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Citation for final published version:

Nishio Ayre, Wayne, Melling, Genevieve, Cuveillier, Camille, Natarajan, Madhan, Roberts, Jessica L., Marsh, Lucy L., Lynch, Christopher D., Maillard, Jean-Yves, Denyer, Stephen P. and Sloan, Alastair J. 2018. Enterococcus faecalis demonstrates pathogenicity through increased attachment in an ex vivo polymicrobial pulpal infection. Infection and Immunity 86 (5), e00871-17. 10.1128/IAI.00871-17

Publishers page: http://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00871-17

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1	Enterococcus faecalis demonstrates pathogenicity through increased					
2	attachment in an ex vivo polymicrobial pulpal infection					
3						
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26 Abstract

27 This study investigated the host response to a polymicrobial pulpal infection 28 consisting of Streptococcus anginosus and Enterococcus faecalis, bacteria 29 commonly implicated in dental abscesses and endodontic failure, using a validated 30 ex vivo rat tooth model. Tooth slices were inoculated with planktonic cultures of S. 31 anginosus or E. faecalis alone or in co-culture at ratios of 50:50 and 90:10 S. 32 anginosus to E. faecalis. Attachment was semi-guantified by measuring area 33 covered by fluorescently labelled bacteria. Host response was established by viable 34 histological cell counts and inflammatory response using RT-gPCR and 35 immunohistochemistry. A significant reduction in cell viability was observed for single 36 and polymicrobial infections, with no significant differences between infection types (\approx 2000cells/mm² for infected pulps compared to \approx 4000cells/mm² for uninfected 37 38 pulps). *E. faecalis* demonstrated significantly higher levels of attachment (6.5%) 39 compared to *S. anginosus* alone (2.3%) and mixed species infections (3.4% for 40 50:50 and 2.3% for 90:10), with a remarkable affinity to the pulpal vasculature. 41 Infections with *E. faecalis* demonstrated the greatest increase in TNF- α (47.1 fold for 42 *E. faecalis*, 14.6 fold for *S. anginosus*, 60.1 fold for 50:50 and 25.0 fold for 90:10) 43 and IL-1ß expression (54.8 fold for *E. faecalis*, 8.8 fold for *S. anginosus*, 54.5 fold for 44 50:50 and 39.9 fold for 90:10) when compared to uninfected samples. 45 Immunohistochemistry confirmed this with the majority of inflammation localised to 46 the pulpal vasculature and odontoblast regions. Interestingly, *E. faecalis* supernatant 47 and heat killed *E. faecalis* treatment was unable to induce the same inflammatory 48 response, suggesting *E. faecalis* pathogenicity in pulpitis is linked to its greater ability 49 to attach to the pulpal vasculature.

50

51 Introduction

52 The dental pulp is a complex environment composed of soft connective tissue. 53 nerves, blood vessels and a variety of cells, such as dental pulp stem cells, 54 fibroblasts and odontoblasts (1). When the pulp becomes inflamed in response to 55 bacterial infection or other stimuli, this is known as pulpitis. Early stages are 56 considered "reversible" and treatment involves removal of the stimulus, such as 57 carious lesions, in order to maintain pulp vitality. If untreated however, the microbial 58 invasion may progress into the deeper dentin and subsequently the pulpal chamber 59 resulting in severe tissue degradation and necrosis. This condition, known as 60 "irreversible pulpitis", requires a challenging and difficult endodontic or root canal 61 treatment, which involves the removal of the pulp and obturation with an inert 62 material. The success rate of root canal treatments is highly variable, ranging from 63 31% to 96% depending on clinical considerations (2) and studies across a range of 64 countries have shown a high percentage (up to 67.9%) of patients who have 65 undergone this treatment subsequently develop apical periodontitis (3, 4). An alternative endodontic treatment is vital pulpotomy, which involves removal of the 66 67 coronal pulp, leaving the radicular pulp vital and free of any pathological alterations 68 (5). Although this procedure is thought to require shorter appointment times and can 69 be accomplished in one visit, the efficacy of this technique is debated with success 70 rates of clinical studies ranging from 70% to 96% (6). Accurate models to better 71 understand the process of pulpal infection and to test the efficacy of novel 72 therapeutics will aid in the development of more effective vital pulp treatments. In 73 vitro monolayer cell culture models lack the complexity of the pulpal matrix, whilst in 74 vivo studies suffer from systemic factors, high costs and ethical considerations. To 75 overcome these limitations, Roberts et al. (7) developed an ex vivo co-culture

76 system to model pulpal infections on rat tooth slices. This study focused 77 predominantly on the Streptococcus anginosus group (SAG), consisting of S. 78 anginosus, S. constellatus and S. intermedius, Gram-positive cocci which are part of 79 the body's commensal flora. This group are known to be primary colonisers of the 80 oral cavity due to their ability to attach to the salivary pellicle and other oral bacteria 81 (8). They are considered opportunistic pathogens and have been reported to form 82 dental abscesses (9). The study by Roberts et al. demonstrated a significant 83 reduction in viable pulp cells, an increase in cytokine expression and bacterial 84 attachment over 24 hours as a result of *S. anginosus* infections (7).

85 Although Roberts et al. demonstrated invasion of the dental pulp by S. 86 anginosus group species, the number of microbial species encountered in the oral 87 cavity is far more diverse, with studies identifying between 100 to 300 different 88 species from different regions of the oral cavity of healthy individuals (10). It is 89 therefore unsurprising that complex mixed species microbiomes are often detected 90 in cases of pulpitis (11). As lesions progress into the tooth, a shift in microbial 91 species has been well documented due to environmental and nutritional changes 92 (12). Of particular interest is the Enterococcus faecalis species, a Gram-positive 93 facultative anaerobic coccus, also part of the normal human commensal flora (13). E. 94 *faecalis* has been shown to be pathogenic, particularly in endodontic failure (14) with 95 prevalence in such infections ranging from 24% up to 77% (15). Although highly 96 implicated in persistent endodontic failure, molecular studies have recently revealed 97 this species is frequently present in necrotic pulps, highlighting its potential role in 98 late-stage pulpitis (16, 17).

