

Real-time interaction of oral streptococci with human salivary components

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Oral streptococci are present in large numbers in dental plaque and several types interact with the enamel salivary pellicle to form a biofilm on tooth surfaces. The respective affinity of individual streptococci for salivary components has an influence on the etiologic properties of oral biofilm in the development of dental caries. We studied real time biospecific interactions between oral streptococci and salivary components utilizing biosensor technology to analyze surface plasmon resonance. *Streptococcus sanguis* and *Streptococcus mutans* showed significant responses for binding to salivary components in comparison with other bacteria. Further the association rates (4.1×10^{-11} /bacterium) and dissociation rate ($5.7 \pm 0.9 \times 10^{-3}$ Second(s)⁻¹) were higher for *S. sanguis* than for *S. mutans* (2.4×10^{-11} and $2.9 \pm 0.8 \times 10^{-3}$) and *Streptococcus mitis* (1.3×10^{-11} and $3.5 \pm 1.3 \times 10^{-3}$). However the association equilibrium constants (8.2 S/bacterium) for *S. mutans* was 2 times higher in than *S. mitis* (3.8) and slightly higher than *S. sanguis* (7.2). These findings may provide useful information regarding the mechanism of early biofilm formation by streptococci on the tooth surface.

Key words *Streptococcus mutans*, *Streptococcus sanguis*, *Streptococcus mitis*, BIA core salivary components

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The oral biofilm is produced by sequential attachment of a variety of bacteria which is dependent on both the species involved and the surface composition (1, 8, 19, 22, 24, 25). Attached bacteria are able to grow in the biofilm that forms on tooth surfaces (8). There is a strong correlation between the attachment, detachment and proliferation of these organisms in plaque on the tooth surface and the occurrence of dental caries in humans (13, 19). Oral streptococci are present in large numbers in dental plaque and several types interact with the enamel salivary pellicle to form a biofilm on tooth surfaces. Streptococci account for approximately 20% of the salivary bacteria (23). *Streptococcus salivarius* is the most abundant species and the density of *Streptococcus mutans* and *Streptococcus sanguis* in saliva is more than 1×10^5 cells/ml. *S. mutans* produces a surface protein antigen (PAC) that has a molecular mass of

190 kDa (28) which interacts with salivary components including lysozyme (31, 33), amylase (31), proline rich proteins of 18 and 38 kDa (31) and agglutinin (16). It is also known as a late colonizer (27) and is considered to be one of the major causative agents of dental caries, a disease related to the oral biofilm (5, 10). In contrast *S. sanguis* is among the first bacteria to adhere selectively to and colonize saliva coated teeth (10) and also interacts with the salivary film that is known to contain α amylase, secretory IgA (12, 17), mucin (36) and agglutinin (6). The two bacteria form a complex biofilm on the tooth surface by cell to surface and cell to cell interactions. An understanding of these components is required to elucidate the mechanisms of biofilm formation *in vivo*.

Gibbons *et al.* suggested that biofilm formation consists of two processes that involve separate mechanisms (9, 11). The

first step is associated with adsorption of cells to the pellicle and requires specific adhesions on the cell surface while the second involves a build up of cells binding to each other. The first step of formation has been investigated using saliva coated hydroxyapatite beads; however physical interference of the interactions between cells and beads may occur in that model. The kinetic rate of cell to saliva interaction is not yet entirely understood. We studied biospecific interactions between oral streptococci and saliva components in real time utilizing biosensor technology that measures surface plasmon resonance (32) and then analyzed the kinetic rate constants of the interactions.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

The strains used in this study were *S. mutans* MT8148 ATCC 6229 and GS5

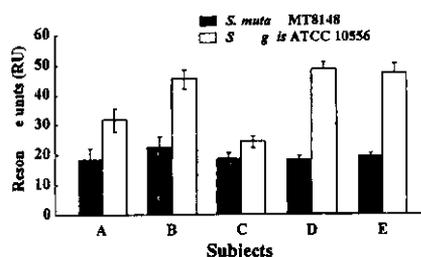


Fig 1 Binding of *S. sanguis* ATCC 10556 (u) and *S. mutans* MT8148 (■) to immobilized salivary components from five human subjects (A, B, C, D and E). Forty microliters of each bacteria solution ($OD=0.5$, 550 nm) was applied to the sensor chip. Results are expressed as mean \pm SD for three independent assays. Asterisks denote significant difference (*S. mutans* vs *S. sanguis*, $P < 0.01$).

S. sanguis ATCC 10556, ATCC 15908 and ATCC 10558, *Streptococcus sobrinus* 6715, OMZ65 and MT8245, *S. salivarius* ATCC 9759 and HT9R, and *Streptococcus mitis* ATCC 903 and ATCC 6249. All bacteria were grown in an atmosphere of H_2 and CO_2 (GasPakTM CO_2 System, Becton Dickinson and Company, Sparks, MD) in Brain Heart Infusion broth (GHI, Difco Laboratory, Detroit, MI).

Human saliva collection

Whole saliva from five subjects (25–55 years old females and males) was stimulated by chewing paraffin gum and collected into ice-chilled sterile bottles over a period of 5 min and clarified by centrifugation at $10000\times g$ for 10 min at $4^\circ C$. Fresh saliva samples from subject A (Fig 1) were used in every experiment while the other samples were stored until use.

Monoclonal antibodies

To confirm whether the adherence of *S. mutans* to the salivary components in BIAcore responses was dependent on interactions between the salivary components and the PAc anti-PAc monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) (KH5 and SH2) obtained in our previous study (34) were used in inhibition BIAcore assays (BIAcore AB, Uppsala, Sweden) (35). The mAbs were collected from the culture fluid of the B cell clone and the culture fluid including the mAbs was pooled and stocked at $-20^\circ C$ for each experiment.

Immobilizing the ligand

The binding of streptococci to salivary components was determined using a BIAcoreTM biosensor system (BIAcore AB) which has been shown to provide real-time interactive analysis of two interacting

macro-molecules (33). This offers some advantages over conventional methods that use hydroxyapatite beads because the interaction is monitored directly in real-time as it proceeds. Comparisons of all bacteria interacting with salivary components in the BIAcore system were studied in detail in separated stages of association and dissociation. This differs from conventional methods which analyze coupled stages of association and dissociation. For the present study we used the pioneer sensor chip F1 (BIAcore AB) which has a shorter dextran matrix than other standard chips and is useful when working with large analyses such as those of cells and virus particles. Whole salivary components were immobilized on the dextran surface of the sensor chip via carboxyl moieties and then activated by injecting $70\ \mu\text{l}$ of 400 mM N-ethyl-N'-(3-diethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide and 100 mM of N-hydroxysuccinimide solution at a flow rate of $10\ \mu\text{l}/\text{min}$. After activation $70\ \mu\text{l}$ of $1:20$ diluted whole saliva ($500\ \mu\text{l}$ of bovine serum albumin (BSA) and $500\ \mu\text{l}$ of mouse immunoglobulin G (mIgG) in 10 mM of sodium acetate buffer at $\text{pH } 5.0$) were applied to the surface. Residual N-hydroxysuccinimide esters were then inactivated with $70\ \mu\text{l}$ of 1 M ethanolamine hydrochloride. The flow of PBS was maintained at $10\ \mu\text{l}$ throughout the immobilization procedure.

Determination of experimental conditions

To confirm the specific binding of *S. mutans* its adherence to salivary components was compared with that of BSA and mIgG which are known to have no interaction with *S. mutans*. *S. mutans* MT8148 was diluted with phosphate buffered saline (PBS, $\text{pH } 7.4$) solution after centrifugation at $5000\times g$ for 10 min at $4^\circ C$ and washing by PBS twice. Ultrasonic processing (60 W , 10 min) was carried out to disrupt the bacterial chain. The bacterial concentration was adjusted using fresh PBS in a spectrophotometer (UV 2200A, Shimadzu, Japan) to $OD=0.5$ and 1.0 (550 nm). *S. mutans* solutions were exposed to each ingredient (flow speed of $20\ \mu\text{l}/\text{min}$) and the dissociation phase was followed by injection of PBS at $20\ \mu\text{l}/\text{min}$. All binding experiments were conducted at $25^\circ C$. At the end of each binding cycle the surface of the sensor chip was regenerated by exposure to 50 mM of glycine NaOH ($\text{pH } 9.5$) for 60 s. The detection system of the BIAcoreTM utilizes surface plasmon resonance (SPR) which is a quantum mechanical phenomenon that represents changes in

optical properties at the surface of the sensor chip and eliminates the need to label the interactants. The resonance angle depends on the refractive index in the vicinity of the surface which changes as the concentration of molecules on the surface is modified. The signal was expressed in resonance units (RU). The SPR signal obtained in each binding cycle was recorded as a sensor-gram which is a real-time pattern with a sampling interval of $0.2\text{--}0.5\text{ s}$ plotted in RU versus time. The amount of binding was represented as the increase of RU between the start and the end of each binding cycle. A response of 1000 RU corresponds to a shift of 0.1° in the response angle which in turn represents a change in surface protein concentration of about $1\text{ ng}/\text{mm}^2$. A $1:50$ dilution of mAbs (KH5 and SH2) was pre-incubated with 1 ml of *S. mutans* ($2\times 10^9/\text{ml}$) by suspension in PBS at $4^\circ C$ for 1 h. After the incubation *S. mutans* was washed with PBS and sonicated by ultrasonic dispersion (60 W power output) for 10 s and then $40\ \mu\text{l}$ of mAb-treated or untreated *S. mutans* in PBS was injected onto the sensor at a flow rate of $20\ \mu\text{l}/\text{min}$.

Interaction of oral streptococci with whole salivary components

S. mutans MT8148, *S. sanguis* ATCC 10556, *S. sobrinus* 6715, *S. salivarius* ATCC 9759 and *S. mitis* ATCC 903 solutions were diluted to $OD=0.5$ at 550 nm and then adjusted by the above-mentioned methods and exposed to the saliva-immobilized surface at a flow speed of $20\ \mu\text{l}/\text{min}$. In addition *S. mutans* MT8148 and *S. sobrinus* ATCC 10556 were applied to the chips individually after being immobilized with saliva from five subjects. To determine the association rates (K_{on}) of *S. mutans*, *S. sanguis* and *S. mitis* the organism solutions were adjusted from $OD=0.1$ to 1.0 and then applied to the sensor chip that had been immobilized with salivary components. Increases of RU were calculated 10 s after switching to PBS from the bacteria buffer for comparison with the baseline and to draw a kinetic graph showing dose dependency. K_{on} was calculated by inclination and shown to be ΔRU per number and colony-forming unit (CFU) of individual bacteria.

CFUs were counted in BHI agar plates with various concentrations of bacteria suspensions. The CFU to bacteria suspension ratio ($OD=1.0$, 550 nm) was then recalculated from a standard curve (Y-axis: CFU, X-axis: OD). The dissociation rate (K_{off}) was determined using BIAevaluation 2.1 software (BIAcore).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using ANOVA. *P* values of 0.05 or less were considered to indicate statistical significance.

