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Receptor Recognition of and Immune Intracellular Pathways for *Veillonella parvula* Lipopolysaccharide

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*Veillonella parvula* is an anaerobic gram-negative coccus that is part of the normal flora of the animal and human mouth and gastrointestinal and genitourinary tracts. Oral *V. parvula* is involved in the development of early periodontal disease as well as different types of serious infections. Present data on molecular mechanisms responsible for innate immune response against *Veillonella* are very scanty. The aim of this study was to investigate the Toll-like receptor (TLR) pathways responsible for *V. parvula* lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and to identify the intracellular pathways induced by this recognition. *V. parvula* LPS stimulated tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α) and interleukin-6 (IL-6) release in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) in a dose-dependent manner. Pretreatment of cells with a TLR4 antagonist significantly reduced TNF-α and IL-6 production in PBMC stimulated with either *Veillonella* or *Escherichia coli* LPS. However, *V. parvula* LPS was 10- to 100-fold less active than *E. coli* LPS for cytokine induction. TNF-α, IL-1β, IL-6, and IL-10 were released in wild-type and TLR2−/−, but not TLR4−/−, mouse macrophage cultures. *V. parvula* LPS was able to activate the human PBMC p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK). A specific p38 MAPK inhibitor strongly inhibited *V. parvula* LPS-induced TNF-α, IL-1β, IL-6, and IL-10. In conclusion, *V. parvula* LPS is able to induce cytokine production in both human and murine in vitro models, although it is less effective than *Enterobacteriaceae* LPS. *V. parvula* LPS-stimulated cytokine induction, as well as p38 MAPK activation, are TLR4-dependent features.

*Veillonella* organisms are small, nonfermentative, strictly anaerobic, gram-negative cocci which form part of the normal flora of the oral, genitourinary, respiratory, and intestinal tracts of humans and animals (10). The genus *Veillonella* was first isolated by Veillon and Zubler in 1898 and currently consists of eight species (28).

*Veillonella* species have been reported as causes of serious infections, including meningitis (6), osteomyelitis and discitis (7, 28), prosthetic joint infection (26), and acute and chronic pleuropulmonary infection (33).

Risk factors for *Veillonella* infection include periodontal disease, immunodeficiency, intravenous drug use, and premature birth (28). *V. parvula* is an important pathogen implicated in periodontitis and other dental infections (3, 18), and it is one of the most common anaerobic pathogens in chronic maxillary sinusesitis and deep neck infections (9, 37). *V. parvula* has also been reported as a pathogen for osteomyelitis (34) and abscessed orchiepididymitis with sepsis (4). Endovascular infections reportedly may range from bacteremia to severe endocarditis and fatal cases of sepsis (8, 14, 25).

Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) are major pathogenic factors of gram-negative bacteria. LPS from aerobic and facultative bacteria have been extensively studied (5). On the contrary, very little is known regarding the biological activity of LPS from anaerobic microorganisms such as *Veillonella* (10, 24, 29, 32). In addition, little is known about cellular and molecular mechanisms responsible for innate immune response against *V. parvula*, as well as for inflammatory reactions leading to severe periodontitis or sinusitis. Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens. Immunohistochemical localization of TLR2 and TLR4 in gingival tissue of periodontitis patients has been reported (30). In mammals, engagement of TLRs by LPS results in the recruitment of cytoplasmic Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens. Immunohistochemical localization of TLR2 and TLR4 in gingival tissue of periodontitis patients has been reported (30). In mammals, engagement of TLRs by LPS results in the recruitment of cytoplasmic Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens. Immunohistochemical localization of TLR2 and TLR4 in gingival tissue of periodontitis patients has been reported (30). In mammals, engagement of TLRs by LPS results in the recruitment of cytoplasmic Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens. Immunohistochemical localization of TLR2 and TLR4 in gingival tissue of periodontitis patients has been reported (30). In mammals, engagement of TLRs by LPS results in the recruitment of cytoplasmic Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens. Immunohistochemical localization of TLR2 and TLR4 in gingival tissue of periodontitis patients has been reported (30). In mammals, engagement of TLRs by LPS results in the recruitment of cytoplasmic Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens. Immunohistochemical localization of TLR2 and TLR4 in gingival tissue of periodontitis patients has been reported (30). In mammals, engagement of TLRs by LPS results in the recruitment of cytoplasmic Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens. Immunohistochemical localization of TLR2 and TLR4 in gingival tissue of periodontitis patients has been reported (30). In mammals, engagement of TLRs by LPS results in the recruitment of cytoplasmic Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens. Immunohistochemical localization of TLR2 and TLR4 in gingival tissue of periodontitis patients has been reported (30). In mammals, engagement of TLRs by LPS results in the recruitment of cytoplasmic Toll-like receptors (TLRs) recognize microbial compounds (36) and trigger the inflammatory and immune responses against pathogens.
and washed twice in 50 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) containing 20 mM 2-mercaptoethanol (PPB). Cells were extracted twice with phenol-water (38). Briefly the aqueous layers were combined and dialyzed against 20 liters of distilled water at 4°C. The crude LPS was lyophilized and then dissolved in distilled water and centrifuged once at 80,000 × g for 7 h at 4°C. The pellet was suspended in distilled water and re-centrifuged twice at 105,000 × g for 3 h at 4°C. The LPS was dissolved in PBp with RNase (Sigma, Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO) and DNase (Sigma) at 20 μg/ml each. After 2 h of incubation at 37°C, the solution was centrifuged at 105,000 × g for 4 h at 4°C. The final pellet was dissolved in distilled water, lyophilized, and stored at −20°C as once-purified LPS. Double-step-purified LPS (re-purified LPS) was obtained following the method described by Hirschfeld et al. (17).

Isolation of peripheral blood mononuclear cells and stimulation of cytokine production. Isolation of PBMC was performed as described elsewhere (3), with minor modifications. All volunteers signed an informed consent form, according to the institutional guidelines and procedures. A total of 5 × 10^6 PBMC in a 100-μl volume were added to round-bottom 96-well plates (Greiner) and incubated with either 100 μl of culture medium or the various stimuli: highly purified *Veillonella* LPS (1 to 10 ng/ml), highly purified *E. coli* LPS (1 ng/ml), or Pam3Cys (10 μg/ml; EMC Microcollections). In some experimental sets, cells were pretreated with or without double-extracted *Bartonella quintana* LPS (1 μg/ml), a TLR2 antagonist (31), 30 min before treatment with *V. parvula* LPS (100 ng/ml). Specific signal transduction inhibitors of p38 MAPK (SB202190; 25 μM), ERK1/2 (U0126; 25 μM), JNK1/2/3 kinase (SP600125; 25 μM) (all inhibitors purchased from Superarray Bioscience Corporation, Bethesda, MD) were added to the cultures for 45 min prior to addition of *Veillonella* LPS. All unstimulated and control samples received an equal amount of inhibitor solvent, dimethyl sulfoxide (0.1% [vol/vol]). After 24 h of culture, the supernatants were collected, centrifuged at 1,200 rpm, and stored at −80°C until assayed.

Isolation of peritoneal macrophages and stimulation of cytokine production. For isolation of mouse peritoneal macrophages and spleen cells, groups of five TLR2−/− and TLR4−/− mice (kindly provided by S. Akira, Osaka, Japan) and their control littermates were sacrificed, and resident peritoneal macrophages were harvested by injecting 4 ml of sterile phosphate-buffered saline containing 0.38% sodium citrate. After washing, the cells were resuspended in RPMI 1640 medium containing 1 mM pyruvate, 2 mM l-glutamine, 100 μg/ml gentamicin, and 2% fresh mouse plasma (culture medium). Cells were cultured in 96-well microtiter plates (Greiner, Alphen, The Netherlands) at 10^5 cells per well, in a final volume of 200 μl. The cells were stimulated with either control medium or highly purified *Veillonella* LPS (1 μg/ml), highly purified *E. coli* LPS (1 ng/ml), or Pam3Cys (10 ng/ml). After 24 h of incubation at 37°C, the plates were centrifuged (500 × g, 10 min), and the supernatant and cell lysates (three-freeze-thaw cycles) were collected and stored at −80°C until cytokine assays were performed.

