

Mini review

Molecular analysis of human oral microbiota

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Objectives: The application of molecular, mainly 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA)-based approaches enables researchers to bypass the cultivation step and has proven its usefulness in studying the microbial composition in a variety of ecosystems, including the human oral cavity. In this mini-review, we describe the impact of these culture-independent approaches on our knowledge of the ecology of the human oral cavity and provide directions for future studies that should emphasize the role of specific strains, species and groups of microbes in periodontal disease.

Materials and methods: Recent findings are summarized to elucidate the relationship between periodontal disease and human oral microbiota, including as-yet-to-be-cultured organisms.

Results: The real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) method was developed to detect and quantify periodontopathic bacteria, such as *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Prevotella intermedia*, *Tannerella forsythensis* (formerly *Bacteroides forsythus*) and *Treponema denticola*. The checkerboard DNA–DNA hybridization technique allowed enumeration of large numbers of species in very large numbers of samples. 16S rRNA gene clone library analysis revealed the diversity of human oral microbiota and the existence of as-yet-to-be-cultured organisms that are presumed periodontal pathogens. In addition, terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (T-RFLP) analysis was applied for assessment of diversity of human oral microbiota.

Conclusion: Culture-independent approaches are useful for studying the microbial ecology in the human oral cavity and should be useful in the future to elucidate the etiology of periodontal disease.

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Periodontal disease, a polymicrobial mixed infection, is a major oral disease. It is caused by several microbial species, such as *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*, *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Prevotella intermedia*, *Tannerella forsythensis* (formerly *Bacteroides forsythus*) (1) and *Treponema denticola*. Analysis of the human oral microbiota has been limited by conventional culture-dependent methods; thus, more

oral bacteria remain uncultured and uncharacterized. Consequently, studies of causal microorganisms of oral diseases including periodontal disease are, in general, restricted to cultivable species such as the aforementioned pathogens. It is therefore probable that a large number of as-yet-to-be-cultured organisms present in the human oral cavity may play a role in periodontal disease. The best model available at present for determining microbial

diversity, without cultivation, is based on isolation of DNA from the target environment, polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification of the ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene, cloning the amplicons into *Escherichia coli*, and sequence analysis of the cloned 16S rRNA gene inserts (2). These culture-independent approaches have been used to determine the diversity of spirochetes in the subgingival pocket of subjects with a range of periodontal

conditions, including two healthy, one adult periodontitis, three acute necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis, eight refractory periodontitis, and one human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) periodontitis, and the prevalence of cultivable and uncultivable treponemes in oral diseases (3). In this mini-review, we discuss the relationships between periodontal disease and human oral microbiota including as-yet-to-be-cultured organisms.

Human oral spirochetes

The bacterial flora associated with gingivitis (4, 5) and periodontitis (6) have been investigated. Spirochetes are the predominant microorganisms known to proliferate in periodontal disease sites among the bacterial flora. Although the relationship between periodontitis and oral treponemes has been emphasized clinically, cultivation studies of oral treponemes are limited because of the oxygen sensitivity and unique nutritional requirements of these microorganisms and the long cultivation period (7, 8). The following species of cultivable oral treponemes have been validated: *Treponema amylovorum* (9), *T. denticola* (10), *T. lecithinolyticum* (11), *T. maltophilum* (12), *T. medium* (13, 14), *T. parvum* (15), *T. pectinovorum* (16), *T. putidum* (17), *T. socranskii* (18), and '*T. vincentii*'. (The last treponeme has not been validated in a peer-reviewed publication. It has been published however, in *Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology* (19) and is commonly used.) These species are classified into two groups according to the fermentation of carbohydrates. The saccharolytic oral treponemes contain six species (*T. amylovorum*, *T. lecithinolyticum*, *T. maltophilum*, *T. parvum*, *T. pectinovorum*, and *T. socranskii*), and the asaccharolytic oral treponemes contain four species (*T. denticola*, *T. medium*, *T. putidum*, and '*T. vincentii*'). Paster *et al.* (20) reported the phylogeny of cultivable oral treponemes isolated by Robert Smibert (Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, VA, USA). They proposed three novel species (*Treponema* Smibert-2, *Treponema* Smibert-3, and *Treponema* Smibert-5) based on

16S rRNA gene sequence comparisons. *Treponema* Smibert-2 was later considered a novel species, *Treponema parvum* (15). The taxonomy of oral spirochetes has been discussed in a mini-review article (21).