Results

Establishment of experimental conditions

Salivary components were used as ligands for BIAcore analyses of the interactions between the ligands and *S. mutans*. To confirm the specific binding of *S. mutans* to salivary components without non-specific binding to the dextran chip coated BSA and mIgG were also used as experimental controls. A sensorgram for immobilization of these ligands showed increases of 2100 RU (whole salivary components), 7250 RU (BSA) and 4600 RU (mIgG) which involved a covalent binding of approximately 2.1 ng, 7.3 ng and 4.6 ng respectively to the activated carboxy-methylated dextran on the biosensor surface. *S. mutans* MT8148 (OD = 1.0) was applied to the sensor chip immobilized with these ligands. The increasing RU seen indicated the response level of *S. mutans* to the ligands as shown in the sensorgrams in Fig 2(A). Thus approximately 102.6 RU were required for the binding of *S. mutans* to the immobilized salivary components on the sensorchip surface (Fig 2A). The responses (72.2 RU and 45.1 RU) to BSA and mIgG were lower than whole salivary components but meaningful. The response to BSA decreased to close to the RU level of mIgG within 80 s after switching to PBS from the *S. mutans* solution. A high concentration (OD = 1.0) of *S. mutans* may induce non-specific binding to the ligands because the binding of *S. mutans* (OD = 0.5) was significant to the salivary components (Fig 3) but poor to mIgG [less than 10 pg (10 RU)] (data not shown) in three independent experiments. Moreover the mAbs (KH5 and SH2) clearly inhibited the binding of *S. mutans* (OD = 0.5) to the salivary components (data not shown). Therefore the bacteria concentration (OD = 0.5 or 0.6) was used in following experiments. These results demonstrated that *S. mutans* was able to bind specifically to whole salivary components in the BIAcore biosensor system.

Interaction of oral streptococci with whole salivary components

S. mutans MT8148, *S. sanguis* ATCC 10556, *S. sobrinus* 6715, *S. salivarius* ATCC 9759 and *S. mitis* ATCC 903 solutions (OD = 0.5) were injected onto the

sensor chip that had been immobilized with whole saliva components. SPR signals of *S. sanguis* were drawn from the highest association and the highest decrease during the dissociation stage after changing the bacteria solutions to PBS (Fig 2B). SPR signals of *S. mutans* were drawn from the highest levels of binding during the dissociation stage as compared to those of the other bacteria (Fig 2B). The association and dissociation of *S. mutans* ATCC 6229 were also similar to those of *S. mutans* MT8148 (data not shown). At 10 s after changing to PBS, *S. sanguis* ATCC 15909, ATCC 10556 and ATCC 10558 and *S. mutans* MT8148 and ATCC 6229 showed significant levels of binding to the salivary components in comparison with the others (Fig 3). However the association level of *S. mutans* GS5 was lower than the other *S. mutans* strains (Fig 3) while the association level of *S. sanguis* ATCC 10556 was higher than *S. mutans* MT8148 in samples from every subject (Fig 1). As *S. sanguis* ATCC 10556, *S. mu-*

tans MT8148 and *S. mitis* ATCC 903 showed different binding activities in the above experiments, we studied the dose-dependent response kinetics of these three bacteria to salivary components. A concentration-dependent binding of each was observed and K_{on} was then calculated from the inclination of the graph (Fig 4, Table 1). Dissociation rates (K_{off}) were easily measured using the BIAevaluation 2.1 software (Fig 5).

K_{on} was 2.4×10^{11} and 1.3×10^{11} /bacterium in *S. mutans*, *S. sanguis* and *S. mitis* respectively, while K_{off} was 2.9×10^8 , 5.7×10^9 and 3.5×10^3 Second(s)⁻¹ respectively (Table 1). *S. mutans* and *S. mitis* were dissociated at a significantly slower rate than *S. sanguis* (Table 1). From these data, the calculated association equilibrium constants ($K_a = K_{on}/K_{off}$) were 8.2, 7.2 and 3.8 S/bacterium in *S. mutans*, *S. sanguis* and *S. mitis* respectively. The K_{on} and K_{off} results were higher for *S. sanguis* than for *S. mutans* and *S. mitis*; however K_a for *S. mutans* was two times

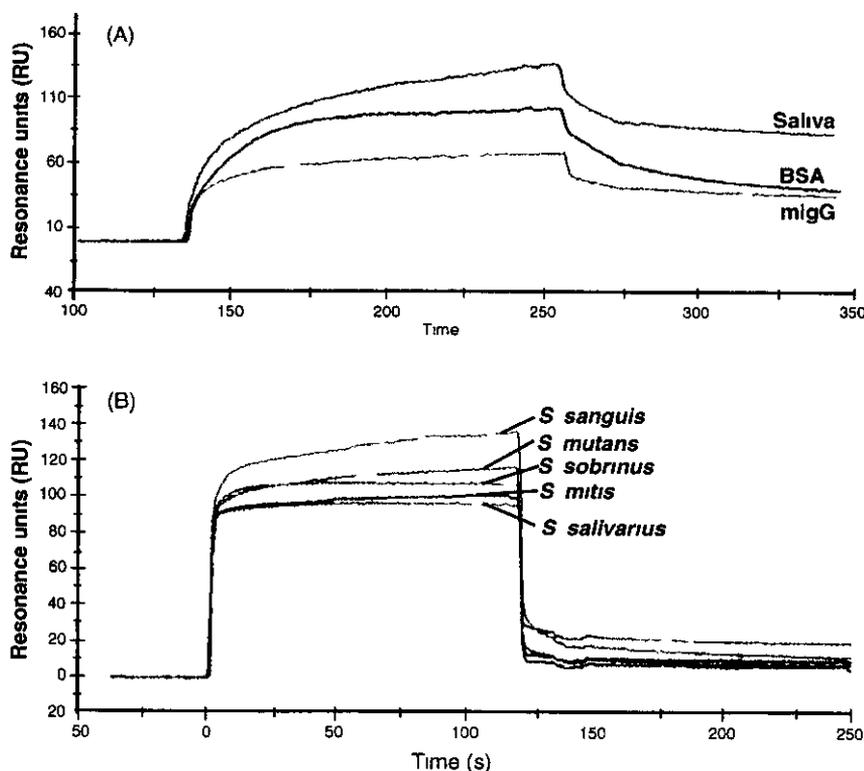


Fig 2 (A) Sensorgram illustrating the binding of *S. mutans* MT8148 to immobilized salivary components (red) BSA (blue) and IgG (green). *S. mutans* solutions with PBS (OD = 1.0, 550 nm) were applied to the sensor chip. Increases of 102.6 RU (to salivary components), 72.2 RU (to BSA) and 45.1 RU (to mIgG) were seen in the binding of *S. mutans* to the immobilized ligands. Data from three independent experiments with similar results obtained in each. (B) Sensorgrams illustrating the binding of *S. sanguis* ATCC 10556 (blue), *S. mutans* MT8148 (red), *S. sobrinus* 6715 (green), *S. salivarius* ATCC 9759 (purple) and *S. mitis* ATCC 903 (pink) to immobilized salivary components. Bacteria solutions with PBS (OD = 0.5, 550 nm) were applied to the sensor chips. Various SPR signals were drawn during the association and dissociation stages for each streptococci. Data from three independent experiments with similar results obtained in each.

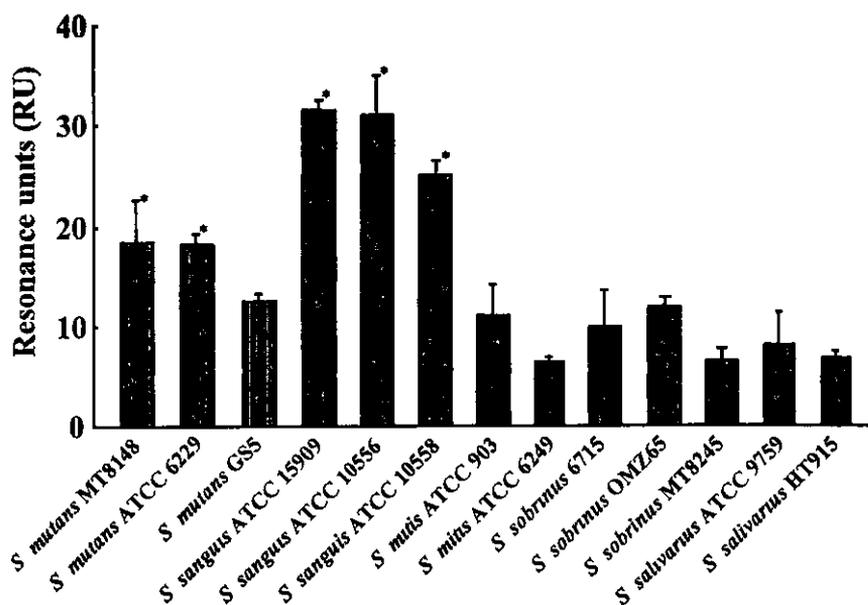


Fig 3 Binding of various streptococci to immobilized salivary components. Forty microliters of bacteria solution (OD=0.5 550 nm) was applied to the sensor chip. Results are expressed as mean ± SD for three independent assays. Asterisks denote significant difference (vs *S. mitis* ATCC 903 $P < 0.01$).

higher than *S. mitis* and slightly higher than *S. sanguis*.

Discussion

Colonization of the oral cavity by streptococci is a crucial step in the sequence of events leading to infection and salivary proteins and glycoproteins can act as receptors for the binding of streptococci to enamel surfaces (10, 16, 36). The ability of oral streptococci to bind to immobilized salivary protein is of considerable etiological

significance (7, 26, 29) and *S. mutans* and *S. sanguis* are known to be primarily involved when bacterial flora forms on the tooth surface. *S. sanguis* is an early colonizer of the salivary pellicle whereas *S. mutans* colonizes later. The ability of both to bind to salivary proteins and gly

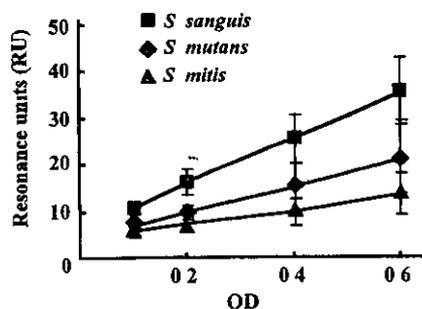


Fig 4 Dose dependent binding of *S. sanguis* ATCC 10556 (■), *S. mutans* MT8148 (◆) and *S. mitis* ATCC 903 (▲) to the immobilized salivary components. Forty microliters each of four concentrations (OD=0.1, 0.2, 0.4 and 0.6 at 550 nm) was applied to the sensor chip. Results are expressed as mean ± SD for three independent assays. Asterisks denote significant difference (*S. sanguis* vs *S. mutans* $P < 0.05$, *S. sanguis* vs *S. mutans* $P < 0.01$, *S. sanguis* vs *S. mutans* $P < 0.01$). Association rates (K_{on}) were calculated using the inclination shown on this graph and CFU of individual bacteria.

coproteins is important in biofilm development (3, 15). The differences of affinity to the salivary pellicle between these two bacteria may be relevant in the etiology of biofilm conditions. There is a lack of comparative research elucidating precisely the difference in affinity of both, though their binding abilities to salivary components have been reported by various investigators (16, 30). Recently a pioneer F1 chip that can be used to analyze bacteria whole cells was developed for the BIAcore system (35) and with it we investigated the differences of real time affinity to salivary components by streptococci including *S. mutans* and *S. sanguis*. The affinity of *S. mutans* MT8148 to whole salivary components was inhibited by mAbs (KH5 and SH2) that recognized PAC. *S. mutans* GS5 which was PAC negative showed a lower affinity than *S. mutans* MT8148. Therefore affinity was dependent on PAC expression in the BIAcore system which was considered to be close to that of the pellicle.

