

OPEN ACCESS

Citation: Bourgeois D, David A, Inquimbert C, Tramini P, Molinari N, Carrouel F (2017) Quantification of carious pathogens in the interdental microbiota of young caries-free adults. PLoS ONE 12(10): e0185804. <u>https://doi.org/</u> 10.1371/journal.pone.0185804

Editor: Daniela Flavia Hozbor, Universidad Nacional de la Plata, ARGENTINA

Received: July 2, 2017

Accepted: September 19, 2017

Published: October 10, 2017

Copyright: © 2017 Bourgeois et al. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Data Availability Statement: All relevant data are within the paper and its Supporting Information files.

Funding: The authors received no specific funding for this work.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Quantification of carious pathogens in the interdental microbiota of young caries-free adults

Denis Bourgeois^{1,2*, Alexandra David¹, Camille Inquimbert¹, Paul Tramini³, Nicolas Molinari⁴, Florence Carrouel^{1,5}}

1 Laboratory "Systemic Health Care" EA4129, University Lyon 1, Lyon, France, 2 Department of Prevention and Public Health, Faculty of Dentistry, University Lyon 1, Lyon, France, 3 Department of Dental Public Health, University of Montpellier, Montpellier, France, 4 Service DIM, CHU de Montpellier, UMR 5149 IMAG, University of Montpellier, Montpellier, France, 5 Department Basic and Clinical Biological Sciences, Faculty of Dentistry, University Lyon 1, Lyon, France

So These authors contributed equally to this work.

* denis.bourgeois@univ-lyon1.fr

Abstract

Background

The majority of caries lesions in adults occur on the proximal tooth surfaces of the posterior teeth. A comprehensive study of the composition of the oral microbiota is fundamental for a better understanding of the etiology of interdental caries.

Methods

Twenty-five caries-free subjects (20–35 years old) were enrolled in the study. The interdental biofilm of four interdental sites were collected. The real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) methodology were used to quantify (i) the following bacteria: *Streptococcus spp.*, *Streptococcus mutans*, *Lactobacillus spp.*, *Enterococcus spp.*, and *Enterococcus faecalis;* (ii) the fungus *Candida albicans;* and (iii) *total bacteria*.

Results

Streptococcus spp. was the most abundant species, followed by *Lactobacillus* spp. and *Enterococcus* spp. *Streptococcus* spp. and *Lactobacillus* spp. were detected at all tested sites and *Enterococcus* spp. at 99% of sites. *S. mutans* was detected at only 28% of the tested sites and *C. albicans* was detected at 11% of sites. *E. faecalis* was never detected. In 54.5% of the biofilm inhabited by *C. albicans*, *S. mutans* was present. Moreover, 28% of the ID sites co-expressed *S. mutans* and *Lactobacillus* spp. The studied pathogens were organized into two correlated groups of species. Strikingly, the fungus *C. albicans* and the bacteria *Enterococcus* spp. cluster together, whereas *Streptococcus* spp., *S. mutans* and *Lactobacillus* spp. form one distinct cluster.

Conclusion

The interdental biofilm of young caries-free adults is comprised of pathogens that are able to induce interproximal caries. That several of these pathogens are implicated in heart disease or other systemic diseases is an argument for the disruption of interdental biofilms using daily oral hygiene.

Introduction

The 2010 Global Burden of Disease Study found that oral conditions affected 3.9 billion people worldwide and that the estimation of untreated caries of permanent teeth was 2.4 billion [1, 2]. Dental caries is a multifactorial, chronic bacterial disease that may result in cavity formation in the enamel, dentine and cementum [3].

The incidence of untreated caries predominates below the age of 35 and decreases with increasing age, although it remains a significant problem in the upper age categories [4]. The majority of caries lesions in adolescents and adults occur on the proximal tooth surfaces of the posterior teeth [5, 6, 7].

Many distinct habitats may be identified on individual teeth, with each habitat containing a unique biofilm community [8]. Tooth habitats favorable for harboring pathogenic biofilm include the smooth enamel surfaces immediately gingival to the proximal contacts and in the gingival third of the facial and lingual surfaces of the clinical crown [9]. These areas are protected physically and are relatively free from the effects of mastication, tongue movement, and salivary flow [9]. Local gingival changes in this area will lead to a protected surface for biofilm accumulation [10]. The relationship between gingivitis and caries on the proximal surface is narrow [11].

More importantly, the microbial structure varies with ageing. In addition, only a few taxa are present across the entire population, indicating that a core oral microbiome should be defined based on age and oral niche [12]. The types and numbers of organisms composing the proximal surface biofilm community vary [13]. The mesial surface of a molar may be carious and have a biofilm dominated by large populations of *Streptococcus mutans* and lactobacilli, whereas the distal surface may lack these organisms and be caries-free [13]. The intra- and inter-individual progression of proximal caries fluctuates, indicating different cariogenic conditions [14].

The literature on interdental (ID) supragingival microbial profiles applied to caries lesions is extremely limited. Currently, no studies have addressed the ID biofilm of caries-free adults. It remains unclear which microorganisms positively or negatively impact patients with regards to clinical considerations [15, 16].

The goal of this study is to describe the interproximal microbiota in caries-free young adults. Thus, a quantitative detection method using real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was employed to quantify 6 major cariogenic pathogens, including (i) the bacteria: *Streptococcus* spp. (Sspp), *Streptococcus mutans* (S. *mutans*, Sm), *Lactobacillus* spp. (Lspp), *Enterococcus* spp. (Espp), and *Enterococcus faecalis* (*E. faecalis*, *Ef*); and (ii) the fungus *Candida albicans* (*C. albicans*, *Ca*).

The results of this research can be used to considerably improve the dental condition of adolescents and young adults. Standard dental therapy does not yet include any microbiological based approach into its armamentarium. The results can be used to make decisions with respect to molecular analyses for new policies covering the provision of services instituting new procedures (e.g., micro-invasive treatment of proximal caries lesions), practices and interventions (e.g., non-invasive professional treatment) or to provide advice for prevention (e.g., an interdental brush (IDB)) related to dental health care delivery.

Materials and methods

The workflow of this research is detailed in Fig 1.

Subject population

Twenty-five Caucasian subjects diagnosed as caries-free were recruited between January and April 2015 from a pool of first-time volunteers who were referred to the Department of Public Health of the Faculty of Oral Medicine at the University of Lyon (UCBL), France. Written informed consent was obtained from all enrolled individuals in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. The study protocol was reviewed and approved by the Local Ethics Committee and by the National Commission of Informatics and Liberties, France.

The inclusion criteria were (i) 20–35 years old (male or female), (ii) good general health, not pregnant or breastfeeding and on contraceptive therapy, (iii) good oral hygiene, (iv) good diet (Healthy Eating Index score greater than 80), (iv) no health conditions that required antibiotic prophylaxis before interproximal probing, (v) no oral diseases (such as dental caries, periodontal disease, periapical disease, oral mucosal disease, or severe halitosis), (vi) tooth brushing at least twice per day, (vii) no experience with interdental cleaning—interdental brushing or dental flossing, (viii) no intake of systemic antimicrobials during the previous 6 months, (ix) no use of chlorhexidine or over-the-counter mouthwash, (x) no implants or orthodontic appliances, (xi) no previous periodontal illness or treatment, (xii) the presence of at least 24 natural teeth, (xiii) the presence of 4 premolar-molar pairs, (xiv) non-smokers, and (xv) a willingness to return 3 weeks after the clinical investigation for microbiological tests.

The clinical inclusion criteria for each premolar-molar interdental site were (i) accessibility of the interdental space for the 4 sites (15–16, 25–26, 35–36, and 45–46, according to the FDI's two-digit notation system [17]) by the interdental brush in each subject, (ii) no interproximal caries or dental or prosthetic restorations, (iii) no interdental diastema, (iv) no clinical signs of inflammation, such as redness, swelling, or bleeding on probing (BOP) after 30 s, (v) no pocket depth (PD) or PD \leq 3 mm or clinical attachment loss (CAL) > 3 mm, and (iv) the subjects were judged to be free of gingivitis or periodontitis.

The exclusion criteria were (i) teeth missing due to periodontal reasons, (ii) having any other concomitant systemic disorder, (iii) having diseases affecting the immune system, (iv) receiving medication, such as anti-platelet or anti-coagulant agents, (v) having a professional prophylaxis 4 weeks prior to the baseline examination, (vi) having a history of periodontal disease or treatment, and (vii) subjects undergoing a course of dental or orthodontic treatment.



