

## **The multifaceted roles of antimicrobial peptides in oral diseases**

### **Abstract**

Antimicrobial peptides are naturally occurring protein molecules with antibacterial, antiviral and/or antifungal activity. Some antimicrobial peptides kill microorganisms through direct binding with negatively charged microbial surfaces. This action disrupts the cytoplasmic membrane and leads to the leakage of the cytoplasm. In addition, they are involved in the innate immune response. Antimicrobial peptides play an important role in oral health, as natural antimicrobial peptides are the first line of host defence in response to microbial infection. The level of natural antimicrobial peptides increases during severe disease conditions and play a role in promoting the healing of oral tissues. However, they are insufficient for eliminating pathogenic micro-organisms. The variability of the oral environment can markedly reduce the effect of natural antimicrobial peptides. Thus, researchers are developing synthetic antimicrobial peptides with promising stability and biocompatibility. Synthetic antimicrobial peptides are a potential alternative to traditional antimicrobial therapy. Pertinent to oral diseases, the deregulation of antimicrobial peptides is involved in the pathogenesis of dental caries, periodontal disease, mucosal disease and oral cancer, where they can kill pathogenic microorganisms, promote tissue healing, serve as biomarkers and inhibit tumour cells. This narrative review provides an overview of the multifaceted roles of antimicrobial peptides in oral diseases.

## **1 Introduction**

During the past two decades, the application of antimicrobial peptides in managing various diseases has drawn considerable attention from researchers (Fjell et al. 2011; van 't Hof et al. 2001). In general, multicellular organisms produce antimicrobial peptides as a defence mechanism against competing pathogenic microbes. Antimicrobial peptides are small molecules with a molecular mass between 1 and 5 kDa, and they have a tendency to form amphipathic structures: separate hydrophobic and hydrophilic domains in nonpolar solvents. Considerable research has led to the realisation that antimicrobial peptides do not merely act as direct antimicrobial agents but also represent effectors and regulators of the innate immune system through a range of actions (Fjell et al. 2011; Lai and Gallo 2009; Takeuchi et al. 2012).

Regarding the bactericidal mechanism of antimicrobial peptides, positively charged antimicrobial peptides likely associate with negatively charged microbial surfaces. They displace lipid and kill bacteria by inserting into the cytoplasmic membrane lipid bilayer's outer leaflet. (Fjell et al. 2011; van 't Hof et al. 2001). The mode of action by which antimicrobial peptides are attached and inserted into membrane bilayers is known as 'barrel-stave', 'carpet' or 'toroidal-pore' mechanisms (Tenovuo 2002). In addition, antimicrobial peptides inhibit cell wall formation, affect bacterial cell membranes' structure and inhibit protein folding or enzyme activity. Some antimicrobial peptides inhibit biofilm formation by competing with bacteria for adhesion (Ito et al. 2017). The mechanism of action also highlights antimicrobial peptides' selective toxicity; they kill bacterial pathogens without damaging host tissues. Because antimicrobial peptides usually work by attacking multiple hydrophobic and polyanionic bacterial targets, antimicrobial-peptide-resistant mutants infrequently arise

(Andersson et al. 2016). However, in cases where specific protein targets are involved, the possibility of bacterial resistance to antimicrobial peptides should not be ignored (Bechinger and Gorr 2017; Ho et al. 2016).

Natural antimicrobial peptides are naturally occurring molecules that all multicellular organisms produce as the first line of defence, and they display remarkable structural and functional diversity. They exist as antimicrobial substances on the epithelial lining and in the blood, leucocytes and the lymphatic tissue, where they defend host organisms against microbes. Natural antimicrobial peptides come in various forms, including defensins, histatins and cathelicidins, which have remarkably different structures (Table 1).

