou S, LaGraize SC, Wei F, Dubner R, and Ren K (2007): Glial-cytokine-neuronal interactions underlying the mechanisms of persistent pain. The Journal of neuroscience, 27:6006–6018.
- 39: Sugiyo S, Takemura M, Dubner R, and Ren K (2005): Trigeminal transition zone/rostral ventromedial medulla connections and facilitation of orofacial hyperalgesia after masseter inflammation in rats. The journal of comparative neurology, 493:510–523.
- 40: Watanabe M, Guo W, Zou S, Sugiyo S, Dubner R, and Ren K (2005): Antibody array analysis of peripheral and blood cytokine levels in rats after masseter inflammation. Neuroscience letters, 382:128–133.
- Fricton J (2007): Myogenous temporomandibular disorders: diagnostic and management considerations. Dental clinics of North America, 51:61–83.
- 42: Woolf CJ, and Salter MW (2000): Neuronal plasticity: increasing the gain in pain. Science, 288(5472): 1765-1769.

- 43: Dubner R, and Ren K (2004): Brainstem mechanisms of persistent pain following injury. Journal of orofacial pain, 18: 299-305.
- 44: Merrick MA, and McBrier NM (2010): Progression of secondary injury after musculoskeletal trauma – a window of opportunity? Journal of sport rehabilitation, 19:380-388.
- 45: Karu T (1999): Primary and secondary mechanisms of action of visible to near-IR radiation on cells. Journal of photochemistry and photobiology. B, Biology, 49:1-17.
- 46: Merrick MA (2002): Secondary injury after musculoskeletal trauma: a review and update. Journal of athletic training, 37: 209–217.
- 47: Chung H, Dai T, Sharma SK, Huang YY, Carroll JD, and Hamblin MR (2012): The nuts and bolts of low-level laser (light) therapy. Annals of biomedical engineering, 40:516-533.
- 48: Bjordal JM, Lopes-Martins RAB, and Frigo L: Low level laser therapy – mechanism of action: Inflammatory Process. In: (de Freitas PM, Simões A, eds.) Lasers in Dentistry: Guide for Clinical Practice. 2015, John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, pp 27-33.
- 49: Chow R: Low level laser therapy mechanism of action: Analgesia. In: (de Freitas PM, Simões A, eds.) Lasers in Dentistry: Guide for Clinical Practice. 2015, John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, pp 34-39.
- 50: Ferraresi C, Hamblin MR, and Parizotto NA (2012): Low-level laser (light) therapy (LLLT) on muscle tissue: performance, fatigue and repair benefited by the power of light. Photonics & lasers in medicine, 1:267-286.
- 51: Chow R, Armati P, Laakso EL, Bjordal JM, and Baxter GD (2011): Inhibitory effects of laser irradiation on peripheral mammalian nerves and relevance to analgesic effects: a systematic review. Photomedicine and laser surgery, 29:365-381.