Fig 1. Workflow of the experiment.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185804.g001

Classification of subjects as caries-free

The dental health status of individuals was determined by measuring the Decayed, Missing, and Filling Teeth (DMFT) index. This index is recognized in epidemiology for assessing dental caries prevalence and indicates the necessary treatments. Moreover, the DMFT index was recorded to measure the severity of each subject's dental caries according to the criteria from the World Health Organization 4th-edition publication of "Oral Health Surveys, Basic Method" [18].

Clinical examination

Standardized clinical monitoring was performed three weeks before microbiological monitoring. The subjects were submitted to a medical/dental anamnesis, and information regarding subject age, gender and smoking status was obtained. A trained and calibrated professional dentist performed the clinical examination. Clinical assessments of the interdental spaces were performed using an IAP Curaprox colorimetric probe (Curaden, Kriens, Switzerland), and the diameters of all the interdental spaces of 4 teeth were registered (premolar-molar). At the end of the examination visit, the participants were instructed to brush their teeth 3 hours before the sampling visit and not to drink, eat or practice oral hygiene during this period.

Interdental sample collection

For all subjects, the same four interdental sites (15–16, 25–26, 35–36, and 45–46) were assessed (total of 100 sites). The appropriate CPS prime interdental brushes (Curaden, Kriens, Switzerland) were selected based on the clinical assessment of the interdental spaces [19]. Each previously selected tooth was isolated with sterile cotton rolls and the interdental biofilm was removed with a sterile, calibrated interdental brush. For each sample, the IDBs were placed in 1.5 mL sterile microcentrifuge tubes and stored at 4°C until the DNA was extracted one hour later.

Microbiological analysis

Total deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) extraction. Total DNA was isolated from the interdental brushes using the QIAcube[®] HT Plasticware and Cador[®] Pathogen 96 QIAcube[®] HT Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's guidelines. The elution volume used in this study was 150 μ L. DNA quality and quantities were measured using an ultraviolet spectrophotometer. The DNA sample was considered pure if the A260/A280 ratio was in the range of 1.8–2 and the A260/A230 ratio was in the range of 2–2.2.

Quantitative real-time PCR assays. To quantify the total bacterial load (TB) and that of 6 pathogens (*Streptococcus* spp., *S. mutans*, *Lactobacillus* spp., *Enterococcus* spp., *E. faecalis*, and *C. albicans*) present in the biofilm interdental samples, qPCR was undertaken using universal primers for the 16S rRNA genes and species-specific primer sets. Each sample was analyzed in triplicate.

The *Ca* strain (DSM No. 6659), *Espp* strain (*Enterococcus faecalis DSM No. 24916*), *Ef* strain (*DSM No. 24916*), *Lspp* strain (*Lactobacillus casei CIP No. 102237*), *S. mutans* strain (*DSM No. 20523*), and *Sspp* strain (*S. mitis* DSM No. 12643) were obtained from DSMZ (Germany), the CIP Collection of the Institut Pasteur or from the BCMM/LMG Bacteria Collection and provided by Institut Clinident SAS (Aix en Provence, France).

The pathogenic strains were cultivated on the appropriate selective media. The total number of cells (number of colony forming units) was enumerated three times using a Neubauer chamber. Serial dilutions ranging from 10xE+2 to 10xE+12 cells were utilized, and each of these dilutions was enumerated in duplicate. The DNA from each of these dilutions was extracted. A standard curve for each pathogen was generated as a plot between the crossing point (cycle number) and the initial cell count. The TB standard curve was made from *Escherichia coli* as described by Ott and colleagues [20]. The limit of quantification (LOQ) of the method for each pathogen is summarized in Table 1.

Simplex quantitative real-time PCR assays were performed in a 10 μ L reaction composed of 1× SYBR[®] Premix Ex TaqTM Tli RNaseH Plus (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan), 2 μ L of the extracted DNA and 1 μ M of each primer. The bacterial primers used are derived from previously published ribosomal 16S sequences and have been adapted to the real-time PCR conditions (Table 1). *Candida albicans* primers used in this study are derived from ribosomal 18S sequence. These PCR primers were manufactured by Metabion International AG (Planegg, Germany). For each pathogen, a positive and a negative control with sterile distilled water were included throughout the procedures.

The assays were performed on the Rotor-Gene[®] Q thermal cycling system (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with the following program: 95°C for 30 s, followed by 40 cycles of 10 s at 95°C, 10 s at the appropriate annealing temperature (<u>Table 1</u>), and 35 s at 72°C. For the total bacterial load and that of all species, a final melting curve analysis (70°C to 95°C in 1°C steps at 5 s increments) was performed. Fluorescence signals were measured every cycle at the end of the extension step and continuously during the melting curve analysis. The resulting data were analyzed using Rotor-Gene[®] Q Series software (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany).

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis consisted of three main steps: producing descriptive summaries of the data, modeling the data using a mixed (linear) model and assessing the correlations between bacterial abundances. Prior to these steps, we transformed the original count data to handle missing data points; that is, the measurements that fell under the quantification threshold (limit of quantification, LOQ) of the quantitative real-time PCR device. The missing values for a given species were replaced by half of the corresponding quantification thresholds given in Table 1. We performed simulations to ensure that this simple strategy provided a reasonable estimation of the mean and standard deviation of the original count distribution. To test for potential effects of sex, age, interdental space and the location of each site, we used a mixed

Table 1. Species-specific and ubiquitous real-time PCR primers for 6 pathogens, the annealing temperature, and the limit of quant	tification.
rabie in openie and abiquitede real anter en primere ier e partegene, ne annealing temperature, and and abiquited real	mounom

Target	Primer pairs (5'-3')	References	Annealing temp (°C)	LOQ (E+02)			
ТВ	CCATGAAGTCGGAATCGCTAGT GCTTGACGGGCGTGTG	[21]	66	200			
Ca	ACTTCTGTAAGAGTGCTGGTTC TGTCGTAATCAAACTCGGTAGC	[22]	54	4			
Espp	TACTGACAAACCATTCATGATG AACTTCGTCACCAACGCGAAC	[23]	55	5			
Ef	CCGAGTGCTTGCACTCAATTGG CTCTTATGCCATGCGGCATAAAC	[24]	54	5			
Lspp	Lspp TGGAAACAGRTGCTAATACCG GTCCATTGTGGAAGATTCCC		62	10			
S. mutans	GCCTACAGCTCAGAGATGCTATTCT GCCATACACCACTCATGAATTGA	[26]	66	8			
Streptococcus spp.	AGAGTTTGATCCTGGCTCAG GTACCGTCACAGTATGAACTTTCC	[23]	66	10			

LOQ: Limit of quantification; TB: Total bacterial count.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185804.t001

linear model for the count abundance of each species at a measured site. This model includes two categorical variables as fixed effects (sex and mouth location), two numerical variables as fixed effects (age and interdental space) and one categorical variable as a random effect (subject). This random effect was introduced for a subject to model the correlation between the four sites of a given subject. Each coefficient in the regression was tested against the null hypothesis, which indicated that the coefficient is zero using a likelihood ratio test, and we reported that p-values less than 0.05 were evidence against the null hypothesis. To perform the correlation analysis, we used the residuals of the model described above to avoid over-estimating the inter-site correlation (sites from the same patient are positively correlated, and we observed that fixed effects can also induce a correlation among sites). The trees associated to the correlation plot were obtained by hierarchical clustering with complete linkage.

All statistical analyses and associated plots were performed using the R environment (R Core Team, 2015), specifically the lme4 package [27], to estimate the mixed model.

Results

Age, sex, and clinical characteristics of the study group

The sample group was composed of 15 males and 10 females 20 to 35 years of age with a mean body mass index of 22.7 (Table 2). Clinically, less than 10% of sites presented BOP after 30 s and/or overt gingival redness. No PD or PD \leq 3 mm or CAL > 3 mm were observed. The subjects were characterized by a DMFT index of zero. The mean number of teeth was 28.9 ± 1.2. Missing teeth were due to absence of the third molars (97%) and orthodontic extractions (3%). A total of 60% of interdental spaces had a diameter less than 0.7 mm.

Individual pathogen count

The count for the total of bacteria by subject is presented in Fig 2A and S1 Table. The proportion of the 6-evaluated species in the samples is described in Fig 2B and the frequency in Table 3. Variations between the subjects and the sites in the carriage of certain bacteria were observed. Subject 21 had high levels of *C. albicans*, whereas certain other subjects carried *S*.