**Table 1 Type, expression site and sequence of natural antimicrobial peptides**

Peptide	Expression site				Sequence
	Salivary glands	Oral mucosa	Bone marrow	Dental pulp	
<i>Cathelicidin</i>					
LL37	+	+			LLGDFFRKSKEKIGKEFKRIVQRIKDFLRNLPRTES
<i>Defensin</i>					
hBD-1	+	+	+	+	GNFLTGLGHRSDHYNCISSGGQCLYSACPIFTKIQGTCTYRGKAKCCK
hBD-2	+	+	+	+	GIGDPVTCLKSGAICHVPFCPRRYKQIGTCGLPGTKCCKKP
hBD-3	+	+	+	+	GIINTLQKYYCRVRRGRCVLSCLPKEEQIGKCSTRGRKCCRRKK
hBD-4	+				EFELDRICGYGTARCKKCRSQEYRIGRCPNYACCLRKWDESLLNRTKP
HNP1	+	+			ACYCRIPACIAGERRYGTCTIYQGRLWAFCC
HNP2	+	+	+		CYCRIPACIAGERRYGTCTIYQGRLWAFCC
HNP3	+	+			DCYCRIPACIAGERRYGTCTIYQGRLWAFCC
<i>Histatin</i>					
Histatin-1	+		+		DSpHEKRHHGYRRKFHEKHSHREFFPYGDYGSNYLYDN
Histatin-2	+				RKFHEKHSHREFFPYGDYGSNYLYDN
Histatin-5	+				DSHAKRHHGYKRRKFHEKHSHRGRY

Their bactericidal properties could be evaluated based on their *in vitro* effect on planktonic bacteria. However, many antimicrobial peptides have limited antibiotic activity due to the variability of the oral environment (Bechinger and Gorr 2017; Lei et

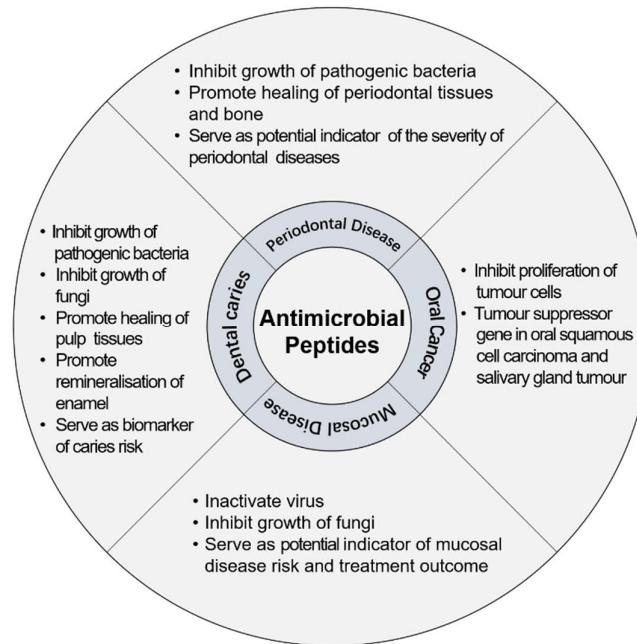
al. 2019). In addition, natural antimicrobial peptides generally have a short half-life, long sequence length and are unstable (Kumar et al. 2018; Shao et al. 2019).

To address the limitations of natural antimicrobial peptides, researchers designed and synthesised artificial antimicrobial peptides with structural modifications (sequence truncation or amino acid substitution) to achieve highly active, broad-spectrum activity and favourable pharmacokinetics with desirable stability (Bechinger and Gorr 2017; Shao et al. 2019). Researchers also modified the peptides, such as peptoids (peptide mimetics generated through backbone modification) and foldamers (unnatural oligomers of peptides). This was done to promote their antimicrobial activity and to prevent them from proteolysis (Luo et al. 2017; Olsen 2010). Furthermore, innovative drug delivery systems, such as nanoformulations, can further improve the stability, safety and efficacy of antimicrobial peptides (Mahlapuu et al. 2016). In addition, agents such as butyrate and vitamin D can enhance the expression of antimicrobial peptides and their function in some patients (Bayirli et al. 2020; Wang 2014).

Most oral diseases are inflammatory diseases resulting from the formation of mixed biofilms on the teeth or the periodontal tissues. Therefore, the control of dental microbial biofilms is critical to preventing or controlling dental diseases. Antimicrobial peptides do not produce bacteria resistance. They are safe because their degradation products are natural amino acids (Vlieghe et al. 2010). Antimicrobial peptides have the potential to be used in managing oral diseases, including dental caries, periodontal diseases, oral mucosal diseases and oral cancer (Figure 1). In addition, some databases were specifically developed for the properties and application of antimicrobial peptides (Niu et al. 2021). This narrative review is aimed at providing an overview of the role of antimicrobial peptides in the response to and treatment of oral diseases by collecting

information from different databases. Table 2 shows some of the natural and artificial antimicrobial peptides which were investigated.

