Oral Diseases (2011) 17, 13–25. doi:10.1111/j.1601-0825.2010.01727.x © 2010 John Wiley & Sons A/S All rights reserved

www.wiley.com

REVIEW ARTICLE

HIV infection and periodontal diseases: an overview of the post-HAART era

M Mataftsi¹, L Skoura², D Sakellari³

¹Private Practice; ²Department of Microbiology, Medical School, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki; ³Department of Periodontology, Dental School, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Thessaloniki, Greece

HIV infection remains a global health problem of unprecedented dimensions, although the development of highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) has significantly modified the course of HIV disease into a manageable chronic disease with longer survival and improved quality of life in HIV-infected subjects. Among the HIV-associated infections, oral lesions have been recognized as prominent features since the beginning of the epidemic and continue to be important. Periodontal diseases strongly associated with HIV infection are classified as linear gingival erythema, necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis and necrotizing ulcerative periodontitis and are included among the cardinal oral lesions. Although oral candidiasis appears to be the infection more significantly decreased after the introduction of HAART, the current literature suggests that the prevalence and course of periodontal lesions have also been modified. Higher prevalence of opportunistic microorganisms has been frequently detected in the subgingival flora of HIVinfected individuals, probably due to the immune status of those patients, as colonization and overgrowth of atypical pathogenic species is facilitated by immunosuppression. Additional research is required regarding biological issues such as the role of oral immune factors and periodontal disease in the persistency of HIV infection, the possibility of oral transmission and the re-emerging of HIV infection.

Oral Diseases (2011) 17, 13-25

Keywords: HIV; periodontitis; highly active antiretroviral therapy

Introduction

HIV infection remains a global health problem of unprecedented dimensions. Unknown 27 years ago, HIV has already caused an estimated 25 million deaths worldwide and has generated profound demographic changes in the most heavily affected countries. While the percentage of people living with HIV has stabilized since 2000, the overall number of people living with HIV has steadily increased, as new infections occur each year, HIV treatments extend life and in addition, new infections still outnumber AIDS deaths.

The development of highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) especially after 1995, has significantly modified the course of HIV disease, at least in the industrialized world, into a manageable chronic disease with longer survival and improved quality of life in HIV-infected subjects.

HAART generally consists of a dual nucleoside analogue reverse transcriptase inhibitor (NRTI) 'backbone' and a third or 'cornerstone' drug, such as a nonnucleoside inhibitor (NNRTI) or a protease inhibitor (PI), usually a 'boosted' one. The use of a NNRTI as a third drug is less potent and therefore, in most settings not a preferred option and it is recommended that baseline resistance testing should guide the specific regimen design.

HAART increases CD4 + cell count, decreases levels of HIV RNA and extends AIDS-free survival, at least in the short-term. Moreover, HIV suppression with antiretroviral therapy may decrease inflammation and immune activation thought to contribute to higher rates of cardiovascular and other co-morbidities reported in HIV-infected cohorts.

Eradication of HIV infection cannot be achieved with available antiretroviral regimens. This is mainly attributed to the fact that the pool of latently infected CD4 + T-cells is established during the earliest stages of acute HIV infection and persists with a long half-life, even with prolonged suppression of plasma viraemia.

It is known that HAART is associated with significant problems, including toxic side effects, development of virological resistance and great financial expense. Up to half of patients on antiretroviral therapy may experience adverse effects of the medications (Fellay *et al*, 2001). Common side-effects vary depending on the drug regimen, but can include hypersensitivity, lactic acidosis,

Correspondence: Dimitra Sakellari, Assistant Professor, Department of Periodontology, Dental School, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki 54124, Greece. Tel: +30 2310 999565, Fax: +30 2310 999613, E-mail: dimisak@med.auth.gr

Received 2 February 2010; revised 5 May 2010; accepted 11 May 2010

increases in blood lipids, bleeding events, anaemia, neuropathy, lipodystrophy and pancreatitis (UNAIDS, 2008). While most side-effects diminish over time, some can be life-threatening, underscoring the importance of careful patient monitoring (UNAIDS, 2008).

Due to the intensity of combined antiretroviral treatment and widespread use of HAART, the incidence of many AIDS-related opportunistic infections in patients with advanced HIV infection has significantly decreased but despite dramatic declines in the incidence of opportunistic infections in many resource-rich nations, opportunistic infections remain a leading cause of hospitalization and death for persons with HIV infection.

Among the HIV-associated infections, oral lesions have been recognized as prominent features of HIV infection since the beginning of the epidemic and continue to be important.

Purpose of the present review is to overview the features, prevalence, bacteriology and host response characteristics of periodontal infections in HIV patients, especially as modified during the HAART era.

Features of periodontal lesions in HIV-infected patients

HIV infection in adults is linked with the expression of various types of periodontal lesions, which include specific forms of gingivitis and necrotizing periodontal diseases, as well as with possible exacerbation of preexisting periodontal disease (Winkler and Robertson, 1992; EC-Clearinghouse, 1993; Robinson, 2002). Periodontal diseases strongly associated with HIV infection are classified as linear gingivitis erythema (LGE), necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis (NUG) and necrotizing ulcerative periodontitis (NUP) and are included among the seven cardinal oral lesions, which have been identified and recognized internationally, as follows: oral candidiasis, oral hairy leukoplakia Kaposi sarcoma, LGE, NUG, NUP and non-Hodgkin lymphoma (EC-Clearinghouse, 1993; Armitage, 1999; Coogan *et al*, 2005).

The criteria for diagnosis of HIV-related oral lesions are not well defined in children. Orofacial manifestations have been categorized into three groups: those less commonly, commonly and strongly but rarely associated with pediatric HIV infection. LGE has been reported between those commonly associated (Ramos-Gomez *et al*, 1999; Coogan *et al*, 2005).

Together with other oral infections, HIV-associated periodontal diseases are regarded as serious complications of HIV infection and have an important diagnostic and prognostic value (EC-Clearinghouse, 1993; Glick *et al*, 1994a; Shangase *et al*, 2004; Coogan *et al*, 2005). They belong among the earliest clinical features of the infection and could predict progression of HIV disease to AIDS (Robinson, 2002; Coogan *et al*, 2005). It should also be mentioned that for patients on antiretroviral therapy, HIV-related oral lesions in general, may suggest possible treatment failure as will be further discussed in the present review (Margiotta *et al*, 1999; Eyeson *et al*, 2002; Gaitán-Cepeda *et al*, 2005; Flint *et al*, 2006; Ramírez-Amador *et al*, 2007). However, HIV-associated periodontal infections are less common than oral candidiasis and oral hairy leukoplakia and thus not included as criteria in the Centers for Disease Control (CDC) classification (CDC, 1992). HIV-associated periodontal infections have characteristic clinical appearance which has been well described (Winkler and Robertson, 1992; Murray, 1994; Reznik, 2006; Greenspan and Greenspan, 2008).

Linear gingival erythema (LGE) is a form of gingivitis characterized by a distinct fiery red band along the margin of the gingiva (EC-Clearinghouse, 1994). It is usually associated with anterior teeth, commonly extended to the posterior teeth, accompanied in some cases by bleeding and discomfort (Reznik, 2006). In other cases it presents as petechia-like patches on attached or free gingiva. Currently, *Candida* species have been implicated to the aetiopathology of LGE as well as other HIV-associated periodontal pathology.

Necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis (NUG) is characterized by rapid onset and acute painful inflammation of gingiva with rapid destruction of soft tissues, while necrotizing ulcerative periodontitis (NUP) is escorted by bleeding, sharp pain, ulcerated gingival papillae, rapid and extensive soft tissue necrosis and advanced loss of periodontal attachment, frequently leading to bone exposure (Murray, 1994; Reznik, 2006; Greenspan and Greenspan, 2008).

The rapid establishment and course of necrotizing forms of periodontal disease in patients with HIV/AIDS infection, contrary to the gradually progressing periodontal disease in adults in the general population has been outlined in many studies and had not been reported before AIDS epidemic (Murray *et al*, 1989; Barr *et al*, 1992; Yeung *et al*, 1993a; Murray, 1994). HAART appears to have profoundly influenced the prevalence, severity and course of periodontal lesions as will be further discussed in the next section of the present review (Parveen *et al*, 2007).

Risk factors for periodontal disease in HIV-infected individuals besides the general factors of age, smoking, preexisting gingivitis, poor oral hygiene and poor diet, include counts of CD4 + cells (Glick *et al*, 1994b), viral load and specific species of microbiota.