 Table 2. Age, sex, and characteristics of the full mouth of the study group.
 The values are the mean ± standard deviation, and the numbers of subjects are indicated.

Subjects	
Age (years)	26.8 ± 4.6
Sex	
Male	15
Female	15 10
Body mass index	15 22.7 ± 1.8
Mouth	
Teeth	28.9 ± 1.2
Interdental space diameter (%)	
0.6 mm	5
0.7 mm	55
0.8 mm	25
0.9 mm	8
1.1 mm	7
Bleeding on probing (%)	0.16 ± 0.08
Plaque index	0.24 ± 0.52

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185804.t002

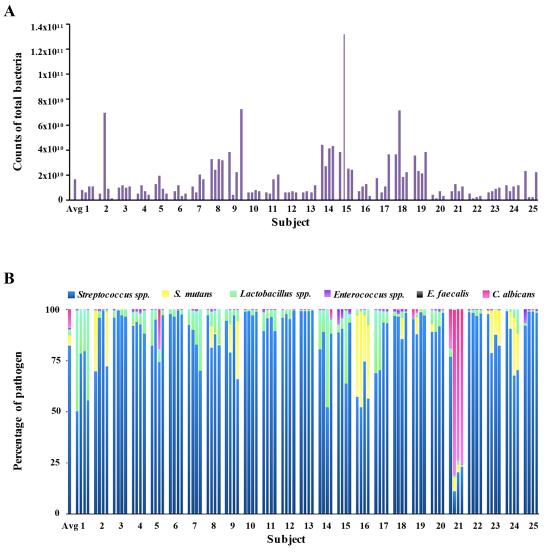


Fig 2. Abundance of pathogens among the subjects. A. Counts of total bacteria among the subjects. The first bar displays the average proportion of total bacteria in the population. The other bars display the average proportion of each pathogen in one site. Each subject corresponds to a group of four stacked bars (one for each measured site). B. Relative abundance of pathogens among the subjects. Percentage of pathogen = Counts of the pathogen / Counts of the 6 pathogens. The first bar displays the average proportion of each pathogen in the population. The other bars display the average proportion of each pathogen in the population. The other bars (one for each measured site). B. Relative abundance of pathogens among the subjects. Percentage of pathogen = Counts of the pathogen / Counts of the 6 pathogens. The first bar displays the average proportion of each pathogen in the population. The other bars display the average proportion of each pathogen in one site. Each subject corresponds to a group of four stacked bars (one for each measured site). Avg: Average.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185804.g002

mutans, including subjects 2, 8, 9, 16, 23 and 24. *Streptococcus* spp. and *Lactobacillus* spp. were detected (number of bacteria > LOQ) at all tested sites and *Enterococcus* spp. at 99% of sites while *S. mutans* was detected at only 28% of the tested sites. *E. faecalis* was never detected. In 11% of sites, *C. albicans* was detected. Among them, at 3 sites, *C. albicans* represented more than 80% of the bacteria tested, whereas *Streptococcus* spp. was only between 11% and 22% (Fig 2B). In 54.5% of interdental biofilms (6 from the 11 ID sites expressing *C. albicans*) inhabited by *C. albicans*, *S. mutans* was present. Moreover, 28% of the ID sites co-expressed *S. mutans* and *Lactobacillus* spp. Among them, 71.5% revealed a higher quantity of *S. mutans* than *Lactobacillus* spp.



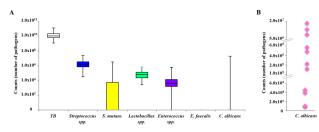
Table 3. Distribution of the pathogens according to sites and subjects. "Positive sites" correspond to the number of sites expressing one pathogenic species or the total bacteria (TB). "Positive subjects" indicates the number of subjects expressing one pathogenic species or the total bacteria. n: total number of sites or subjects tested; Sspp: Streptococcus spp.; Sm: Streptococcus mutans; Lspp: Lactobacillus spp.; Espp: Enterococcus spp.; Ef. Enterococcus faeca-lis; Ca: Candida albicans.

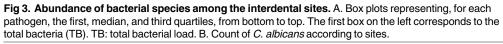
Variable		n	<i>S</i> spp	Sm	<i>L</i> spp	<i>E</i> spp	Ef	Ca
All	Positive sites	100	100	28	100	99	0	11
	Positive subjects	25	25	11	25	25	0	7
Age (years)								
20–25	Positive sites	44	44	10	44	43	0	1
	Positive subjects	11	11	3	11	11	0	1
25–30	Positive sites	24	24	7	24	24	0	3
	Positive subjects	6	6	3	6	6	0	3
30–35	Positive sites	32	32	11	32	32	0	7
	Positive subjects	8	8	5	8	8	0	3
ex								
Male	Positive sites	60	60	11	60	59	0	6
	Positive subjects	15	15	4	15	15	0	3
Female	Positive sites	40	40	17	40	40	0	5
	Positive subjects	10	10	7	10	10	0	4
rcade								
Upper	Positive sites	50	50	13	50	50	0	7
	Positive subjects	25	25	11	25	25	0	5
Lower	Positive sites	50	50	15	50	49	0	4
	Positive subjects	25	25	13	25	25	0	4
OB size								
0.6 mm	Positive sites	5	5	1	5	5	0	0
	Positive subjects	3	3	1	3	3	0	0
0.7 mm	Positive sites	55	55	11	55	54	0	7
	Positive subjects	20	20	6	20	20	0	6
0.8 mm	Positive sites	25	25	9	25	25	0	1
	Positive subjects	17	17	7	17	17	0	1
0.9 mm	Positive sites	8	8	3	8	8	0	2
	Positive subjects	5	5	2	5	5	0	1
1.1 mm	Positive sites	7	7	4	7	7	0	1
	Positive subjects	4	4	4	4	4	0	1

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0185804.t003

Total genome count and pathogen count

Fig 3A illustrates the abundance of the 6 evaluated pathogens in the collected samples. One interdental space (ID space) carried on average approximately 1xE10 bacteria. The pathogens tested presented various levels of expression. *Streptococcus* spp. was the most abundant species (3.2xE06 bacteria in one ID space), followed by *Lactobacillus* spp. (1.1xE05 bacteria in one ID space) and *Enterococcus* spp. (2.2xE04 bacteria in one ID space). *S. mutans* represented an average of 2.0xE05 bacteria in one ID space for all sites regardless of detection (Table 3). However, only in 11 of the 25 subjects tested was *S. mutans* detected (Table 3) with levels ranging from 3.4xE03 to 3.4xE06 bacteria in one ID space. *E. faecalis* was not detected. *C. albicans* was detected only in 11 sites (Table 3) with amounts varying from 9xE03 to 1.8xE07 bacteria in one ID space (Fig 3B).





Impact of age and sex on the genome count

The comparison of the mean value of each pathogen according to sex and age is shown in Fig 4 and in Table 4. There was a strong increase for *C. albicans* (more than 200 times), for *Enterococcus* spp. (5.8 times) and a significant decrease for *S. mutans* (3.5 times) between the subjects aged from 20 to 25 years and those aged 30 to 35 years (p<0.05, T-test). The other pathogens tested did not appear to be affected by age. No significant differences were observed by sex.

Impact of arcade location and interdental space diameter

The comparison of the mean value of each pathogen according to arcade location and the interdental space diameter is shown in Fig 5 and in Table 4. The TB and the quantity of pathogens were not significantly affected according to arcade location. The genome counts of *Streptococcus* spp., *S. mutans, Lactobacillus* spp., and *Enterococcus* spp. increased with the diameter of the interdental space except for the diameter of 0.9 mm, where the quantity was lower than for the diameter of 0.8 mm. In parallel, the number of the fungi *C. albicans* increased significantly for diameters ranging from 0.6 to 0.9 mm and decreased for the diameter of 1.1 mm.

