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The effect of cyclic mechanical strain on the expression of adhesion-related genes by periodontal ligament cells in two-dimensional culture

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Background and Objective: Cell adhesion plays important roles in maintaining the structural integrity of connective tissues and sensing changes in the biomechanical environment of cells. The objective of the present investigation was to extend our understanding of the effect of cyclic mechanical strain on the expression of adhesion-related genes by human periodontal ligament cells.

Material and Methods: Cultured periodontal ligament cells were subjected to a cyclic in-plane tensile deformation of 12% for 5 s (0.2 Hz) every 90 s for 6–24 h in a Flexercell FX-4000 Strain Unit. The following parameters were measured: (i) cell viability by the MTT assay; (ii) caspase-3 and -7 activity; and (iii) the expression of 84 genes encoding adhesion-related molecules using real-time RT-PCR microarrays.

Results: Mechanical stress reduced the metabolic activity of deformed cells at 6 h, and caspase-3 and -7 activity at 6 and 12 h. Seventy-three genes were detected at critical threshold values < 35. Fifteen showed a significant change in relative expression: five cell adhesion molecules (*ICAM1*, *ITGA3*, *ITGA6*, *ITGA8* and *NCAM1*), three collagen α -chains (*COL6A1*, *COL8A1* and *COL11A1*), four MMPs (*ADAMTS1*, *MMP8*, *MMP11* and *MMP15*), plus *CTGF*, *SPP1* and *VTN*. Four genes were upregulated (*ADAMTS1*, *CTGF*, *ICAM1* and *SPP1*) and 11 downregulated, with the range extending from a 1.76-fold induction of *SPP1* at 12 h to a 2.49-fold downregulation of *COL11A1* at 24 h.

Conclusion: The study has identified several mechanoresponsive adhesion-related genes, and shown that onset of mechanical stress was followed by a transient reduction in overall cellular activity, including the expression of two apoptosis 'executioner' caspases.

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The periodontal ligament is a specialized connective tissue that has evolved to provide attachment of teeth to the bone of the jaws. The periodontal ligament functions in a mechanically active environment and, in addition to

its attachment role, serves as a shock absorber to protect the tooth-supporting alveolar bone from excessive occlusal loading, not only during mastication, deglutition and speech, but also due to occlusal trauma and man-made orthodontic appliances.

Numerous in vitro studies have investigated the effects of cyclic and continuous mechanical strain on gene expression by human periodontal ligament cells. Most have focused on alterations in the expression of a small number of cytokine and osteogenic genes (1-4), but microarrays which allow the activity of numerous genes to be monitored simultaneously have also been reported (5-8). Alterations in cell-matrix and cell-cell adhesion play important roles not only in maintaining the structural integrity of connective tissues, but also in sensing changes in the biomechanical environment of cells and mediating the transmission of bidirectional forces across their plasma membranes (9-11). Periodontal ligament cells, derived as they are from a biomechanically active tissue, therefore offer an excellent experimental model for investigating the expression of genes involved in these interactions.

All cells have a finite life span, and apoptosis, a form of programmed cell death in which cells are induced to activate their own death or suicide. plays an important role in many pathophysiologcal processes, including tissue remodelling and homeostasis (12,13). However, cultured bone and periodontal ligament cells deprived of the normal functional loading to which they are exposed in vivo are in a physiological default state, raising the question of what effect mechanical stimuli might have on apoptosis-mediated cell death. The in vitro evidence to date is equivocal. Although complicated by the use of different model systems and strain regimens, unlike cultured bone cells, where mechanical stimuli have typically been shown to inhibit apoptosis (14,15), in cultured human periodontal ligament cells cyclic mechanical strain has been reported to trigger a transient increase in apoptosis (16,17). This is important because any reductions in metabolic activity may compromise quantification of alterations in gene expression.

In the present investigation, human periodontal ligament cells in two-

dimensional culture were screened for adhesion-related genes using targeted real-time RT-PCR microarrays, and we report, for the first time, the effect that a predominantly tensile cyclic mechanical strain has on their expression. We further show that the immediate response of the cells to a change in their biophysical environment was a short-term reduction in overall cellular activity, including the expression of two apoptosis 'executioner' caspases.