99 This study aims to use a validated *ex vivo* co-culture model to quantify and
100 better understand the host tissue response to mixed species pulpal infections

101 caused by *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis*. Understanding the mechanism of complex
102 pulpal infections and the host inflammatory response may elucidate potential targets
103 for more effective vital pulp therapies.

104

105 **Results**

106 Mixed species culture does not significantly influence S. anginosus and E. faecalis107 growth rate.

Growth characteristics in a simple mixed species planktonic broth culture were
investigated to ensure potential competitive growth between *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis* would not influence the *ex vivo* experiments investigating host tissue
response.

112 Clinical isolates of *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis* species were selected from the 113 culture collection of the Oral Microbiology Unit, School of Dentistry at Cardiff 114 University. Species identity was confirmed by standard microbial identification tests 115 and 16S rRNA sequencing as described in the methods and supplemental materials 116 (Fig. S1 and S2).

117 Fig. 1 shows the planktonic growth curves for *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis* alone 118 and in combination at ratios of 50:50 and 90:10 respectively over 24 hours in BHI. E. 119 faecalis reached mid-log phase earlier than S. anginosus (8 hours for E. faecalis 120 compared to 10 hours for *S. anginosus*). When cultured at a ratio of 50:50 however, 121 S. anginosus reached mid-log at a similar time to E. faecalis (10 hours). When the 122 bacteria were cultured at an S. anginosus to E. faecalis ratio of 90:10, S. anginosus 123 reached mid-log at approximately 8 hours and *E. faecalis* at approximately 12 hours. 124 Growth rate calculations during the log phase demonstrated no significant

differences between *E. faecalis* and *S. anginosus* under all culture conditions
(p>0.05, Table 1).

127

128 E. faecalis demonstrates greater levels of attachment to dental pulp than S.129 anginosus at 24 hours, with particular affinity to the pulpal vasculature.

130 To assess differences in bacterial attachment to the dental pulp, the ex vivo rat 131 tooth model was infected with planktonic cultures of *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis* 132 individually or as mixed species infections. Gram staining and fluorescent labelling 133 of bacteria were undertaken to localise and semi-guantify bacterial attachment. 134 High levels of bacterial attachment to the pulp were detected for tooth slices 135 incubated with E. faecalis (Fig. 2A) and mixed species of S. anginosus and E. 136 faecalis (Fig. 2B to 2C). Attachment was predominantly observed in intercellular 137 spaces within the pulpal matrix and around the pulpal vasculature. Bacteria were 138 also observed attached to soft tissue surrounding the tooth and within dentinal 139 tubules (Fig. 2D and 2E). Attachment of bacteria was not detected using Gram 140 staining on tooth slices incubated with *S. anginosus* alone.

141 Control samples demonstrated low levels of background fluorescence (Fig. 3A). 142 Infections consisting of *E. faecalis* alone had the greatest fluorescent signal, in 143 particular centred near the pulpal vasculature (Fig. 3B). S. anginosus demonstrated 144 low bacterial attachment, spread evenly across the pulp (Fig. 3C). When combining 145 *E. faecalis* and *S. anginosus*, higher levels of attachment were observed compared 146 to *S. anginosus* alone (Fig. 3D to 3E), with attachment again localised predominantly 147 to the pulpal vasculature. When the percentage bacterial coverage was semi-148 quantified (Fig. 3F), the single species *E. faecalis* infection had significantly higher 149 levels of bacterial attachment when compared to *S. anginosus* alone (approximately

150 6.5% compared to 2%, p=0.00021) and the mixed species infections (50:50,
151 p=0.0235 and 90:10, p=0.0032).

152

153 S. anginosus and E. faecalis infections significantly reduce pulp cell viability with E.
154 faecalis infections inducing a significantly greater inflammatory response.

To establish the dental pulp host response to *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis* infections alone and as mixed species infections, histomorphometric analysis was performed alongside RT-qPCR and immunohistochemistry for TNF- α and IL-1 β expression.

Histological cell counts of the infected tooth sections demonstrated a significant reduction ($p \le 0.05$) in viable cells due to infection by both *E. faecalis* and *S.*

161 *anginosus* alone and in combination (Fig. 4A). There were no significant differences

162 in cell numbers between single species infections and multi-species infections.

163 All infected samples had significantly higher pro-inflammatory cytokine

164 expression, tumour necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α, Fig. 4B) and interleukin 1 beta (IL-

165 1 β , Fig. 4C), when compared to the control samples (p≤0.05). The single species

166 infection of *E. faecalis* resulted in significantly higher levels of TNF-α and IL-1β

167 expression when compared to *S. anginosus* (p=0.0276 and p=0.0234 for TNF- α and

168 IL-1β respectively). Combining *E. faecalis* and *S. anginosus* together did not result

in a significantly higher inflammatory response from the pulp when compared to *E*.

170 *faecalis alone* (for TNF- α p=0.493 and p=0.096 for 50:50 and 90:10 respectively and

171 for IL-1 β p=0.988 and p=0.400 for 50:50 and 90:10 respectively).