We first confirmed that *S. mutans* adhered only to whole salivary components and not to the surface of the sensor chip by covering the dextran surface entirely with ligands to shield it from *S. mutans* (Fig 2A). The K_{on} value was determined as the increase of binding quantity (RU) per single bacterium using bacteria density instead of molarity since molarity could not be calculated in the bacteria solutions. The K_{off} value was determined conventionally using BIAevaluation because it does not require molarity. From our results it was clear that *S. sanguis* had a strong association with the saliva components however it could also be easily dissociated in comparison with the other streptococci. In contrast although *S. mutans* showed a lower RU value than *S. sanguis* for association (though higher than the other three bacteria tested) it could not be easily dissociated from the saliva components. *S. sobrinus*, *S. salivarius* and *S. mitis* showed low RU values and the ability of association with a simple substance was also considered to be low. In the K_a , *S. mutans* was slightly higher than *S. sanguis* which may support the presence of a mechanism in the biofilm itself. The affinity of *S. mitis* which is also an early colonizer (18) of tooth surfaces was lower than that of *S. mutans* and *S. sanguis*. It has been reported that *S. mitis* releases substances later recognized to be biosurfactants that discourage the adhesion of *S. mutans* (14). Therefore the present results may support a dominant role of *S. mitis* in biofilm formation because of the

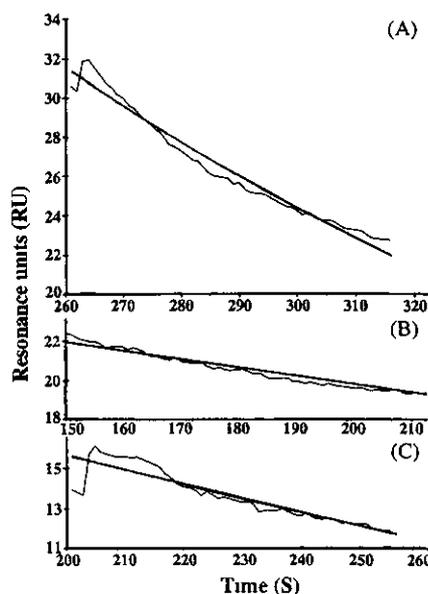


Fig 5 Sensorgrams illustrating the dissociation of *S. sanguis* ATCC 10556 (A), *S. mutans* MT8148 (B) and *S. mitis* ATCC 903 (C). SPR signals were drawn 60 s after changing the bacteria solutions to PBS. Dissociation rates (K_{off}) were calculated from the lines in graphs A, B and C using BIAevaluation 2.1 software. Data from 3 independent experiments with similar results obtained in each.

Table 1 Kinetic rates of *S mutans*, *S sanguis* and *S mitis* to salivary components

Bacteria	K_{on} ($\times 10^{-11}$)	K_{off} ($\times 10^{-3} S^{-1}$)	$K_a = K_{on}/K_{off}$ ($\times 10^{-9} S$)
<i>S mutans</i>	2.4	2.9 ± 0.8 *	8.2
<i>S sanguis</i>	4.1	5.7 ± 0.9 *	7.2
<i>S mitis</i>	1.3	3.5 ± 1.3 *	3.8

K_{on} results were calculated from lines in Fig 4 by the procedure described in Materials and methods

K_{off} results were calculated from lines in Fig 5 using BIA evaluation 2.1 software. The K_{off} results are expressed as mean \pm SD for three independent assays

Asterisks denote significant difference (vs *S sanguis*, $P < 0.01$)

protection provided by the released substances rather than physical competition by cell adhesion against colonization of pellicle coated surfaces by *S mutans*

The A region in the PAc molecule is essential for the adhesion of *S mutans* to salivary film. Further differences in the alanine rich sequence in *S sanguis* as compared to *S mutans* may have an effect on the affinity of *S sanguis* to interact with salivary receptors. The A region is composed of three long and two incomplete repeating sequences (28). In the region sequenced from *Streptococcus gordonii* M5 (previously designated *S sanguis*) the cell surface adhesin of SSP 5 showed an extensive homology [44% identity with SpaP (PAc)] (6). Further each repeating sequence contains sequences that are homozygous to the amino acid sequence $^{365}TYEAALKQYEADL^{377}$ PAc (365–377) which is an important region for the initial attachment of *S mutans* to the tooth surface (32–35). These analogs or variant peptides from *S gordonii* M5 to PAc (365–377) inhibited the binding of *S sanguis* ATCC 10556 to the salivary components in BIAcore competitive inhibition assays (unpublished data). Therefore the sequence may influence the affinity of *S sanguis* to salivary components.

Colonization by both *S sanguis* and *S mutans* streptococci is also dependent upon the presence of teeth (2–4). Caulfield et al reported that levels of *S sanguis* increase with age prior to the colonization of *S mutans* streptococci after *S mutans* streptococci colonize the levels of *S sanguis* decrease (4). Several other investigators have also suggested that the *S mutans*/*S sanguis* ratio may serve as an indicator of caries risk (20–21). These findings indicate that the binding of *S sanguis* to salivary components may compete with the action of *S mutans* salivary component binding in the oral cavity. *S sobrinus* also produces a surface protein antigen that shows a homology to *S mutans* of approximately 66% (37–38). However in the present study *S sobrinus* did not present a definite response to the salivary compo-

nents in the real time biosensor. Three homologous PAg sequences (286–298, 69.2%, 368–380, 61.5% and 450–462, 38.5%) were found in the three long repeating sequences of PAg and varied by amino acid sequence $^{286}D-K-A-K-^{2398}$ $^{368}N-K-A-QK-^{280}$ and $^{450}D-LK-SK-QEE-^{462}$ respectively to PAc (365–377). These variants may have influenced the lower affinity of *S sobrinus* to salivary components.

The differences in K_{on} , K_{off} and K_a between *S sanguis*, *S mutans* and *S mitis* in the present real time biosensor results may explain one of the mechanisms of bacterial flora formation on teeth seen in previous epidemiologic findings (10–18, 27). Therefore it is suggested that bacterial interactions with salivary components are influenced by the respective etiologic abilities of streptococci in the development of dental caries. Our findings also demonstrated the early colonization of *S sanguis* as well as later colonization of other *S mutans* streptococci in the real time fluid phase and may provide useful information about the mechanism of early biofilm formation on the tooth surface by oral streptococci.

Acknowledgments

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Assessment of oral transmission using cell-free human immunodeficiency virus-1 in mice reconstituted with human peripheral blood leucocyte

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SUMMARY

Oral–genital contact is one of the risk factors for the transmission of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) in adults. In recent reports, oral exposure to simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) was found to have important implications for the achievement of mucosal transmission of HIV in a rhesus monkey animal model. In the present study, we aimed first to establish a small animal model which did not develop tonsils suitable for HIV oral mucosa transmission using non-obese diabetic/severe combined immunodeficiency (NOD/SCID) mice and NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice grafted with human peripheral blood leucocytes (hu-PBL) and stimulated with interleukin (IL) 4, and second to investigate whether oral exposure to cell-free R5 and X4 HIV-1 could lead to oral transmission of HIV through intact or traumatized mucosal tissues in humanized mice. Both low and high concentrations of cell-free R5 and X4 viruses failed to cause oral transmission with or without trauma in hu-PBL NOD/SCID and NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice which presented a number of CD4⁺ cells in gingival tissues and oral cavities with or without tissue injury. The present results show that IL-4 administered NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice are useful as a small humanized model for the study of HIV oral infection which may help to define the window of opportunity for oral transmission by the HIV virus in animal model experiments.

INTRODUCTION

Mucosal exposure of infants to maternal infectious cervical secretions and/or blood during delivery is a great risk for human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection.¹ Further, oral transmission of HIV-1 through breast milk occurs during the lactation period, while oral–genital contact has been shown to be one of the risk factors for transmission of HIV-1 in adults.^{2,4} However, there is no risk of infection via saliva transfer from light kissing or the common use of dishes or toothbrushes.³ In recent reports, oral exposure of simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) or simian HIV (SHIV) has been shown to be a risk factor

for mucosal infection in rhesus monkey models.^{5,6} Moreover, HIV-1 proviral DNA was detected in 74% of semen samples from HIV-1 infected patients,⁷ while it has also been demonstrated that epithelial cells in the oral cavity can be productively infected by a cell-borne HIV-1 virus.⁸ These findings demonstrate that both oral and upper gastrointestinal mucosa have important roles in achievement of mucosal transmission of HIV-1.

A small animal model for the *in vivo* study of human peripheral blood leucocytes (hu-PBL) would be valuable for the elucidation of human-specific infectious agents such as HIV-1. Severe combined immunodeficiency (SCID) and non-obese diabetic (NOD)/*lpr/scid* (NOD/SCID) mice reconstituted with hu-PBL mice have been established,^{9,10} and their systemic infection with HIV-1 by intraperitoneal injection has been achieved.^{11,12} The NOD strain is characterized by a functional deficit of natural killer (NK) cells,^{13,14} absence of a circulating complement¹⁵ and defects in the differentiation and function of antigen-presenting cells.^{11,16,17} Recently, NOD/SCID β2 microglobulin knock-out (NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-}) mice, which are major

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histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I deficient B and T cell deficient C5 deficient and have a low number of NK cells were established.¹⁸⁻²⁰ These support up to six- to sevenfold higher levels of hu cell engraftment than NOD/SCID mice which is associated with increased levels of hu CD4⁺ T cells.¹

A long-term culture of hu lymphocytes in the NOD/SCID mice system induces cytotoxic T cells and up-regulates infiltration of CD8⁺ cells into various tissues. Interleukin (IL)-4 is a pleiotropic cytokine produced by activated T helper 2 (Th2) cells, mast cells, and basophils,^{3,4} and has been identified as an important regulator for CD4⁺ Th2 subset development.⁵ It is also well known that a change in Th1/Th2 balance is the result of various immunoreactions.⁶ Therefore, in the present study IL-4 was used as the effective agent for grafting of hu CD4⁺ cells in the NOD/SCID mouse system.

