1	<u>Original Research Artic</u>		
2	PREVALENCE OF AGGREGATIBACTER		
4	ACTINOMYCETEMCOMITANS AMONG CLINICAL ORTHODONTIC		
5	SALIVA SAMPLES		
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9			
10	Abstract		
11	Objectives: The oral flora is a complex ecosystem characterized by numerous bacterial		
12	species and changes to the levels of these bacteria in health, disease, and dental treatments		
13	such as orthodontics. Although some studies have documented changes in periodontal		
14	pathogen burden during orthodontic treatment using saliva, most have focused on traditional		
15	cariogenic bacteria and some periodontal pathogens, such as Porphyromonas gingivalis or		
16	Fusobacterium nucleatum- far fewer have focused on Aggregatibacter		
17	$actino myce tem comitans-commonly\ associated\ with\ aggressive\ periodon titis.\ Therefore,\ the$		
18	main objective of this study was to evaluate the prevalence of this organism among		
19	Orthodontic and non-Orthodontic patients from a public dental school clinic.		
20			
21	Experimental Methods: Using an approved protocol, samples were taken from Orthodontic		
22	(n=39) and non-Orthodontic (n=45) age-matched patients. DNA was extracted and screened		
23	for Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans. Males and females were equally represented,		
24	although a majority of patients participating in this study were Hispanics and ethnic		
25	minorities.		
26			
27	Results: PCR analysis of the DNA isolated from these patient samples revealed that more		
28	than half (54%) of the Orthodontic samples harbored significant levels of Aggregatibacter		
29	actinomycetemcomitans, compared with only one-quarter (25%) of samples from non-		
30	Orthodontic patients. In addition, screening for Fusobacterium nucleatum revealed a slightly		
31	increased prevalence among Orthodontic patients (27%) compared with non-Orthodontic		
32	patients.		
33			

34 Conclusions: These results are significant as Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans has 35 been traditionally observed as facilitating heterotypic communities of overtly pathogenic 36 organisms, compared with other gram-negative oral microbes. These heterotypic biofilm 37 communities exhibit greatly increased capacities to resist antimicrobial drugs and other host 38 immune factors and the capacity to facilitate heterotypic associations within the biofilm may 39 be restricted to a few key species. This project successfully demonstrated evidence that non-40 invasive salivary screening of orthodontic patients may be sufficient to assess and detect 41 changes to this periodontal pathogen – thereby increasing the potential quality and efficiency 42 of Orthodontic dental treatment among this patient population 43 44 Key words: Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans, Fusobacterium nucleatum, saliva 45 screening, microbial prevalence, Orthodontic treatment 46 47 Abbreviations: Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans (AA), Fusobacterium nucleatum 48 (FN), Institutional Review Board (IRB), Office for the Protection of Human Subjects 49 (OPRS), University of Nevada, Las Vegas – School of Dental Medicine (UNLV-SDM), 50 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), 51 deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), 52 53 1. Introduction 54 The oral flora is a complex ecosystem characterized by numerous bacterial species and 55 changes to the levels of these bacteria in health, disease, and dental treatments such as 56 orthodontics [1.2]. Many studies of the oral flora are centered around consensus bacteria 57 responsible for caries and chronic periodontal disease [3-6]. Other virulent bacterial strains 58 may receive less attention because their mere presence is not strictly correlated with the 59 presence of chronic periodontal disease [7-10]. 60 61 One of these bacterial strains is Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans (AA), a commensal 62 bacterium found among the oral flora [7,11,12]. This organism is a facultative non-motile, 63 gram negative, bacillus commonly associated with aggressive periodontitis, but is also found 64 commonly in the oral flora not suffering from that severe periodontal condition [13,14]. In 65 addition to oral infections, its several serotypes have a variety of virulence factors enable to 66 evade defense mechanisms of many tissues and is capable of being found in infections of the 67 skin, GI tract, sinus and reproductive systems [15-19]. Recent evidence indicates that its