Material and methods

Preparation of human periodontal ligament cells

Premolar teeth that had been extracted for orthodontic reasons were used to establish human periodontal ligament cell cultures as described previously (18). Approval to harvest human tissue from extracted teeth with the consent of the donor and/or parent was granted by the Ethics Committees of the University of Otago (reference 05/069) and National University of Singapore (NUS-IRB reference 08-015). Teeth were washed with phosphate-buffered saline and fragments of the periodontal ligament attached to the middle third of the root removed with a scalpel. Tissue explants were plated onto 3 cm Petri dishes in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Gibco, Invitrogen, Auckland, NZ, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (Gibco) and antibiotic-antimycotic reagent (10,000 units penicillin, 10,000 µg streptomycin and 25 µg/mL amphoter icin B; Invitrogen), 100 mmol L-glutamine (Invitrogen) and gentamicin (10 mg/mL; Gibco) and cultured at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO2-95% air. On reaching confluence, the cells were lifted with trypsin-EDTA (Gibco) and serially passaged through 25, 75 and 175 cm² tissue culture flasks (Cellstar; Greiner Bio-One AG, Munroe, NC, USA). Passage two cells were frozen in Cell Culture Freezing Medium (Gibco) at -80°C and transferred to liquid nitrogen for long-term storage. Third or fourth passage cells were used for experimental purposes.

Application of cyclic mechanical strain to periodontal ligament cells

Human periodontal ligament cells $(3 \times 10^5 \text{ per well})$ were subcultured into six-well, 35 mm flexible-bottomed UniFlex[®] Series culture plates containing a centrally located rectangular strip $(15.25 \times 24.18 \text{ mm})$ coated with type I collagen. When the cells had reached confluence (commonly 3-4 d), the silicon rubber membranes were subjected to an in-plane deformation of 12% for 5 s (0.2 Hz) every 90 s using a square waveform, around rectangular ArcTangle[™] loading posts (required to correctly apply uniaxial strain to the cells) in a standard Bioflex baseplate linked to a Flexercell FX-4000 strain unit (Flexcell Corp., Hillsborough, NC, USA). The strain value of 12% was based on data derived from a finite element model, which suggested that maximal periodontal ligament strains for horizontal displacements of a human maxillary central incisor under physiological loading lies in the vicinity of 8-25%, depending upon the apico-crestal position. Deformation of 12% correlates well with strain conditions predicted at the mid-root (19). Experimental and control plates were allocated to each of the three time points (6, 12 and 24 h) and separate experiments performed for light microscopy, cell activation, caspase activity and RNA extraction. As discussed in detail later, the deformation of the silicon membrane is not uniform, but generates a tension gradient; any changes in expression will therefore represent the global average of cells exposed to different amounts of strain.

Changes in cell morphology

At the end of the experimental period, plates were examined by light microscopy to determine changes in the orientation of the cells and evidence of cellular detachment or collagen delamination. Some cultures were fixed with acetic methanol (one part glacial acetic acid; three parts methanol) for 5 min at 25°C and, after aspirating the fixative, 1% Giemsa stain (G9641; Sigma-Aldrich, Singapore) in acetic methanol was added for 2–5 min at 25°C. After washing with 60% methanol in water for 1–2 min, rectangular segments were cut from the silicon membranes and, after mounting on glass slides, viewed by light microscopy.

MTT assay for cell viability

Cell activation was measured by the MTT assay (Sigma-Aldrich), a colorimetric assay for estimating mammalian cell survival, proliferation and activation based on the ability of viable cells reduce yellow 3-(4, 5-dimto ethythiazol-2-yl)-2, 5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) by mitochondrial succinate dehydrogenase (20,21). At the end of each time point the cells were harvested by trypsinization and resuspended in fresh media; 50 µL of this cell suspension was added to 96-well plates and spun at 1800 g for 5 min. The supernatant was removed and 50 μ L of the MTT solution (4 mg/ mL in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium) added to each well. The cells were incubated at 37°C for 2 h in the dark. Following incubation, the plate was centrifuged and the supernatant discarded. The resulting formazan crystals were dissolved by the addition of 200 µL of dimethylsulfoxide (Sigma-Aldrich), and absorbance was measured at 570 nm in a microplate reader (Tecan SpectrophorPlus, Singapore).

Caspase-3 and -7 assay

Caspases, a family of cysteine proteinases that specifically cleave proteins following aspartate residues, play key roles in mammalian apoptosis. Two 'executioner' caspases (3 and 7) were measured by the Caspase-Glo 3/7 Assay (Promega Corp., Madison, WI, USA), which provides a luminescent Caspase-3/7 substrate containing the tetrapeptide sequence (Asp-Glu-Val-Asp) in a reagent optimized for caspase activity, luciferase activity and cell lysis. At the end of each time period, the collagen-coated rectangular area was cut and treated with the Caspase-Glo[®] 3/7 reagent for 1 h in the dark at room temperature according to the manufacturer's instructions. Each sample was aliquoted into triplicate tubes, and luminescence, expressed as relative light units (RLU), was measured with a Sirius Single Tube Luminometer (Berthold Detection Systems GmbH, Pforzheim, Germany).