Among the cultivable oral treponemes, *T. denticola* is frequently isolated from sites of severe infection in patients with periodontitis (22), and many studies have attempted to elucidate the role of *T. denticola* in periodontitis (23–25). Although *T. socranskii* is frequently isolated from the subgingival plaque samples of periodontitis patients, in addition to *T. denticola*, it is difficult to cultivate and identify (26, 27). The PCR technique can be used to detect and identify *T. socranskii* (28). This technique is a rapid and reliable method for differentiating *T. socranskii* from other cultivable oral treponemes. Takeuchi *et al.* (29) used this PCR technique to identify *T. socranskii* in addition to *T. denticola* and *P. gingivalis* and to clarify the relationship between the presence of these microorganisms and the severity of clinical periodontal parameters. Their findings suggest that *T. socranskii*, *T. denticola*, and *P. gingivalis* are associated with the severity of periodontal tissue destruction. In addition, restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis of 16S rRNA genes amplified by PCR was used to differentiate three subspecies of *T. socranskii* (28). Recently, the relationship between *T. socranskii* ssp. *buccale* and periodontal disease was emphasized (30, 31). 16S rRNA gene PCR-RFLP analysis was also used to differentiate cultivable oral treponemes, including *T. denticola*, *T. medium*, *T. pectinovorum*, *T. socranskii*, and '*T. vincentii*' (32). Furthermore, species-specific nested PCR was used to detect *T. amylovorum*, *T. denticola*, *T. maltophilum*, *T. medium*, *T. pectinovorum*, *T. socranskii*, and '*T. vincentii*' in dental plaques (33).

Detection and quantification of periodontopathic bacteria

The relationship between periodontal disease and detection frequency of putative periodontal pathogens was

exhaustively evaluated using PCR of the 16S rRNA genes (34–38). These findings suggest that several species are strongly associated with periodontitis.

Accurate quantification of periodontal pathogens in clinical samples (saliva and subgingival plaque) is needed for understanding the etiologic role of these bacteria. The conventional PCR (endpoint PCR) method detects the plateau phase of the reaction, but is not suitable for quantification of the pathogens. In contrast, the real-time PCR method allows monitoring of the exponential phase. This method allows rapid detection and quantification of the bacteria in clinical samples. Real-time PCR using the TaqMan system was first used to quantitate *T. forsythensis* in subgingival plaque (39). Subsequently, this system was used to determine both the density of *P. gingivalis* and the total number of bacterial cells in plaque samples (40). In addition, real-time PCR using SYBR Green dye and LightCycler system (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) was first used to detect and quantify periodontopathic bacteria, such as *A. actinomycetemcomitans*, *P. gingivalis*, *T. forsythensis*, *T. denticola*, and *T. socranskii*, in saliva and subgingival plaque samples (41). Using the LightCycler system, it is possible to determine the amount of periodontopathic bacteria within 1 hour (*A. actinomycetemcomitans*: 40 min, *P. gingivalis*: 34 min, *T. forsythensis*: 40 min, *T. denticola*: 32 min, *T. socranskii*: 46 min). Maeda *et al.* (42) suggested that there was no significant difference between the TaqMan and SYBR Green chemistry in their specificity, quantitativity, and sensitivity. In addition, they suggested that, since the TaqMan assay required additional manipulation and cost for the probe, the SYBR Green assay might be suitable for routine clinical examinations. Currently, detection and quantification of periodontopathic bacteria by real-time PCR method are generalized in this field and many studies have reported the usefulness of real-time PCR (43–52). We anticipate that the real-time PCR method will become in the future an indispensable method for the diagnosis of periodontal disease,

evaluation of treatment, and prognostic judgment.