68 presence in adults is associated with risk of pre-diabetes, metabolic syndrome, and coronary 69 artery disease [20-23]. 70 71 Although some evidence has demonstrated changes to subgingival periodontal microbes such 72 as AA, little is known regarding whether orthodontic treatment will result in changes to the 73 salivary levels of this bacterial species – a non-invasive and more readily assessed measure of 74 risk [7-9,24,25]. Fixed orthodontic appliances introduces new surfaces for plaque 75 accumulation and obstacles to removing daily plaque on and between teeth while reducing 76 the efficiency of natural plaque removal mechanisms, such as salivary flow accompanied by 77 movement of the oral mucosa and tongue [26,27]. Although some studies have documented 78 the change in periodontal pathogen burden during orthodontic treatment using saliva, most 79 have focused on traditional cariogenic bacteria and some periodontal pathogens, such as 80 *Porphyromonas gingivalis* - but not *Aggregatibacter* [8,28-30]. 81 82 Based upon this paucity of evidence, the main objective of this study was to evaluate the 83 prevalence of AA among Orthodontic and non-Orthodontic patients from a public dental 84 school clinic. The main research question was to assess if there is variation in the prevalence 85 of AA between adult orthodontic and non-orthodontic patients that is detectable in salivary 86 samples taken from these patients. Successful completion of this project would provide 87 preliminary evidence that non-invasive salivary screening of orthodontic patients may assess 88 changes to this periodontal pathogen – thereby increasing the quality and efficiency of dental treatment among this patient population. 89 90 91 2. Methodology 92 2.1 Project approval 93 This project was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) and Office 94 for the Protection of Human Subjects (OPRS) at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas 95 OPRS#1502-506M titled "The Prevalence of Oral Microbes in Saliva from the University of 96 Nevada, Las Vegas – School of Dental Medicine pediatric and adult clinical population". 97 Inclusion criteria included all current patients of record at UNLV-SDM clinics. Exclusion 98 criteria included any patient who declined to participate and any subject who was not a 99 patient of record at UNLV-SDM. 100

102 2.2 Sample collection 103 In brief, all adult patients were asked to provide Informed Consent, while pediatric patients 104 were asked to provide Pediatric Assent and their parent or guardian was asked to provide 105 Parental Permission. Each sample and corresponding demographic information intake sheet 106 was assigned a randomly generated, non-duplicated identifier that was designed to protect 107 patient information. Demographic information included only basic information, such as Sex, 108 Age, and Race or Ethnicity. 109 110 2.3 DNA isolation 111 Patient saliva samples were brought to the biomedical laboratory for storage at -80C until 112 processing. In brief, patient samples were processed using the GenomicPrep DNA isolation 113 kit from Amersham Biosciences (Little Chalfont, UK). Quantification and quality of DNA 114 was assessed using spectrophotometric UV absorbance readings at 260 and 280 nm (A260, 115 A280). DNA with a ratio of A260:A280 greater than 1.65 was subsequently screened using 116 PCR and primers specific for Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans (AA). 117 118 2.4 PCR screening 119 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) screening of the isolated DNA was accomplished using 120 the exACTGene complete PCR kit from Fisher Scientific (Fair Lawn, NJ) and an Eppendorf 121 MasterCycler (Hamburg, Germany). A positive control for human DNA was used – 122 glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), an enzyme from the glycolytic 123 pathway. In addition, a positive control for bacterial DNA was also used – 16S rRNA 124 universal primer, to confirm the presence of bacterial DNA. Primers for Aggregatibacter 125 actinomycetemcomitans (AA) and Fusobacterium nucleatum (FN) were also synthesized by 126 Eurofins Genomics (Louisville, KY): 127 GAPDH forward primer, 5'-ATC TTC CAG GAG CGA GAT CC-3'; 20 nt, 55% GC, 128 129 Tm=66°C 130 GAPDH reverse primer, 5'-ACC ACT GAC ACG TTG GCA GT-3'; 20 nt, 55%GC, Tm=70°C 131 Annealing temperature: 67C 132 133 134 16S rRNA universal primer, 5'-ACG CGT CGA CAG AGT TTG ATC CTG GCT-3'; 27 nt, 135 56% GC, Tm=76°C