Extraction of RNA

Culture media were removed from the wells and total RNA isolated by a modification of the method of Chomczynski and Sacchi (22). Briefly, 0.5 mL of TRIzol® reagent (Invitrogen) was added to each well of the Uniflex plate. After a 5 min incubation period, the cell lysate was added to a tube containing 0.1 mL of chloroform and shaken vigorously by hand for 15 s. A further incubation of 2-3 min at room temperature was required prior to centrifugation of the samples at 12,000g for 15 min at 4°C. Following centrifugation, 300 µL of the clear aqueous phase was added to an equal volume of 70% ethanol and vortexed to disperse the precipitate. Sample purity was achieved using the Purelink Micro-to-Midi Total RNA Purification System (Invitrogen) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Total RNA samples were eluted from the columns in 50 µL of RNase-free water and stored at -80°C. The concentration and purity (based on the A260/280 absorbance ratio) of the samples was determined using a Nanodrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Nanodrop Technologies, Rockland, DE, USA). This combined extraction technique yielded 180-250 ng RNA from six wells with an A260/280 value of 1.96 \pm 0.07; an A260/280 value > 1.9-2.0 corresponds to a pure sample free of contaminating protein (Applied Biosystems, Life Technologies Corporation, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

Real-time PCR array analysis

Total RNA samples were assessed for degradation status by denaturing agarose gel electrophoresis, prior to analysis. Contaminating genomic DNA was removed from total RNA samples by DNase I digestion prior to first strand synthesis. First strand synthesis was performed using the RT² PCR array First Strand Kit (SABiosciences, Fredrick, MD, USA). Samples were then screened for the expression of 84 genes encoding extracellular matrix and adhesion molecules using the RT² Profiler PCR Array System (SABiosciences). SABiosciences PCR arrays are sets of optimized PCR primer assays that perform gene expression analysis using the principle of real-time PCR. They achieve a multigene profiling capability similar to that of microarray or SuperArray technology by setting up multiple PCRs in a 96well plate format. Experimental and control samples at each of the three time points were analysed in triplicate to allow for biological variation between samples and provide a statistically sound data set.

Statistical methods

Data from the viability and caspase assays are expressed as means \pm SEM. Differences between groups was determined by Student's *t*-test (two-tailed) using GRAPHPAD PRISM (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) and the level of significance set at p < 0.05. For the gene expression study, expression profiles of the target genes were measured relative to the mean critical threshold (C_t) values of five different calibrator genes (GAPDH, β2-microglobulin, β-actin, HPRT1 and *RPLI3A*) using the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method described by Livak and Schmittgen (23). Student's t-tests were used for statistical comparison of the control and experimental groups using mean C_t values derived from the triplicate samples (24).

Results

Under light microscopy, a difference in cellular orientation was observed as early as 6 h after the application of cyclic strain, with no evidence of cell detachment or plate delamination. While control cells remained randomly orientated, mechanically deformed cells had become reorientated away from the direction of the applied force, as previously reported (25,26). However, realignment of the cells was not uniform across the whole surface of the centrally located collagen strip, tending



Fig. 1. The application of an in-plane deformation of 12% for 5 s (0.2 Hz) every 90 s, using a square waveform, around rectangular ArcTangleTM loading posts resulted in reorientation of the cells. Both images were taken at the edge of the centrally located type I collagen strip. Left, control culture in which cells tend to be randomly orientated. Right, 12 h stressed culture stained by the Giemsa method. Cells become aligned at varying angles to the long axis of the applied strain.

to be more pronounced towards the edges (Fig. 1).

The MTT assay showed that intermittent substrate deformation resulted in a small, but statistically significant, reduction in overall metabolic activity at 6 h (Table 1). There was also a reduction in caspase-3 and -7 activity by mechanically strained cells at 6 and 12 h, suggesting that the strain regimen had delivered a transient anti-apoptotic signal to the cells (Fig. 2).

A total of 84 cell adhesion and extracellular matrix genes were screened, and the effect of intermittent tensile strain on their differential expression is summarized in Table 2. A gene was regarded as being expressed if it was detected at a C_t value of < 35, and using these criteria 73 genes were detectable, thereby demonstrating significant levels of basal expression. Eleven genes had C_t values \geq 35, which were outside the detection threshold of the system and were therefore considered not to have been expressed. This group comprised the genes for three matrix metalloproteinases (MMP7, MMP9 and MMP13), two integrins (ITGAL and ITGAM) and three selectins (SELE, SELL and SELP), plus E-cadherin (CDH1); Kallmann syndrome 1 sequence (KAL1) and ϵ -sarcoglycan (SGCE).

Over the 24 h time course, we found statistically significant changes in the relative expression of mRNAs for 16 genes, suggesting a role for cyclic mechanical strain in regulating their function. These included six cell adhesion molecules (ICAM1, ITGA3, ITGA6, ITGA8, ITGB1 and NCAM1) and three genes encoding collagen a-chains (COL6A1, COL8A1 and COL11A1; Fig. 3); also four members of the MMP family (ADAMTS1, MMP8, MMP11 and MMP15), connective tissue growth factor (CTGF), secreted phosphoprotein (SPP1; also known as bone sialoprotein/osteopontin) and the cell-attachment protein vitronectin (VTN; Fig. 4).