Oral opportunistic infections, mainly oral candidiasis (OC) and oral hairy leukoplakia (OHL) have been associated with CD4 + count in both the pre-HAART and the HAART era in several studies. Based on these findings, low CD4 + counts are now considered as the main risk factor associated with the development of oral lesions and especially of oral candidiasis (Margiotta *et al*, 1999).

Regarding periodontal disease, there is little and unclear data, especially during the HAART era. In 1994, Glick *et al* have reported an association between NUP and CD4 + count below 200 cells mm⁻³ in HIVinfected patients and suggested that NUP may be a good marker of immune deterioration. The same authors reported in another 1994 study a positive predictive value (95.1%) for periodontal diseases, which was higher than the values reported for oral hairy leukopla-

kia (70.1%) and oral candidiasis (69.9%) (Glick *et al*, 1994a). High positive predictive values have also been reported for necrotizing ulcerative periodontitis (80%) and a moderate (54.5%) one for LGE (Begg *et al*, 1996; Patton, 2000). In agreement with the previous studies, Margiotta *et al* (1999) reported that NUP and NUG were significantly associated with CD4 + counts lower than 200 cells mm⁻³ in a cohort of Italian subjects infected with HIV. In contrast to these reports, Schuman *et al*, in a study conducted in a US population, after the introduction of HAART, reported that LGE and NUG were not related to HIV serostatus or CD4 + lymphocyte count (Schuman *et al*, 1998).

Contradictory results have also been reported in a 2000 study by Patton. The author reported that the viral load was significantly related to the presence of strongly HIV-associated oral lesions (Patton, 2000) but that among periodontal lesions, only LGE has a significant predictive value (70%) for immune suppression when measured by CD4 cell counts below 200 cells mm^{-3} . In the same study, the predictive value for necrotizing ulcerative diseases was lower (47.4%) compared to the values reported previously, a finding which could be attributed to the improved antiretroviral management of HIV disease of the population under investigation. A significant correlation between necrotizing ulcerative diseases and CD4 + T cells number below 200 mm⁻³ was also reported in a study from South Africa, with a positive predictive value of 69.6% for HIV infection in otherwise asymptomatic subjects (Shangase et al, 2004).

As HIV infection gradually becomes a chronic disease, the features and course of chronic periodontal disease in HIV infected patients require more extensive investigation. The 'conventional' periodontal diseases in the HAART era have been mentioned in very few studies (Alpagot *et al*, 2004; Kroidl *et al*, 2005). Conventional periodontitis progresses gradually, causing no or minimal pain or discomfort, being thus undiagnosed, until considerable tissue loss occurs (Alpagot *et al*, 2004). Generally, periodontal inflammation seems to be more severe in cases where CD4 + counts are low (Kroidl *et al*, 2005) and research nowadays is focused on the accelerated rate with which chronic adult periodontitis presents in seropositive patients (Lamster *et al*, 1997).

Overall, findings from the above mentioned studies suggest the value of the identification of periodontal disease, even in patients on HAART therapy, in screening the immune suppression, both in diagnosed and undiagnosed HIV infection in adults.

The relation between oral lesions in general and immune and virologic status is still not well established in children. No association was found between the prevalence of oral lesions and immunological status or viral load in children, while there are no data for periodontal diseases (Gaitán-Cepeda *et al*, 2002).

Prevalence of periodontal diseases in HIVinfected individuals

The prevalence of periodontal diseases in HIV-infected individuals remains a controversial issue. Data from

relevant studies vary widely due to several factors. Many studies refer to HIV-infected individuals, without mentioning the stage of AIDS or the use and the type of antiretroviral therapy, the use of protease inhibitors or not, as well as the use of adjuctive antimicrobials (antibiotics, antifungals). Factors which influence the prevalence of periodontal disease such as age, immune system competence, smoking habits, oral hygiene level, are not always taken into consideration (Barr *et al*, 1992; Alpagot *et al*, 2004). The type of lesion is often not mentioned, while there is some confusion with the terminology. Additionally, it is usually unclear whether diagnosis is made by trained examiners or if universally accepted criteria are used (EC-Clearinghouse, 1993).

Introduction of antiretroviral therapies and mainly the HAART in 1995 has changed the epidemiology of opportunistic infections in HIV-infected patients (Holtzer et al, 1998; Paul et al, 2002) and has decreased the mortality and morbidity of HIV infection (Palella et al, 1998). A significant decrease of the overall prevalence of oral lesions from 47-85%, before the introduction of HAART, to 32-46%, post-HAART has been reported (Patton et al, 2000; Schmidt-Westhausen et al, 2000; Gaitan Cepeda et al, 2008). Oral manifestations significantly decreased in patients on dual and triple therapy in comparison with patients on monotherapy and those on no antiretroviral therapy (Tappuni and Fleming, 2001). Moreover, a lower prevalence (32%) of oral lesions was found in patients on HAART, including efavirenz, compared to patients on HAART including a PI (63%). (Aquino-García et al, 2008). Recently, in a retrospective epidemiological analysis performed in Brazil from 1988 to 2004, HAART was found to be associated with significantly lower prevalence of oral manifestations (Ferreira et al, 2007). Among oral manifestations, oral candidiasis appears to be the lesion most significantly decreased after the introduction of HAART as shown by several studies.

Regarding the prevalence of HIV-associated periodontal diseases in the pre-HAART era, data vary widely both in developed and developing countries. Indicatively, reported rates of prevalence for LGE range between 9 and 50%, for NUG between 11 and 25% and for NUP between 1 and 18% (Tukutuku *et al*, 1990; Laskaris *et al*, 1992; Masouredis *et al*, 1992; Glick *et al*, 1994b).

After the introduction of HAART, findings from relevant studies also vary and cannot be compared, partly because of the different types of therapy received by participating patients. Data from representative studies in developed and developing countries concerning adult and paediatric populations are shown in Table 1. The effect of HAART on prevalence of HIVassociated periodontal disease is shown in Table 2. It appears that HAART is associated with a lower prevalence of HIV-associated periodontal disease in adults. The difference between pre- and post-HAART in most of the studies was found to be statistically significant.

On the contrary, HAART does not appear to significantly affect the prevalence of periodontal disease

			HIV-asso	ciated periodontal disease		Conv	ntional
Authors	Country	Subject sample	LGE	NUG	NUP	GING	PERIO
<i>Adults</i> Schuman <i>et al</i> (1998) Patton <i>et al</i> (2000) Ceballos-Salobreña <i>et al</i> (2000) Eyeson <i>et al</i> (2002) Reichart <i>et al</i> (2003) Pinheiro <i>et al</i> (2004) Kroidl <i>et al</i> (2005) Bravo <i>et al</i> (2006)	USA USA USA Spain UK Thailand, Cambodia Brazil Germany Venezouela	867 HIV+35% on ART 606 HIV+30% on HAART/PI 154 HIV+100% on HAART 203 HIV+69% on HAART 203 HIV+63HIV+none on HAART 161 HIV+70.8% on ART 139 HIV/AIDS 100% on HAART 75 HIV+63% on ART 52% on	13.6% 3.3% 0.6% 6% Thai - 8% Cambodian - 12% 9% 8%	$\begin{array}{l} 11.6\%\\ \text{NUG/NUP} = 3\\ 0.6\%\\ 0.6\%\\ \text{Thai } 0\%\\ \text{Thai } 0\%\\ \text{Cambodian } - 27.7\%\\ \text{ontal disease} = 4.4\%\\ \text{NUG/NUP} = \end{array}$.1% 3% = 3.6%	28%	30%
Ranganathan <i>et al</i> (2004) Gaitan Cepeda <i>et al</i> (2008) Brady <i>et al</i> (1996) Ceballos-Salobreña <i>et al</i> (1996) Alpagot <i>et al</i> (2004)	India Spain USA Spain USA	TAART 774 HIV+11% on ART 86 HIV/AIDS 100% on HAART 25 HIV/AIDS 396 HIV+ 152 HIV+ patients 63% on HAART	%0	0%0	%0	72% 0% 84% Periodor 78	33% 0% 52% tal disease .3% 73%
<i>Children</i> Santos <i>et al</i> (2001) Khongkunthian <i>et al</i> (2001) Gaitán-Cepeda <i>et al</i> (2002) Reichart <i>et al</i> (2003)	Brazil Thailand Mexico Thailand	80 HIV + 45 HIV + 33.3% on ART 48 HIV + 45 HIV + 33% on ART	Periodon	2.2% tal/gingival disease 4.2% 2.2%		17.5%	
ART: any type of antiretroviral PERIO: periodontitis; LGE: lin.	therapy; HAART: I ear gingival erythem	ughly active antiretroviral therapy; HAART/ 1a; NUG: necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis; N	PI: highly active antiretrovi UP: necrotizing ulcerative p	ral therapy with protease inh beriodontitis.	ibitor as the thi	rd drug; GIN0	J: gingivitis;