Pathogen correlations

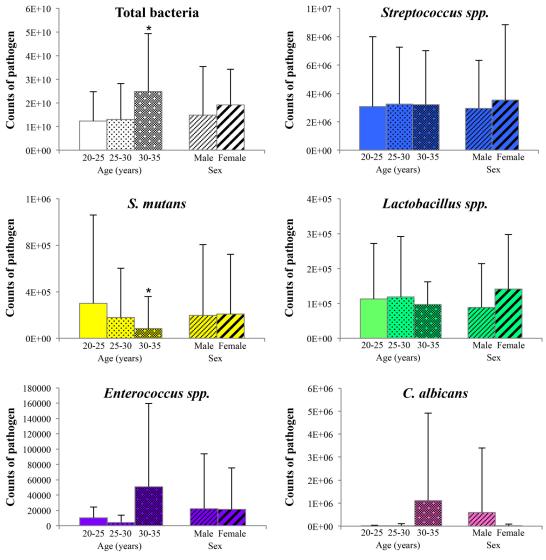
The dendrogram (Fig 6) underscores the correlations between our 5-pathogenic species and the 100 measured ID sites. Even after the removal of the fixed effects related to interdental space and age, and the subtraction of the inter-site correlations, the matrix still reveals a strong correlation structure, which appears as two groups (or clusters) of correlated species. The fungus *C. albicans* and the bacteria *Enterococcus* spp. cluster together, whereas *Streptococcus* spp., *S. mutans* and *Lactobacillus* spp. form one distinct cluster.

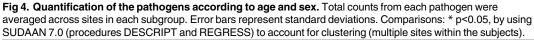
Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report regarding the absolute quantification of cariogenic pathogens detected in interdental biofilms from caries-free young adults. An understanding of the process associated with the initiation and progression of interproximal cariogenic diseases could be of great help in establishing effective ways to prevent this disease. In terms of oral health, the interdental space represents a very specific location. Anatomically, it is hardly accessible to brushing. Physiologically, many bacterial species are present, including virulent ones [28]. It is not only the location where periodontal diseases such as gingivitis and periodontitis are initiated but also the location of the initiation of interproximal caries.

Oral streptococci are major constituents of dental plaque [29]. They initiate the colonization process and represent more than 80% of the early biofilm constituents [30]. Their high







abundance and their high prevalence (100% of ID biofilms tested were positive) suggest that they can act as a factor in the formation of oral biofilm [31].

The gender, the age and the arcade location do not impact the colonization of the ID biofilm by *Streptococcus* spp. The genus *Streptococcus* contains several species, including in particular but not exclusively *Streptococcus mutans*, *Streptococcus oralis*, *Streptococcus sanguinis*, *Streptococcus mitis*, *Streptococcus gordonii*, and *Streptococcus sobrinus*. During the carious process, these different species may play various roles [32].

Although not considered an early colonizer, the best-studied oral streptococci is the opportunistic pathogen *S. mutans* [33, 34]. Its prevalence in human caries cases ranges from 70 to 100% [33]. *S. mutans* has been linked to crown caries in children and adolescents [35, 36] and to root caries in elderly patients [37]. *S. mutans* was found extensively in caries-active subjects [35, 36, 38]. Its role in caries development is well established [39]. Its metabolic activity but not

Table 4. Average abundance of the 6 pathogens in various subgroups. The column labelled "TB" indicates the mean abundance of the total bacteria, whereas the other columns indicate the mean abundance of each pathogen species. Data are expressed as the mean ± standard deviation. n: number of sites; TB: total bacterial load.

Variable	n	ТВ	Sspp	Sm	<i>L</i> spp	<i>E</i> spp	Ef	Ca
All	100	1.7xE10 ± 1.9xE10	3.2xE06 ± 4.2xE06	2.0xE05 ± 5.7xE05	1.1xE05 ± 1.4xE05	2.2xE4 ± 6.5xE04	0.0	3.6xE05 ± 2.2xE06
Age (years)								
20–25	44	1.1xE10 ± 1.1xE10	3.1xE06 ± 4.9xE06	3.0xE05 ± 7.6xE05	1.0xE05 ± 1.5xE05	1.0xE04 ± 1.4xE04	0.0	5.2xE03 ± 3.5xE04
25–30	24	1.5xE10 ± 1.7xE10	3.3xE06 ± 4.0xE06	1.8xE05 ±4.2xE05	1.4xE05 ± 1.9xE05	4.2xE03 ± 9.1xE03	0.0	2.2xE04 ± 9.1xE04
30–35	32	2.5xE10 ± 2.4xE10	3.2xE06 ± 3.8xE06	8.4xE04 ± 2.8xE05	9.7xE04 ± 6.5xE04	5.8xE04 ± 1.1xE05	0.0	1.1xE06 ± 3.8xE06
Sex								
Male	60	1.5xE10 ± 2.1xE10	2.9xE06 ± 3.5xE06	2.0xE05 ± 6.1xE05	8.9xE04 ± 1.3xE05	2.2xE04 ± 7.2xE04	0.0	5.9xE05 ± 2.8xE06
Female	40	1.9xE10 ± 1.5xE10	3.5xE06 ± 5.3xE06	2.1xE05 ± 5.1xE05	1.4xE05 ± 1.5xE05	2.1xE04 ± 5.4xE05	0.0	1.7xE04 ± 7.8xE04
Arcade								
Upper	50	1.8xE10 ± 2.3xE10	3.5xE06 ± 5.1xE06	1.9xE05 ± 5.0xE05	1.0xE05 ± 1.1xE05	3.3xE04 ± 8.9xE04	0.0	3.8xE05 ± 2.6xE06
Lower	50	1.5xE10 ± 1.4xE10	2.8xE06 ± 3.2xE06	2.2xE05 ± 6.4xE05	1.2xE05 ± 1.6xE05	1.1xE04 ± 1.7xE04	0.0	3.5xE05 ± 1.8xE06
IDB size								
0.6 mm	5	9.8xE09 ± 6.4xE09	1.2xE06 ± 1.1xE06	2.1xE04 ± 4.6xE04	8.9xE04 ± 3.0xE04	3.0xE03 ± 1.7xE03	0.0	0.0
0.7 mm	55	1.3xE10 ± 1.1xE10	2.1xE06 ± 2.6xE06	1.1xE05 ± 3.7xE05	9.4xE04 ± 1.3xE05	7.9xE03 ± 1.4xE04	0.0	2.5xE04 ± 1.0xE05
0.8 mm	25	1.9xE10 ± 1.9xE10	4.3xE06 ± 4.2xE06	3.3xE05 ± 8.3xE05	1.1xE05 ± 1.6xE05	3.8xE04 ± 1.1xE05	0.0	4.6xE05 ± 2.3xE06
0.9 mm	8	3.3xE10 ± 4.2xE10	2.3xE06 ± 1.6xE06	2.2xE05 ± 5.3xE05	1.1xE05 ± 6.2xE04	2.8xE04 ± 5.7xE04	0.0	2.9xE06 ± 6.4xE06
1.1 mm	7	2.6xE10 ± 2.2xE10	1.1xE07 ± 9.0xE06	5.5xE05 ± 8.7xE05	2.4xE05 ± 1.7xE05	7.8xE04 ± 1.1xE05	0.0	1.7xE04 ± 4.4xE04

PLOS ONE

its concentration impacts its pathogenicity [40]. However, due to the complex interspecies interactions, there is also evidence to suggest that other species of oral streptococci may have different roles in the caries process [41].

The results demonstrate that only 28% of subjects carried S. mutans. A decrease of 3.5 times is observed between the aged subjects from 20 to 25 years and those aged from 30 to 35 years. Therefore, the older the caries-free subjects are, the lower the quantity of S. mutans detected in the ID biofilm. However, the frequency of subjects carrying S. mutans increased between the 20 to 25-year-old (27.2%) and 30 to 35-year-old (62.5%) subject groups. S. mutans could be responsible for the future carious interproximal lesions observed in adults on the distal surface of premolars [42]. Otherwise, Dani and colleagues [43] have demonstrated that the colonization of S. mutans was increased in chronic periodontitis subjects both in saliva and sub-gingival plaque samples [43]. Our previous study determined that periodontally healthy young adults carried periodontopathogenic bacteria in their ID biofilm [28]. Thus, interacting with these bacteria, S. mutans could also play a crucial role in future periodontal diseases. A change in the subject dental risk-from cariogenic to periodontopathogenic-could occur with age. This hypothesis is supported by previous results. The prevalence of periodontal diseases significantly increases in subjects older than 35 years [44]. Moreover, the microbial shift observed according to age in the supragingival biofilm and in saliva from individuals with healthy oral conditions may contribute to the initiation and prevalence of a specific oral disease according to age [12].

Lactobacillus spp. appear to be associated with dental carious lesions, like cariogenic bacteria, especially in the progression of caries of dentin [36, 45]. As these bacteria are unable to bind to hard, smooth surfaces, they are found in retentive zones such as pits and fissures or deep cavities. *Lactobacillus* spp. shows a high tolerance to low pH media [46].