Of the mechanoresponsive genes, only four were found to be upregulated (*ADAMTS1*, *CTGF*, *ICAM1* and *SPP1*), the remaining 11 being downregulated, with the range extending from a 2.49-fold downregulation of *COL11A1* at 24 h (Fig. 3) to a 1.76fold induction of *SPP1* at 12 h

Table 1. Effect of cyclic mechanical strain on the viability of periodontal ligament cells

	6 h	12 h	24 h		
Control Stressed	$\begin{array}{r} 2.932 \ \pm \ 0.077 \\ 2.535 \ \pm \ 0.135* \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 3.176 \pm 0.195 \\ 3.266 \pm 0.148 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{rrrr} 2.021 \ \pm \ 0.199 \\ 1.888 \ \pm \ 0.182 \end{array}$		

Following the application of a uniaxial, cyclic tensile strain of 12% for 5 s (0.2 Hz) every 90 s, the colorimetric MTT (tetrazolium) assay was used to detect living cells; absorbance was measured at 570 nm. Data are expressed as means \pm SEM for six wells; data are from three separate experiments. There was a small but statistically significant (*p < 0.05) reduction in cell viability at 6 h in mechanically stressed cultures.

(Fig. 4). No genes were found to be consistently up- or downregulated across all three time points, and only two [*ADAMTS1* (upregulated) and *ITGA8* (downregulated)] were expressed across two time points. Four genes (*HAS*, *ITGB4*, *LAMA2* and *TIMP3*) showed treated/control ratios of \pm 2, but none reached statistical significance (p < 0.05).

Discussion

In the FlexercellTM system, a silicone membrane is stretched across a loading post by the application of vacuum pressure and, depending on the shape of the loading post, either a biaxial or a uniaxial strain (as in the present study) may be applied to the cells. Although the most widely used commercially available apparatus for delivering controlled mechanical strain to cells in vitro, the Flexercell system does have limitations, particularly when it comes to determining the physical characteristics of the strain. First, the mechanical in-plane deformation applied to Uniflex plates[™] does not produce a purely tensional strain because tension in one plane is always accompanied by compressive and shear strains due to the Poisson effect (27,28). Second, cells cultured on a Uniflex plate will experience about half the applied substrate strain programmed into the computer (29). And third, the amount of cellular deformation will vary with the distance from the middle of the membrane; cells near the perimeter of the field will experience greater deformation (27). Nevertheless, despite the shortcomings of all existing model systems in precisely defining the strain profile, in vitro methodology still remains the most effective way to screen cells for the expression of mechanoresponsive genes. In any event, three-dimensional finite element analysis of the von Mises and principal stresses generated in different parts of the periodontal ligament when multirooted teeth are mechanically loaded by a masticatory force indicates that the deformation profile of the cells *in vivo* is also complex (30).

The MTT assay data, which suggested a reduction in cellular activity in mechanically deformed cultures at 6 h,



Fig. 2. The effect of cyclic mechanical strain on the activity of two 'executioner' caspases (caspase-3 and caspase-7) in response to a uniaxial, cyclic tensile strain of 12%. Mechanically induced strain resulted in a significant reduction in caspase activity at 6 and 12 h. Data are expressed in relative light units (RLU) as means \pm SEM for six wells; data are from three separate experiments with the same batch of cells. ***p < 0.001.

supports the findings of a recent study using an out-of-plane, four-point bending system, which reported that a cyclic tensile strain as low as 0.5%, applied to human periodontal ligament cells for only 2 h, had an inhibitory effect on cell proliferation and viability (31). That is not to say that mechanical stress is cytotoxic, although the MTT assay is commonly used to study cytotoxicity; the signal generated in the assay is dependent upon the number and activity of living cells (20,21), but reductions in the MMT formazan product can occur without a decrease in the number of viable cells. Moreover, Wang et al. (31) also performed a microarray analysis using a wholegenome oligonucleotide chip and were able to identify 110 genes that were differentially expressed, 97 of which were upregulated. These data and the findings of the present study indicate that mechanically deformed cells remain metabolically active, and suggest that any changes in gene expression represent a short-term adjustment to alterations in their biophysical environment.