Studies with newborn and older macaques have shown that a non-traumatic inoculation of SIV into the oral cavity can lead to productive viral infection and acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS),⁵ which is possibly initiated in the tonsils by M cell uptake and transported by rapid infection of local lymphoid tissue.⁷ In the oral infection of SIV, Robert Guroff noted that palatine and sublingual tonsils contained deep crypts rich in M cells and suggested them as another potential route of HIV infection.⁸ These studies have focused on non-traumatic infection using SIV or SHIV *in vivo* experiments; however, the traumatic infection by HIV-1 on oral mucosa have not been widely reported. These sites are not a well-established entry of HIV-1, though the question of whether periodontal mucosa condition is a risk factor for HIV infection is of obvious importance. Because mice do not develop palatine, sublingual or pharyngeal tonsils, we investigated first whether IL-4 administered NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice could be useful as a small humanized model for the study of cell-free HIV oral infection and second whether oral mucosa with or without trauma in a model have important implications for the achievement of mucosal transmission of HIV-1 by using oral exposure of cell-free HIV-1 in the present study mouse systems.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mice

NOD/SCID and NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) and maintained at the National Institute of Infectious Diseases (NIID). The present study used female mice at the age of 6–9 weeks. All experiments were performed in accordance with our institutional guidelines.

Human leucocyte transplantation

Transplantation of hu PBL into both types of NOD/SCID mice was performed using procedures and conditions described previously. hu PBL cells were separated from hu peripheral blood by Ficoll-Conrey (Immuno Biological Laboratories, Cunniff, Japan) density gradient centrifugation, then washed three times in Hanks balanced salt solution (HBSS) (Gibco Laboratories Life Technologies, Paisley, UK) and adjusted to a $4.0\text{--}8.0 \times 10^7/\text{ml}$ concentration of cells in HBSS. A hu PBL suspension was then administered intraperitoneally at 0.5 ml per mouse. Mice were irradiated (2.2 Gy γ irradiation) from a ¹³⁷Cs source (Gammacell 40 Atomic Energy of Canada

Ltd, Kanata, Canada) 0–1 days before human cell transfer. On days 1, 7, and 14 after hu PBL transplantation, mice were administered intraperitoneally with either 62.5 ng or 250 ng of hu IL-4 (204-IL-R & D system Inc, Minneapolis, MN) in 300 μl of phosphate buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4. Control mice were injected intraperitoneally with 300 μl of PBS alone. On days 21 and 28, mice were administered with various HIV-1 strains by intraperitoneal or oral inoculation. On day 35, all mice were killed and analysed.

Virus inoculation

We used the following cell-free HIV-1 strains: HIV-1_{NDK} and HIV-1_{MN} as X4 viruses and HIV-1_{TH}, HIV-1_{JR-CSF}, and HIV-1_{JR-FL} as R5 viruses. HIV-1_{NDK}, HIV-1_{MN}, HIV-1_{TH}, HIV-1_{JR-CSF}, and HIV-1_{JR-FL} were obtained from the NIH AIDS Research and Reference Reagent Program, and HIV-1_{JR-FL} was kindly provided by Dr Yoshio Koyanagi (Department of Virology, Tohoku University Graduate School of Medicine). Fifty percent tissue culture infection doses (TCID₅₀) were determined by limiting the dilution of virus stocks with phytohemagglutinin and IL-2-activated hu PBL. The cell-free supernatants were stored at -130°C until used as a virus source. All procedures for infection and maintenance of hu PBL NOD/SCID mice were performed in biosafety level 3 facilities at the National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo, Japan, under standard caging conditions. Grafted mice were intraperitoneally injected with 1×10^{-1} – 1×10^4 TCID₅₀ of various strains of HIV-1 as positive controls. The strains were transmitted into the oral cavities by two different means. One method was to inoculate the virus into the oral cavity without trauma as a model of an intact oral cavity, while the other was to inoculate HIV-1 into the oral cavity after trauma, which was induced in the periodontal mucosa by injury with scissors under anaesthesia as a model of an oral disease such as periodontal disease. A 100 μl cell-free virus sample was pipetted for 5 min onto non-injured and injured periodontal mucosa in the mice oral cavities. The mice were not allowed to drink or eat overnight after HIV-1 exposure. Seven days after the last inoculation of HIV-1, the mice were killed and analysed.

Tissue preparation

On day 35 after transplantation of hu PBL into mice, the upper and lower jaws, spleen, cervical lymph nodes, lung, liver, salivary gland, and serum were extracted for the following experiments. Some mice were anaesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (0.008 ml/g mouse) and killed and fixed by exsanguination, then underwent perfusion with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in a 0.1 M cacodylic acid buffer administered through the left ventricle of the heart. Subsequently, oral tissues including the jaw and surrounding soft tissue were removed and placed in 4% PFA for 12 hr. After fixation, the specimens were washed, then decalcified in 10% neutral buffered ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) using a magnetic stirrer at 4 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 3 weeks.

Flow cytometry

Single cell suspensions from the removed spleens were prepared. Contaminated red blood cells were lysed in ammonium chloride-potassium (ACK) buffer and rinsed twice in HBSS. In 1

the number of viable cells was determined by exclusion of trypan blue (Sigma Aldrich, St Louis, MO) using a haemocytometer. Single cell suspensions were stained with the following antibodies: fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) conjugated anti mouse CD45 (30 F11), anti mouse CD4 (H129 19), anti hu CD45 (H130), anti hu CD4 (RPA T4) and phycoerythrin (PE) conjugated anti hu CD8 (RPA T8). Each was purchased from BD Pharmingen (San Diego, CA).

The expressions of galactosylceramide (GalCer), CCR5 and CXCR4 in mouse oral mucosa were also examined by flow cytometry. Surgically resected mouse gingival and palatal mucosa were minced and then dispersed with 0.25% trypsin and 0.02% EDTA by continuous stirring for 90 min at 37°C. Prepared single cell suspensions were incubated with the following antibodies: rabbit antiserum to GalCer (Cov1Ab, Oulin, Cedex, France), FITC conjugated goat anti rabbit immunoglobulin specific polyclonal antibody (BD Pharmingen), PE conjugated anti mouse CD45 (30 F11, BD Pharmingen), FITC conjugated anti hu CCR5 (2D7/CCR5, BD Pharmingen) and PE conjugated anti hu CXCR4 (12G5, BD Pharmingen). Normal rabbit immunoglobulin (DAKO, Glostrup, Denmark) was used as a control isotype. Staining was evaluated for a minimum of 10^4 cells with a FACSCalibur (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ) flow cytometer and data were analysed with Cellquest (Becton Dickinson) software.

Immunohistochemistry

The decalcified oral tissues including the jaw were snap frozen and embedded in OCT (Tissue Tek, Sakura, Torrance, CA). Serial 10 µm cryosections were placed on matsunami adhesive silane (MAS) coated glass microscope slides (Matsunami Glass, IND, Osaka, Japan) and dried, then rinsed three times in PBS for 5 min each time. Endogenous peroxidase activity was quenched with 3% H₂O₂ in PBS (v/v) for 20 min at room temperature, then the sections were washed again three times in PBS for 5 min each time and the slides were incubated with 2% blocking horse serum (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) for 1 hr at room temperature in a humidified chamber. Excess serum was drained and biotinylated antibodies (murine monoclonal anti hu CD45 clone H130, anti hu CD4 clone RPA T4 and anti hu CD8 clone RPA T8 (BD Pharmingen)) in 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA)-PBS were directly added to the sections and incubated overnight at 4°C in a humidified chamber. For a negative control, non-specific mouse immunoglobulin G1 (IgG1) was used at the same concentration. Sections were rinsed and then the antigen-antibody complex was detected using an avidin-biotin peroxidase kit (Vector Laboratories). 3,3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride dihydrate (Vector Laboratories) was used as the chromogen and sections were counterstained with methyl green (Mutoyagaku, Tokyo, Japan), then mounted with ENIFLI ANneu (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). These periodontal sections were also stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) for conventional histological assessment.

Nested polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and DNA sequence analysis

DNA from the spleen, cervical lymph nodes, lung, liver, salivary gland and periodontal tissues was extracted using a DNeasy[†]

tissue kit (QIAGEN GmbH, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions and tested for proviral DNA by nested PCR with primers derived from conserved HIV-1 *env* and *gag* sequences. The primers (first OA and OD and second SB and SC) used for the *env* PCR assay were OA 5' TGTACA CATGGAATTAGGC CAGTAG 3' (HIV genome location 6962-6986) and OD 5' AAATTCCTCCACAATTAATAA CT 3' (7345-7369) for the primary reaction and SB 5' TCAACTCAACTGCTGTAAAT 3' (6989-7009) and SC 5' AATTCTGGGTCCTCCTCAGG 3' (7314-7336) for the secondary reaction. Primers (first JA152 and JA155 and second JA153 and JA154) for the *gag* PCR assay were JA152 5' ATCTCTAGCAGTGCCGCCGAACAG 3' 64-648 and JA155 5' CTGATAATGCTGAAAACATGGGTAT 3' (1276-1300) for the primary reaction and JA153 5' CTCTCGACGCAGGACTCGGCTTGCT 3' (679-703) and JA154 5' CCCATGCATTCAAAGTTCTAGGTGA 3' (1213-1237) for the secondary reaction. These primers have been reported previously.^{9,30} The primary reaction mix contained 10-100 µg of DNA, 12.5 µl of Premix Taq Takara Ex TaqTM Version (Takara Bio Inc, Shiga, Japan) and 1 µM of each primer in a total volume of 25 µl. The samples were first preheated for 9 min at 94°C, then cycled 34 times at 95°C for 1 min, annealed at 55°C for 2 min, extended at 72°C for 1 min and finally incubated at 72°C for 5 min. The secondary reaction used 2.5 µl from the primary PCR product under the same conditions as in the primary reaction. To confirm whether the PCR products were recovered from the HIV-1 strains used, nested PCR products were purified using PCR Kleen Spin Columns (Quantum Prep[®], Bio Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) and sequenced using a sequencing kit with fluorescent dye terminators (Perkin Elmer, Foster City, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. These PCR primers and amplification conditions were also subjected to sequencing. The sequence data were collected with an ABI PRISM[®] 377 DNA Sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA).

Quantitative PCR assay

Serum virus RNA copy numbers were determined using a quantitative PCR assay (Amplicor, Roche Molecular Systems, Somerville, NJ). One hundred µl of mice serum was taken on day 35 after hu PBL transplantation and subsequently assayed according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer. The detection limit for the RNA copy numbers was 800 in this experiment.

Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) of secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor (SLPI) from saliva

To obtain whole saliva from NOD/SCID and NOD/SCID 2m¹¹ mice, they were intraperitoneally injected (after anaesthesia) with a cocktail of isoproterenol (0.20 mg/100 g body wt) and pilocarpine (0.05 mg/100 g body wt, Sigma) in PBS as secretagogue. Subsequently, saliva was collected from the mouth by a micropipette for 15 min and stored in 1.5 ml microfuge tubes. Whole hu saliva from three healthy individuals and whole mouse saliva from three mice of each strain were collected and centrifuged at 3000 × g for 15 min. Each supernatant was sterilized using a 0.22 µm Millex CV filter (Millipore Products, Bedford, MA). Hu saliva SLPI was determined using a

sandwich ELISA technique as follows. Ninety six well micro titre H plates (Sumitomo Bekkito Tokyo Japan) were coated overnight at 4 °C with 100 µl of 1:1000 dilution goat anti hu SLPI polyclonal antibody (Cosmo Bio Co Ltd Tokyo Japan) in 50 mM of carbonate buffer (pH 9.6). The plates were washed with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20 (PBST) and blocked with 1% (w/vol) skimmed milk in PBSI. This was followed by the addition of 100 µl of a twofold serial dilution of saliva to the wells and incubation for 1 hr at 37 °C. The wells were then washed five times with PBST and further incubated for 1 hr at 37 °C with 100 µl of anti hu SLPI monoclonal antibody (clone 31 HyCult Biotechnology PB Uden Netherlands) diluted 1:1000 in PBST. The wells were then washed five times with PBST and further incubated for 1 hr at 37 °C with 100 µl of alkaline phosphatase conjugated goat anti mouse IgG (γ) antibody (Zymed Laboratory South San Francisco CA) diluted 1:1000 in PBST. After five washes with PBST bound SLPI were detected after the addition of 100 µl of 1 mg/ml para-nitrophenyl phosphate (Sigma) as a substrate and incubation for 1 h at 37 °C. SLPI differences between human saliva and mouse saliva were determined by colorimetric end points read at a wavelength of 405 nm in a microplate reader (Multiscan Biochromatic Bichromatic Lobsystems Helsinki Finland).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed by Mann-Whitney's *U* test. *P* values of 0.05 or less were considered to indicate statistical significance.

RESULTS

Effects of hu IL-4 on grafting of hu CD45⁺ CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ cells in NOD/SCID and NOD/SCID B2m^{0/0} mice

To establish a small animal model for HIV infection we examined the effects of IL-4 on hu CD45⁺ CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ cells in NOD/SCID and NOD/SCID B2m^{0/0} mice. In NOD/SCID mice the administration of low doses of IL-4 (62.5 ng/mouse) induced slight increases in [CD45⁺ (86.3% ± 11.2 (represented by average ± SD) *n* = 7), CD4⁺ CD8⁻ (33.9% ± 10.9 *n* = 7) and CD4⁻ CD8⁺ (51.4% ± 6.3 *n* = 7) cells in comparison with the controls which were injected with PBS alone (CD45⁺ 73.7% ± 31.6, CD4⁺ CD8⁻ 27.9% ± 24.0 and CD4⁻ CD8⁺ 40.3% ± 11.5) though the differences were not significant. Moreover the administration of high doses of IL-4 (250 ng/mouse) did not induce significant changes of CD45⁺ (70.8% ± 16.7–69.4% ± 35.5 *P* = 0.8273 *n* = 6)

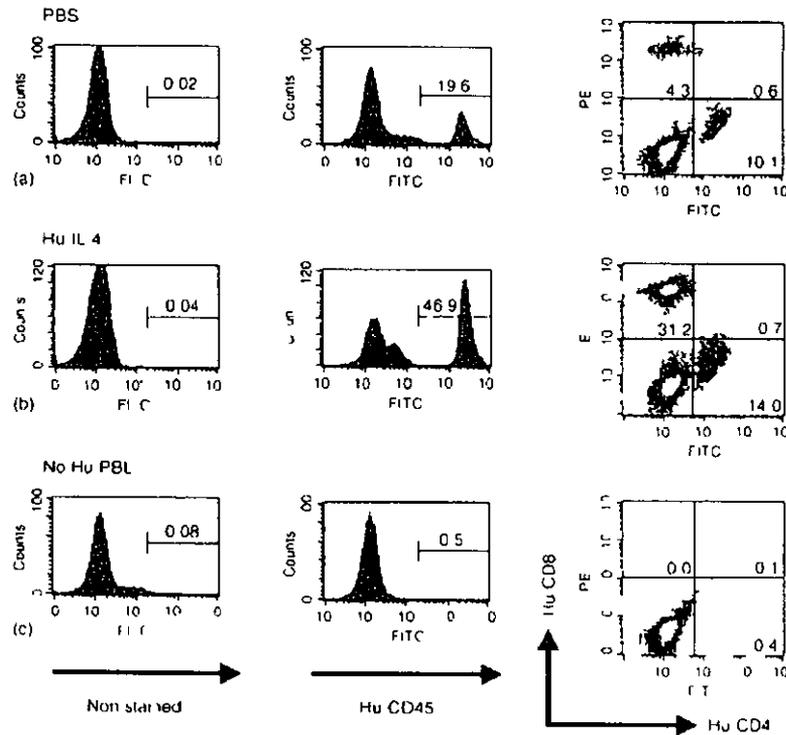


Figure 1 Flow cytometric analysis of hu CD45⁺ CD8⁺ and CD4⁺ T cell populations present in the spleens of grafted NOD/SCID B2m^{0/0} mice treated with hu IL-4. Hu PBL in splenic cells were analysed 3 weeks after the last administration using hu CD45⁺ and CD4⁺/CD8⁺ double staining. The analyses were performed on gated lymphocytes with for at least 1000 cells. CD8⁺ CD4⁻ lymphocytes can be distinguished in the quadrant analysis. The numbers in the upper left and lower right quadrants are the percentages of CD8⁺ CD4⁻ T cells and CD4⁺ CD8⁻ T cells respectively. Determinations of the proportion of non-stained cells hu CD45⁺ and hu CD4⁺ CD8⁺ in the spleens of grafted mice are shown. Data shown are representative of 7 (PBS), 14 (IL-4) and 13 (no PBL) in 16 different experiments. No hu TBL splenic cells from NOD/SCID B2m^{0/0} mice.

CD4⁺ CD8⁻ (33.6% ± 23.9–30.9% ± 27.3 *P* = 0.8293 *n* = 6) or CD4⁻ CD8⁺ (32.2% ± 5.3–38.4% ± 13.5 *P* = 0.5127 *n* = 6) cells in proportion to the control

In NOD/SCID B2m^{fl/fl} mice the administration of high doses of IL-4 (250 ng/mouse) induced significant increases of hu CD45⁺ CD4⁺ CD8⁻ and CD4⁻ CD8⁺ cells in comparison with the control (Figs 1 and 2c). Further the proportion of each type of hu cell in spleens from PBS and IL-4 treated mice was different from that of fresh hu PBL (Fig 2a). As for the hu CD4/CD8 relative ratio there were no significant differences between the PBS and IL-4 groups in either mouse strain (Figs 2b, c). However the ratio in spleens from both strains after administration with IL-4 was half (approximately 1) of the ratio of fresh hu PBL before transplantation

Identification of hu leukocytes in periodontal tissues

To study circulating hu leukocytes treated with IL-4 in oral tissues hu CD45⁺ CD4⁺ CD8⁻ and CD4⁻ CD8⁺ cells were stained for immunohistochemistry assay in hu PBL NOD/SCID and NOD/SCID B2m^{fl/fl} mice. Many hu CD45⁺ cells were seen in tooth pulp samples from NOD/SCID B2m^{fl/fl} mice at 5 weeks after grafting (Fig 3b, c). However hu CD45⁺ cells were not found in the upper area of epithelium in oral mucosa though they were found accumulated at the junction of the epithelium and lamina propria (Fig 3e, f). Similar results to hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{fl/fl} mice were also found in the hu PBL NOD/SCID mice (data not shown). A greater number of hu CD45⁺ cells was induced by IL-4 than PBS administration in periodontal tissues from hu PBL-NOD/SCID mice (Fig 4). However in

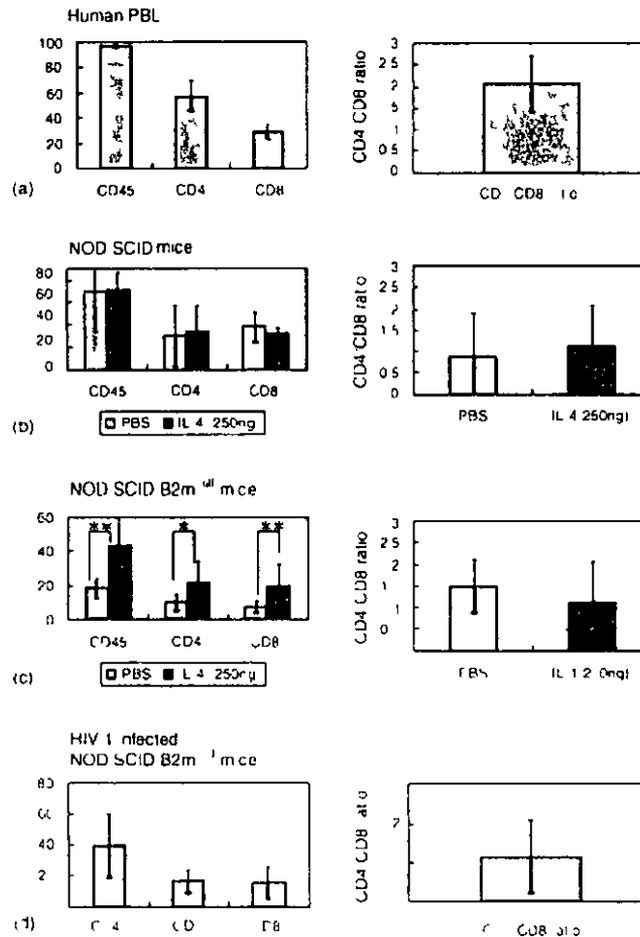


Figure 2 Effects of hu IL-4 alone on T cell proportions in grafted mice infected or not infected with HIV-1. Determinations of the proportion of hu CD45⁺ cells with hu CD4⁺ CD8⁻ and hu CD4⁻ CD8⁺ T cells in the spleens of grafted hu PBMC (a) and NOD/SCID mice (b) not infected NOD/SCID B2m^{fl/fl} mice (c) and NOD/SCID B2m^{fl/fl} infected with HIV-1 (d). The CD4/CD8 (CD4⁺ CD8⁻ T cells/CD4⁻ CD8⁺ T cells) ratio is shown in the right panel. Hu lymphocytes in spleen cells were analysed 3 weeks after the first administration. Analyses were performed on gate lymphocytes with forward scatter/side scatter characteristics. Results are expressed as means ± SD for representative independent assays. Statistical analysis was performed by Mann-Whitney's *U* test. Asterisks did not significantly different (vs. vs. PBS *P* < 0.05 *P* < 0.01).