Table 1 Prevalence of HIV-associated and conventional periodontal disease in the HAART era

HIV infection and periodontal diseases M Mataftsi et al

			HIV-a.	ssociated periodontal d	sease	
Authors	Country	Subject sample	LGE	NUG	NUP	Effect of therapy
Aguirre et al (1999)	Spain	72 HIV + patients CD4+ <499	48.6%		31.9%	LGE are down, NUP has remained steady in comparison
Schmidt-Westhausen	Germany	on HAAKI 103 HIV+ patients 1 month on UAADT	1.9%.		2.9%	After 6 months of therapy, from 61 reasoning potients only one hod NIID
et al (2000) Patton <i>et al</i> (2000)	USA	Pre-HAART, 271 HIV + 8% on HAART Post-HAART, 299 HIV +			4.8% 1.7%	Significant decrease of NUP $(P = 0.03)$
Ceballos-Salobreña et al (2000)	Spain	42% on HAART. 154 HIV/AIDS on HAART/PI	0.6%	0.6%		More than 30% decrease of HIV associated periodontal disease in
Tappuni and Fleming	UK	for atleast 6 months 195 HIV + not on ART 80 HIV + on ADT		6%		comparison with historical controls Decrease of NUG
Ramírez-Amador <i>et al</i> (2003)	Brazil	Study of 12 years before HAART (1989–1995) after HAART		Periodontal disease 4.1% (1989–1991) 1.7% (1992–1995) 0.4% (1996–1998)		Significant decrease of periodontal disease between before and after HAART periods (P = 0.002)
Ferreira et al (2007)	Brazil	(1996–2001) 1230 HIV + (1988–2004)	2.5%	0.7% (1999-2001) 1.6%	1.3%	HAART associated with a significant lower prevalence of LGE ($P < 0.001$)
Nicolatou-Galitis <i>et al</i> (2004)	Greece	on HAAK1 HIV+ not on ART HIV+ on double ART and HAART/PI		$\begin{array}{c} 8.1\%\\ 0\%\end{array}$		Decrease of NUG

Table 2 Effect of HAART on prevalence of HIV-associated periodontal disease in HIV-infected adults

HAART: highly active antiretroviral therapy, HAART/PI: highly active antiretroviral therapy with protease inhibitor as the third drug; ART: any type of antiretroviral therapy. HIV-accociated periodontal disease: LGE: linear gingival erythema; NUG: necrotizing ulcerative gingivitis; NUP: necrotizing ulcerative periodontitis.

HIV infection and periodontal diseases M Mataftsi et al

in children (Flanagan *et al*, 2000; Khongkunthian *et al*, 2001; Parveen *et al*, 2007).

Bacteria associated with periodontal disease in HIV-infected patients

The development of periodontal disease is generally accepted to depend on the interaction between the host response and the resident oral microbiota, which constitutes a complex dynamic biofilm of multiple microbial communities. Considering that it is a microbial community disease, a distinct microbial profile in these patients, if identified, could assist our understanding of the aetiopathological mechanisms (Kuboniwa *et al*, 2009).

Results from studies on the subgingival microbiota in HIV-infected individuals are quite diverse. Some studies have shown that the microbiota is similar in HIVpositive and HIV-negative patients with periodontitis (Zambon et al, 1990; Brady et al, 1996; Nakou et al, 1997; Teanpaisan et al, 2001; Tsang and Samaranayake, 2001). Other studies have shown a higher prevalence of putative periodontal pathogens such as *Aggregatibacter* actinomycetemcomitans, Fusobacterium nucleatum, Porphyromonas gingivalis, Prevotella intermedia, Tannerella forsythia and Treponema denticola, in HIV-positive patients, in comparison to HIV-negative patients (Murray et al, 1989; Cross and Smith, 1995; Scully et al, 1999; Alpagot et al, 2004), while there are studies that present the exact opposite, i.e. that putative pathogens are less prevalent in HIV-positive patients. (Tenenbaum et al, 1997; Paster et al, 2002; Patel et al, 2003; Botero et al, 2007; Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2007).

Several authors agree that certain microbial species such as Candida spp. (Jabra-Rizk et al, 2001), Enterobacter faecalis (Zambon et al, 1990; Nakou et al, 1997; Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2004, 2007), Clostridium clostridiiforme (Zambon et al, 1990) Clostridium difficile (Zambon et al, 1990; Nakou et al, 1997; Gonçalves Lde et al, 2007), Klebsiella pneumoniae (Zambon et al, 1990; Nakou et al, 1997; Botero et al, 2007; Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2007), Mycoplasma salivarium (Zambon et al, 1990; Moore et al, 1993; Nakou et al, 1997; Goncalves de Souza et al. 2007), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (Nakou et al, 1997; Botero et al, 2007; Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2007), Acinetobacter baumanii (Nakou et al, 1997; Goncalves de Souza et al. 2007), Enterobacter cloacae (Nakou et al, 1997; Botero et al, 2007), which are frequently found in the periodontal environment of HIV-positive patients, are uncommon in other individuals. The role of these 'uncommon' species in the pathogenesis of periodontal disease in HIV-infected individuals is not yet fully understood, while it is suggested that the higher prevalence of such opportunistic micro-organisms is due to the immune status of those patients as colonization and overgrowth of atypical pathogenic species is facilitated by severe immunosuppression (Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2004).

Data from studies in the HAART era, which apply culture-independent molecular techniques are displayed in Table 3. These techniques as well as other approaches such as proteomics and the study of biofilms will allow an extensive investigation of the microbiota in HIVinfected individuals and the pathogenetic role of 'unusual' species.

As shown in Table 3, bacteria that are not usually linked with periodontal disease, such as *Enterococcus* faecalis, Acinetobacter baumanii, Pseudomonas aeruginosa and Campylobacter pylori, were frequently detected in HIV-infected patients, in most of the studies (Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2004, 2007; Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2009; Aas et al, 2007). Putative periodontopathogenic bacteria, such as T. forsythia, P. gingivalis, P. intermedia, were associated with periodontitis (Alpagot et al, 2004; Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2004) in HIVpositive patients and were considered as risk factors (Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2004), whereas in many studies the prevalence of these classical periodontopathogenic bacteria was found smaller in HIV-positive than in HIV- negative subjects (Paster et al, 2002; Patel et al, 2003; Aas et al, 2007; Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2007; Gonçalves de Souza et al, 2009). Possibly, pathogens such as *P. gingivalis*, that are commonly associated with periodontal disease, do not consist the principle pathogenic factor, while both atypical oral organisms and typical periodontopathogenic bacteria influenced the pathogenesis of periodontitis in HIV-infected patients.

Moreover the recognition of different microbial profiles in the subgingival area of these patients may be significant. More complex microbial profiles were demonstrated in diseased sites than in healthy periodontium in HIV-infected patients (Paster *et al*, 2002), while certain combinations of microbes were detected exclusively in HIV-infected individuals. These specific 'complexes' may be responsible for chronic periodontitis in this group of patients (Patel *et al*, 2003) since it is known that changes in the humoral and cellular immunity can affect the establishment and growth of pathogens and the resultant combination of microbes in the subgingival pockets of HIV-positive subjects.

HIV-host interaction in the periodontal environment

Periodontal disease may result from a loss of regulation of immune responses to oral microbiota (Jotwani *et al*, 2001).