Our caspase-3 and -7 data suggest that the application of an in-plane cyclic strain to periodontal ligament cells has a positive, albeit transient, effect on apoptosis, an observation supported by comparable data for gingival fibroblasts (32). It does, however, contrast with previous reports showing that an out-of-plane cyclic mechanical strain transiently increases apoptosis in periodontal ligament cells (16,17). This seems likely to have been due to the more vigorous strain regimens used (1, 10 and 20% deformation at 0.25 Hz for 10 and 6 cycles/min, respectively), suggesting that the cells might have been overstressed. Experiments conducted on human lung fibroblasts, for example, have shown that 20% cyclic deformation activated apoptotic signalling pathways (33), while 25% strain induced cell death (34). In other words, induction of apoptosis in mechanically deformed cells in vitro appears to be related to the magnitude and frequency of the applied strain. This is likely to be reflected in real life, where the periodontal ligament will be more heavily stressed by occlusal loading during mastication than in swallowing. The relationship between the biophysical environment of a cell and the mechanisms of programmed cell death appears to be a complicated one and would benefit from further investigation.

Cells in culture are not uniformly attached to their substrate, but are 'tack-welded' at focal adhesions, where integrin receptors physically link actin-associated cytoskeletal proteins (talin, vinculin, α -actinin and paxillin) to the extracellular matrix (11), as well as to adhesion molecules on the surface of adjacent cells. Integrin-mediated adhesive interactions play key roles in cell migration, proliferation and differentiation, and also regulate intracellular signal transduction pathways that control adhesion-induced (outside-in) changes in cell physiology (9,10). Integrins thus function both as cell adhesion molecules and intracellular signalling receptors, and it is likely that the previously reported changes in cell signalling in response to mechanical deformation are downstream of events mediated by integrins (35). Fourteen integrin subunits were detected at $C_{\rm t}$ values < 35, confirming previous findings that human periodontal ligament cells express numerous integrin receptors (36). Of these, ITGA3, ITGA6, ITGA8 and ITGB1 were significantly downregulated at various points in the time scale. All are involved in cell attachment to collagen and other substrate adhesion molecules and function to provide cell-matrix linkage. Integrin $\alpha 3\beta 1$ is one of the integrin heterodimers that binds to type I collagen, while the adhesion of fibroblastic cells to laminin is mediated by both $\alpha 3\beta 1$ and $\alpha 6\beta 1$ integrins (37). Integrin a8 also forms heterodimers with integrin β 1 and functions as a receptor for tenascin, fibronectin and vitronectin (38). Reduction in the expression of these genes is therefore consistent with detachment and reorientation of the cells observed microscopically, as was downregulation in the expression of the NCAM1 and VTN genes.

The next puzzle is how this might be mediated. Members of the MMP family of proteolytic enzymes are the most likely candidates. Sixteen members of the MMP family were constitutively expressed at C_t values < 35, including seven MMPs, three membrane type matrix metalloproteinases (MT-MMPs), three a disintegrin and metalloproteinases with thrombospondin motifs (ADAMTSs) and three TIMPs. TIMPs are important extracellular regulators of MMPs, and numerous studies suggest that pathophysiological resorption is correlated with an

Table 2.	Alterations in	the expression of	of adhesion-related	genes by	human	periodontal	ligament	cells	following	cyclic 1	nechanical	strain