Enumeration of bacterial species in complex microbial ecosystems using checkerboard DNA–DNA hybridization

It has been difficult to conduct large-scale studies of microbiologically complex ecosystems using conventional microbiological techniques. The real-time PCR technique mentioned above is not particularly suitable for the examination of large numbers of samples for large numbers of different species. In contrast, molecular identification techniques in new probe-target formats, such as checkerboard DNA–DNA hybridization, permit enumeration of large numbers of species in very large numbers of samples (53). The checkerboard DNA–DNA hybridization technique was first described in 1994 by Socransky *et al.* (54). Using 40 species-specific DNA–DNA

hybridization probes to detect oral bacteria, it was revealed that subgingival plaque contains bacterial species in different complexes (55). Socransky *et al.* (55) observed five major complexes using cluster analysis (Table 1). The red complex, consisting of *P. gingivalis*, *T. forsythensis*, and *T. denticola*, showed the strongest relationship with clinical measures of periodontal disease, particularly pocket depth and bleeding on probing. The checkerboard DNA–DNA hybridization technique has been used to comprehensively examine the microbial composition of supra and subgingival plaque in subjects in health and periodontitis (56, 57), the salivary microbiota levels in relation to periodontal status (58), the relationship of cigarette smoking to the composition of the subgingival microbiota (59, 60), the differences between the subgingival microbiota in subjects from different geographic locations (61), the relationship of ethnic/racial group,

occupational and periodontal disease status (62), and effects of different periodontal therapies (63, 64). Recently, it was reported that the checkerboard DNA–DNA hybridization technique is useful for the enumeration of bacterial species in microbiologically complex systems (53). This technique is rapid, sensitive, and relatively inexpensive. It overcomes many of the limitations of cultivation-based approaches. Paster *et al.* (65) developed a PCR-based, reverse capture, checkerboard hybridization protocol to differentiate between species of oral streptococci, which are very closely related phylogenetically. Based on these techniques, DNA microarray will be developed in the near future.

Bacterial diversity in the human oral cavity

16S rRNA gene clone library analysis was first used in 1994 to determine the genetic diversity of cultivable and uncultivable spirochetes in the gingival crevice of a patient with severe periodontitis by Choi *et al.* (66). These investigators found that the clones fell into 23 clusters differing by about 1–2%. Their findings indicate an unexpected diversity of oral treponemes from a single patient. Thereafter, this method was applied to analyze the diversity of asaccharolytic *Eubacterium* species (67). In addition, Kroes *et al.* (68) used this method to characterize the breadth of bacterial diversity within the human subgingival crevice. Although the subject population was small, Sakamoto *et al.* (69) also used this method to compare the oral microbiota in the saliva from two patients with periodontitis and from a periodontally healthy subject. There was no clonal sequence affiliated with periodontopathic bacteria in the saliva from the healthy subject, whereas a number of periodontal pathogens such as *Campylobacter rectus*, *P. intermedia*, *P. gingivalis*, and *T. socranskii* were detected in the saliva from the patients with periodontitis. In addition, a number of previously uncharacterized and uncultured microorganisms were recognized. Subsequently, Paster *et al.*

Table 1. Microbial complexes in subgingival plaque

Complex	Species
Red complex	<i>Porphyromonas gingivalis</i> <i>Tannerella forsythensis</i> <i>Treponema denticola</i>
Orange complex	<i>Campylobacter gracilis</i> <i>Campylobacter rectus</i> <i>Campylobacter showae</i> <i>Eubacterium nodatum</i> <i>Fusobacterium nucleatum</i> ssp. <i>nucleatum</i> <i>Fusobacterium nucleatum</i> ssp. <i>polymorphum</i> <i>Fusobacterium nucleatum</i> ssp. <i>vincentii</i> <i>Fusobacterium periodonticum</i> <i>Peptostreptococcus micros</i> <i>Prevotella intermedia</i> <i>Prevotella nigrescens</i> <i>Streptococcus constellatus</i>
Green complex	<i>Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans</i> serotype a <i>Campylobacter concisus</i> <i>Capnocytophaga gingivalis</i> <i>Capnocytophaga ochracea</i> <i>Capnocytophaga sputigena</i> <i>Eikenella corrodens</i>
Yellow complex	<i>Streptococcus gordonii</i> <i>Streptococcus intermedius</i> <i>Streptococcus mitis</i> <i>Streptococcus oralis</i> <i>Streptococcus sanguis</i>
Purple complex	<i>Actinomyces odontolyticus</i> <i>Veillonella parvula</i>
Other species	<i>Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans</i> serotype b <i>Actinomyces naeslundii</i> genospecies 2 (<i>A. viscosus</i>) <i>Selenomonas noxia</i>

(31) demonstrated that the predominant subgingival bacterial community consisted of 347 species or phylotypes, based on analysis of 2522 16S rRNA clones and estimated that the total species diversity in the oral cavity is approximately 500 species. A similar technique was also used to compare the bacteria found in children with severe caries to those found in caries-free children (70) and to determine the prevalent species and phylotypes in advanced lesions of children with noma (71). According to the most recent report (72), it is presumed that over 700 bacterial species (phylotypes are included) inhabit the oral cavity, and more than half of these cannot be cultivated.