However, in HIV-infected patients, pathogenetic mechanisms involved in immune responses and in tolerance at the oral mucosa in health and inflammation remain unclear and studies are required in order to define the interaction between the immuno-compromised host and microbes. In general, it is poorly understood how HIV or HIV-infected cells affect oral mucosal epithelium and influence innate and acquired immunity and how the altered local or systemic immune response of these patients contributes to the pathogenesis of periodontal disease (Alpagot et al. 2004; Challacombe and Naglik, 2006). Subgingival biofilm microorganisms have the capacity to activate inflammatory cells including polymononuclears (PMN), lymphocytes and macrophages, which produce inflammatory mediators and subsequently induce MMPs and their inhibitors production. It is known that, in periodontal disease,

	-		
Authors	Subject sample	Methodology	Principal findings
Paster <i>et al</i> (2002)	8 HIV+/NUP HAART: data not available	Checkerboard DNA hybridization assay Over 200 probes	108 species identified (65 uncultivable) Most frequent: Bulleidia extructa, Dialister, Fusobacterium, Selenomonas, Phylum TM7 Peptostreptococcus, Veillonella, Classical periodontal pathogens not detected Different and more complex microbial profiles
Patel <i>et al</i> (2003)	20 HIV + ∕CP HAART: data not available	PCR for P nigrescens, C.rectus, P.intermedia,P gingivalis, T.denticola, E.corrodens, A.actinomycetemcomitans	T. denticola and P. singivalis less prevalent in HIV+ subjects T. denticola and P. singivalis less prevalent in HIV+ subjects P. nigrescens/C.rectus P. nigrescens/P. gigivalis
Alpagot et al (2004)	152 HIV + /CP 63% HAART	Fluorescent assay for selective Gram-negative species	Functional function of the section o
Gonçalves de Souza et al (2004)	64 HIV+/CP 100% HAART	Checkerboard DNA hybridization assay Probes for 22 species	Several classical pathogens more prevalent in HIV + /CP than in HIV + /healthy periodontium: <i>E. faecalis, F. mucleatum</i> more prevalent in patients with lower T CD4 + cells
Gonçalves de Souza <i>et al</i> (2007)	37 HIV + /CP 35 HIV + /HP 100% HAART	Checkerboard DNA hybridization assay Probes for 33 species	Bacterial species and classical periodontal pathogens less frequent in HIV+/CP, than in HIV-/CP (<i>T. forsythia, S. gordonii, P.gingivalis,</i> <i>S. intermedius,</i>) Unusual for CP species more commonly in HIV+ (<i>A.baumannii, E. faecalis</i>)
Aas et al (2007)	14 HIV + /CP, gingivitis, LGE HAART: data not available	16S and 18S rRNA- cloning and sequencing	109 species (42% uncultivable) were identified Gemella, Dialister, Streptococcus, Veilonella were predominant Classical periodontal pathogens not detected (<i>T.denticola</i> , <i>P.gingivalis</i> , <i>T. forsythia</i>) Unsual for CP microbes (<i>Pseudomonas</i> , <i>Neisseria</i>) more commonly in HIV+ and esvere immunosurpression
Gonçalves de Souza et al (2009)	13 HIV + //CP 10 HIV + //HP 100% HAART	PCR for H. pylori, E. faecalis, P. aeruginosa	Unusual for CP microbes more frequent in CP than in healthy periodontium (<i>E. faecalis</i> , <i>E. pylori</i> , <i>P. aeruginosa</i>) <i>E. pylori</i> most prevalent in CP in HIV +
CP: chronic periodontitis; NUP: necrotiz	ing ulcerative periodontitis; HP: healthy	periodontium; HAART: highly active antiret	roviral therapy; LGE: linear gingival erythema.

Table 3 Studies of subgingival plaque microbiota in HIV-infected patients in HAART era using culture-independent methods

Oral Diseases

most of the tissue damage is caused by host response (Lamster and Novak, 1992; Van Dyke and Serhan, 2003). In HIV-infected patients with periodontitis an increase of inflammatory mediators has also been detected. Alpagot et al (2003) reported that the higher GCF levels of pro-inflammatory cytokine interferon- γ (IFN- γ) is associated with the periodontal disease progression in HIV-positive patients similarly to reports for non-HIV individuals with chronic periodonditis (Dutzan et al, 2009). High levels of significant mediators of inflammation involved in the pathogenesis of periodontal disease such as prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) (Leibur et al, 1999), transforming growth factor-beta (TGFb1), matrix metalloproteinase -1 (MMP-1) were also found in gingival cervicular fluid (GCF) of periodontitis sites in HIV/AIDS patients and could serve as prognostic factors for the progression of tissue destruction in HIV-infected adults.

After the introduction of HAART, HIV-infection is considered as a chronic infection characterized by persistency of the virus in the infected host and, despite the undetectable plasma levels of the HIV, cessation of therapy results in viral reappearance in circulation (Chun et al, 1999). Persistency of the virus is possibly due to a very low level of replication and continuous secretion of virus by long-lived infected cells, undetectable by conventional assays or HIV latency and silencing (reviewed in Williams and Greene, 2007; Mok and Lever, 2008; Colin and Van Lint, 2009; Dahl et al, 2009). The oral cavity seems to be an important reservoir of HIV-1 as the virus is found in saliva, GCF and oral epithelial cells. To date, HIV-1 reservoirs have been identified in the reproductive tract, breast, lung, brain and gastrointestinal tract (Schrager and D'Souza, 1998)

Therefore, the role of oral immune factors and periodontal disease in the persistency of HIV infection, the possibility of oral transmission and the re-emerging of HIV infection, should be investigated.

The oral cavity has rarely been reported as a site of HIV transmission (Klein et al, 1988; Cohen et al, 2000; Jotwani et al, 2004; Cutler and Jotwani, 2006). In saliva, HIV is present at very low levels (Spear et al, 2005) possibly due to low levels of macrophages and lymphocytes and to inhibitory factors in the saliva of HIVinfected patients. A number of host defence factors are present in the saliva including, the hypotonic nature of saliva (Baron et al, 1999), endogenous inhibitors of HIV, particularly secretory leucocyte protease inhibitor (SLPI) that blocks HIV infection in several cell-culture systems (Shugars et al, 1999), salivary mucins MUC5B and MUC7 which trap and aggregate the virus and can inhibit it by 100% (Habte et al, 2006), sIgA antibodies which neutralize HIV, antimicrobial peptides such as aand b-defensing (Nakashima et al. 1993; Zhang et al. 2002; Mackewicz et al, 2003; Quiñones-Mateu et al, 2003; Jotwani et al, 2004), histatins (Groot et al, 2006) and lactoferrin. It seems that the inhibitory factors may act synergistically (Bolscher et al, 2002).

Recently, HIV-specific antibody dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity (ADCC) activity, an important part of cell mediated immunity, was demonstrated in saliva. (Kim *et al*, 2006). Moreover, studying the possible effect of microbial components on HIV, inhibition of virus entry by a binding domain (HGP44) of *P. gingivalis* was demonstrated (Xie *et al*, 2006).

HAART appears not to adversely affect inherent salivary oral host defence in HIV-patients with mild to moderate immune dysfunction (Lin *et al*, 2006).

In many studies RNA (Shugars *et al*, 2001; Spear *et al*, 2005) and DNA of HIV have been detected in saliva (Levy and Greenspan, 1988; Goto *et al*, 1991; Yeung *et al*, 1993b). Possible sources of infectious virions and proviral HIV-1 DNA in saliva include serum and HIV-containing macrophages and lymphocytes from GCF, which is increased during periodontal infection. In most studies, HIV is present in patients' saliva at very low levels, lower than blood. However, Shugars *et al* (2001) reported that five out of 67 HIV-positive subjects expressed higher levels in saliva than blood and also had more advanced HIV-associated periodontal disease, suggesting that HIV can be produced locally in the oral cavity and may be influenced by oral tissue inflammation.

Although, relatively little and contradictory information on HIV excretion patterns in GCF is available in the literature, however the presence of periodontitis may be a contributing factor. Proviral HIV-1 DNA, viral RNA and p24 antigen has been detected in up to 50% of GCF samples from HIV-infected subjects with periodontitis (Sanz *et al*, 1996; Chebbi *et al*,1997; Maticic *et al*, 2000) while in some reports the virus or the p24 antigen have not been detected in GCF samples (O'Shea *et al*, 1990; Chebbi *et al*, 1997). These results suggest that infected mononuclear cells present in GCF could be a potential source of HIV-1.

More over it has been demonstrated that HIV-1 infects and replicates *in vitro* in keratinocytes isolated from normal oral mucosa (Moore *et al*, 2003) as well as *in vivo* in oral mucosal epithelial cells (Rodríguez-Iñigo *et al*, 2005), which could represent a reservoir for the virus, although this is not a universal finding (Quiñones-Mateu *et al*, 2003).