		Fold up- or downregulation (experimental/control)						
Name of gene	Description	6 h	<i>p</i> -Value	12 h	<i>p</i> -Value	24 h	<i>p</i> -Value	
ADAMTS1	Metallopeptidase thrombospondin I motif 1	1.29	0.0066	1.11	0.3452	1.32	0.0226	
ADAMTS13	Metallopeptidase thrombospondin I motif 13	-1.53	0.3163	1.28	0.4690	-1.81	0.2037	
ADAMTS8	Metallopeptidase thrombospondin I motif 8	1.04	0.9293	-1.07	0.8240	1.48	0.5384	
CD44	CD44 molecule	1.03	0.6003	1.06	0.3214	1.05	0.1468	
CDH1	Cadherin 1, type 1, E-cadherin (epithelial)	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
CLEC3B	C-type lectin domain family 3, member B	1.02	0.8951	-1.13	0.7379	1.12	0.6066	
CNTN1	Contactin 1	-1.04	0.8663	-1.15	0.5570	-1.41	0.0926	
COLIAI	Collagen, type I, α I	-1.08	0.4576	-1.04	0.9074	1.02	0.8773	
COL4A2	Collagen, type IV, $\alpha 2$	1.04	0.7795	1.06	0.7367	-1.04	0.6374	
COLSAI	Collagen, type V, α l	-1.01	0.9314	-1.19	0.3/41	1.15	0.3449	
COLOAT	Collagen, type VI, al	-1.00	0.3398	-1.04	0.0423	1.00	0.0791	
COL0A2	Collagen, type VI, α_2	-1.11 -1.03	0.2270	-1.44	0.1304	-1.14	0.3032	
COL/AI	Collagen, type VII, dl	-1.05	0.8950	-1.35	0.0810	1.10	0.7741	
COLIIAI	Collagen, type VIII, dl	1.15	0.9373	1.55	0.0105	-2.49	0.0169	
COL12A1	Collagen, type XII al	-1.18	0.5391	-1.21	0.6089	-1.14	0.2274	
COL14A1	Collagen, type XIV α 1	-1.37	0.1790	1.07	0.4394	-1.01	0.9558	
COL15A1	Collagen, type XV. α 1	-1.06	0.7353	-1.20	0.6717	1.09	0.3297	
COL16A1	Collagen, type XVI, αl	-1.09	0.3610	-1.07	0.5466	1.01	0.9213	
CTGF	Connective tissue growth factor	-1.29	0.1011	-1.26	0.3554	1.36	0.0156	
CTNNA1	Catenin (cadherin-associated protein), αl	1.06	0.7314	-1.61	0.1544	-1.03	0.5492	
CTNNB1	Catenin (cadherin-associated protein), β1	-1.13	0.2498	-1.13	0.3472	-1.08	0.1917	
CTNND1	Catenin (cadherin-associated protein), δ1	1.02	0.8601	-1.66	0.1624	-1.05	0.4233	
CTNND2	Catenin (cadherin-associated protein), δ2	-1.02	0.9193	1.02	0.8303	-1.30	0.3117	
ECM1	Extracellular matrix protein 1	-1.03	0.6846	-1.04	0.7175	-1.04	0.4154	
FN1	Fibronectin 1	-1.09	0.5283	1.27	0.1587	1.10	0.4764	
HAS1	Hyaluronan synthase 1	-1.01	0.9887	ND	ND	-2.34	0.1135	
ICAM1	Intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (CD54)	1.62	0.1396	1.74	0.0262	1.00	0.9986	
ITGA1	Integrin, αl	-1.17	0.2650	-1.32	0.1899	-1.27	0.1350	
ITGA2	Integrin, $\alpha 2$	-1.03	0.8958	-1.69	0.1760	-1.20	0.3546	
ITGA3	Integrin, $\alpha 3$	1.03	0.8138	-1.22	0.0469	-1.09	0.6196	
IIGA4	Integrin, $\alpha 4$	-1.05	0.7425	-1.13	0.6331	-1.19	0.2664	
IIGAS ITC 46	Integrin, α 5	1.01	0.8561	-1.05	0.5481	1.1/	0.2033	
ITGA0 ITC 47	Integrin, ao	-1.10	0.1659	-1.11	0.0030	-1.25	0.0265	
ITGA7	Integrin, α	-1.13	0.4213	-1.25	0.9710	-1.00	0.7337	
ITGAL	Integrin, al	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	0.3022 ND	
ITGAM	Integrin, and	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
ITGAV	Integrin, αV	-1.14	0.4016	-1.03	0.8566	-1.14	0.1614	
ITGB1	Integrin, Bl	-1.30	0.6177	-1.18	0.0367	-1.03	0.7270	
ITGB2	Integrin, β2	-1.15	0.4842	1.28	0.1568	1.00	0.9833	
ITGB3	Integrin, β3	1.06	0.9117	-1.65	0.5671	-1.71	0.1364	
ITGB4	Integrin, β4	-1.31	0.3184	-1.15	0.5688	-2.25	0.1559	
ITGB5	Integrin, β5	-1.02	0.8581	-1.07	0.1374	1.09	0.1953	
KAL1	Kallmann syndrome 1 sequence	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
LAMA1	Laminin, al	1.08	0.5504	-1.06	0.7369	1.01	0.8778	
LAMA2	Laminin, a2	4.77	0.4376	-1.31	0.2733	-1.16	0.3614	
LAMA3	Laminin, $\alpha 3$	-1.13	0.4386	-1.16	0.0702	-1.07	0.7036	
LAMBI	Laminin, β 1	-1.17	0.3092	-1.06	0.3932	-1.10	0.2048	
LAMB3	Laminin, β_3	-1.05	0.5515	-1.23	0.1162	-1.16	0.2154	
LAMCI	Laminin, γI (formerly <i>LAMB2</i>)	-1.03	0.8356	-1.40	0.2434	-1.20	0.1382	
MMPI	Matrix metallopeptidase 1	1.08	0.5536	ND 1.04	ND 0.(027	1.03	0.5905	
MMP2 MMD2	Matrix metallopeptidase 2	-1.10	0.33/9	-1.04	0.0927	-1.08	0.4806	
MMP7	Matrix metallopeptidase 7	-1.05 ND	0.7309 ND	1.50	0.0739 ND	-1.29 ND	0.0009 ND	
MMP8	Matrix metallopentidase 8	_1 33	0.0788	_1.21	0.5606	_2.02	0.0103	
MMPO	Matrix metallopentidase 0	-1.55 ND	ND	-1.21 ND	ND		ND	
MMP10	Matrix metallopentidase 10	_1 21	0.2620	1 14	0.2692	1.03	0.8722	
MMP11	Matrix metallopeptidase 11	-1.23	0.1800	-1.35	0.0364	-1.09	0 5464	
MMP12	Matrix metallopeptidase 12	-1.13	0.4218	1.20	0.1692	-1.16	0.3762	