Our study reveals that *Lactobacillus* spp. was present in all the caries-free subjects. Previous studies established a strong correlation between the *Lactobacillus* spp. counts in the oral cavity and dental caries [46]. The higher the DMFT index was, the higher the number of children

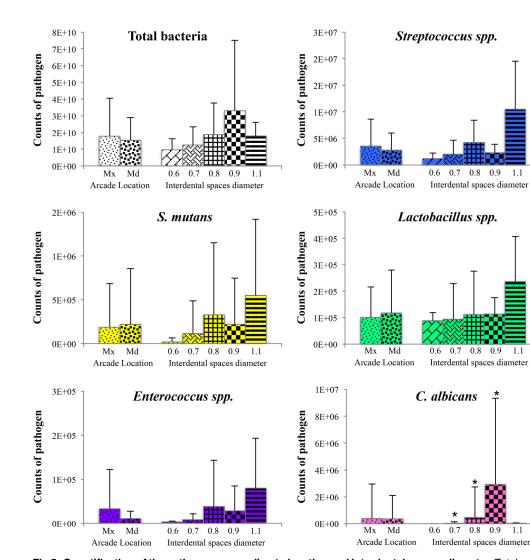
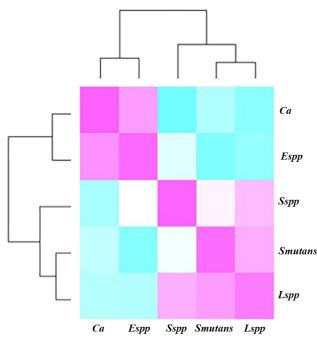


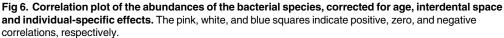
Fig 5. Quantification of the pathogens according to location and interdental spaces diameter. Total counts of each pathogen were averaged across sites in each subgroup. Error bars represent standard deviations. Comparisons: * p<0.05, by using SUDAAN 7.0 (procedures DESCRIPT and REGRESS) to account for clustering (multiple sites within the subjects) Mx: maxillary; Md: mandibulary.

harboring a high *Lactobacillus* count [47]. In some cases, they detected *Lactobacillus* spp. in the plaque of some caries-free children but at very low levels [48]. So, the fact that *Lactobacillus* spp. was detected in 100% of interdental biofilm of young caries-free subjects can be explained by (i) the higher sensitivity of the quantitative PCR compared to the culture bacteria methods [49, 50] and (ii) the age of the subjects, who are older than in other studies that focused on children.

Lactobacillus spp. represented 1.1xE05 bacteria in one ID space from young caries-free adults. Previously, some studies suggested a correlation between the *Lactobacillus* spp. count and caries activity, especially in children [50, 51]. Arino and colleagues [52] noticed that subjects with a *Lactobacillus* spp. level in the saliva higher than 1xE04 CFU/mL were vulnerable to caries. The absence of carious lesions in young adults with a high level of *Lactobacillus* spp. could be due to their potential suppressive effect on cariogenic microorganisms. From a review of the literature, various studies have shown that *Lactobacillus* spp. inhibits the growth of *S. mutans* both *in vitro* and *in vivo* [53–55]. However, contrasting findings have also been

PLOS ONE





reported [56]. These variations in *Lactobacillus* colony count in different studies can be attributed to the fact that not all strains of the *Lactobacillus* family have an inhibitory effect. The *Lactobacillus* spp. exerts its anticariogenic activity in various ways [55, 57]. Moreover, the absence of signs of periodontal disease in the studied subjects could be due to the capacity of *Lactobacillus* spp. to inhibit periodontopathogens, such as *Porphyromonas gingivalis* [58].

Previous studies showed that the mutans group of *Streptococci* and the *Lactobacillus* could have a role in the induction of root surface caries [47, 59]. Interestingly, in young caries-free adults, 28% of the tested sites co-express *S. mutans* and *Lactobacillus* spp., and among them, 71.5% revealed a higher quantity of *S. mutans* than *Lactobacillus* spp. Moreover, these two-bacterial species cluster together. So, these two bacteria could be predictive markers for interproximal caries.

Another cluster of pathogens is composed of *Enterococcus* spp. and *C. albicans*. Enterococci may cause a variety of oral infections. Surprisingly, there is little data concerning their oral incidence and prevalence [60]. In our cohort, 99% of caries-free young adults carried *Enterococcus* spp that is higher than previously described by Sedgley and colleagues (20%) [61]. Komiyama and colleagues [62] detected Enterococci in the saliva of 14% of young adults whose periodontal and cariogenic status were not determined. Two main reasons could explain this difference. First, our study analyzed the interdental biofilm, while all other studies focused on the saliva, the lingual biofilm, or the supragingival biofilm. Second, we quantified bacterial amounts by real-time PCR and not by bacterial culture.

The quantity of *Enterococcus* spp. is lower in 30 to 35-year-old subjects than in 20 to 30-year-old subjects. This age-related difference was previously described in the saliva of subjects whose oral status was not determined [62].

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of arcade location variations in the oral carriage of *Enterococcus* spp. Gender does not impact the colonization of the interdental

biofilm by *Enterococcus* spp. Conversely, Komiyama and colleagues [62] described that females are higher carriers than males.

Among the genus *Enterococcus*, *E. faecalis* is the most detected in the oral cavity [62], although it is not a common of the healthy oral flora [60, 63]. *E. faecalis* strains can cause serious nosocomial infections and are implicated in dental diseases as caries, periodontitis, end-odontic infections, and periimplantitis [63–67].

In our study, *E. faecalis* was not detected, similar to previous reports that observed that the prevalence of this bacterium was lower in healthy individuals (0–20%) [68, 69] than in patients with dental diseases (up to 68%) [64, 70]. This confirms that *E. faecalis* is not a constituent of the oral microbiota. Further investigations are needed to determine which species of *enterococcus* are present in the interdental biofilm from caries-free adults.

Despite the fact that the key pathogens for dental caries are bacteria, previous studies have described *C. albicans* as greatly contributing to caries pathogenesis, particularly in children, adolescents and young adults [71, 72]. This opportunistic fungus is a common constituent of the oral biofilm [73] and can colonize surfaces of the oral cavity, such as the palate, cheek, tongue, and the hard surfaces of the teeth. As a consequence of this oral surface colonization, this fungus is also present in saliva [74].

Previous studies have demonstrated that the abundance of this yeast is a sign of high caries risk in children [75, 76]. In adults, our results showed that 28% of the subjects were carrying *C. albicans* in their interdental biofilm. This result is consistent with previous studies on saliva or supragingival biofilm [77, 78], in which oral carriage rates of *Candida* ranged from 5 to 75%, respectively.

Fungal colonization by *C. albicans* is more abundant in the ID biofilm of males than of females but is not more frequent. Moalic and colleagues [71] described contradictory results. In their study, the fungal colonization of the supragingival biofilm was more frequent in males than in females but was not more abundant. To explain our results, several hypotheses involving factors not measured in this study are conceivable: (i) the salivary flow could be decreased in females leading to a decrease in colonization [79]; (ii) low levels of pH of the male oral cavity could favor the adhesion and the proliferation of *Candida* yeast [79]; and (iii) the blood group H antigen functions as a receptor for *C. albicans* [80].

No significant differences were noted in the incidence of *C. albicans* according to age. However, the frequency of *C. albicans* by site was higher with age. These results complement those of Zaremba and colleagues [81], who observed that the frequency of *Candida* spp. was higher with age in a population aged 56 to 92 years. Moreover, we demonstrated that the mean number of *C. albicans* increases with age. In 54% of ID biofilms inhabited by *C. albicans*, *S. mutans* is present, which supports the symbiotic role of the two species [82, 83]. Numerous studies are investigating the possible role of *C. albicans* as a carious risk marker. However, this role seems to be called into question. Recent studies *in vitro* have suggested that *C. albicans* prevents caries [84, 85].

Finally, several of the studied oral pathogens are responsible for systemic diseases. *C. albicans* can form potentially lethal fungal masses in the heart, kidney, and brain [86, 87]. *Enterococcus* spp. and *S. mutans* are known to be associated with bacteremia and infective endocarditis [88, 89]. Therefore, as previously demonstrated, 34.8% of young periodontally healthy subjects with ID biofilm bled [90]. The presence of these pathogens in the ID biofilm of young adults represents a danger and must be prevented.