Regarding gingival tissues, studies have shown that dendritic cells (DCs) and macrophages in gingiva express C-type lectin receptors DC-SIGN (Dendriticcell-specific ICAM-3-grabbing non-integrins, CD209), MR (mannose receptors, CD206) and Langerin (CD 207), which are targets for HIV and other microbes (Van Kooyk et al, 2004). Using these receptors HIV could advance by down-regulating intracellular signalling and effective immune response and cause chronic infections that persist for life. However, recent studies showed that, during health, in lamina propria cells usually express the DC-SIGN receptors and mannose receptors, but very few of the cells present the CCR5 on their surface and none present the CXCR4 HIV co-receptors (Jotwani et al, 2004). In the epithelium, cells do not express CD4 but instead glycospingolipid-galactosylceramide (GalCer) and Langerin receptors (Jotwani et al, 2004; Challacombe and Naglik, 2006). HIV coreceptors CCR5 and/or CXCR4 were found closer to the basal layer far from the surface-associated layers (Jotwani *et al*, 2004). So, in health, low expression of CCR5, and restricted expression of CXCR4 in oral mucosa suggest an unfavourable environment for the virus and this may play a significant role in the resistance of gingiva to infection with HIV-1 (Jameson *et al*, 2002; Jotwani *et al*, 2004).

In the presence of inflammation, there is evidence of up-regulation of various receptors, including HIV receptors, on the surface of oral epithelium and the epithelium may become more permeable (Challacombe and Naglik, 2006). Moreover, in patients with chronic periodontitis there is a significant increase in the number of dermal dendritic cells (DDCs) expressing DC-SIGN receptors and a trend for increased mannose receptors identified in the inflamed gingival lamina propria (Jotwani et al. 2004). It is suggested that HIV uses both the above C-type lectin receptors to attach to different dentritic cells subsets (Turville et al, 2001). It has been shown that dentritic cells, DDCs and LCs, form immune conjugates with CD4 + T cells in the lamina propria (Jotwani and Cutler, 2003) and under these conditions it is possible for dendritic cells to transfer HIV in the T-lymphocytes in the inflammed gingival lamina propria.

It has also been reported that in the presence of oral lesions and periodontal disease there is a continuous shedding of HIV-infected blood into the oral cavity from mucosal and gingival lesions in HIV-infected patients, resulting in the detectable presence of the HIV at a high frequency in the oral cavity, with an increased possibility for HIV transmission (Bolscher *et al*, 2002).

According to the above mentioned findings, inflammation is considered as a risk factor for HIV infection, although defensive mechanisms. However, during chronic periodontitis there is a 10-fold increase in α -defensin-1 (Jotwani *et al*, 2004), known to have potent anti-HIV activity, while HBD2 and HBD3 are also upregulated during inflammation (Dale, 2002; Quiñones-Mateu *et al*, 2003).

Notably, co-infection with the endogenous pathogen *P.gingivalis in vitro*, revealed an upregulation of CCR5 receptors of oral keratinocytes, which are not usually expressed in health, through LPS stimulating the toll-like receptors (TLRs) and gingipains. The R5-type HIV-1 co-receptors CCR5, is the target of R5-type HIV-1 associated with most primary systemic infections. Thus infection with *P. gingivalis* could increase transmission of HIV infection through the oral cavity (Giacaman *et al*, 2007).

In addition, periodontal diseases and other oral opportunistic infections in HIV-infected patients could influence HIV reactivation. They represent chronic infections and associated inflammation, with a possibility of latently infected host cell stimulation. Transcription of the HIV-provirus is dependent on the interaction between cellular and viral transcription factors (reviewed in Williams and Greene, 2007; Mok and Lever, 2008). The mechanisms involved in the reactivation of latency remain to be elucidated, however a number of factors such as different cellular environments and long terminal repeat (LTR) variations in different HIV-1 isolates have been proposed that may play a role (Rohr *et al*, 2003).

In vitro exposure of latently infected resting CD4 + cells to a number of cytokines, bacterial antigens, mitogens or monoclonal antibodies directed to T-cell receptors CD3 can induce viral replication, but these findings have not been reproduced in vivo. It is also suggested that in the progress of an opportunistic infection micro-organisms or their components, such as LPS, stimulate and activate TLRs and subsequently $NF\kappa B$ and other transcription factors. In addition, transcription factors can be activated indirectly by the large amounts of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines which are produced during infection (reviewed in González et al. 2009). Regarding periodontal pathogens, it has recently been shown that P. gingivalis produces high concentrations of butyric acids causing histone acetylation which is involved in repressing HIV transcription and results in virus persistency (Imai et al, 2009). The results of the study and the above mentioned possible mechanism of reactivation of HIV, suggest that periodontal disease could act as a risk factor for HIV reactivation in infected individuals and might contribute to the systemic dissemination of the virus.

This hypothesis could be the biological basis linking a chronic infection such as periodontitis to the 'immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome' (IRIS) (Gaitan Cepeda *et al*, 2008) a situation in which, pre-existing asymptomatic or mildly symptomatic infections or inflammatory conditions paradoxically worsen with a substantial increase in inflammation during the initial months of host immune reconstitution, as a result of HAART (Feller *et al*, 2007; Murdoch *et al*, 2007).

Opportunistic oral infections have not yet been characterized as IRIS, but Nicolatou-Galitis et al (2004) and Greenspan et al (2004) have reported a lack of reduction of oral lesions despite a higher mean CD4 + count and a lower mean viral load, with HAART treatment. Recently, Gaitan Cepeda et al (2008) found that HIV + / AIDS patients under HAART who present CD4 + lymphocyte counts of > 500 cells ml⁻¹ and undetectable viral loads can suffer opportunistic oral HIV-associated infections. IRIS may lead to increased frequency of periodontal disease as the presence of latent infection(s) has been considered as a risk factor for the syndrome (Crum-Cianflone, 2006; Murdoch et al, 2007). However, it is not known if the appearance of these lesions is the consequence of a qualitative failure of immune cell response or examples of *de novo* infections.

Conclusions

The introduction of HAART has significantly modified the course of HIV disease, at least in the industrialized world, into a manageable chronic disease with longer survival and improved quality of life in HIV-infected subjects. Oral lesions are among the clinical manifestations whose prevalence, severity and course have been affected by this treatment. Although oral candidiasis appears to be the infection more significantly decreased after the introduction of HAART, the current literature suggests that the prevalence and course of periodontal lesions have also been modified. Additional research is required regarding biological issues such as the role of oral immune factors and periodontal disease in the persistency of HIV infection, the possibility of oral transmission and the re-emerging of HIV infection.

References

- Aas JA, Barbuto SM, Alpagot T, Olsen I, Dewhirst FE, Paster BJ (2007). Subgingival plaque microbiota in HIV positive patients. J Clin Periodontol 34: 189–195.
- Aguirre JM, Echebarria MA, Ocina E, Ribacoba L, Montejo M (1999). Reduction of HIV-associated oral lesions after highly active antiretroviral therapy. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 88: 114–115.
- Alpagot T, Font K, Lee A (2003). Longitudinal evaluation of GCF IFN-gamma levels and periodontal status in HIV+ patients. J Clin Periodontol 30: 944–948.
- Alpagot T, Duzgunes N, Wolff LF, Lee A (2004). Risk factors for periodontitis in HIV patients. J Periodontal Res 39: 149– 157.
- Aquino-García SI, Rivas MA, Ceballos-Salobreña A, Acosta-Gio AE, Gaitán-Cepeda LA (2008). Short communication: oral lesions in HIV/AIDS patients undergoing HAART including efavirenz. AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses 24: 815–820.
- Armitage GC (1999). Development of a classification system for periodontal diseases and conditions. *Ann Periodontol* **4**: 1–6.
- Baron S, Poast J, Cloyd MW (1999). Why is HIV rarely transmitted by oral secretions? Saliva can disrupt orally shed, infected leukocytes. *Arch Intern Med* **159**: 303–310.
- Barr C, Lopez MR, Rua-Dobles A (1992). Periodontal changes by HIV serostatus in a cohort of homosexual and bisexual men. *J Clin Periodontol* **19:** 794–801.
- Begg MD, Panageas KS, Mitchell-Lewis D, Bucklan RS, Phelan JA, Lamster IB (1996). Oral lesions as markers of severe immunosuppression in HIV-infected homosexual men and injection drug users. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 82: 276–283.
- Bolscher JG, Nazmi K, Ran LJ *et al* (2002). Inhibition of HIV-1 IIIB and clinical isolates by human parotid, submandibular, sublingual and palatine saliva. *Eur J Oral Sci* **110**: 149–156.
- Botero JE, Contreras A, Lafaurie G, Jaramillo A, Betancourt M, Arce RM (2007). Occurrence of periodontopathic and superinfecting bacteria in chronic and aggressive periodontitis subjects in a Colombian population. *J Periodontol* **78**: 696–704.
- Brady LJ, Walker C, Oxford GE, Stewart C, Magnusson I, McArthur W (1996). Oral diseases, mycology and periodontal microbiology of HIV-1-infected women. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* 11: 371–380.
- Bravo IM, Correnti M, Escalona L *et al* (2006). Prevalence of oral lesions in HIV patients related to CD4 cell count and viral load in a Venezuelan population. *Med Oral Patol Oral Cir Bucal* **11**: E33–E39.
- CDC (1992). 1993 revised classification system for HIV infection and expanded surveillance case definition for AIDS among adolescents and adults. *MMWR Recomm Rep* **41**: 1–19.
- Ceballos-Salobreña A, Aguirre-Urizar JM, Bagan-Sebastian JV (1996). Oral manifestations associated with human immunodeficiency virus infection in a Spanish population. *J Oral Pathol Med* **25:** 523–526.