136 16S rRNA universal primer, 5'-GGG ACT ACC AGG GTA TCT AAT-3'; 21 nt, 48% GC, 137 Tm=62°C Annealing temperature: 63C 138 139 AA forward primer, 5'-ATT GGG GTT TAG CCC TGG T-3'; 19 nt, 53% GC, Tm=67C 140 AA reverse primer, 5'-GGC ACA AAC CCA TCT CTG A-3'; 19 nt, 53%GC, Tm=65C 141 142 Annealing temperature: 66C 143 144 FN primer (forward); 5'-CGC AGA AGG TGA AAG TCC TGT AT-3'; 23 nt, 48% GC, Tm 145 67C 146 FN primer (reverse); 5'-TGG TCC TCA CTG ATT CAC ACA GA-3'; 23 nt, 48% GC, Tm 147 148 Annealing temperature: 68C 149 150 2.5 Statistical analysis 151 Using the approved sampling protocol, saliva samples were obtained from Orthodontic and 152 non-Orthodontic patients. Simple descriptive statistics of the study sample and the clinic 153 population were provided and Chi Square analysis was used to determine any differences 154 among the demographic groups (Sex, Age, Race or Ethnicity). Following PCR screening, 155 differences between demographics of positive and negative samples also were assessed using 156 Chi Square analysis 157 158 159 3. Results 160 A total of thirty nine (n=39) Orthodontic samples and forty five (n=45) non-Orthodontic 161 samples were collected from clinic patients, yielding a total study sample size of eighty four 162 (n=84) (Table 1). Analysis of these demographics revealed that the percentages of females in 163 the study samples (both Orthodontic and non-Orthodontic) was slightly greater than males 164 (56.4%, 57.8%, respectively). This was similar to the demographic distribution of females in 165 the Orthodontic clinic at 60.4%, and not statistically significant (p=0.4142). 166 167 An evaluation of self-reported Race/Ethnicity revealed approximately one-fourth of the study 168 sample (both Orthodontic and non-Orthodontic) identified as White or Caucasian, which was 169 similar to the overall percentage from the Orthodontic clinic, p=0.6532. The greatest

proportion of non-White or minority patients were Hispanic in both the study samples (51.3%, 51.1%) and the Orthodontic clinic (52.3%), which was also not significantly different, p=0.6532. Finally, the proportion of patients under 18 years of age was approximately half in both the study samples (51.2%, 51.1%), which was similar to the overall percentage in the Orthodontic clinic (56.7%), p=0.2255.

Table 1. Demographic analysis of study participants

	Orthodontic	Non-	Orthodontic	Statistical
	sample (n=39)	Orthodontic	Clinic population	analysis
		sample (n=45)	(n=1,463)	
Sex				
Female	56.4 % (n=22)	57.8% (n=26)	60.4% (n=884)	χ2=0.667
Male	43.6% (n=17)	42.2% (n=19)	39.6% (n=579)	d.f.=1
				p=0.4142
Race/Ethnicity				
White	25.6% (n=10)	24.4% (n=11)	24.7% (n=361)	χ2=1.627
Hispanic	51.3% (n=20)	51.1% (n=23)	52.3% (n=765)	d.f.=3
Black	15.4% (n=6)	13.3% (n=6)	11.8% (n=172)	p=0.6532
Asian	7.7% (n=3)	11.1% (n=5)	7.9% (n=117)	
Other			3.3% (n=10)	
Age				
Under <18 yrs.	51.2% (n=20)	51.1% (n=23)	56.7% (n=830)	χ2=1.469
Over > 18 yrs.	48.7% (n=19)	48.9% (n=23)	43.3% (n=633)	d.f.=1
				p=0.2255

Each saliva sample was processed to isolate DNA, both bacterial and human (Table 2). In total, DNA was successfully isolated from n=81/84 samples (96.4%), which is well within the expected recovery range (95-100%). The average concentration of DNA from the Orthodontic samples was 699.1 ng/uL that ranged between 550 – 885 ng/uL, which is lower

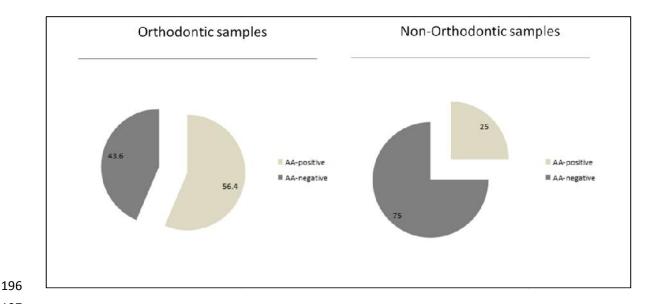
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but comparable to the average of the non-Orthodontic samples of 804.7 ng/uL that ranged between 571 - 980 ng/uL, p < 0.01.

Table 2. DNA isolation and analysis

	DNA analysis	Statistical analysis
Orthodontic samples (n=39)		
DNA concentration	ave.= 699.1 ng/uL	Students t-test
DNA concentration	range=550-885 ng/uL	(two-tailed)
		<i>p</i> <0.01
Non-Orthodontic samples (n=45)		
DNA concentration	ave.= 804.7 ng/uL	
DNA concentration	range=571-980 ng/uL	

The DNA from each sample was then screened using PCR for the presence of *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* or AA (Figure 1). These results revealed that more than half of the Orthodontic samples (56.4%) had significant and detectable levels of AA, compared with only 25% of the non-Orthodontic samples. Correspondingly, less than half of age-matched Orthodontic samples tested negative for AA, while three-quarters (75%) of the non-Orthodontic samples were found to have no AA above the threshold limit of detection.