Conclusions

The ID biofilm of young caries-free subjects is composed of pathogens—*Streptococcus* spp., *S. mutans*, *Lactobacillus* spp., *Enterococcus* spp. and *C. albicans*—that are able to induce

interproximal caries but that are also able to act in the periodontal process. Moreover, the potential involvement of these pathogens in systemic diseases is a strong argument in favor of taking into consideration the need to disrupt the ID biofilm in oral prophylaxis.

Supporting information

S1 Table. Bacterial count for the total load of bacteria and for 6 major pathogens in the interdental biofilm. The table represents the results of 16S qPCR DNA of the healthy subjects used in this study. *Ca*: Candida albicans; IDB: Interdental Brush; *Ef*: Enterococcus faecalis; *Esp*p: Enterococcus spp.; *Lsp*p: Lactobacillus spp.; *Ssp*p: Streptococcus spp.; *Sm*: Streptococcus mutans; TB: Total bacteria. (PDF)

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the support of our work by Institut Clinident SAS (Aix en Provence, France).

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: Denis Bourgeois, Florence Carrouel.

Formal analysis: Paul Tramini, Nicolas Molinari.

Investigation: Denis Bourgeois, Alexandra David, Camille Inquimbert, Florence Carrouel.

Writing - original draft: Denis Bourgeois, Alexandra David, Florence Carrouel.

References

- Marcenes W, Kassebaum NJ, Bernabé E, Flaxman A, Naghavi M, Lopez A, Murray CJ. Global burden of oral conditions in 1990–2010: a systematic analysis. J Dent Res. 2013; 92: 592–597. <u>https://doi.org/ 10.1177/0022034513490168</u> PMID: 23720570
- Richards D. Oral diseases affect some 3.9 billion people. Evid Based Dent. 2013; 14: 35. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.ebd.6400925</u> PMID: 23792391
- 3. Kidd E, Fejerskov O. *Essentials of Dental Caries: The Disease and Its Management*. New York: Oxford University Press. 2016.
- Petersen PE, Bourgeois D, Ogawa H, Estupinan-Day S, Ndiaye C. The global burden of oral diseases and risks to oral health. Bull World Health Org. 2005; 83: 661–669. <u>https://doi.org//S0042-96862005000900011</u> PMID: 16211157
- Mejàre I. "Management of the advanced carious lesion in primary teeth", in *Consensus Conference on Caries in the Primary Dentition and Its Clinical Management*, ed. Hugoson A., Falk M., Hohansson S. (Stockholm: Forlagshuset Gothia), 2002: 57–68.
- 6. Ekstrand KR. Knowledge about caries: Is it possible for the Danish Public Dental Health Service for Children to achieve even better results? Tandlaegebladet. 2006; 110: 788–799.
- 7. Rehman K, Khan H, Shah SA. Frequency of class II type carious lesions in first permanent molars and their association with pulp. Pak Oral Dent J. 2009; 29: 119–122.
- 8. Faran Ali SM, Tanwir F. Oral microbial habitat a dynamic entity. J Oral Biol Craniofac Res. 2012; 2: 181–187. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobcr.2012.07.001 PMID: 25737863
- Marsh PD, Martin MV. "Mouth as a microbial habitat", in Oral Microbiology Textbook, ed. Lewis M. A. (Edinburgh, London, New York, Oxford: Churchill Livingstone Elsevier). 2009: 8–23.
- Fejerskov O, Nyvad B, Kidd E. "Pathology of Dental Caries", in *Dental Caries: The disease and its clinical management*, ed. Fejerskov O. and Kidd E. (Oxford, UK: Blackwell Munksgaard). 2015: 19–48.
- Ribeiro AA, Purger F, Rodrigues JA, Oliveira PR, Lussi A, Monteiro AH, Alves HD, Assis JT, Vasconcellos AB. Influence of contact points on the performance of caries detection methods in approximal surfaces of primary molars: an in vivo study. Caries Res. 2015; 49: 99–108. https://doi.org/10.1159/ 000368562 PMID: 25572115

- Xu X, He J, Xue J, Wang Y, Li K, Zhang K, et al. Oral cavity contains distinct niches with dynamic microbial communities. Environ Microbiol. 2015; 17: 699–710. https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.12502 PMID: 24800728
- 13. Heymann HO, Swift E, Ritter JrA. "Dental caries: etiology and clinical characteristics", in Sturdevant's Art and Science of Operative Dentistry, ed V. Gopikrishna. (South asian edition), 2012: 25–49.
- Vanderas AP, Kavvadia K, Papagiannoulis L: Development of caries in permanent first molars adjacent to primary second molars with interproximal caries: four-year prospective radiographic study. Pediatr Dent. 2004; 26: 362–368. PMID: 15344633
- Bik EM, Long CD, Armitage GC, Loomer P, Emerson J, Mongodin EF, et al. Bacterial diversity in the oral cavity of 10 healthy individuals. ISME J. 2010; 4: 962–974. <u>https://doi.org/10.1038/ismej.2010.30</u> PMID: 20336157
- 16. Dorri M, Dunne SM, Walsh T, Schwendicke F. Micro-invasive interventions for managing proximal dental decay in primary and permanent teeth. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2015; 11: CD010431.
- 17. Keiser-Nielsen S: Federation Dentaire Internationale. Two-Digit System of designating teeth. Dent Pract (Ewell). 1971; 3: 6.
- World Health Organization: Oral Health Surveys: Basic Methods. 4th Ed. World Health Organization. 1997.
- Bourgeois D, Carrouel F, Llodra JC, Bravo M, Viennot S. A Colorimetric Interdental Probe as a Standard Method to Evaluate Interdental Efficiency of Interdental Brush. Open Dent J. 2015; 9: 431–437. https:// doi.org/10.2174/1874210601509010431 PMID: 26966470
- Ott SJ, Musfeldt M, Ullmann U, Hampe J, Schreiber S. Quantification of intestinal bacterial populations by real-time PCR with a universal primer set and minor groove binder probes: a global approach to the enteric flora. J Clin Microbiol. 2004; 42: 2566–2572. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.42.6.2566-2572.2004 PMID: 15184435
- Kozarov E, Sweier D, Shelburne C, Progulske-Fox A, Lopatin D. Detection of bacterial DNA in atheromatous plaques by quantitative PCR. Microbes Infect. 2006; 8: 687–693. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.</u> micinf.2005.09.004 PMID: 16513386
- Willger SD, Grim SL, Dolben EL, Shipunova A, Hampton TH, Morrison HG, et al. Characterization and quantification of the fungal microbiome in serial samples from individuals with cystic fibrosis. Microbiome. 2014; 3: 40.
- Fouad AF, Barry J, Caimano M, Clawson M, Zhu Q, Carver R, et al. PCR-based identification of bacteria associated with endodontic infections. J Clin Microbiol 2002; 40: 3223–3231. https://doi.org/10.1128/ JCM.40.9.3223-3231.2002 PMID: 12202557
- Ozbek SM, Ozbek A, Erdogan AS. Analysis of *Enterococcus faecalis* in samples from Turkish patients with primary endodontic infections and failed endodontic treatment by real-time PCR SYBR Green method. J Appl Oral Sci. 2009; 17: 370–374. <u>https://doi.org/10.1590/S1678-77572009000500004</u> PMID: 19936510
- Byun R, Nadkarni MA, Chhour K- L, Martin FE, Jacques NA, Hunter N. Quantitative analysis of diverse Lactobacillus species present in advanced dental caries. J Clin Microbiol. 2004; 42: 3128–3136. https:// doi.org/10.1128/JCM.42.7.3128-3136.2004 PMID: 15243071
- Yoshida A, Suzuki N, Nakano Y, Kawada M, Oho T, Koga T. Development of a 5' nuclease-based realtime PCR assay for quantitative detection of cariogenic dental pathogens *Streptococcus mutans* and *Streptococcus sobrinus*. J Clin Microbiol. 2003; 41: 4438–4441. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.41.9</u>. 4438-4441.2003 PMID: 12958287
- Bates D, Maechler M, Bolker B, Walker S. Fitting linear mixed-effects models using Ime4. J Stat Softw. 2015; 67: 1–48.
- Carrouel F, Viennot S, Santamaria J, Veber P, Bourgeois D. Quantitative molecular detection of 19 major pathogens in the interdental biofilm of periodontally healthy young adults. Front Microbiol. 2016; 7: 840. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.00840 PMID: 27313576
- Zheng J, Gänzle MG, Lin XB, Ruan L, Sun M. Diversity and dynamics of bacteriocins from human microbiome. Environ Microbiol. 2015; 17: 2133–2143. https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.12662 PMID: 25346017
- 30. Rosan B, Lamont RJ. Dental plaque formation. Microbes Infect. 2000; 2: 1599–1607. PMID: 11113379
- Krzyściak W, Jurczak A, Kościelniak D, Bystrowska B, Skalniak A. The virulence of *Streptococcus mutans* and the ability to form biofilms. Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis. 2014; 33: 499–515. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s10096-013-1993-7</u> PMID: 24154653
- Kreth J, Merritt J, Qi F. Bacterial and host interactions of oral streptococci. DNA Cell Biol. 2009; 28: 397–403. https://doi.org/10.1089/dna.2009.0868 PMID: 19435424