Cytokine determinations. Human tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α), interleukin-1β (IL-1β), IL-6, and IL-10 were measured using an enhanced chemiluminescence system (Amersham, Buckinghamshire, United Kingdom). Immune complexes were identified by using an enhanced chemiluminescence system (Amersham, Buckinghamshire, United Kingdom).

**RESULTS**

*V. parvula* LPS is a weak stimulator of cytokine production in human PBMC. Following stimulation with increasing amounts of *V. parvula* LPS (1 to 100 ng/ml), human PBMC released TNF-α and IL-6 in a dose-related fashion. The highest concentration of *V. parvula* LPS used (100 ng/ml) released an amount of the above cytokines that was comparable to that produced by 1 ng/ml of the reference *E. coli* LPS (Fig. 1A and B).

![FIG. 1. (A) TNF-α production after exposure to *Veillonella* LPS. Human PBMC were stimulated with a dose of purified *Veillonella* LPS for 24 h. *E. coli* LPS served as a positive control. Data represent the means ± standard deviations for cytokine production by at least four healthy volunteers. (B) IL-6 production. Cytokine levels were determined by an ELISA, and the detection limit was 20 pg/ml for both cytokines.](http://cvi.asm.org/)

A TLR4 antagonist blocks *V. parvula* LPS-induced cytokine production. When human PBMC were pretreated with a TLR4 antagonist (*B. quintana* LPS at 1 μg/ml), the release of TNF-α and IL-6 following stimulation with *V. parvula* LPS (1 to 100 μg/ml) was significantly decreased as compared to the untreated controls (Fig. 2A and B).
ng/ml), as well as with 1 ng/ml of the reference E. coli LPS, was strongly inhibited (Fig. 2A and B).

**TLR4 is the major receptor for V. parvula LPS-induced cytokine production in mice.** Resident peritoneal macrophages were harvested from TLR2−/− and TLR4−/− mice and their control littermates and stimulated in vitro with either control medium or highly purified Veillonella LPS (1 µg/ml), highly purified E. coli LPS (1 ng/ml), or Pam3Cys (10 ng/ml). The three stimuli were able to produce a cytokine release substantially higher than medium alone in control macrophage cultures. Although Veillonella LPS caused a significant release of cytokines in the macrophages from TLR2−/− mice, it was not able to induce a relevant release of cytokines among the macrophages from TLR4−/− mice (Fig. 3A and B and 4A and B).

**Veillonella-induced activation of p38 MAPK, which mediates cytokine production.** V. parvula LPS was able to activate the human PBMC p38 MAPK after 60 minutes of incubation. When B. quintana double-purified LPS was used to inhibit TLR4 on PBMC, activation of p38 MAPK was hardly inhibited after 60 minutes (Fig. 5A).

The activation of JNK and ERK1/2 after the V. parvula LPS stimulus was very inconsistently observed regardless of the time point considered (15, 30, and 60 min) (data not shown). In line with these data, a p38 MAPK inhibitor strongly reduced cytokine production induced by V. parvula LPS (Fig. 5B and C). Similar results were observed with an inhibitor of JNK kinase, while inhibition of ERK had a more modest effect (Fig. 5B and C).