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Figure 1. PCR screening of DNA isolates. PCR screening revealed 56.4% of Orthodontic samples harbored significant levels of Aggregatibacter actinocetemcomitans (AA), compared with only 25% of non-Orthodontic samples. This was statistically significant, p < 0.05.

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To determine if this phenomenon was restricted to AA, another gram-negative organism was selected for screening – Fusobacterium nucleatum or FN (Figure 2). PCR screening of the DNA isolated from the Orthodontic and non-Orthodontic samples revealed significant levels of FN (above the limit of detection) in one fourth (27.7%) of the Orthodontic saliva samples and only one-fifth (19%) of non-Orthodontic samples tested, which was also statistically significant, *p*<0.05.

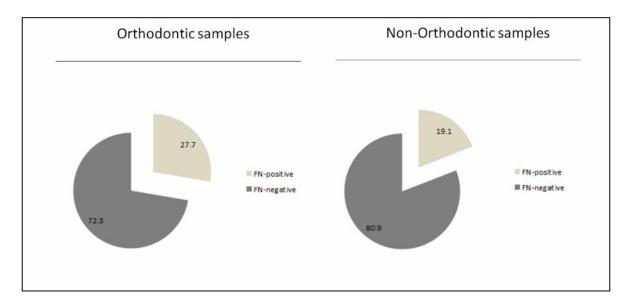


Figure 2. PCR screening of DNA isolates. PCR screening revealed 27.7% of Orthodontic samples harbored significant levels of *Fusobacterium nucleatum* (FN), compared with only 19.1% of non-Orthodontic samples. This was statistically significant, *p*<0.05.

4. Discussion

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the prevalence of *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* or AA among Orthodontic and non-Orthodontic patients from a public dental school clinic. The results of this study demonstrate that AA is detectable in saliva samples from these patients. Moreover, the main finding was that more than half of the Orthodontic subjects harbored significant levels of AA in unstimulated saliva, compared with only one-fourth of the non-Orthodontic subjects. These results are significant as AA is mainly associated with localized aggressive periodontitis and chronic periodontitis [31,32].

These results are significant as AA has been traditionally observed as facilitating heterotypic communities of overtly pathogenic organisms, compared with other gram-negative oral microbes [33,34]. In fact, biofilm communities exhibit greatly increased capacities to resist antimicrobial drugs and other host immune factors [35,36]. The capacity to facilitate heterotypic associations within the biofilm may be restricted to a few key species, including AA [37,38].

233 For comparison, another gram-negative, periodontal pathogen was assessed in this study – 234 Fusobacterium nucleatum or FN [39]. Although the results of this study demonstrated a 235 difference between the prevalence of FN among Orthodontic samples (27%) compared with 236 non-Orthodontic samples (19%), these differences were less dramatic and are more likely a 237 secondary result due to the primary influx of AA among the Orthodontic patients [7,24]. 238 Although these results are significant and may provide some useful biometric indicators for 239 non-invasive biofilm community assessment among Orthodontic patients, there are some 240 limitations associated with this type of study. 241 242 First, only non-invasively collected saliva was available for this study, which may limit the 243 conclusions that can be made from these analyses. No corresponding direct biofilm 244 collection was possible, therefore only inferential analyses can be made from these results. 245 Second, and more importantly, this was a cross-sectional study that collected saliva from 246 Orthodontic and non-Orthodontic patients at a single time point, which means no temporal 247 information can be evaluated regarding the change in microbial prevalence over time. 248 249 5. Conclusions 250 Despite these limitations, this project successfully demonstrated preliminary evidence that 251 non-invasive salivary screening of orthodontic patients may be sufficient to assess and detect 252 changes to periodontal pathogens, such as AA and FN – thereby increasing the potential 253 quality and efficiency of Orthodontic dental treatment among this patient population. 254 255 References 256 1. Gao L, Xu T, Huang G, Jiang S, Gu Y, Chen F. Oral microbiomes: more and more 257 importance in oral cavity and whole body. Protein Cell. 2018 May 7. doi: 10.1007/s13238-258 018-0548-1. [Epub ahead of print] Review. PMID: 29736705 259 260 2. Zhang Y, Wang X, Li H, Ni C, Du Z, Yan F. Human oral microbiota and its modulation 261 for oral health. Biomed Pharmacother. 2018 Mar;99:883-893. doi: 262 10.1016/j.biopha.2018.01.146. Epub 2018 Feb 20. Review. PMID: 29710488 263 264 3. Sudhakara P, Gupta A, Bhardwaj A, Wilson A. Oral Dysbiotic Communities and Their

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