- Loesche WJ. Role of Streptococcus mutans in human dental decay. Microbiol Rev. 1986; 50: 353–380. PMID: 3540569
- 34. Thenisch NL, Bachmann LM, Imfeld T, Leisebach Minder T, Steurer J. Are *mutans streptococci* detected in preschool children a reliable predictive factor for dental caries risk? A systematic review. Caries Res. 2006; 40: 366–374. https://doi.org/10.1159/000094280 PMID: 16946603
- Aas JA, Griffen AL, Dardis SR, Lee AM, Olsen I, Dewhirst FE, et al. Bacteria of dental caries in primary and permanent teeth in children and young adults. J Clin Microbiol 2008; 46: 1407–1417. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.01410-07</u> PMID: 18216213
- Corby PM, Lyons-Weiler J, Bretz WA, Hart TC, Aas JA, Boumenna T, et al. Microbial risk indicators of early childhood caries. J Clin Microbiol. 2005; 43: 5753–5759. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.43.11.5753-5759.2005 PMID: 16272513
- Preza D, Olsen I, Aas JA, Willumsen T, Grinde B, Paster BJ. Bacterial profiles of root caries in elderly patients. J Clin Microbiol. 2008; 46: 2015–2021. <u>https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.02411-07</u> PMID: 18385433
- Becker MR, Paster BJ, Leys EJ, Moeschberger ML, Kenyon SG, Galvin JL, et al. Molecular analysis of bacterial species associated with childhood caries. J Clin Microbiol. 2002; 40: 1001–1009. https://doi. org/10.1128/JCM.40.3.1001-1009.2002 PMID: 11880430
- Russell RR. How has genomics altered our view of caries microbiology? Caries Res. 2008; 42: 319– 327. https://doi.org/10.1159/000151326 PMID: 18701821
- Henne K, Gunesch A- P, Walther C, Meyer-Lueckel H, Conrads G, Esteves-Oliveira M. Analysis of bacterial activity in sound and cariogenic biofilm: a pilot in vivo study. Caries Res. 2016; 50: 480–488. https://doi.org/10.1159/000448485 PMID: 27595541
- Gross EL, Beall CJ, Kutsch SR, Firestone ND, Leys EJ, Griffen AL. Beyond *Streptococcus mutans*: dental caries onset linked to multiple species by 16S rRNA community analysis. PloS One. 2012; 7: e47722. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0047722 PMID: 23091642
- Demirci M, Tuncer S, Yuceokurb AA. Prevalence of caries on individual tooth surfaces and its distribution by age and gender in university clinic patients. Eur J Dent. 2010; 4: 270–279. PMID: 20613915
- Dani S, Prabhu A, Chaitra KR, Desai NC, Patil SR, Rajeev R. Assessment of *Streptococcus mutans* in healthy versus gingivitis and chronic periodontitis: A clinico-microbiological study. Contemp. Clin Dent. 2016; 7: 529–534. https://doi.org/10.4103/0976-237X.194114 PMID: 27994423
- 44. Meng H. The Periodontology Peking: People's Medical Publishing House. 2008.
- Simón-Soro A, Guillen-Navarro M, Mira A. Metatranscriptomics reveals overall active bacterial composition in caries lesions. J Oral Microbiol. 2014; 6: 25443. <u>https://doi.org/10.3402/jom.v6.25443</u> PMID: 25626770
- Caufield PW, Schön CN, Saraithong P, Li Y, Argimón S. Oral lactobacilli and dental caries: a model for niche adaptation in humans. J Dent Res. 2015; 94: 110S–118S. https://doi.org/10.1177/ 0022034515576052 PMID: 25758458
- Badet C and Thebaud NB. Ecology of lactobacilli in the oral cavity: a review of literature. Open Microbiol J. 2008; 2: 38–48. https://doi.org/10.2174/1874285800802010038 PMID: 19088910
- 48. Walter J, Schwab C, Loach DM, Gänzle MG, Tannock GW: Glucosyltransferase A (GtfA) and inulosucrase (Inu) of *Lactobacillus reuteri* TMW1.106 contribute to cell aggregation, in vitro biofilm formation, and colonization of the mouse gastrointestinal tract. Microbiology. 2008; 154: 72–80. https://doi.org/10. 1099/mic.0.2007/010637-0 PMID: 18174127
- Motisuki C, Lima LM, Spolidorio DM, Santos-Pinto L. Influence of sample type and collection method on Streptococcus mutans and Lactobacillus spp. counts in the oral cavity. Arch Oral Biol. 2005; 50: 341– 345. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.archoralbio.2004.08.007 PMID: 15740713
- Ramesh K, Kunjappan S, Ramesh M, Shankar S, Reddy S. Comparative evaluation of predictive value of three caries activity tests-snyder, lactobacillus count and cariostat in mixed dentition children with and without caries. J Pharm Bioallied Sci. 2013; 5: S63–68. https://doi.org/10.4103/0975-7406.113299 PMID: 23946580
- Gao X, Hsu C-Y, Loh T, Hwarng B, Koh D. Role of microbiological factors in predicting early childhood caries. Pediatr Dent. 2014; 36: 348–354. PMID: 25198002
- Arino M, Ito A, Fujiki S, Sugiyama S, Hayashi M. Multicenter study on caries risk assessment in adults using survival classification and regression trees. Sci. Rep. 2006; 6: 29190.
- Keller MK, Hasslöf P, Stecksén-Blicks C, Twetman S. Co-aggregation and growth inhibition of probiotic lactobacilli and clinical isolates of *mutans streptococci*: an in vitro study. Act Odontol Scand 2011; 69: 263–268.