Negative controls replacing the primary TNF-α antibody with a nonimmune
immunoglobulin G control showed no immunopositivity (Fig. S3). Similarly, primary
exclusion controls were negative for staining, indicating specific binding of the

secondary antibody (Fig. S3). Control samples demonstrated low expression of

176 TNF-α and interestingly *S. anginosus* alone did not induce a high TNF-α response

177 (Fig. 4D). Samples incubated with *E. faecalis* alone or in combination with *S.*

178 *anginosus* had the most pronounced staining, both within the pulp (around the

179 vasculature) and the odontoblast layer. The level of TNF- α staining in these samples

180 was similar to those encountered in the rat lung positive control (Fig. S3).

181 Immunohistochemistry staining for IL-1β, showed no positive signal for IgG
182 and primary exclusion controls (Fig. S3). Similar to the TNF-α

183 immunohistochemistry, the control sample and the sample incubated with S.

184 *anginosus* alone had few positively stained cells, whilst samples incubated with *E*.

185 *faecalis* alone and in combination with *S. anginosus* had more positively stained cells

186 (Fig. 4D). Although the level of staining was not as pronounce as observed with

187 TNF- α , the positive cells were again located adjacent to the pulpal vasculature and

similar in staining to the positive lung control (Fig. S3).

189

190 Greater host inflammatory response to E. faecalis is not due to differences in water
191 soluble cell wall proteins or culture supernatants.

192 To establish whether the increased host inflammatory response to *E. faecalis* 193 was due to specific water soluble cell proteins or components of the culture 194 supernatant, SDS-PAGE was performed to identify proteins in water soluble cell wall 195 proteins and culture supernatants. Similarly, heat killed *E. faecalis* and *E. faecalis* 196 supernatant was used to stimulate the pulp in order to assess the host response. 197 Few differences were observed between the water soluble cell wall proteins of S. 198 anginosus and E. faecalis when cultured alone and in combination with each other 199 (Fig. S4A). In terms of the culture supernatant, there was one band at approximately 35kDa observed with the *E. faecalis* cultures that was not observed with *S.*anginosus (Fig. S4B).

202 When culturing the rat tooth slices with the *E. faecalis* supernatant or the heat 203 killed *E. faecalis*, no significant differences were observed in TNF- α expression when 204 compared to the untreated controls (Fig. 5A, p=0.196 and p=0.152 for supernatant 205 and heat killed *E. faecalis* respectively). A significant increase was observed in IL-1 β 206 expression for the tooth slices cultured with heat killed *E. faecalis* when compared to 207 the untreated controls (Fig. 5B, p=0.041) but not for *E. faecalis* supernatant 208 (p=0.148).

209 The negative controls (IgG control and primary exclusion) and the control sample 210 for the TNF- α immunohistochemistry did not show staining (Fig. S5). The tooth 211 slices incubated with *E. faecalis* supernatant had few cells stained positive for TNF-a, 212 the majority of which was concentrated at the pulpal vasculature and odontoblast 213 layer (Fig. 5C). Similarly, the heat-killed *E. faecalis* had few cells expressing TNF-α 214 (Fig. 5C), whilst the lung positive control stained positive for TNF- α (Fig. S5). 215 The IgG control, the primary exclusion control and the untreated sample (Fig. S5) 216 did not stain positive for IL-1 β . Fewer cells were positive for IL-1 β than TNF- α (Fig. 217 5C). Samples treated with *E. faecalis* supernatant showed some cells stained 218 positive within the pulpal vasculature, whilst heat-killed *E. faecalis* showed few 219 positively stained cells. The positive lung control demonstrated cells stained positive 220 for IL-1 β expression (Fig. S5).

222 Discussion

223 This study has successfully employed an existing *ex vivo* rat tooth infection 224 model to study the effect of mixed species *E. faecalis* and *S. anginosus* pulpal 225 infections on cell viability, bacterial attachment and host inflammatory response. 226 By studying simple planktonic growth kinetics, it was established that *E. faecalis* 227 caused the S. anginosus bacteria to reach log phase at a more rapid rate. This 228 concept of polymicrobial synergy has been highlighted in recent work, which 229 investigated metabolite cross-feeding, whereby metabolic end-products produced by 230 one bacterium are consumed by a second community member (18-20). In particular, 231 this has been demonstrated for a similar oral pathogen, Streptococcus gordonii. 232 Lactate produced by S. gordonii as the primary metabolite during catabolism of 233 carbohydrates was found to support the growth of Aggregatibacter 234 actinomycetemcomitans (20). Interestingly, in a study using a primate model, the 235 addition of *E. faecalis* to a four-strain mixed species culture resulted in higher levels 236 of survival of all four bacteria than in the absence of *E. faecalis* (21). Another 237 mechanism of coordinating activities and communicating between microbial species 238 is guorum sensing, which has been shown to occur between different groups of 239 Streptococci (22). Although the rate of growth during the log phase was not altered 240 during mixed species planktonic culture in this study, it is important to appreciate that 241 under mixed species biofilm conditions, alterations in growth are likely to occur. 242 The mixed species infection did not result in higher levels of bacterial attachment 243 when compared to *E. faecalis* alone. The data suggests that *E. faecalis* is capable 244 of attaching to the dental pulp to a greater extent than S. anginosus, with a particular 245 affinity to the pulpal vasculature. This was not attributed to a more rapid rate of 246 growth or higher number of bacteria as a similar number of *S. anginosus* was