- Ceballos-Salobreña A, Gaitán-Cepeda LA, Ceballos-Garcia L, Lezama-Del Valle D (2000). Oral lesions in HIV/AIDS patients undergoing highly active antiretroviral treatment including protease inhibitors: a new face of oral AIDS? *AIDS Patient Care STDS* 14: 627–635.
- Challacombe SJ, Naglik JR (2006). The effects of HIV infection on oral mucosal immunity. *Adv Dent Res* **19**: 29–35.
- Chebbi F, Poveda JD, Suzuki T *et al* (1997). Search for infectious HIV in gingival crevicular fluid and saliva of advanced AIDS patients with severe periodontitis. *AIDS* **11**: 927–928.
- Chun TW, Davey RT Jr, Engel D, Lane HC, Fauci AS (1999). Re-emergence of HIV after stopping therapy. *Nature* **401**: 874–875.
- Cohen MS, Shugars DC, Fiscus SA (2000). Limits on oral transmission of HIV 1: Lancet-356.
- Colin L, Van Lint C (2009). Molecular control of HIV-1 postintegration latency: implications for the development of new therapeutic strategies. *Retrovirology* **6**: 111, Doi:10.1 186/1742-4690-6-111.
- Coogan MM, Greenspan J, Challacombe SJ (2005). Oral lesions in infection with human immunodeficiency virus. *Bull World Health Organ* **83**: 700–706.
- Cross DL, Smith GL (1995). Comparison of periodontal disease in HIV seropositive subjects and controls (II). Microbiology, immunology and predictors of disease progression. J Clin Periodontol 22: 569–577.
- Crum-Cianflone NF (2006). Immune reconstitution inflammatory syndromes: what's new? *AIDS Read* 16: 199–206.
- Cutler CW, Jotwani R (2006). Oral mucosal expression of HIV-1 receptors, co-receptors, and alpha-defensins: tableau of resistance or susceptibility to HIV infection? *Adv Dent Res* **19**: 49–51.
- Dahl V, Josefsson L, Palmer S (2009). HIV reservoirs, latency, and reactivation: Prospects for eradication. *Antiviral Res* 85: 286–294.
- Dale BA (2002). Periodontal epithelium: a newly recognized role in health and disease. *Periodontol* **2000**(30): 70–78.
- Dutzan N, Vernal R, Hernandez M et al (2009). Levels of interferon-gamma and transcription factor T-bet in progressive periodontal lesions in patients with chronic periodontitis. J Periodontol 80: 290–296.
- EC-Clearinghouse (1993). EC-Clearinghouse on oral problems related to HIV infection and WHO collaborating centre on oral manifestations of the immunodeficiency virus classification and diagnostic criteria for oral lesions in HIV infection. J Oral Pathol Med 22: 289–291.
- Eyeson JD, Tenant-Flowers M, Cooper DJ, Johnson NW, Warnakulasuriya KA (2002). Oral manifestations of an HIV positive cohort in the era of highly active anti-retroviral therapy (HAART) in South London. *J Oral Pathol Med* **31**: 169–174.
- Fellay J, Boubaker K, Ledergerber B *et al*; Swiss HIV Cohort Study (2001). Prevalence of adverse events associated with potent antiretroviral treatment: Swiss HIV Cohort Study. *Lancet* **358**: 1322–1327.
- Feller L, Wood N, Lemmer J (2007). Herpes zoster infection as an immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome in HIVseropositive subjects: a review. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* **104:** 455–460.
- Ferreira S, Noce C, Júnior AS et al (2007). Prevalence of oral manifestations of HIV infection in Rio De Janeiro, Brazil from 1988 to 2004. AIDS Patient Care STDS 21: 724–731.
- Flanagan MA, Barasch A, Koenigsberg SR, Fine D, Houpt M (2000). Prevalence of oral soft tissue lesions in HIV-infected minority children treated with highly active antiretroviral therapies. *Pediatr Dent* **22**: 287–291.

- Flint SR, Tappuni A, Leigh J, Schmidt-Westhausen AM, MacPhail L (2006). (B3)Markers of immunodeficiency and mechanisms of HAART therapy on oral lesions. *Adv Dent Res* 19: 146–151.
- Gaitan Cepeda LA, Ceballos Salobreña A, López Ortega K, Arzate Mora N, Jiménez Soriano Y (2008). Oral lesions and immune reconstitution syndrome in HIV+/AIDS patients receiving highly active antiretroviral therapy. Epidemiological evidence. *Med Oral Pathol Oral Cir Bucal* **13:** E85–E93.
- Gaitán-Cepeda L, Cashat-Cruz M, Morales-Aguirre JJ *et al* (2002). Prevalence of oral lesions in Mexican children with perinatally acquired HIV: association with immunologic status, viral load, and gender. *AIDS Patient Care STDS* **16**: 151–156.
- Gaitán-Cepeda LA, Martínez-González M, Ceballos-Salobreña A (2005). Oral candidosis as a clinical marker of immune failure in patients with HIV/AIDS on HAART. *AIDS Patient Care STDS* **19:** 70–77.
- Giacaman RA, Nobbs AH, Ross KF, Herzberg MC (2007). Porphyromonas gingivalis selectively up-regulates the HIV-1 coreceptor CCR5 in oral keratinocytes. *J Immunol* **179**: 2542–2550.
- Glick M, Muzyka BC, Lurie D, Salkin LM (1994a). Oral manifestations associated with HIV-related disease as markers for immune suppression and AIDS. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol* **77:** 344–349.
- Glick M, Muzyka BC, Salkin LM, Lurie D (1994b). Necrotizing ulcerative periodontitis: a marker for immune deterioration and a predictor for the diagnosis of AIDS. *J Periodontol* **65:** 393–397.
- Gonçalves de Souza L, Souto R, Colombo AP (2009). Detection of Helicobacter pylori, Enterococcus faecalis, and Pseudomonas aeruginosa in the subgingival biofilm of HIV-infected subjects undergoing HAART with chronic periodontitis. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* **28**: 1335– 1342.
- Gonçalves de Souza L, Ferreira SM, Silva A Jr *et al* (2004). Association of T CD4 lymphocyte levels and subgingival microbiota of chronic periodontitis in HIV-infected Brazilians under HAART. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* 97: 196–203.
- Gonçalves de Souza L, Soares Ferreira SM, Souza CO, Souto R, Colombo AP (2007). Clinical and microbiological profiles of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-seropositive Brazilians undergoing highly active antiretroviral therapy and HIV-seronegative Brazilians with chronic periodontitis. *J Periodontol* **78**: 87–96.
- González OA, Ebersole JL, Huang CB (2009). Oral infectious diseases: a potential risk factor for HIV virus recrudescence? *Oral Dis* **15**: 313–327.
- Goto Y, Yeh CK, Notkins AL, Prabhakar BS (1991). Detection of proviral sequences in saliva of patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus type 1. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses* 7: 343–347.
- Greenspan J, Greenspan D (2008). Oral complications in HIV infection. In: Volberding PA, Sande MA, Lange J, Greene WC, eds *Global HIV/AIDS medicine*. WC. Saunders, Elsevier B.V. Inc. Publishing: Philadephia, USA, pp. 215–225.
- Greenspan D, Gange SJ, Phelan JA *et al* (2004). Incidence of oral lesions in HIV-1-infected women: reduction with HAART. *J Dent Res* 83: 145–150.
- Groot F, Sanders RW, ter Brake O *et al* (2006). Histatin 5-derived peptide with improved fungicidal properties enhances human immunodeficiency virus type 1 replication by promoting viral entry. *J Virol* **80**: 9236–9243.