**Figure 1 Antimicrobial peptides in oral diseases**



## 2 Inhibition of cariogenic species and promotion of pulp tissue healing

Dental caries is one of the most common chronic diseases globally (Chu et al. 2013). It is localised tooth demineralisation resulting from the acidic by-products of bacterial fermentation (Selwitz et al. 2007). Pulp and periapical disease are secondary diseases of caries. Pulpal inflammation and infection usually occur when the pulp is exposed to bacteria (Nakashima and Akamine 2005). One of the most prevalent causes of endodontic treatment failure is the permanence of microorganisms within root canals. *Enterococcus faecalis* is one of the most frequently found bacteria in teeth with pulp necrosis. It forms a tenacious biofilm in the root canal and can survive in severe conditions, such as medical treatments or mechanical preparation, which causes apical periodontitis (Gomes et al. 2008). Moreover, pulp cells play a crucial role in pulp-

dentine complex regeneration, and cell migration is an essential phenomenon during the early stage of this process (Lin et al. 2014). Both natural and artificial antimicrobial peptides have been known to be promising candidates for the development of new oral antimicrobial therapeutics (Mor 2000).

**Table 2 Oral disease–related types of antimicrobial peptides**

Oral diseases	Peptide type (No)	Antimicrobial peptides				
Dental caries	Natural (9)	LL37	hBD-1	hBD-2	hBD-3	hBD-4
		Histatin-5	HNP1	HNP2	HNP3	
	Artificial (50)	AAP	AmyI-1-18	C10-KKWW	C11H	C16G2
		Cecropin-XJ	chrysoepsin1	CLP-4	D-GL13K	D-Nal-Pac-525
		D1-23	dhvar5	DJK-5	DR9-RR14	DPS-P1
		gaegurin 6	GH12	G3	HBAMP	hBD3-C15
		hLF1–11	IMB-2	IDR-1002	Kappacin	KR12-KAEK
		KSL	KSL-W	L-K6	LFA-LFC	Lys-a1
		M8(KH)-20	MHAMP	mPE	MUC7-12mer	Nisin
		P113	Parasin I	pm11	Protamine	PsVP-10
		Pug-1	QP5	SHAMP	Ssp(A4K-A11K)	Sp-H5
		spB (390–T400K–402)		TVH19	VS2	VSL2
		ZXR-2				
		Periodontal disease	Natural (9)	LL37	hBD-1	hBD-2
Histatin-2	HNP1			HNP2	HNP3	
Artificial (19)	AMPCoI		BAR	Bacitracin	Cateslytin	DSS-RKF
	GL13K		HBD3-C15	hLF1-11	LFchimera	LyeTx I
	Nal-P-113		oligopeptide	P-15	P15-CSP	SAP3-TA
SMAP28	TiBPs	ZS37-37	ZS37-38			
Mucosal disease	Natural (8)	LL37	hBD-1	hBD-2	hBD-3	Histatin-5
		HNP1	HNP2	HNP3		
Oral cancer	Artificial (4)	dhvar4	dhvar5	KSL-W	ToAP2	
		Natural (7)	LL37	hBD-1	hBD-2	hBD-3
	Artificial (1)	HNP2	HNP3			
		hCAP <sub>109–135</sub>				

### 2.1 Natural antimicrobial peptides

Defensins were the first described antimicrobial peptides in mammals and consist of two subfamilies in humans:  $\alpha$ -defensin (HNP) and  $\beta$ -defensin (hBD). hBDs (hBD-1, hBD-2 and hBD-3) are expressed in dental pulp and odontoblasts (Dommisch et al.

2005; Paris et al. 2009). Studies indicate that hBDs (hBD-1, hBD-2 and hBD-3) show activity against various oral pathogens, especially the principal causative organisms of *Streptococcus mutans* and *E. faecalis*. They also prevent *E. faecalis* from binding to the host cell (Lee et al. 2013; Lee and Baek 2012). hBD3 showed a promising antimicrobial effect among hBDs (Joly et al. 2004). Two other natural antimicrobial peptides, Histatin-5 (Krzysciak et al. 2015) and cathelicidin (LL37) (Guo et al. 2016) have also been proved to be effective against *S. mutans*. Most studies were *in vitro* and reported their findings base on planktonic bacteria. Several strains of *Actinomyces naeslundii*, *S. mutans* and *Lactobacillus spp* have low susceptibilities to LL37, hBD-2, HNP-1 and HNP-3, and the number of such strains in patients showed significant positive correlations with dental caries experience (Goeke et al. 2018).