247 counted after 24 hours in planktonic broth culture. Similarly in the mixed species 248 culture where S. anginosus achieved log phase at an earlier time point, attachment 249 was not as high when compared to *E. faecalis* alone. The increased attachment 250 may therefore be due to differences between the species in terms of motility, sensing 251 or cell surface adhesins. E. faecalis and S. anginosus are classified as groups D 252 and F respectively using Lancefield grouping (23), a method of grouping based on 253 the carbohydrate antigens on the cell wall. These differences in surface 254 carbohydrates could mediate changes in attachment to epithelial cells as 255 demonstrated by Guzman et al. (24). A review by Fisher and Phillips (25) 256 highlighted *E. faecalis* specific cell wall components which play a vital role in 257 pathogenic adhesion. Aggregation substance (Agg) increases hydrophobicity and 258 aids adhesion to eukaryotic and prokaryote surfaces and also encourages the 259 formation of mixed-species biofilm through adherence to other bacteria. 260 Extracellular surface protein (ESP) promotes adhesion, antibiotic resistance and 261 biofilm formation. Adhesin to collagen of *E. faecalis* (ACE) is a collagen binding 262 protein belonging to the microbial surface components recognizing adhesive matrix 263 molecules (MSCRAMM) family. ACE plays a role in the pathogenesis of 264 endocarditis and *E. faecalis* mutants which do not express ACE have been shown to 265 have significantly reduced attachment to collagens type I and IV but not fibrinogen 266 (26, 27). Whilst *S. anginosus* has been shown to adhere to the extracellular matrix 267 components fibronectin, fibrinogen and laminin, binding to collagens type I and IV was much less prominent (28). This is of particular interest in explaining differences 268 269 in pulpal adherence and the affinity of *E. faecalis* to localise near the pulpal 270 vasculature, as collagen fibres are often found in higher density around blood 271 vessels and nerves (29).

272 Although the level of cell death was the same between the groups tested, 273 infections consisting of *E. faecalis* alone produced a greater inflammatory response 274 when compared to *S. anginosus* and mixed species infections. This increase in 275 inflammation was not due to supernatant or water-soluble cell wall virulence factors 276 of *E. faecalis* as treatment of the dental pulp with these isolated factors did not yield 277 high levels of TNF- α and IL-1 β expression both at gene and protein level. Basic 278 analysis of supernatant and water soluble cell-wall proteins by SDS-PAGE showed 279 similar bands, however this may be due to the absence of serum or collagen 280 (present in the co-culture model) which has been shown to influence virulence factor 281 production, such as ACE (27). These results indicate the pulpal inflammation 282 caused by *E. faecalis* is likely due to the higher levels of attachment to the dental 283 pulp. Similar pathogenic traits have been established for *E. faecalis* in urinary tract 284 infections and endocarditis (30). Increased attachment to the dental pulp would 285 allow direct contact between cells and cell wall components such as lipoteichoic acid 286 (LTA), which induces activation of cluster of differentiation 14 (CD-14) and toll-like 287 receptor 2 (TLR-2) (31). An in vivo study, which infected canine pulp with 288 lipopolysaccharides (LPS) from Escherichia coli and lipoteichoic acid (LTA) from E. 289 faecalis, demonstrated LTA treatment led to pulp destruction, albeit to a lesser extent 290 than LPA (32). In vitro studies investigating macrophage responses to E. faecalis 291 LTA found that TNF-a expression was significantly increased in a dose-dependent 292 manner (33), with one study attributing it to the NF-kB and p38 MAPK signalling 293 pathways (34). These studies however were performed using monolayer cultures, 294 allowing easy access for LTA to activate toll-like receptors, whereas the presence 295 extracellular matrix would limit penetration of virulence factors into the dental pulp in 296 *vivo*. Furthermore macrophages are normally present as monocytes in normal

healthy pulp and require a stimulus to become activated (35). Studies using
immunohistochemistry have shown these monocytes as well as dendritic cells to be
located predominantly around blood vessels, with few distributed throughout the pulp
(36, 37).

301 High levels of TNF- α expression were also observed in the odontoblast region 302 using immunohistochemistry. Due to its anatomical location, odontoblasts are the 303 first cells to encounter foreign antigens either through infiltration of virulence factors 304 through dentinal tubules or the breakdown of enamel and dentine. Through Gram 305 staining in this study, *E. faecalis* was observed within the dentinal tubules of the 306 infected tooth slices. This phenomenon has been previously reported in human 307 teeth (38). Odontoblasts, which line the dentine, have been shown to express TLRs 308 and play a role in the pulp's immune response, in particular to bacterial exotoxins 309 (39-41). This explains the high inflammatory response observed for both infections 310 and supernatant treatments when assessed using immunohistochemistry. Cytokine 311 gene expression using RT-gPCR however did not demonstrate higher levels when 312 treating the dental pulp with supernatants or heat killed bacteria. This may be 313 attributed to the fact that the methods employed for pulp extraction would be unlikely 314 to fully remove the odontoblast cells.

Although the host response to a mixed species infection consisting of *S*. *anginosus* and *E. faecalis* has been established and the potential pathogenicity of *E. faecalis* in pulpal infections has been elucidated, there are several limitations to this study. The methods employed to fluorescently localise the bacteria could potentially result in diffusion-related artefacts. More specific post-processing techniques, such as fluorescent in-situ hybridization (FISH) probes may allow for more specific identification, quantification and localisation of mixed species pulpal infections.

322 Whilst the *ex vivo* model offers a 3D organotypic culture setting, the static nature, 323 which lacks blood flow does not allow full observation of the systemic immune 324 response. Potential methods to overcome this may involve addition of monocytes 325 directly to the culture media and prolonged incubation times to stimulate repair 326 mechanisms. Closer examination of attachment mechanisms using ACE negative E. 327 faecalis mutants and purified LTA would also help fully establish the pathogenicity of 328 *E. faecalis* in pulpal infections. This will allow the model to be used to develop more 329 effective treatments for pulpitis by assessing the efficacy of antimicrobial and anti-330 inflammatory treatments to inhibit bacterial colonisation.