Detection of novel oral phylotypes associated with periodontitis

Leys *et al.* (73) investigated the relationship between the presence of *T. forsythensis* and a novel phylotype, oral clone BU063 identified by Paster *et al.* (31), and periodontal health status. Harper-Owen *et al.* (74) designed and validated phylotype-specific PCR primers for phylotypes PUS3.42, PUS9.170, and PUS9.180 identified by Dymock *et al.* (75) and determined their incidences in subgingival plaque samples from subjects with periodontitis and from healthy controls. In a previous study (69), a number of novel oral phylotypes, representing as yet uncultured organisms, were identified. Among these phylotypes, Sakamoto *et al.* (76) designed specific PCR primers for five phylotypes AP12, AP21, AP24, AP50, and RP58, which are deeply branched particularly in the phylogenetic tree, and determined the prevalence of these phylotypes in 45 patients with periodontitis and 18 healthy subjects. Among the phylotypes tested, phylotype AP24, which is closely related to oral clone DA014 (99% sequence similarity) reported previously (31), was significantly associated with saliva and subgingival plaque samples from patients with periodontitis ($p < 0.01$), but the difference was not statistically significant in the presence of other phylotypes. These data suggest that phylotype

AP24 may play an important role in periodontal disease. It is important to examine not only known periodontopathic bacteria but also as-yet-to-be-cultured organisms in the study of periodontal disease. Although attempts have been made to isolate phylotype AP24 from subgingival plaque and saliva samples, such attempts have not yet been successful. However, novel *Prevotella* species were isolated from the human oral cavity in the process of the research (77, 78).

Recently, it was reported that members of the uncultivated bacterial division TM7 (79), which have been detected in the human oral cavity (31), might play a role in the multifactorial process leading to periodontitis (80). In contrast, several phylotypes were associated with periodontal health (73, 81). Kumar *et al.* (81) reported that clone W090 from the *Deferribacteres* phylum and clone BU063 from the *Bacteroidetes* phylum were associated with periodontal health. In the future, as a new index of periodontal disease, it is expected that the relationship between periodontal disease and other novel phylotypes is investigated in more detail.

Application of terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis in periodontics

A phylogenetic approach based on 16S rRNA has been applied to investigate the diversity of cultivable and uncultivable species in the human oral cavity, without requiring cultivation (30, 31, 68, 69). 16S rRNA gene clone library analysis can provide direct sequence information. However, analysis of individual 16S rRNA clones is an expensive and extremely inefficient approach for comparison of a multitude of bacterial communities.

Terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (T-RFLP) is an alternative molecular approach that allows the assessment of a diversity of complex bacterial communities and rapid comparison of the community structure and diversity of different ecosystems (82). This technique has been used for assessing the diversity and structure

of complex bacterial communities in various environments (83–90) and has been evaluated in separate review articles (91, 92). In addition, the T-RFLP analysis program (TAP) has been developed and published on the worldwide web (<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/html/analyses.html>) (93).