- Söderling EM, Marttinen AM, Haukioja AL. Probiotic lactobacilli interfere with *Streptococcus mutans* biofilm formation in vitro. Curr Microbiol. 2011; 62: 618–622. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00284-010-9752-</u> 9 PMID: 20835828
- Sindhu N, Kishore B, Ramakant N, Vijayalakshmi K, Deepa B. Effect of Lactobacillus on Mutans Streptococcus in caries-free and high caries risk individuals. J Pharm Biomed. 2013; 31: 1192–1198.
- 56. Stecksen-Blicks C, Sjostrom I, Twetman S. Effect of longterm consumption of milk supplemented with probiotic lactobacilli and fluoride on dental caries and general health in preschool children: a cluster-randomized study. Caries Res. 2009; 43: 374–381. https://doi.org/10.1159/000235581 PMID: 19690413
- 57. Lin X, Chen X, Chen Y, Jiang W, Chen H. The effect of five probiotic lactobacilli strains on the growth and biofilm formation of *Streptococcus mutans*. Oral Dis. 2015; 21: e128–134. https://doi.org/10.1111/ odi.12257 PMID: 24806217
- Khalaf H, Nakka SS, Sandén C, Svärd A, Hultenby K, Scherbak N, et al. Antibacterial effects of *Lacto-bacillus* and bacteriocin PLNC8 Aβ on the periodontal pathogen *Porphyromonas gingivalis*. BMC Microbio. 2016; 16: 188.
- Tanzer JM, Livingston J, Thompson AM: The microbiology of primary dental caries in humans. J Dent Educ. 2001; 65: 1028–1037. PMID: <u>11699974</u>
- Aas JA, Paster BJ, Stokes LN, Olsen I, Dewhirst FE. Defining the normal bacterial flora of the oral cavity. J Clin Microbiol. 2005; 43: 5721–5732. https://doi.org/10.1128/JCM.43.11.5721-5732.2005 PMID: 16272510
- Sedgley C, Buck G, Appelbe O. Prevalence of *Enterococcus faecalis* at multiple oral sites in endodontic patients using culture and PCR. J Endod. 2006; 32: 104–109. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joen.2005.10</u>. 022 PMID: 16427455
- Komiyama EY, Lepesqueur LS, Yassuda CG, Samaranayake LP, Parahitiyawa NB, Balducci I, Koga-Ito CY. *Enterococcus* species in the oral cavity: prevalence, virulence factors and antimicrobial susceptibility. PLoS One. 2016; 11: e0163001. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0163001 PMID: 27631785
- Anderson AC, Jonas D, Huber I, Karygianni L, Wölber J, Hellwig E, et al. Enterococcus faecalis from food, clinical specimens, and oral sites: prevalence of virulence factors in association with biofilm formation. Front Microbiol. 2015; 6: 1534. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.01534 PMID: 26793174
- Kouidhi B, Zmantar T, Mahdouani K, Hentati H, Bakhrouf A. Antibiotic resistance and adhesion properties of oral Enterococci associated to dental caries. BMC Microbiol. 2011; 11: 155. <u>https://doi.org/10. 1186/1471-2180-11-155 PMID: 21714920</u>
- Dahlén G, Blomqvist S, Almståhl A, Carlén A. Virulence factors and antibiotic susceptibility in enterococci isolated from oral mucosal and deep infections. J Oral Microbiol. 2012; 4: https://doi.org/10.3402/jom.v4i0.10855 PMID: 22368771
- Rams TE, Feik D, Mortensen JE, Degener JE, van Winkelhoff AJ. Antibiotic susceptibility of periodontal *Enterococcus faecalis*. J Periodontol. 2013; 84: 1026–1033. <u>https://doi.org/10.1902/jop.2012.120050</u> PMID: 23106507
- Ran S, Liu B, Jiang W, Sun Z, Liang J. Transcriptome analysis of *Enterococcus faecalis* in response to alkaline stress. Front Microbiol. 2015; 6: 795. <u>https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.00795</u> PMID: 26300863
- Salah R, Dar-Odeh N, Abu Hammad O, Shehabi AA. Prevalence of putative virulence factors and antimicrobial susceptibility of *Enterococcus faecalis* isolates from patients with dental diseases. BMC Oral Health. 2008; 8: 17. https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6831-8-17 PMID: 18513445
- Burley KM, Sedgley CM. CRISPR-Cas, a prokaryotic adaptive immune system, in endodontic, oral, and multidrug-resistant hospital-acquired *Enterococcus faecalis*. J Endod. 2012; 38: 1511–1515. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joen.2012.07.004</u> PMID: 23063226
- 70. Souto R, Colombo AP. Prevalence of *Enterococcus faecalis* in subgingival biofilm and saliva of subjects with chronic periodontal infection. Arch Oral Biol. 2008; 53: 155–160. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.archoralbio.2007.08.004</u> PMID: 17897617
- Moalic E, Gestalin A, Quinio D, Gest PE, Zerilli A, Le Flohic AM. The extent of oral fungal flora in 353 students and possible relationships with dental caries. Caries Res. 2001; 35: 149–155. <u>https://doi.org/ 47447</u> PMID: 11275676
- Klinke T, Guggenheim B, Klimm W, Thurnheer T. Dental caries in rats associated with Candida albicans. Caries Res. 2011; 45: 100–106. https://doi.org/10.1159/000324809 PMID: 21412001
- 73. De-la-Torre J, Marichalar-Mendia X, Varona-Barquin A, Marcos-Arias C, Eraso E, Aguirre-Urizar JM, et al. Caries and *Candida* colonisation in adult patients in Basque Country (Spain). Mycoses. 2016; 59: 234–240. https://doi.org/10.1111/myc.12453 PMID: 26756815

- 74. Xiao C, Ran S, Huang Z, Liang J. Bacterial diversity and community structure of supragingival plaques in adults with dental health or caries revealed by 16S pyrosequencing. Front Microbiol. 2016; 7: 1145. https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2016.01145 PMID: 27499752
- Thomas A, Mhambrey S, Chokshi K, Chokshi A, Jana S, Thakur S, Jose D, Bajpai G: Association of oral *Candida albicans* with severe early childhood caries—a pilot study. J Clin Diag Res. 2016; 10: ZC109–112.
- 76. Lozano Moraga CP, Rodríguez Martínez GA, Lefimil Puente CA, Morales Bozo IC, Urzúa Orellana BR. Prevalence of *Candida albicans* and carriage of *Candida non-albicans* in the saliva of preschool children, according to their caries status. Acta Odontol Scand. 2017; 75: 30–35. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/00016357.2016.1244560</u> PMID: 27796162
- 77. Monteiro-da-Silva F, Araujo R, Sampaio-Maia B. Interindividual variability and intraindividual stability of oral fungal microbiota over time. Med Mycol. 2014; 52: 498–505. https://doi.org/10.1093/mmy/myu027. PMID: 24934804
- 78. Sheth CC, Makda K, Dilmahomed Z, González R, Luzi A, Jovani-Sancho Mdel M, Veses V: Alcohol and tobacco consumption affect the oral carriage of *Candida albicans* and *mutans streptococci*. Lett Appl Microbiol. 2016; 63: 254–259. https://doi.org/10.1111/lam.12620 PMID: 27450704
- 79. Kanaguchi N, Narisawa N, Ito T, Kinoshita Y, Kusumoto Y, Shinozuka O, Senpuku H. Effects of salivary protein flow and indigenous microorganisms on initial colonization of *Candida albicans* in an in vivo model. BMC Oral Health. 2012; 12: 36. https://doi.org/10.1186/1472-6831-12-36 PMID: 22937882
- Farah CS, Lynch N, McCullough MJ. Oral fungal infections: an update for the general practitioner. Aust Dent J. 2010; 55: 48–54. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1834-7819.2010.01198.x PMID: 20553244
- Zaremba ML, Daniluk T, Rozkiewicz D, Cylwik-Rokicka D, Kierklo A, Tokajuk G, et al. Incidence rate of Candida species in the oral cavity of middle-aged and elderly subjects. Adv Med Sci. 2006; 51: 233– 236. PMID: 17458099
- Metwalli KH, Khan SA, Krom BP, Jabra-Rizk MA. Streptococcus mutans, Candida albicans, and the human mouth: a sticky situation. PLoS Pathog. 2013; 9: e1003616. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal. ppat.1003616 PMID: 24146611
- Falsetta ML, Klein MI, Colonne PM, Scott-Anne K, Gregoire S, Pai C-H, et al. Symbiotic relationship between *Streptococcus mutans* and *Candida albicans* synergizes virulence of plaque biofilms in vivo. Infect Immun. 2014; 82: 1968–1981. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00087-14 PMID: 24566629
- Barbosa JO, Rossoni RD, Vilela SF, de Alvarenga JA, Velloso Mdos S, Prata MC, et al. *Streptococcus mutans* can modulate biofilm formation and attenuate the virulence of *Candida albicans*. PloS One. 2016; 11: e0150457. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0150457 PMID: 26934196
- 85. Willems HM, Kos K, Jabra-Rizk MA, Krom BP: *Candida albicans* in oral biofilms could prevent caries. Pathog Dis. 2016; 74: ftw039. https://doi.org/10.1093/femspd/ftw039 PMID: 27129365
- Berman J, Sudbery PE. Candida albicans: a molecular revolution built on lessons from budding yeast. Nat Rev Genet. 2002; 3: 918–930. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrg948 PMID: 12459722
- Perlroth J, Choi B, Spellberg B. Nosocomial fungal infections: epidemiology, diagnosis, and treatment. Med Mycol. 2007; 45 321–346. https://doi.org/10.1080/13693780701218689 PMID: 17510856
- Dhotre SV, Davane MS, Nagoba BS. Periodontitis, bacteremia and infective endocarditis: A Review Study. Arch Pediatr Infect Dis. 2017: e41067.
- Nakano K, Nomura R, Ooshima T. Streptococcus mutans and cardiovascular diseases. Jap Dent Sci Rev. 2008; 44: 29–37.
- Bourgeois D, Saliasi I, Llodra JC, Bravo M, Viennot S, Carrouel F. Efficacy of interdental calibrated brushes on bleeding reduction in adults: a 3-month randomized controlled clinical trial. Eur J Oral Sci. 2016; 124: 566–571. https://doi.org/10.1111/eos.12302 PMID: 27681016