331 In conclusion, this study has modelled a mixed species pulpal infection consisting 332 of S. anginosus and E. faecalis using a validated ex vivo rat tooth model. Although E. 333 faecalis caused S. anginosus to reach log growth phase more rapidly, the mixed 334 species infection did not result in higher cell death, attachment or inflammatory 335 response from the dental pulp. E. faecalis was found to elicit a much greater 336 inflammatory response, which was due to higher levels of attachment to the dental 337 pulp, with a particular affinity to the pulpal vasculature. Future work will focus on 338 assessing the mechanisms and attachment kinetics in order to elucidate the 339 molecular process and rate at which *E. faecalis* colonises the pulp.

340

341 Materials and Methods

342 Materials

All reagents including culture media, broths and agars were purchased from
Thermo Scientific (Leicestershire, UK) unless otherwise stated.

345

346 Bacterial identification

The *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis* species studied were clinical isolates selected
from the culture collection of the Oral Microbiology Unit, School of Dentistry at Cardiff
University. To confirm the identity of the species, standard microbial identification
tests were performed by assessing: colony appearance on blood agar, Gram
staining, haemolysis, presence of catalase, lactose fermentation (MacConkey agar),
Lancefield grouping and bile aesculin agar growth.

353 16S rRNA sequencing was also performed on the S. anginosus and E. faecalis 354 clinical isolates to validate species identity. S. anginosus and E. faecalis were 355 cultured overnight in brain heart infusion (BHI) broth at 37°C, 5% CO₂. DNA was 356 extracted from using a QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, Manchester, UK), according 357 to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was used in a PCR reaction using 16S 358 rRNA bacterial universal primers D88 (F primer; 5'-GAGAGTTTGATYMTGGCTCAG-359 3') and E94 (R primer; 5'-GAAGGAGGTGWTCCARCCGCA-3') (42) and sequencing 360 of the products was performed by Central Biotechnology Services (Cardiff University) 361 using a 3130xl Genetic Analyser (Applied Biosystems). DNA sequences were 362 aligned with GenBank sequences using BLAST (NCBI) to establish percentage 363 sequence identity.

364

365 Growth curves

Overnight cultures of *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis* in BHI broth were prepared
and diluted to 10⁸ colony forming units/mL (CFU/mL, absorbance at 600nm=0.080.1). The inoculum was diluted in BHI to give a starting concentration of 10²
CFU/mL. Mixed species planktonic cultures with a total of 10² CFU/mL were
prepared consisting of 50% *S. anginosus* and 50% *E. faecalis* (herein referred to as
50:50) and 90% *S. anginosus* and 10% *E. faecalis* (herein referred to as 90:10). The

372 broths were incubated at 37°C, 5% CO₂ and 1mL aliquots removed every 4 hours for 373 24 hours. The absorbance of the aliquots was measured at 600nm using an Implen 374 OD600 DiluPhotometer (München, Germany) and 50µL spiral plated on tryptic soya 375 agar using a Don Whitley Automated Spiral Plater (West Yorkshire, UK). The 376 remaining aliquot was then heat treated at 60°C for 30 minutes prior to spiral plating 377 on bile aesculin agar containing 6.5% w/w sodium chloride. Heat treatment and the 378 presence of high concentrations of bile and sodium chloride would only permit the 379 growth of *E. faecalis* but not *S. anginosus* (43). Plates were incubated at 37°C, 5% 380 CO₂ for 24 hours prior to counting. *E. faecalis* counts were subtracted from total 381 counts to give the number of *S. anginosus* bacteria. Specific growth rate was 382 calculated using the log phase of each growth curve and Equation 1, where μ is the 383 growth rate in CFU/mL per hour, x is the CFU/mL at the end of the log phase, x₀ is 384 the CFU/mL at the start of the log phase and t is the duration of the log phase in 385 hours.

386

$$\mu = \frac{\ln(x - x_0)}{t} \tag{1}$$

387

388 Co-culture model

389 The co-culture rat tooth infection model was prepared as described by 390 Roberts et al. (7). 28-day-old male Wistar rats were sacrificed under schedule 1 of 391 the UK Animals Scientific Procedures Act, 1986 by a qualified technician at the Joint 392 Biological Services Unit, Cardiff University for harvesting of tissue. Upper and lower 393 incisors were extracted and the incisors were cut into 2mm thick transverse sections 394 using a diamond-edged rotary bone saw (TAAB, Berkshire, UK). The sections were 395 transferred to fresh sterile Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) for no more 396 than 20 minutes before being cultured in 2mL DMEM, supplemented with 10%v/v

397 heat-inactivated fetal calf serum, 0.15mg/mL vitamin C, 200mmol/L L-glutamine, 398 100U/mL penicillin, 100µg/mL streptomycin sulphate and 250ng/mL amphotericin B 399 at 37°C, 5% CO₂ for 24 hours. Tooth slices were then washed in 2mL of phosphate 400 buffered saline (PBS), transferred to supplemented DMEM without antibiotics and 401 incubated overnight to remove traces of antibiotic. S. anginosus 39/2/14A and E. *faecalis* were cultured to the log phase in BHI for 8-12 hours before dilution to 10^2 402 403 CFU/mL in BHI. The bacteria were then used alone or combined for mixed species 404 infections (S. anginosus to E. faecalis ratios of 50:50 and 90:10 respectively). Forty 405 µL of 1%w/v fluorescein diacetate (FDA) in acetone was added to 2mL of the 406 bacterial suspension and incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C, 5% CO₂ before being 407 passed through a 0.22µm syringe-driven filter unit (Millipore, Oxford, UK). Bacteria 408 captured on the filter were then resuspended in 2mL sterile supplemented DMEM 409 without antibiotics and with 10%v/v BHI (herein referred to as DMEM-BHI) and used 410 to inoculate one tooth slice. Tooth slices were incubated with the bacteria at 37°C, 5% 411 CO₂ for 24 hours under constant agitation at 60rpm in the dark. Sterile DMEM-BHI 412 was used as a control. After incubation the tooth slices were processed for histology 413 in the dark. Tooth slices were fixed in 10%w/v neutral-buffered formalin at room 414 temperature for 24 hours. Slices were demineralized in 10%w/v formic acid at room 415 temperature for 72 hours; dehydrated through a series of 50%v/v, 70%v/v, 95%v/v, 416 and 100%v/v ethanol followed by 100%v/v xylene for five minutes each; and 417 embedded in paraffin wax. Sections 5µm thick were cut and viewed under a 418 fluorescent microscope with a FITC filter, with images captured using a Nikon digital 419 camera and ACT-1 imaging software (Nikon UK Ltd, Surrey, UK). To guantify cell 420 viability and structural degradation, sections were stained with hematoxylin and 421 eosin (H&E) prior to capturing images with a light microscope.