Sakamoto *et al.* (94) used T-RFLP analysis to characterize and compare oral microbiota present in saliva samples of 18 healthy subjects and 18 patients with periodontitis. They presented the first report on characterization of oral microbiota based on T-RFLP patterns. Their study indicated that T-RFLP analysis is useful for the assessment of diversity of oral microbiota and rapid comparison of the community structure between subjects with and without periodontitis. In contrast, two groups (95, 96) used denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis (DGGE) analysis to study bacterial community structure in pockets of periodontitis patients. However, it is difficult to create a database from the band profiles obtained by DGGE analysis compared with the terminal restriction fragment (T-RF) profiles obtained by T-RFLP analysis. T-RF lengths can be predicted from known 16S rRNA gene sequences. Multiple species can be predicted for the same T-RF length, but it is possible to identify bacterial species by analysis of digests with multiple restriction enzymes. Changes in the subgingival microbiota in adult Down's syndrome patients with periodontitis (63), and adult periodontitis patients after scaling and root planing (97) or antibiotic (amoxicillin or metronidazole) therapy combined with scaling and root planing (62) have been investigated using checkerboard DNA–DNA hybridization or PCR techniques. However, these studies report changes in only a limited part, which represents the cultivable known species, of the subgingival microbiota. Recently, Zijnga *et al.* (96) used DGGE analysis, which takes into account the presence of unidentified and hard-to-cultivate species present in the subgingival plaque (like T-RFLP analysis), to study shifts in the subgingival microbiota before, 1 day after and 3 months after

treatment. Although the subject population was small, Sakamoto *et al.* (98) used T-RFLP analysis to study the change of oral microbiota in saliva and subgingival plaque samples of patients with periodontitis before and 3 months

after periodontal treatment. Significant changes in the T-RFLP patterns of subgingival plaque samples of the patients were noted after 3 months of improved oral hygiene, and full mouth supra- and subgingival scaling and

root planing (Fig. 1). Although the proportions of T-RFs larger than 1000 bp were notable in the T-RFLP patterns generated after digestion with *HhaI* of the samples from the patients before treatment, the proportions of