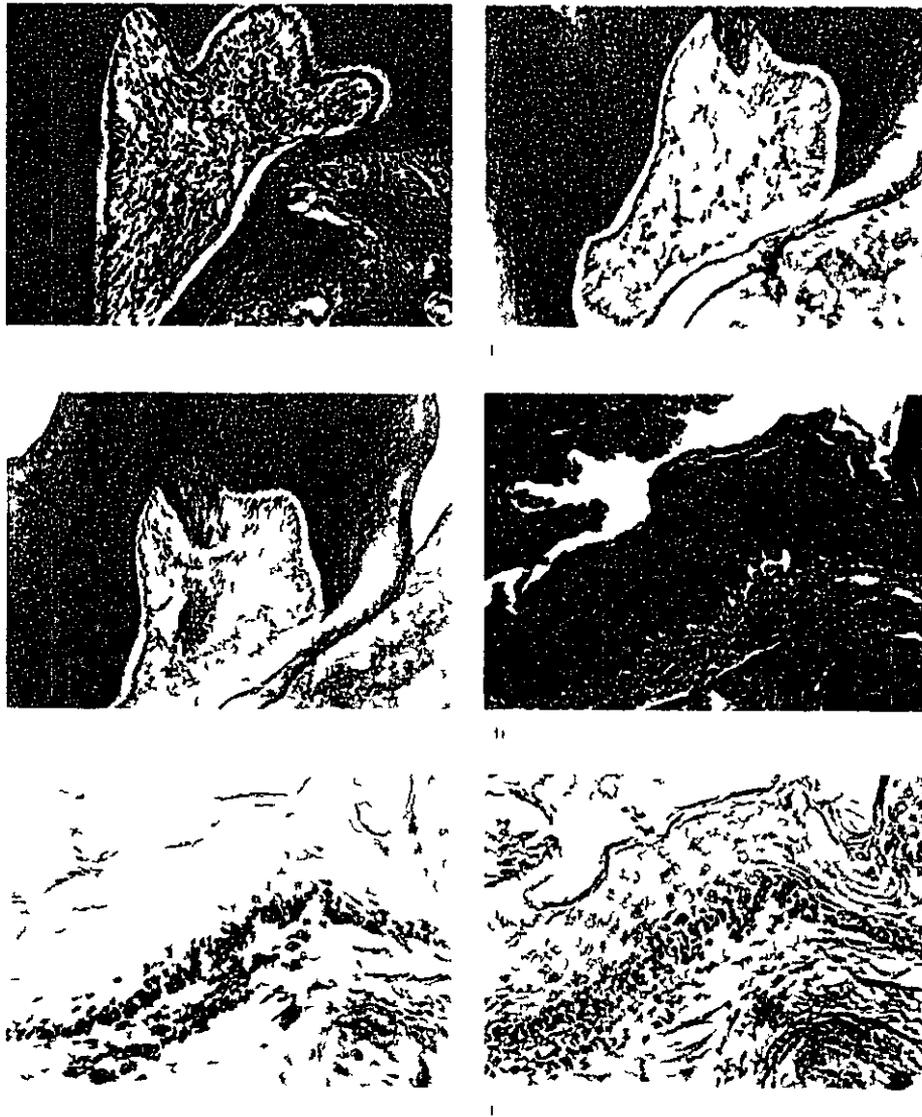


Figure 3 Photomicrographs of pulp and junction of epithelium and lamina propria specimens from hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice given PBS ($\times 400$). H&E staining of pulp (a) and junction of epithelium and lamina propria (d) are shown in the left column. Immunohistochemical staining of CD45⁺ cells and non-staining are shown in the pulp (b and c, respectively) and junction of epithelium and lamina propria (e and f, respectively). Data shown are representative of four independent experiments.

these positive cells, hu CD8⁺ cells were found in much greater numbers than CD4⁺ cells (Fig. 4). In contrast, in NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice, IL-4 and PBS induced not only CD8⁺ cells but also CD4⁺ cells (Fig. 5). These results indicate that hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice treated with IL-4 may be useful as a small animal model for oral transmission of HIV.

Oral transmission of HIV in hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice

To evaluate oral transmission of HIV with or without tumour, various HIV-1 strains were given either intraperitoneally or

orally to hu PBL NOD/SCID and NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice. Hu PBL NOD/SCID mice inoculated with HIV-1_{AD8} intraperitoneally at a dose of 100 TCID₅₀ showed *em* and *cas* PCR products in all spleen cells and one of three lung tissues, as well as HIV-1 RNA copies in serum (Fig. 6). Similar results were also obtained for hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice as well as those inoculated intraperitoneally with other strains of HIV-1 (data not shown). Mice infected with HIV-1 did not show a significant reduction of hu CD4⁺ cells among spleen cells after intraperitoneal inoculation (Fig. 2d). Further, PCR products were not found in cervical lymph node, liver, salivary gland or heart specimens (data not shown). Mice inoculated with 100

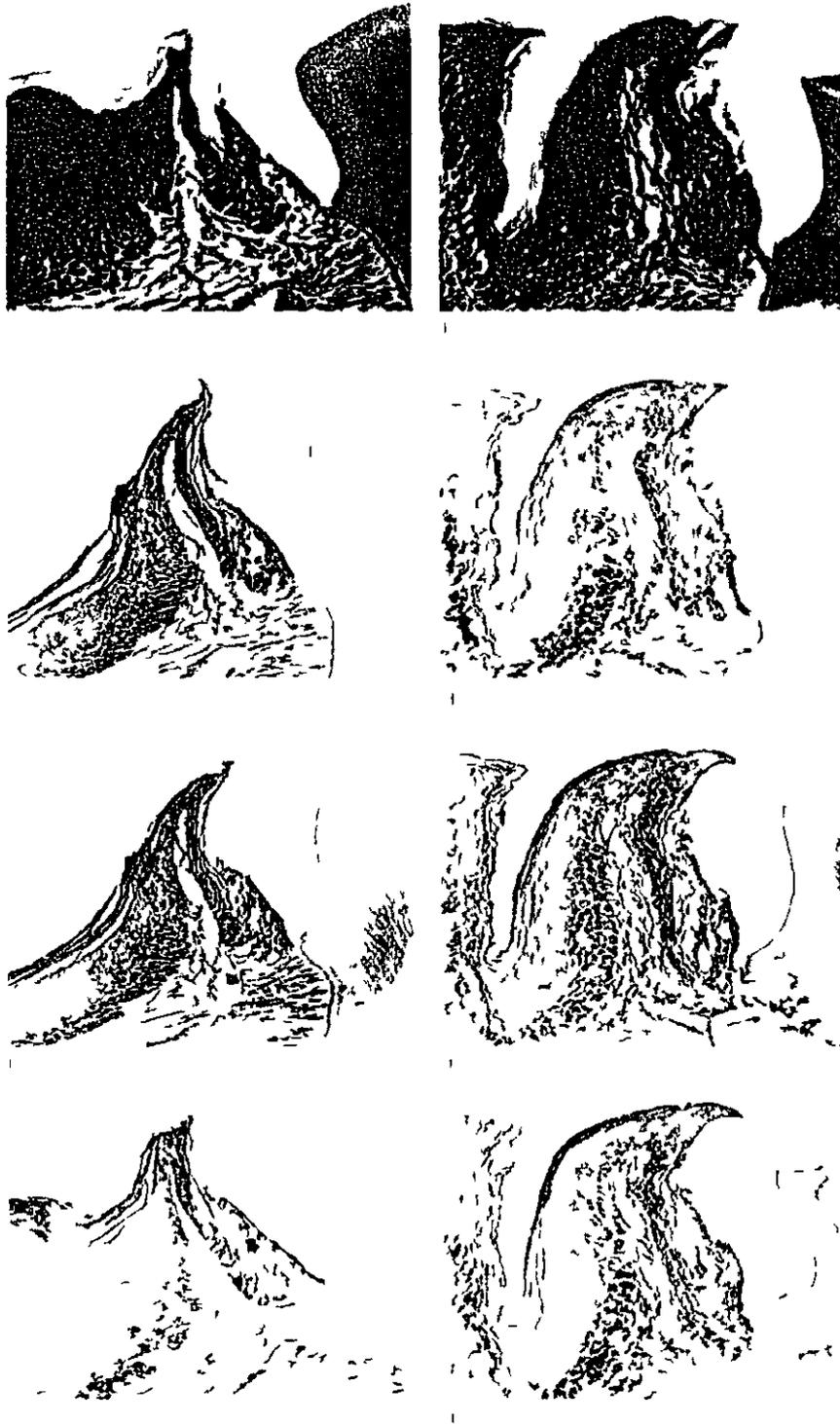


Figure 4 Photomicrographs of periodontal tissue sections from hu FBL NOD/SCID mice ($\times 700$) H&E staining (a and b) immunohistochemical staining of hu CD45 cells (c and d) and hu CD4 (e and f) and hu CD8⁺ T cells (g and h) in periodontal tissues from hu FBL NOD/SCID mice given PBS and HIV-1 are shown. Left and right panels show periodontal sections from mice given PBS and HIV-1 respectively on days 7 and 14. Photos show representative sections in all figures. Data shown are representative of 3 independent experiments.