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Table	2.(Con	tin	ued)
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	Description	Fold up- or downregulation (experimental/control)						
Name of gene		6 h	<i>p</i> -Value	12 h	<i>p</i> -Value	24 h	<i>p</i> -Value	
MMP13	Matrix metallopeptidase 13	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
MMP14	Matrix metallopeptidase 14	1.01	0.9360	-1.22	0.1830	1.11	0.4988	
MMP15	Matrix metallopeptidase 15	-1.92	0.0077	1.54	0.2398	ND	ND	
MMP16	Matrix metallopeptidase 16	-1.04	0.8018	-1.07	0.6069	-1.16	0.1985	
NCAM1	Neural cell adhesion molecule 1	-1.09	0.0268	-1.31	0.3457	1.22	0.0535	
PECAM1	Platelet/endothelial cell adhesion molecule	1.23	0.6156	-1.11	0.8371	ND	ND	
SELE	Selectin E (endothelial adhesion molecule 1)	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
SELL	Selectin L (lymphocyte adhesion molecule 1)	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
SELP	Selectin P	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
SGCE	Sarcoglycan, ϵ	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	
SPARC	Secreted protein, acidic, cysteine-rich	-1.06	0.4308	1.08	0.5330	1.16	0.2112	
SPG7	Spastic paraplegia 7	1.00	0.9901	1.06	0.6940	-1.24	0.5028	
SPP1	Secreted phosphoprotein 1	1.12	0.4623	1.76	0.0037	1.08	0.4308	
TGFBI	Transforming growth factor, β1	-1.07	0.6058	-1.42	0.2495	-1.06	0.5762	
THBS1	Thrombospondin 1	1.03	0.8460	-1.00	0.9998	-1.06	0.0916	
THBS2	Thrombospondin 2	-1.06	0.7065	-1.13	0.1886	-1.38	0.1202	
THBS3	Thrombospondin 3	-1.16	0.3227	-1.00	0.9994	-1.07	0.6746	
TIMP1	TIMP metallopeptidase inhibitor 1	-1.04	0.8334	1.46	0.3405	1.29	0.1863	
TIMP2	TIMP metallopeptidase inhibitor 2	-1.06	0.5450	-1.22	0.1819	-1.07	0.5713	
TIMP3	TIMP metallopeptidase inhibitor 3	1.45	0.4867	-2.41	0.2673	ND	ND	
TNC	Tenascin C (hexabrachion)	-1.00	0.9796	1.62	0.0853	1.37	0.1043	
VCAM1	Vascular cell adhesion molecule 1	-1.48	0.0619	-1.08	0.8198	1.16	0.6055	
VCAN	Versican	-1.08	0.8172	-1.23	0.7692	-1.32	0.2985	
VTN	Vitronectin	-1.78	0.0051	1.26	0.6872	-1.70	0.0995	
Calibrator genes								
B2M	β2-Microglobulin	-1.11	0.1353	-1.02	0.7025	-1.10	0.4223	
HPRT1	Hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase 1	-1.05	0.4378	-1.02	0.9281	-1.07	0.3070	
RPL13A	Ribosomal protein L13A	1.07	0.3091	1.15	0.2733	-1.02	0.8371	
GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	1.04	0.5191	-1.25	0.2964	1.19	0.0824	
ACTB	Actin, β	1.05	0.0990	1.13	0.1943	1.01	0.8100	

A grey box indicates a statistically significant change (*p < 0.05). ND, not detected.

imbalance of inhibitors and proteinases (39). Many biological processes have been linked to these enzymes, but given the similarities in the functional domains of MMPs, MT-MMPs and ADAMTSs and the fact they are all inhibited by TIMPs to varying degrees, considerable potential exists for functional redundancy in their biological activities. Four members of the MMP family showed significant alterations in expression; MMP8 (neutrophil collagenase), MMP11 (stromelysin-3) and MMP15 (MT2-MMP) were all downregulated, while ADAMTS1 was upregulated. The upregulation of ADAMTS1 at 6 and 24 h suggests an important role for this enzyme in mechanically induced matrix remodelling, and of interest in this regard is the finding that parathyroid hormone stimulates ADAMTS-1 synthesis and collagen degradation by human osteoblasts in culture (40). Both *TIMP1* and *TIMP2* were expressed at high copy numbers, but were not responsive to mechanical deformation.