422

423 Gram stain of tissue sections

424 Gram stains of tooth slices were performed using a modified Brown and Brenn 425 method (44). Paraffin-embedded tooth slices were cut using a microtome into 5µm 426 sections and rehydrated through a series of xylene, 100, 95 and 70%v/v ethanol for 427 five minutes each. Sections were immersed in 0.2%w/v crystal violet for 1 minute, 428 rinsed with distilled water, immersed in Gram's iodine for 1 minute, rinsed with 429 distilled water, decolourised with acetone for 5 seconds and counterstained for 1 430 minute with basic fuchsin solution prior to washing with distilled water and mounting. 431 Light microscopy images were captured at x100 magnification using a Nikon digital 432 camera and ACT-1 imaging software (Nikon UK Ltd, Surrey, UK).

433

434 Semi-quantification of cell viability by cell counts

435 ImageJ (National Institutes of Health, Maryland USA) was used to count the 436 number of nuclei per pulp on stained histological sections. For each time point, 437 sections were cut from 5 tooth slices. Images were captured at x20 magnification 438 and combined using ImageJ software (Fig. S6). The blue field was extracted from 439 the images and the moments threshold method was applied to separate the pulp 440 cells. The watershed function was applied to split adjacent cell nuclei and the number of particles ranging in size from 3 to 100µm² were counted. The data was 441 442 normalised to the pulpal area and standard errors of the mean were calculated.

443

444 Semi-quantification of bacterial coverage

ImageJ was used to quantify the area of the pulp inoculated with fluorescentbacteria. The green field of the fluorescent image was extracted and the image

converted into a binary form using the moments threshold method. The pulpal area
was manually selected and the total area of the pulp measured. The area covered
by the fluorescent bacteria was then measured and calculated as a percentage of
the selected pulp area (Fig. S7).

451

452 RT-qPCR of cytokines

453 Four mm thick tooth slices were cultured as previously described for 24 hours with either sterile DMEM-BHI as a control; DMEM-BHI inoculated with 10²CFU/mL 454 455 S.anginosus or E. faecalis or DMEM-BHI with a mixed species of S.anginosus or E. 456 faecalis (50:50 and 90:10 ratios respectively). After incubation, the tooth slice was 457 transferred to sterile PBS and the pulp removed by flushing the pulpal cavity with 458 PBS using a 0.1mm needle and syringe. RNA was extracted using TRIzol® Reagent 459 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK) followed by RNAse treatment 460 (Promega, Southampton, UK) according to the manufacturers' instructions. 461 Analysis of gene expression was performed in accordance to the Minimum 462 Information for publication of Quantitative real-time PCR Experiments (MIQE) 463 guidelines (45). RNA concentrations were determined using a NanoVue 464 Spectrophotometer (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Buckinghamshire, UK). RNA 465 purity was determined by ensuring the ratio of absorbance at 260/280nm was above 466 1.8 and RNA quality checked by separating 1µg of RNA electrophoretically on a 2% 467 agarose gel containing SafeView (NBS Biologicals, Cambridgeshire, UK) in 468 Tris/Borate/EDTA buffer to ensure intact 28S and 18S rRNA bands using a Gel 469 Doc™ EZ System (BioRad, Hertfordshire, UK). Fig. S8 demonstrates RNA integrity 470 following extraction for samples tested.

Complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized by reverse transcription using
Promega reagents (Southampton, UK) in a G-Storm GS1 thermocycler (Somerton,
UK). One µg extracted RNA was combined with 1µL random primer in a 15µL
reaction in nuclease free water at 70°C for 5 minutes. This suspension was added to
5µL MMLV reaction buffer, 1.25µL deoxyribonucleotide triphosphates (10mM stock
dNTPSs), 0.6µL RNasin, 1µL MMLV enzyme and 2.15µL nuclease free water and
incubated at 37°C for 1 hour.

478 The resultant cDNA was diluted 1:10 in nuclease free water (25ng cDNA). 479 Forward and reverse primers used are listed in Table 2. Ten µL of PrecisionFAST 480 qPCR SYBR Green MasterMix with low ROX (Primerdesign, Chandler's Ford, United 481 Kingdom) was combined with 2µL of forward and 2µL of reverse primers (3µM) with 482 1µL nuclease-free water prior to addition of 5µL cDNA in BrightWhite Real-time PCR 483 FAST 96-well plates (Primerdesign, Chandler's Ford, United Kingdom). The plates 484 were subsequently heated to 95°C for 20 seconds; then 40 cycles of: 95°C for 1 485 second and 55°C for 20 seconds; followed by melt-curve analysis at 95°C for 15 486 seconds, 60°C for 60 seconds and 95°C for 15 seconds in a QuantStudio™ 6 Flex 487 Real-Time PCR System with QuantStudio Real-Time PCR Software (ThermoFisher 488 Scientific, Loughborough, UK). Relative TNF- α and IL-1 β gene expression was 489 calculated with beta actin (β -actin) as the reference gene and uninfected samples as 490 the control using the Livak method (46).