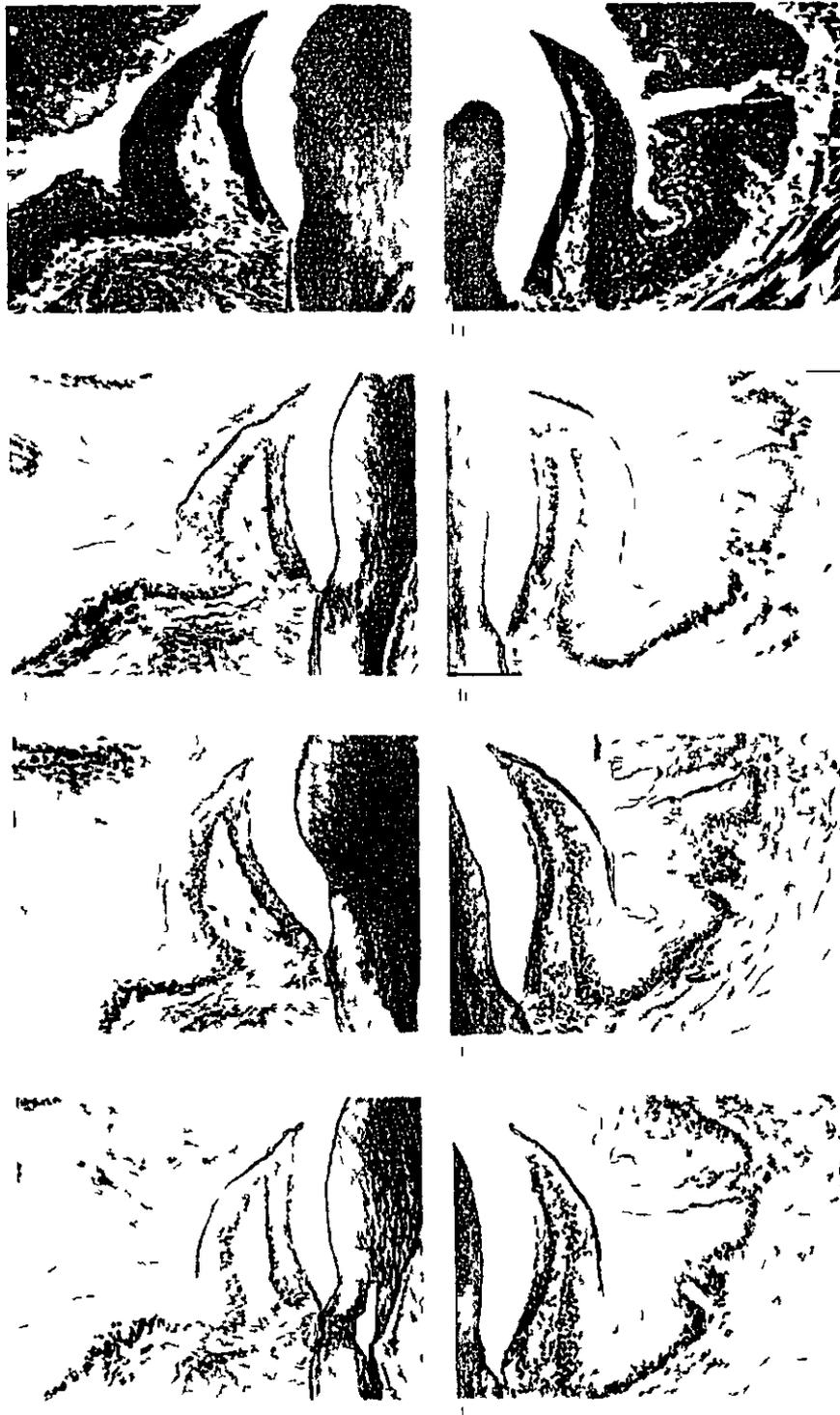
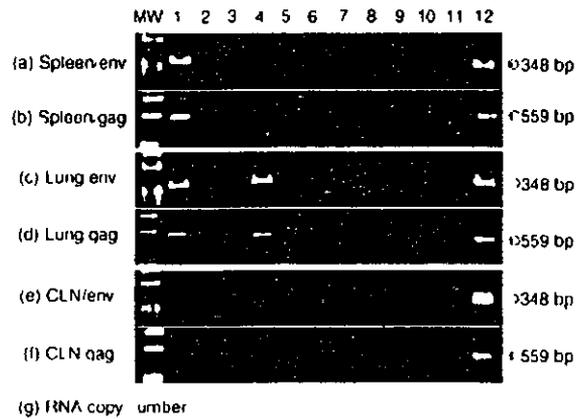


Figure 5 Photomicrographs of perio-lingual tissue specimens from hu PBL NOD/SCID B^{2m0} mice ($\times 400$) H&E staining (a and b). Immunohistochemical staining of hu CD45 (c and d) and hu CD4 (e and f) and hu CD8 (g and h) in perio-lingual tissues from hu PBL NOD/SCID mice given PBS and IL-4, respectively. Left and right panels show perio-lingual sections from mice administered PBS and IL-4, respectively (on days 1, 7 and 14). Photos show sections in all figures from upper to lower. Data shown are representative of three independent experiments.



Lane	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
Dose of HIV (X4 virus)	100TCID ₅₀			500TCID ₅₀			1000TCID ₅₀						
Route of inoculation	ip	inj	po	p	inj	po	inj	po	no cell	no HIV			
RNA copy number	6842	ND	ND	2205	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	no tem	pc	

Figure 6 PCR products for *env* and *gag* genes in spleen (a and b) lung (c and d) and CLN (e and f) tissues from NOD/SCID mice and NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice respectively infected with HIV 1 RNA copy numbers are shown in g. Hu PBL NOD/SCID mice were inoculated with HIV 1_{MN} via different routes the peritoneal cavity (lane 1) and oral cavity with (lane 7) and without (lane 3) injured tissues. NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice were inoculated with HIV 1_{MN} via different routes peritoneal cavity (lane 4) and oral cavity with (lanes 5 and 7) and without (lanes 6 and 8) injured tissues. Lane MW Molecular weight standards (*Hae*III digest of Φ X174). As shown in the table (g) the detection limit of RNA copy numbers was 800 in this experiment. Data shown are representative of 3 independent experiments. ND not detected; ip intraperitoneal cavity; inj oral cavity with injured tissues; po oral cavity no cell; tissues from NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice inoculated intraperitoneally with HIV 1; no HIV tissues from hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice; no tem negative control for PCR assay (no template DNA); pc positive control DNA (HIV 1_{MN}).

500 and 1000 TCID₅₀ HIV 1_{MN} as X4 viruses into the oral cavity with and without trauma did not show PCR products of *gag* and *env* in any tissues or HIV 1 RNA copies in serum (Fig. 6). HIV 1_{NDK} at a high dose (100 TCID₅₀) also failed to cause oral infection in the mouse system (data not shown). Further the R5 viruses HIV 1_{TH} PF7 and HIV 1_{JR} FL did not infect the oral cavity of mice with or without trauma at doses of 100 and 1000 TCID₅₀ (Fig. 7 and 500 TCID₅₀ data not shown). HIV 1_{JR} CSF at a high dose (1000 and 10000 TCID₅₀) also failed to cause oral infection in the mouse system (data not shown).

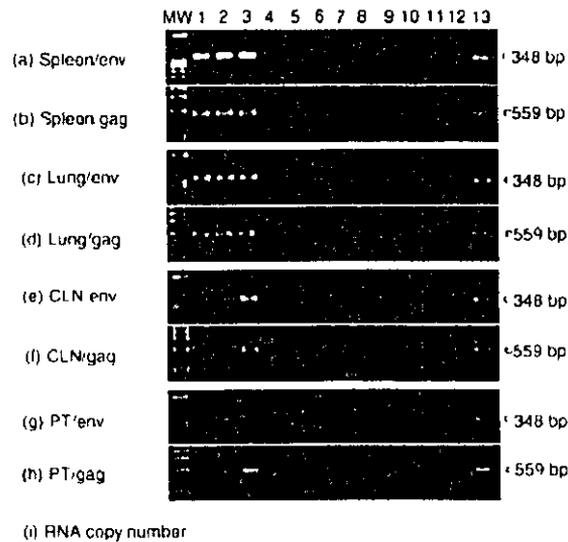
Expression of coreceptor to HIV 1 in mouse periodontal tissues

To evaluate the expression of the coreceptor to HIV 1 in mouse periodontal tissues samples were extracted and homogenized in HBSS and stained with various FITC or PE conjugated anti-coreceptor antibodies for fluorescence activated cell sorting analysis. CXCR4 was expressed on 13.7% of the CCR5⁺ cells and 1.3% of the CCR5⁻ cells in mucosal tissues from NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice (Fig. 8). Moreover CXCR4 was expressed in 11% of the CD45⁺ cells (epithelial cells) but not in CD45⁻ cells (leucocytes Fig. 8).

DISCUSSION

In the present study we first examined the effect of hu IL-4 in an attempt to establish an animal model for HIV oral transmission

using NOD/SCID mice and NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice which were considered to be useful recipients for the migration and grafting of hu lymphocytes. It is known that IL-4 preferably activates Th2 subset T lymphocytes³¹ and causes an increase in immunoglobulin production³. As for the effect of hu IL-4 on hu lymphocytes in a human mouse chimera construction hu IL-4 causes an escape from activation of hu cytotoxic T cells and natural killer cells in NOD/SCID mice³³. Further cytotoxic hu cells induced in the SCID mouse system are accompanied by an increased sensitivity to apoptosis which is known to regulate proliferation and maintain lymphocyte homeostasis^{34,35}. The appearance of apoptotic hu T cells is dependent on cytotoxicity against mouse tissues and is up regulated during infiltration in a long term NOD/SCID culture. The infiltration of a large number of CD8⁺ cells has also been confirmed in several types of NOD/SCID tissues from the kidney liver periodontal tissues and bone marrow (Fig. 4). In the present study hu IL-4 significantly stimulated migration of hu CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ cells in spleen and periodontal tissues from NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice. Furthermore the migration or circulation of hu CD4⁺ cells without apoptosis to peripheral tissues such as periodontal tissues was higher in NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice than NOD/SCID mice. These results indicate that hu IL-4-administrated hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{-/-} mice may be a useful model for *in vivo* studies of hu lymphocyte response in the oral cavity as the method is less artificial and easy to perform because it is not necessary to preculture hu lymphocytes.



Lane	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
Dose of HIV (R5 virus)	100TCID ₅₀								100TCID ₅₀					
Route of inoculation	ip 1	ip 2	ip 3	inj 1	inj 2	po 1	po 2	inj	po	no cell	no HIV			
RNA copy number	15928	16728	17494	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	no tem	pc	

Figure 7 PCR products for *env* and *gag* genes in spleen (a and b), lung (c and d), CLN (e and f) and PT (g and h) tissues from NOD/SCID mice and NOD/SCID B2m^{null} mice respectively infected with HIV-1. RNA copy numbers are shown in (i). Hu PBL NOD/SCID mice were inoculated with HIV-1_{TH22PF7} via different routes: the peritoneal cavity (lanes 1 and 2) and oral cavity with (lane 4) and without (lane 6) tissue injury. Hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{null} mice were inoculated with HIV-1_{JR FL} via different routes: the peritoneal cavity (lane 3) and oral cavity with (lanes 5 and 8) and without (lanes 7 and 9) tissue injury. Lane MW: Molecular weight standards (*Hae*III digest of ΦX174). As shown in the table (i), the detection limit of RNA copy numbers was 800 in this experiment. Data shown are representative of one or two independent experiments. ND: not detected; ip: intraperitoneal cavity; inj: oral cavity with injured tissues; po: oral cavity; no cell: tissues from NOD/SCID B2m^{null} mice inoculated intraperitoneally with HIV-1; no HIV: tissues from hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{null} mice inoculated intraperitoneally with HIV-1; no tem: negative control for PCR assay (no template DNA); pc: positive control DNA (HIV-1_{MN}).

Primary isolates from HIV-1-infected patients obtained in the early stages of infection have been shown to be primarily R5 viruses³⁶ which are very efficient in their infection of epithelial cells through monocytes³⁷. However, both low and high concentrations of cell-free R5 viruses failed to infect hu PBL-NOD/SCID and NOD/SCID B2m^{null} mice by oral transmission with and without oral trauma. Recently, it was suggested that a potential mechanism of HIV-1 entry into epithelial cells was direct transfer between productively infected cells and epithelial cells³⁸. Moreover, Meng *et al.* noted that intestinal epithelial cells that expressed glycosphingolipid GalCer might selectively transfer R5 HIV-1 to CCR5-positive cells, such as macrophages or T lymphocytes, via the lamina propria in a cell contact-dependent manner³⁹. We confirmed that epithelial cells from the present experimental mice slightly expressed GalCer and CCR5, the chemokine receptor that serves as a coreceptor for R5 viruses. Therefore, a cell-free R5 virus may not be able to invade the mouse mucosal barrier without a tonsil, even if hu CD4⁺ cells are present in gingival tissues or injured tissues of the oral cavity. As a result, it is supposed that cell-cell contact by infected cells leads to transmission and infection in mice.