**DISCUSSION**

In the present paper we demonstrate that V. parvula LPS is recognized by TLR4 in both humans and mice and that the activation of MAP kinases plays an important role in V. parvula LPS-stimulated human PBMC signaling.
Previous studies on the in vitro and in vivo activities of the LPS from *Veillonella parvula* demonstrated that such an endotoxin has biological effects comparable to enterobacterial LPS (10, 29). Earlier studies reported on fibroblast collagenase-inducing PBMC cytokines stimulated by *Veillonella* spp. LPS; however, such cytokines were not directly evaluated (16). Formalin-killed *V. parvula* has been demonstrated to induce the release of IL-1β in human blood monocytes at levels comparable to those released by *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Bacteroides forsythus*, and *Prevotella intermedia* (27). More recent investigations showed that the concentrations of TNF-α and IL-10 released from umbilical cord and adult mononuclear cells following in vitro challenge with UV-killed *V. parvula* were comparable or even higher than cytokine concentrations evaluated in *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *E. coli*-stimulated cord and adult cells (19).

The lower cytokine production of PBMC induced by *Veil-

![FIG. 4. *Veillonella* LPS-induced cytokine production is TLR4 dependent. Peritoneal macrophages from wild-type and TLR4 gene-deficient mice were stimulated with *Veillonella* LPS for 24 h. As a control, cells were stimulated with *E. coli* LPS (a potent TLR4 ligand). (A) Murine TNF-α and IL-10 production induced by *Veillonella* LPS. (B) Murine IL-1α and IL-6. Data represent the means ± standard deviations for cytokine production by at least five mice. *, P < 0.01 (Wilcoxon rank test).

![FIG. 5. *Veillonella* LPS activates p38 MAPK. (A) Effects of TLR4 inhibition by *B. quintana* LPS on *Veillonella* LPS-stimulated p38 activation in human PBMC. Protein extracts were separated by Western blotting using specific anti-p38 and anti-phospho-p38 antibodies. The intensity of phospho-p38-specific bands was measured by densitometry and is reported as an arbitrary unit (a.u.) of phospho-p38 expression after normalization with p38 levels. The means ± standard errors of the means of three independent experiments are shown. (B and C) Effects of pharmacological inhibition of p38 MAPK-, JNK-, and ERK-mediated pathways during *Veillonella* LPS stimulation of PBMC; the graphs show IL-1β and IL-6 production after inhibition of p38 MAPK, JNK, and ERK (B) or TNF-α and IL-19 production (C). Data represent the means ± standard deviations for cytokine production of at least four healthy volunteers. Note the strong suppression of cytokine production after inhibition of p38 MAPK and JNK. *, P < 0.01 (Wilcoxon rank test).
the models used were only from murine species. In the present study, treatment of dendritic cells with an anti-TLR4 ligand recognized by TLR4 was not identified. In both these studies, *Veillonella* kidney cells responded to sonicated LPS-stimulated human PBMC signaling.  

*Veillonella* has been implicated in both dental/periodontal diseases (3, 18) and joint disorders (26). Periodontal disease and rheumatoid arthritis have remarkably similar inflammatory mediator profiles (22). Within periodontal lesions, activated monocytes, macrophages, and fibroblasts produce cytokines, such as TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6, which have been found to be significantly elevated in diseased periodontal sites compared with healthy or inactive sites (11). These cytokines orchestrate the cascade of destructive events that occur in the periodontal tissues and trigger the production of an array of inflammatory enzymes and mediators, resulting in irreversible hard and soft tissue damage (15). By exploiting an in vitro model of periodontal diseases, it has been found that upregulation of IL-6 by lipopolysaccharide treatment is TLR4 dependent. This pattern of gene expression indicates that pathogens may trigger TLR4 signaling and cause periodontitis (35). Therefore, our present findings may have sound clinical impact. Moreover, due to the similarity of pathogenesis between periodontitis and rheumatoid arthritis, antagonists of TLR4, as well as p38 inhibitors, have the potential to ameliorate progression of periodontal disease (23), rheumatic pathologies, as well as p38 inhibitors, have the potential to ameliorate progression of periodontal disease (23), rheumatic pathologies, and other chronic inflammatory/degenerative disorders. The TLR4 antagonist *B. quintana* LPS (31) has been demonstrated to dramatically improve the evolution of experimental arthritis in the mouse (1). Further studies are warranted in order to exploit the modulation of TLR4 and p38 MAPK in the therapy of chronic inflammatory/degenerative diseases.

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