Primer specificity was ensured by the presence of single melt curve peaks (Fig.
S9) and by running products on agarose gels, as previously described, to confirm
single bands and correct product lengths (Fig. S10). Primer efficiency was between
90-110% for all primers used (Fig. S11) and determined using total rat RNA
converted to cDNA, as previously described, and serially diluted 1:4 in nuclease-free

water. Reference gene validation was performed by comparing gene stability across
all samples using NormFinder software (47). β-actin was found to be the most stable
reference gene (Fig. S12).

499

500 TNF- α and IL-1 β Immunohistochemistry

501 Immunohistochemical staining of the tooth slices for TNF- α and IL-1 β was 502 performed based on methods used by Smith et al (48). Rat lung was used as a 503 positive control for TNF- α and IL-1 β following fixation in 10%w/v neutral-buffered 504 formalin at room temperature for 24 hours, dehydration through a series of 50%v/v, 505 70%v/v, 95%v/v, and 100%v/v ethanol followed by 100%v/v xylene for five minutes 506 each; and embedding in paraffin wax. Paraffin-embedded tooth slices and lung 507 samples were cut using a microtome into 5 µm sections and incubated on glass 508 slides at 65°C for one hour. The samples were subsequently rehydrated through a 509 series of xylene, 100%v/v, 95%v/v and 70%v/v ethanol and double-distilled water for 510 5 minutes each. Endogenous peroxidase activity within the tissue sections was 511 quenched by incubation in 3%w/v hydrogen peroxide for 10 minutes, followed by 2 512 washes for 2 minutes in tris-buffered saline (TBS). Non-specific binding was blocked 513 with 3%v/v normal horse serum (Vector laboratories, Peterborough, UK) in TBS for 514 30 minutes. Sections were incubated for 1 hour with primary antibodies for TNF-α 515 and IL-1ß (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Heidelberg, Germany) diluted 1:50 in TBS 516 containing 1%w/v bovine serum albumin (Sigma Aldrich, Gillingham, UK). 517 Immunoreactivity was then performed using a Vectastain ABC peroxidase detection 518 kit (Vector laboratories, Peterborough, UK). Negative controls included omission of 519 the primary antibody and replacements of the primary antibody with immunoglobulin 520 G isotype diluted to the working concentration of the primary antibody. Sections

were counterstained with 0.05% light green for 30 seconds, dehydrated with 100%
ethanol and xylene for 10 minutes each and mounted using VectaMount Permanent
Mounting Medium (Vector laboratories, Peterborough, UK) prior to imaging using a
Nikon digital camera and ACT-1 imaging software (Nikon UK Ltd, Surrey, UK).

525

526 SDS-PAGE of bacterial proteins

527 An overnight culture of S. anginosus and E. faecalis in BHI was prepared and diluted to 10² CFU/mL. S. anginosus and E. faecalis were cultured at 37°C, 5% CO₂ 528 529 for 24 hours alone or in combination at a ratio of 50:50 and 90:10 respectively. The 530 suspensions were centrifuged at 5000g for 5 minutes. The supernatant was used for 531 analysis of supernatant proteins. The pellet was lysed in RIPA buffer by vortexing 532 for 30 seconds followed by 30 seconds ultrasonication at 50 Joules using a Branson 533 SLPe sonifier (Connecticut, USA). Protein concentrations in the supernatant and the 534 bacterial pellet were quantified using a BCA assay (ThermoFisher Scientific, 535 Loughborough, UK) and 20µg of protein in Laemmli buffer (Biorad, Hertfordshire, UK) 536 separated by SDS-PAGE at 200V for 40 minutes. Gels were stained using a Biorad 537 Silver Stain Plus Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions and imaged using a 538 Gel Doc[™] EZ System (Biorad, Hertfordshire, UK).

539

540 *E. faecalis* supernatant and heat-killed *E. faecalis* treatments

541 An overnight culture of *E. faecalis* was diluted in 20mL DMEM-BHI media to give 542 a starting inoculum of 10²CFU/mL as previously described. After incubation for an 543 additional 24 hours at 37°C, 5% CO₂, the suspension was centrifuged at 5000g for 5 544 minutes. The supernatant was filtered through a 0.22µm syringe filter and frozen 545 overnight at -20°C before freeze drying for 24 hours using a ScanVac CoolSafe

546 freeze dryer (LaboGene, Lynge, Denmark). The pellet of bacteria was resuspended 547 in 20mL of PBS and centrifuged at 5000g for 5 minutes. This step was repeated 548 again to ensure minimal carryover of culture supernatant. The pellet was then 549 resuspended in 20mL DMEM-BHI and heated to 100°C for one hour. The solution 550 was then frozen overnight at -20°C before freeze drying as previously described. 551 20mL of sterile DMEM-BHI was also frozen and freeze dried as a control. All freeze 552 dried samples were individually resuspended in 20mL of sterile DMEM-BHI and used 553 to culture rat tooth slices for RT-gPCR of cytokines and immunohistochemistry of 554 TNF- α and IL-1 β as previously described.

555

556 Statistical analysis

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed using the data analysis
package in Excel (Microsoft, Reading, UK) to determine the relative significance of
the difference between the infected groups and the controls in terms of cell counts,
bacterial coverage and cytokine expression. The Tukey-Kramer test was used in
conjunction with ANOVA to compare the significant difference between all possible
pairs of means. P≤0.05 was considered significant.