The HIV-1_{MN} strain, one of the most prevalent HIV-1 strains in North America and Europe^{10,11} (classified as subtype F and

known as an X4 virus) was also inoculated orally in the present mice. An X4 virus requires interaction of the envelope glycoprotein with CD4 and a second receptor, a chemokine receptor CXCR4. In the present study, cell-free X4 viruses did not transmit to or infect injured gingival mucosa infiltrated by a large number of hu CD4⁺ cells in hu PBL NOD/SCID B2m^{null} mice stimulated by IL-4 as well as the R5 virus. Further, direct contact of the cell-free X4 virus to hu CD4⁺ CXCR4⁺ cells in the oral cavity with injured tissues did not result in HIV-1 infection in the mice. It is known that the human saliva contains resistants to HIV-1 infection, as anti-HIV-1 agents such as hu-SLPI^{12,43} and thrombospondin⁴⁴ that aggregate viruses (by blocking virus-CD4 interactions during virus entry) and the hyponicity of saliva contribute to inhibit cell-associated viral replication¹⁵. We measured SLPI as a representative of the inhibitors; however, it was undetectable in the mouse saliva samples.

In a recent prospective clinical trial, 16.2% of the cases of vertical transmission of HIV could be ascribed to breast feeding.² Oral transmission of HIV-1 among adults is controversial. In a study of 122 people with primary HIV-1 infection, Dillon *et al.* estimated that 6.6% of the infections resulted from oral sex.¹⁶ In the presence of severe periodontal disease, very low

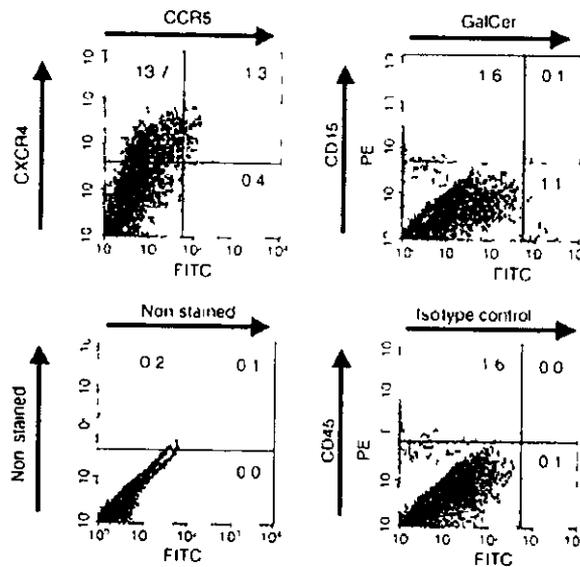


Figure 8 Flow cytometric analysis of hu CXCR4⁺ and CCR5⁺ cells and GalCer⁺ epithelial cell populations in mucosal tissues from the oral cavities of treated NOD/SCID B2m^{null} mice. The analyses were performed on gated cells larger than lymphocytes with forward scatter/side scatter characteristics. Mucosal tissue cells can be distinguished in the quadrant analysis. The proportions of CXCR4⁺ and CCR5⁺ cells were compared to non stained cells as a negative control. The proportion of GalCer⁺ cells among CD45⁺ cells was compared to cells stained with the control isotype antibody. Data shown are representative of three independent experiments.

concentrations of infectious virus were present in 21% of the saliva samples from HIV-seropositive patients at all stages of HIV infection⁴⁷. However mucosal and gingival lesions such as gingivitis and candidiasis can cause bleeding, thereby releasing the virus and infected cells into saliva and increasing the potential risk of oral transmission⁴⁸. A research agenda that clarifies in detail the risk from oral-genital contact in adults is important for rational counselling and prevention. From results of the present study we supposed two hypotheses. First, human mucosa, which likely has a pathogenic role in bleeding diseases such as periodontal diseases, relocates the infected cells to other lymphoid tissues through the receptor-mediated homing properties of the mucosal system. Second, tonsils may be an essential gate for oral-transmission or infection of HIV-1 over contact of cell free virus to cells with receptors in animal models. Therefore, a definitive conclusion regarding the difference between oral mucosa with and without tonsils in the role of the oral transmission of HIV-1 requires further investigation. Our findings demonstrated a useful small humanized model for the study of HIV oral transmission or infection and may help to define the window of opportunity for initiation by the HIV virus in experiments using animal models of oral transmission.

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Bone Regeneration by Recombinant Human Bone Morphogenetic Protein-2 Around Immediate Implants: A Pilot Study in Rats

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Purpose Difficulties relating to bone regeneration that complicate immediate implant placement include buccal and/or lingual fenestrations, primary anchorage of the implants, and the need for protection from functional loading during the osseointegration period. The objective of this pilot study was to evaluate bone regeneration by recombinant human bone morphogenetic protein-2 (rhBMP-2) around immediate implants placed in maxillary sockets in rats. **Materials and Methods** A total of 16 cylindrical 0.8×1.8 mm commercially pure, solid titanium implants were placed immediately after gentle extraction of the maxillary first molar teeth of 8 male Wistar rats. The sockets were randomly divided into 3 groups: group 1 (n = 6) received rhBMP-2 with poly(lactic acid)/poly(glycolic acid) copolymer-coated gelatin sponge carrier, group 2 (n = 5) received only the carrier, and group 3 (n = 5) received no grafting materials following placement. The rats were euthanized at 90 days postsurgery for microscopic analysis. **Results** In group 1, the implant body remained submerged completely, including the coronal part, which was fully covered by a significant amount (30% of total height) of regenerated cortical bone, even though the implant could easily be pulled out by a tweezer at the time of placement. Close approximation between the implant surface and regenerated bone could also be detected, indicating good bone to implant contact. In contrast, only peri-implant bone regeneration occurred in group 2, and an approximate 0.3 mm coronal part of the implant remained exposed. When no grafting materials were used (group 3), almost one third of the total length of the implant was exfoliated out of the socket when no grafting materials were used. **Discussion and Conclusions** Based on previous study and data from 16 sockets of the present study, it could be concluded that rhBMP-2 facilitated the regeneration of bone around immediate implants. In particular, the bone covering the coronal part could have been regenerated shortly after surgery, which helped to maintain the implant body inside the socket during the integration period in rats. (INT J ORAL MAXILLOFACIAL IMPLANTS 2003;18:211–217)

Key words bone morphogenetic proteins, dental implantation, dental implants, gelatin sponge, immediate implant placement

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Placement of implants immediately after tooth extraction is a treatment modality used increasingly commonly in implant-supported oral rehabilitation.¹ To date, there have been several studies documenting this immediate implant placement technique.^{1–3} Major difficulties^{4,5} relating to bone

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regeneration that complicate immediate implant procedures include buccal and/or lingual fenestrations, primary anchorage of the implants, and the need for protection from functional loading during the osseointegration period. In addition, stability of the implant body during the osseointegration period and osseointegration at the coronal part of the implant may be of concern. There is always a risk of trauma to the implant-bone interface, which can compromise implant success or increase crestal bone loss. To overcome these difficulties, various techniques are being investigated and applied, and special efforts have been devoted to improving the bone-implant interface by regenerating enough bone of sufficient quality around implants. Recent reports have demonstrated bone regeneration around nonsubmerged implants placed immediately in extraction sites and supported by grafting materials or bone augmentation materials.⁴⁻⁷ Some of these studies involved the use of bioabsorbable materials, which did not significantly enhance peri-implant bone regeneration in immediate implantation.

Recombinant human bone morphogenetic protein 2 (rhBMP 2) is the most actively studied of the recombinant proteins produced by recombinant technology for human bone morphogenetic proteins.^{8,9} The most recent report on successful oral application of rhBMP 2 in humans is very encouraging, and it suggests that further studies of various oral applications of rhBMP 2 would be worthwhile.¹⁰ In previous work, the present investigators were able to demonstrate that rhBMP 2 accelerated socket healing so as to preserve the cortical bone volume in rat maxillary root sockets.¹¹ Bone regeneration around immediate implants supported by rhBMP 2 has not previously been evaluated in animal models. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to evaluate the bone regenerative efficacy of rhBMP 2 around immediately placed implants in the maxillary root sockets of rats.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The protocol for this animal experiment was approved by the Niigata University School of Dentistry's Committee on the Guidelines for Animal Experimentation. Six-week-old male Wistar rats (170 to 190 g; Charles River Laboratory, Yokohama, Japan) were housed under similar conditions (22°C, 100% humidity, and a 12-hour daylight cycle), fed commercial rat food (MF Oriental Yeast, Tokyo, Japan), and given access to tap water *ad libitum*.

In this experiment, a poly(lactide acid)/poly(glycolic acid) copolymer (PLGA)-coated gelatin sponge (GS) was used as the rhBMP 2 carrier (PLGA/GS).¹¹ The molar ratio of the PLGA polymers was 1:1, and the weight ratio of PLGA to GS was 4:1, with porosity of approximately 90%.¹⁷

A total of 16 maxillary first molar teeth were gently extracted from 8 Wistar rats under anesthesia, and the rats were divided into 3 groups. Group 1 (n = 6) received rhBMP 2 and the carrier in their sockets; group 2 (n = 5) received only the carrier; and group 3 (n = 5) received no grafting materials with the implants. The socket walls were delicately trimmed with a spiral-type, low-speed (500 rpm) engine bur for less than 5 seconds under sterile saline cooling, then debrided and cleaned with sterile saline so that each implant could reach the base of the socket and fit tightly. A commercially available, commercially pure titanium implant bur was used to prepare the sites for machined, solid cylinder implants (diameter = 0.8 mm, length = 1.8 mm, rounded apices). These were placed in each of the 16 sockets, keeping the coronal part approximately 0.1 mm out of the socket. The implants showed no side-to-side movement on probing, but could be pulled out easily by a tweezer. Placement of the implant was followed by placement of the grafting materials (groups 1 and 2 only) and suturing of the gingival mucosa. The implant remained diagonally in the socket because of the diagonal anatomy of the anterior root and its socket of otherwise vertical rat maxillary first molar teeth.

The rats were provided with soft food and monitored every day for the first 2 weeks after the operation. Monitoring was continued at regular intervals over a 90-day period. Rats were sacrificed by perfusion fixation under general anesthesia as described in a previous report¹¹ and block biopsies were harvested. The status of each implant was verified using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), contact microradiography (CMR), and confocal laser microscopy (CLM). For examination using the SEM, biopsy specimens were chemically treated to remove soft tissue and then dehydrated and gold-coated before examination. Conventional methods were used to embed the block biopsies in methyl methacrylate resin after fixation in 70% ethanol and Villinueva staining. Using a cutting-grinding technique, 250- μ m-thick sagittal sections were obtained; these were then examined by CMR and CLM.

Regenerated bone height around the implants and the position of the implants were evaluated by a similar procedure as described previously.¹¹ In brief, 3 vertical lines were drawn on an immunohis-