- Habte HH, Mall AS, de Beer C, Lotz ZE, Kahn D (2006). The role of crude human saliva and purified salivary MUC5B and MUC7 mucins in the inhibition of Human Immunode-ficiency Virus type 1 in an inhibition assay. *Virol J* **3:** 99. doi:10.1186/1743-422X-3-99.
- Holtzer CD, Jacobson MA, Hadley WK *et al* (1998). Decline in the rate of specific opportunistic infections at San Francisco General Hospital, 1994–1997. *AIDS* **12**: 1931–1933.
- Imai K, Ochiai K, Okamoto T (2009). Reactivation of latent HIV-1 infection by the periodontopathic bacterium *Por-phyromonas gingivalis* involves histone modification. *J Immunol* 182: 3688–3695.
- Jabra-Rizk MA, Falkler WA Jr, Enwonwu CO, Onwujekwe DI Jr, Merz WG, Meiller TF (2001). Prevalence of yeast among children in Nigeria and the United States. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* **16**: 383–385.
- Jameson B, Baribaud F, Pöhlmann S et al (2002). Expression of DC-SIGN by dendritic cells of intestinal and genital mucosae in humans and rhesus macaques. J Virol 76: 1866– 1875.
- Jotwani R, Cutler CW (2003). Multiple dendritic cell (DC) subpopulations in human gingiva and association of mature DCs with CD4 + T-cells in situ. *J Dent Res* 82: 736–741.
- Jotwani R, Palucka AK, Al-Quotub M *et al* (2001). Mature dendritic cells infiltrate the T cell-rich region of oral mucosa in chronic periodontitis: in situ, in vivo, and in vitro studies. *J Immunol* **167**: 4693–4700.
- Jotwani R, Muthukuru M, Cutler CW (2004). Increase in HIV receptors/co-receptors/alpha-defensins in inflamed human gingiva. *J Dent Res* **83**: 371–377.
- Khongkunthian P, Grote M, Isaratanan W, Piyaworawong S, Reichart PA (2001). Oral manifestations in 45 HIV-positive children from Northern Thailand. *J Oral Pathol Med* **30**: 549–552.
- Kim JS, Nag P, Landay AL *et al* (2006). Saliva can mediate HIV-1-specific antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol* **48**: 267–273.
- Klein RS, Phelan JA, Freeman K *et al* (1988). Low occupational risk of human immunodeficiency virus infection among dental professionals. *N Engl J Med* **318**: 86–90.
- Kroidl A, Schaeben A, Oette M, Wettstein M, Herfordt A, Häussinger D (2005). Prevalence of oral lesions and periodontal diseases in HIV-infected patients on antiretroviral therapy. *Eur J Med Res* 10: 448–453.
- Kuboniwa M, Hendrickson EL, Xia Q et al (2009). Proteomics of Porphyromonas gingivalis within a model oral microbial community. BMC Microbiol 9: 98. dol:10.1186/1471-2180-9-98.
- Lamster IB, Novak MJ (1992). Host mediators in gingival crevicular fluid: implications for the pathogenesis of periodontal disease. *Crit Rev Oral Biol Med* **3**: 31–60.
- Lamster IB, Grbic JT, Bucklan RS, Mitchell-Lewis D, Reynolds HS, Zambon JJ (1997). Epidemiology and diagnosis of HIV-associated periodontal diseases. *Oral Disl* 1: S141–S148.
- Laskaris G, Hadjivassiliou M, Stratigos J (1992). Oral signs and symptoms in 160 Greek HIV-infected patients. *J Oral Pathol Med* **21:** 120–123.
- Leibur E, Tuhkanen A, Pintson U, Söder PO (1999). Prostaglandin E2 levels in blood plasma and in crevicular fluid of advanced periodontitis patients before and after surgical therapy. *Oral Dis* **5**: 223–228.
- Levy JA, Greenspan D (1988). HIV in saliva. Lancet 2: 1248.
- Lin AL, Johnson DA, Sims CA, Stephan KT, Yeh CK (2006). Salivary gland function in HIV-infected patients treated with highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART). *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* **102**: 318–324.

- Mackewicz CE, Yuan J, Tran P *et al* (2003). alpha-Defensins can have anti-HIV activity but are not CD8 cell anti-HIV factors. *AIDS* **17**: F23–F32.
- Margiotta V, Campisi G, Mancuso S, Accurso V, Abbadessa V (1999). HIV infection: oral lesions, CD4 + cell count and viral load in an Italian study population. J Oral Pathol Med 28: 173–177.
- Masouredis CM, Katz MH, Greenspan D *et al* (1992). Prevalence of HIV-associated periodontitis and gingivitis in HIV-infected patients attending an AIDS clinic. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* **5**: 479–483.
- Maticic M, Poljak M, Kramar B et al (2000). Proviral HIV-1 DNA in gingival crevicular fluid of HIV-1-infected patients in various stages of HIV disease. J Dent Res 79: 1496–1501.
- Mok HP, Lever A (2008). Waking up the sleepers: HIV latency and reactivation. J Formos Med Assoc 107: 909–914.
- Moore LV, Moore WE, Riley C, Brooks CN, Burmeister JA, Smibert RM (1993). Periodontal microflora of HIV positive subjects with gingivitis or adult periodontitis. *J Periodontol* **64:** 48–56.
- Moore JS, Rahemtulla F, Kent LW *et al* (2003). Oral epithelial cells are susceptible to cell-free and cell-associated HIV-1 infection in vitro. *Virology* **313**: 343–353.
- Murdoch DM, Venter WD, Van Rie A, Feldman C (2007). Immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome (IRIS): review of common infectious manifestations and treatment options. *AIDS Res Ther* **4**: 9.
- Murray PA (1994). Periodontal diseases in patients infected by human immunodeficiency virus. *Periodontol* 2000(6): 50–67.
- Murray PA, Grassi M, Winkler JR (1989). The microbiology of HIV-associated periodontal lesions. *J Clin Periodontol* **16**: 636–642.
- Nakashima H, Yamamoto N, Masuda M, Fujii N (1993). Defensins inhibit HIV replication in vitro. *AIDS* **7:** 1129.
- Nakou M, Kamma J, Gargalianos P, Laskaris G, Mitsis F (1997). Periodontal microflora of HIV infected patients with periodontitis. *Anaerobe* **3:** 97–102.
- Nicolatou-Galitis O, Velegraki A, Paikos S *et al* (2004). Effect of PI-HAART on the prevalence of oral lesions in HIV-1 infected patients. A Greek study. *Oral Dis* **10**: 145–150.
- O'Shea S, Cordery M, Barrett WY, Richman DD, Bradbeer C, Banatvala JE (1990). HIV excretion patterns and specific antibody responses in body fluids. J Med Virol 31: 291–296.
- Palella FJ Jr, Delaney KM, Moorman AC et al (1998). Declining morbidity and mortality among patients with advanced human immunodeficiency virus infection. HIV Outpatient Study Investigators. N Engl J Med 338: 853–860.
- Parveen Z, Acheampong E, Pomerantz RJ, Jacobson JM, Wigdahl B, Mukhtar M (2007). Effects of highly active antiretroviral therapy on HIV-1-associated oral complications. *Curr HIV Res* 5: 281–292.
- Paster BJ, Russell MK, Alpagot T et al (2002). Bacterial diversity in necrotizing ulcerative periodontitis in HIVpositive subjects. Ann Periodontol 7: 8–16.
- Patel M, Coogan M, Galpin JS (2003). Periodontal pathogens in subgingival plaque of HIV-positive subjects with chronic periodontitis. Oral Microbiol Immunol 18: 199–201.
- Patton LL (2000). Sensitivity, specificity, and positive predictive value of oral opportunistic infections in adults with HIV/AIDS as markers of immune suppression and viral burden. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod 90: 182–188.
- Patton LL, McKaig R, Strauss R, Rogers D, Eron JJ Jr (2000). Changing prevalence of oral manifestations of human immuno-deficiency virus in the era of protease inhibitor therapy. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod 89: 299–304.