563

564 Acknowledgements

565 This work was supported by The Dunhill Medical Trust [grant number:

566 R232/1111].

567

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- 730

731 Figure legends

Fig. 1: Growth curves of (A) *E. faecalis*, (B) *S. anginosus*, *E. faecalis* and *S.*

733 anginosus combined at a ratio of (C) 50:50 and (D) 90:10 respectively. Mean values

of three experimental repeats shown with error bars indicating standard deviation.

735

Fig. 2: Gram stain of tooth slices infected with (A) *E. faecalis*, (B) 50:50 *S.*

737 anginosus : E. faecalis and (C to E) 90:10 S. anginosus : E. faecalis. Arrows

highlight areas of bacterial attachment, P represents dental pulp, D represents

dentine and S represents soft tissue surrounding the tooth. Representative images

- of three experimental repeats shown.
- 741
- Fig. 3: Localisation of bacterial attachment by fluorescent microscopy for tooth slices
- infected with: (A) No bacteria control, (B) *E. faecalis,* (C) *S. anginosus,* (D) 50:50 *S.*
- 744 anginosus : E. faecalis and (E) 90:10 S. anginosus : E. faecalis. P represents the
- 745 dental pulp, O the odontoblast region and D the dentine. Representative images of

three experimental repeats shown. (F) Bacterial coverage as quantified by area of fluorescence relative to total pulp area (* $p\leq0.05$, ** $p\leq0.01$ and *** $p\leq0.001$). Mean values of three experimental repeats shown with error bars indicating standard error of the mean.

750

Fig. 4: (A) Viable cells counted per mm^2 of pulp. Tooth slices infected with E. 751 752 faecalis and S. anginosus, both alone and in combination after 24 hours all resulted 753 in a significant reduction in viable cell number in the pulp when compared to the non-754 infected control (*p≤0.05). Mean values of three experimental repeats shown with 755 error bars indicating standard error of the mean. Fold change in (B) TNF- α and (C) 756 IL-1β gene expression as a result of *E. faecalis* and *S. anginosus* infections, alone 757 and in combination (*p≤0.05, **p≤0.01 compared to control samples and ⁺p≤0.05 and 758 ⁺⁺p≤0.01). Mean values of three experimental repeats shown with error bars 759 indicating standard error of the mean. (D) Immunohistochemistry of TNF- α and IL-760 1β for control samples and tooth slices infected with S. anginosus, E. faecalis, 50:50 761 S. anginosus : E. faecalis and 90:10 S. anginosus : E. faecalis, Representative 762 images of three experimental repeats shown.

763

Fig.5: Fold change in (A) TNF-α and (B) IL-1β gene expression relative to β–actin as a result of treating tooth slices with *E. faecalis* supernatant and heat-killed *E. faecalis* (*p≤0.05 compared to control samples). Mean values of three experimental repeats shown with error bars indicating standard error of the mean. (C) Immunohistochemistry of TNF-α and IL-1β for control samples and tooth slices infected with *E. faecalis* supernatant and heat-killed *E. faecalis*. Representative

images of three experimental repeats shown.

Fig. 1



Fig. 2



Fig. 3







Control

C

Fold change in IL-1 β relative to β -actin

Table 1: Growth rates during the log phase of *S. anginosus* and *E. faecalis*

Average growth rate during			
log phase (CFUs/mL per hour)	Standard deviation		
1.51	0.20		
2.00	0.25		
1.62	0.10		
1.53	0.14		
1.98	0.12		
1.57	0.12		
	Average growth rate during log phase (CFUs/mL per hour) 1.51 2.00 1.62 1.53 1.98 1.57		

alone and in combination at ratio of 50:50 and 90:10 respectively.

Gene	Primer sequence (5'-3')	Product length (Bp)	Melting temperature (°C)	Efficiency (%)	Source
Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH - NM_017008.4)	Forward – GCA AGA GAG AGG CCC TCA G Reverse – TGT GAG GGA GAT GCT CAG TG	74	61.0 59.4	106.37	(48)
Beta-actin (β-actin - NM_031144.3)	Forward – TGA AGA TCA AGA TCA TTG CTC CTC C Reverse – CTA GAA GCA TTT GCG GTG GAC GAT G	155	60.69 64.37	108.56	(49)
Hypoxanthine Phosphoribosyltransferase 1 (HPRT-1 - NM_012583.2)	Forward – TGT TTG TGT CAT CAG CGA AAG TG Reverse – ATT CAA CTT GCC GCT GTC TTT TA	66	60.24 59.43	91.71	(50)
Ribosomal Protein L13a (RPL13a - NM_173340.2)	Forward – GGA TCC CTC CAC CCT ATG ACA Reverse – CTG GTA CTT CCA CCC GAC CTC	131	61.8 63.7	99.99	(51)
18s ribosomal RNA (18s rRNA – V01270)	Forward – AAA CGG CTA CCA CAT CCA AG Reverse – TTG CCC TCC AAT GGA TCC T	159	57.3 56.7	90.22	(52)
Tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α - NM_012675.3)	Forward – AAA TGG GCT CCC TCT CAT CAG TTC Reverse – TCT GCT TGG TGG TTT GCT ACG AC	111	62.7 62.4	90.28	(53)
Interleukin 1 beta (IL-1β - NM_031512.2)	Forward – ATG CCT CGT GCT GTC TGA CCC ATG TGA G Reverse – CCC AAG GCC ACA GGG ATT TTG TCG TTG C	135	70.06 70.16	94.80	

Table 2: Primer sequences used for qPCR analysis