Of the twelve genes encoding collagen α -chains that were constitutively expressed, three were significantly downregulated, the short-chain collagens COL6A1 and COL8A1 at 12 h and COL11A1 at 24 h. We have previously reported that cyclic tensile strain downregulates COL3A1 and COL11A1 expression (6). Collagen type VI is a ubiquitous extracellular matrix protein, which forms microfibrillar networks with other matrix proteins (41,42), while collagen type -VIII is a nonfibrillar collagen present in a variety of extracellular matrices, including basement membranes (43). Although the function of these collagens is not well understood, their binding activity suggests that they have an anchoring function and play a role in cell migration and differentiation.

Although not a cell-adhesion factor, CTGF, which functions as a growth factor for fibroblasts and other connective tissue cells (44), was included in the gene array. Connective tissue growth factor is mitogenic and chemotactic for fibroblasts and is selectively induced by transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β ; 45), and its role as a downstream mediator of TGF-B signalling has led to it being widely studied in wound repair and various types of fibrotic disease (46). Most recently, CTGF has been shown to direct fibroblast differentiation from periodontal ligament progenitor cells (47) and human mesenchymal stem/stromal cells (48), which has implications for



Fig. 3. Fold-induction (C_t ratio) of nine genes showing a statistically significant (p < 0.05) change in mRNA expression in response to a uniaxial, cyclic tensile strain of 12%, three coding collagen α -chains, two cell-adhesion molecules and four integrin subunits. All were downregulated, with the exception of the transmembrane protein *ICAM1*, which was upregulated 1.74-fold.



Fig. 4. Three-dimensional profile showing statistically significant alterations (p < 0.05) in mRNA expression (C_t ratio) of the following seven genes encoding four members of the MMP family of proteolytic enzymes: the fibroblast differentiation gene, *CTGF*, and the extracellular matrix proteins, *SPP1* (osteopontin) and *VTN. ADAMST1* was one of only two genes altered across two time points.

the present study. The increase in CTGF expression together with upregulation of the genes for two TGF- β isoforms (*TGFB1* and *TGFB3*) in the same model system (8) is strongly indicative of a causal relationship, and suggests that CTGF functions in the periodontal ligament to maintain the fibroblast phenotype. Previous studies of the effect of mechanical strain on gene expression by periodontal ligament cells have been referenced against a single calibrator or housekeeping gene, most commonly *GAPDH* or *ACTB*. By measuring expression profiles relative to the mean C_t values of five different calibrator genes (Table 1), the present methodol-

ogy represents an important advance. Ideally, the experimental conditions should not influence the expression of the calibrator gene, but calibrator gene expression is invariably affected by the experimental conditions (49). If validation data do exist, calibrator genes should be selected on the basis of their predicted stability in specific experimental conditions, because currently there is no calibrator gene that is stable in every system, in every circumstance and for every cell type (50). In other words, because an all-purpose calibrator gene does not exist, accurate normalization of real-time RT-PCR data can only be achieved by averaging multiple calibrator gene expression (51,52). Another advantage of the experimental design is that by measuring the samples in triplicate, it is possible to obtain more statistically robust data than obtainable by using a treated/control ratio of ± 2 as representing significant change. The present study indicates that use of the latter will result in a considerable number of false negatives as well as some false positives; of the fifteen genes recording a statistically significant change in expression, for the majority (n = 13)the C_t ratio was < 2.

In conclusion, this investigation has demonstrated a complex set of interactions between human periodontal ligament cells cultured in vitro and a mechanically active two-dimensional collagen substrate. The C_t ratios may seem modest, but the alterations in relative expression represent averages over the entire strain field, where the magnitude and type of strain experienced will vary depending on the location of the cells within the field. Nevertheless, alterations in the pattern of expression are suggestive of a homeostatic mechanism whereby cell adhesion molecules are predominately downregulated to facilitate cellular reorientation in response to their altered functional environment. Some of these genes are also involved in cellular mechanosensing, and changes in their pattern of expression carry implications for the activation of a number of downstream mechanotransduction pathways.

Nevertheless, additional studies will be necessary to establish whether the

expressed genes are translated into protein and, if they are, whether they are biologically active. This will require assaying culture supernatants for the expressed proteins of interest and immunolocalization of the proteins in situ with specific antibodies in animal models of tooth movement. Another consideration is that the traditional two-dimensional culture systems in widespread use for investigating the response of cells to mechanical strain in vitro have a number of limitations, not least the fact that periodontal ligament cells are normally surrounded by a complex network of collagens, proteoglycans and noncollagenous proteins, which are not grown on tissue culture plastic or films of matrix proteins, such collagen or fibronectin. Some attempt has been made to address this shortcoming for compressive force application by seeding periodontal ligament cells into type I collagen gels (4,5), but collagen is only one of the major structural macromolecules found in extracellular matricies. For the field to progress, therefore, it is clear that future in vitro analyses of mechanoresponsive gene and protein expression require wellcharacterized three-dimensional models incorporating periodontal ligament cells into hydrogel matrices designed to produce a tissue construct resembling more closely the periodontal ligament in vivo.

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