- Paul S, Gilbert HM, Lande L *et al* (2002). Impact of antiretroviral therapy on decreasing hospitalization rates of HIV-infected patients in 2001. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses* **18:** 501–506.
- Pinheiro A, Marcenes W, Zakrzewska JM, Robinson PG (2004). Dental and oral lesions in HIV infected patients: a study in Brazil. *Int Dent J* **54:** 131–137.
- Quiñones-Mateu ME, Lederman MM, Feng Z *et al* (2003). Human epithelial beta-defensins 2 and 3 inhibit HIV-1 replication. *AIDS* **17:** F39–F48.
- Ramírez-Amador V, Esquivel-Pedraza L, Sierra-Madero J, Anaya-Saavedra G, González-Ramírez I, Ponce-de-León S (2003). The changing clinical spectrum of human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-related oral lesions in 1,000 consecutive patients: aA 12-year study in a referral center in Mexico. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 82: 39–50.
- Ramírez-Amador V, Ponce-de-León S, Anaya-Saavedra G, Crabtree Ramírez B, Sierra-Madero J (2007). Oral lesions as clinical markers of highly active antiretroviral therapy failure: a nested case-control study in Mexico City. *Clin Infect Dis* **45**: 925–932.
- Ramos-Gomez FJ, Flaitz C, Catapano P, Murray P, Milnes AR, Dorenbaum A (1999). Classification, diagnostic criteria, and treatment recommendations for orofacial manifestations in HIV-infected pediatric patients. Collaborative Workgroup on Oral Manifestations of Pediatric HIV Infection. J Clin Pediatr Dent 23: 85–96.
- Ranganathan K, Umadevi M, Saraswathi TR, Kumarasamy N, Solomon S, Johnson N (2004). Oral lesions and conditions associated with human immunodeficiency virus infection in 1000 South Indian patients. *Ann Acad Med Singapore* **33**(Suppl.): 37–42.
- Reichart PA, Khongkhunthian P, Bendick C (2003). Oral manifestations in HIV-infected individuals from Thailand and Cambodia. *Med Microbiol Immunol* **192:** 157–160.
- Reznik DA (2006). Oral manifestations of HIV disease. *Top HIV Med* **2005**(13): 143–148.
- Robinson PG (2002). The significance and management of periodontal lesions in HIV infection. *Oral Dis* 8(Suppl.): 91–97.
- Rodríguez-Iñigo E, Jiménez E, Bartolomé J *et al* (2005). Detection of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 RNA by in situ hybridization in oral mucosa epithelial cells from anti-HIV-1 positive patients. *J Med Virol* **77:** 17–22.
- Rohr O, Marban C, Aunis D, Schaeffer E (2003). Regulation of HIV-1 gene transcription: from lymphocytes to microglial cells. *J Leukoc Biol* **74:** 736–749.
- Santos LC, Castro GF, de Souza IP, Oliveira RH (2001). Oral manifestations related to immunosuppression degree in HIV-positive children. *Braz Dent* **12**: 135–138.
- Sanz M, Fernandez JL, Carasol M *et al* (1996). Detection of HIV virus in saliva and gingival crevicular fluid. Its correlation with periodontal statusand AIDS symptomatology (abstract). *J Dent Res* **75**(Spec Iss): 156.
- Schmidt-Westhausen AM, Priepke F, Bergmann FJ, Reichart PA (2000). Decline in the rate of oral opportunistic infections following introduction of highly active antiretroviral therapy. *J Oral Pathol Med* **29**: 336–341.
- Schrager LK, D'Souza MP (1998). Cellular and anatomical reservoirs of HIV-1 in patients receiving potent antiretroviral combination therapy. *JAMA* **280**: 67–71.
- Schuman P, Ohmit SE, Sobel JD et al (1998). Oral lesions among women living with or at risk for HIV infection. HIV Epidemiology Research Study (HERS) Group. Am J Med 104: 559–564.

- Scully C, Porter SR, Mutlu S, Epstein JB, Glover S, Kumar N (1999). Periodontopathic bacteria in English HIVseropositive persons. *AIDS Patient Care STDS* 13: 369– 374.
- Shangase L, Feller L, Blignaut E (2004). Necrotising ulcerative gingivitis/periodontitis as indicators of HIV-infection. *SADJ* 59: 105–108.
- Shugars DC, Alexander AL, Fu K, Freel SA (1999). Endogenous salivary inhibitors of human immunodeficiency virus. *Arch Oral Biol* **44**: 445–453.
- Shugars DC, Patton LL, Freel SA *et al* (2001). Hyperexcretion of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 RNA in saliva. *J Dent Res* **80**: 414–420.
- Spear GT, Alves ME, Cohen MH, Bremer J, Landay AL (2005). Relationship of HIV RNA and cytokines in saliva from HIV-infected individuals. *FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol* 45: 129–136.
- Tappuni AR, Fleming GJ (2001). The effect of antiretroviral therapy on the prevalence of oral manifestations in HIV-infected patients: a UK study. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod* **92:** 623–628.
- Teanpaisan R, Douglas CW, Nittayananta W (2001). Isolation and genotyping of black-pigmented anaerobes from periodontal sites of HIV-positive and non-infected subjects in Thailand. J Clin Periodontol **28**: 311–318.
- Tenenbaum H, Elkaim R, Cuisinier F, Dahan M, Zamanian P, Lang JM (1997). Prevalence of six periodontal pathogens detected by DNA probe method in HIV vs non-HIV periodontitis. *Oral Dis* **3**(Suppl.): S153–S155.
- Tsang CS, Samaranayake LP (2001). Predominant cultivable subgingival microbiota of healthy and HIV-infected ethnic Chinese. *APMIS* **109**: 117–126.
- Tukutuku K, Muyembe-Tamfum L, Kayembe K, Mavuemba T, Sangua N, Sekele I (1990). Prevalence of dental caries, gingivitis, and oral hygiene in hospitalized AIDS cases in Kinshasa, Zaire. *J Oral Pathol Med* **19**: 271–272.

- Turville SG, Cameron PU, Arthos J *et al* (2001). Bitter-sweet symphony: defining the role of dendritic cell gp120 receptors in HIV infection. *J Clin Virol* **22:** 229–239.
- UNAIDS (2008). Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS. 2008 report on the global AIDS epidemic: http://www.unaids.org/en/KnowledgeCentre/HIVData/ GlobalReport/2008/2008_Global_report.asp. Accessed August 26, 2009.
- Van Dyke TE, Serhan CN (2003). Resolution of inflammation: a new paradigm for the pathogenesis of periodontal diseases. J Dent Res 82: 82–90.
- Van Kooyk Y, Engering A, Lekkerkerker AN, Ludwig IS, Geijtenbeek TB (2004). Pathogens use carbohydrates to escape immunity induced by dendritic cells. *Curr Opin Immunol* **16**: 488–493.
- Williams SA, Greene WC (2007). Regulation of HIV-1 latency by T-cell activation. *Cytokine* **39:** 63–74.
- Winkler JR, Robertson PB (1992). Periodontal disease associated with HIV infection. Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod 73: 145–150.
- Xie H, Belogortseva NI, Wu J, Lai WH, Chen CH (2006). Inhibition of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 entry by a binding domain of Porphyromonas gingivalis gingipain. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **50:** 3070–3074.
- Yeung SC, Stewart GJ, Cooper DA, Sindhusake D (1993a). Progression of periodontal disease in HIV seropositive patients. J Periodontol 64: 651–657.
- Yeung SC, Kazazi F, Randle CG *et al* (1993b). Patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus type 1 have low levels of virus in saliva even in the presence of periodontal disease. *J Infect Dis* **167:** 803–809.
- Zambon JJ, Reynolds HS, Genco RJ (1990). Studies of the subgingival microflora in patients with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *J Periodontol* **61**: 699–704.
- Zhang L, Yu W, He T *et al* (2002). Contribution of human alpha-defensin 1, 2, and 3 to the anti-HIV-1 activity of CD8 antiviral factor. *Science* **298**: 995–1000.

Copyright of Oral Diseases is the property of Wiley-Blackwell and its content may not be copied or emailed to multiple sites or posted to a listserv without the copyright holder's express written permission. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use.