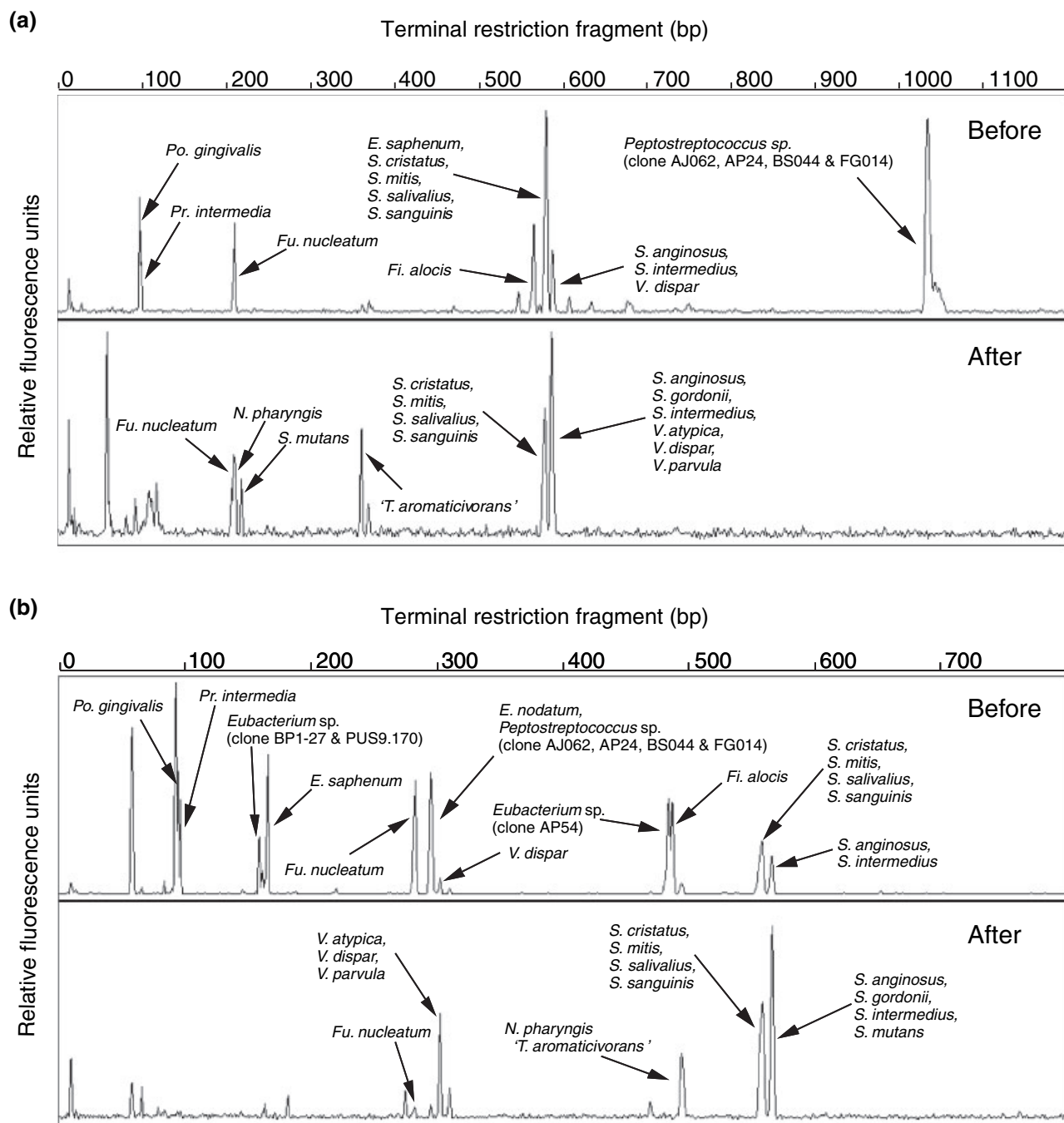


Fig. 1. Terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism patterns of 16S rRNA genes from subgingival plaque samples of a patient with periodontitis taken before treatment and after treatment generated after digestion with *HhaI* (a) and *MspI* (b). 16S rRNA genes were amplified with universal primers 27F and 1492R. Almost all the terminal restriction fragments were presumed to be species or phylotypes detected by the 16S rRNA gene clone library analysis. *E.*, *Eubacterium*; *Fi.*, *Filifactor*; *Fu.*, *Fusobacterium*; *N.*, *Neisseria*; *Po.*, *Porphyromonas*; *Pr.*, *Prevotella*; *S.*, *Streptococcus*; *T.*, *'Terraheamophilus'*; *V.*, *Veillonella*. Reproduced with permission from Sakamoto *et al.* (98). © (2004) Society for General Microbiology.

these T-RFs were significantly reduced or not detected after treatment. T-RFs larger than 1000 bp comprised several phylotypes of *Peptostreptococcus* species, including phylotype AP24 (76). *Peptostreptococcus* species are members of the normal commensal flora of humans and animals, but some species are associated with anaerobic infections, including gingivitis and periodontitis. *Peptostreptococcus micros* has been associated with periodontal disease (99). Consequently, monitoring of the proportion of T-RFs larger than 1000 bp in the T-RFLP pattern may be useful for the evaluation of the prognosis of periodontal disease. T-RFLP analysis data were in agreement with real-time PCR and 16S rRNA gene clone library analysis data. After 3 months, the *P. gingivalis* population was markedly reduced ($3.1 \times 10^{-3}\%$), although the proportion of *P. gingivalis* before treatment was 7.6%. The proportion of the T-RF presumed to be *P. gingivalis* was 5.9%, and became undetected after 3 months. In addition, T-RF presumed to be *P. intermedia*, which is an important periodontal pathogen, could be differentiated from the T-RF presumed to be *P. gingivalis* by being 2-bp larger. Before treatment, the proportion of the T-RF presumed to be *P. intermedia* was 2.8%. After 3 months, this T-RF was not detected. These findings indicate that T-RFLP analysis is useful for evaluation of the effects of medical treatment of periodontitis. However, further analyzes of digests with multiple restriction enzymes (four or five) are necessary because multiple species, which belong to different genera, were detected from the same T-RF.

Conclusion

With the advancement of molecular biology in recent years, the initiation and progression mechanisms of periodontitis are becoming clearer gradually. As the culture-independent approaches have revealed the diversity of human oral microbiota and the existence of a large number of as-yet-to-be-cultured organisms which are presumed as periodontal pathogens, the researches on periodontal disease and human oral

microbiota are coming to a new turn. Using the sequence information of 16S rRNA gene obtained, it is possible to detect not only known oral species but also the newly identified uncultivated species (phylotypes) directly in clinical samples. At present, a Human Oral Microbe Identification Microarray (HOMIM) slide system for the identification of essentially all of the more than 600 species encountered in the oral cavity is under development (100). This microarray should be extremely useful in clinical studies to simultaneously examine the roles of all bacterial species present at sites of oral diseases. The culture-independent approaches described in this mini-review will become indispensable in the future to elucidate the etiology of periodontal disease.

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