Natural antimicrobial peptides are potential biomarkers because deregulation of antimicrobial peptides can affect the caries risk. (Jurczak et al. 2015; Munther 2020) or are genetic susceptibility markers of caries (Slebioda et al. 2020; Wu et al. 2020). It is suggested that a positive correlation exists between the salivary hBD-2 level and caries progression (Jurczak et al. 2015). The increase of HNP1-3 in saliva is associated with the reduction of *S mutans* and rate of caries progression (Wattanarat et al. 2020). However, the association between hBD-1 and caries experience is still inconclusive (Krasone et al. 2014). Nevertheless, prior studies indicated that natural antimicrobial peptides could be biomarkers for identifying individuals with high caries risk (Goeke et al. 2018).

In addition, endogenous antimicrobial peptides may play a role in the innate host defence of the human dental pulp and promote the healing of pulp tissues. In previous research, hBD-2 significantly increased the dentine sialophosphoprotein mRNA levels

in human pulp cells, which may have the ability to stimulate odontoblast differentiation (Shiba et al. 2003). hBD-4 may be useful in indirect pulp therapy because it can enhance the differentiation of stem cells into osteoblasts or odontoblasts in dental pulp (Zhai et al. 2020). LL37 also stimulates human pulp cell migration, odontoblastic differentiation, angiogenesis and reparative dentin formation (Horibe et al. 2018). Thus, LL37 might be useful for pulp regeneration and pulp capping. Moreover, HNP-1 and HNP-3 could be identified from acute apical abscesses, but their roles are still not clear (Alfenas et al. 2017).

## *2.2 Artificial antimicrobial peptides*

To achieve the application of antimicrobial peptides to dental caries management, researchers have made many attempts to develop synthetic analogues or fragments of natural antimicrobial peptides from humans or other species. More than 40 artificial antimicrobial peptides have shown activity against planktonic cariogenic species (Table 3). In terms of their effects on cariogenic biofilms, HBD3-C15 (Ahn et al. 2017) and D1-23 (Kreling et al. 2016), both derived from hBD-3, demonstrated the inhibitory effect of *S. mutans* (Ahn et al. 2017; Kreling et al. 2016) and *Streptococcus gordonii* (Ahn et al. 2017) on biofilm formation. In another study, researchers attempted to load antimicrobial peptides to a bioadhesive liquid crystalline system to overcome the instability of natural antimicrobial peptides (Aida et al. 2018). This drug delivery system presented antibacterial activity against *S. mutans* biofilm with no cytotoxicity.



**Table 3 The roles of natural and artificial antimicrobial peptides in oral diseases**

Role of antimicrobial in oral diseases	Antimicrobial peptides				
<b>Dental caries</b>					
● Inhibit growth of pathogenic bacteria	LL37	hBD-1	hBD-2	hBD-3	Histatin-5
	HNP1	HNP2	HNP3	AAP	AmyI-1-18
	C10-KKWW	C11H	C16G2	Cecropin-XJ	chrysoepsin1
	CLP4	D-GL13K	D-Nal-Pac-525	D1-23	dhvar5
	DJK-5	DR9-RR14	DPS-PI	gaegurin 6	GH12
	G3	HBAMP	hBD3-C15	hLF1-11	IMB-2
	IDR-1002	Kappacin	KR12-KAEK	KSL	KSL-W
	L-K6	LFA-LFC	Lys-a1	M8(KH)-20	MHAMP
	mPE	MUC7-12mer	Nisin	P113	Parasin I
	pm11	Protamine	PsVP-10	Pug-1	QP5
	SHAMP	Ssp(A4K-A11K)		Sp-H5	VH19
	VSL2	SspB (390-T400K-402)		ZXR-2	VS2
	● Inhibit growth of fungi	hBD-2	hBD-3	AmyI-1-18	DR9-RR14
● Promote healing of pulp tissues	LL37	hBD-2	hBD-4	IDR-1002	
● Promote remineralisation of enamel	DR9-RR14	QP5	Sp-H5	TVH19	
● Serve as biomarker of caries risk	LL37	hBD-1	hBD-2	HNP1	HNP2
	HNP3				
<b>Periodontal disease</b>					
● Inhibit growth of pathogenic bacteria	LL37	hBD-1	hBD-2	hBD-3	Histatin-2
	HNP1	HNP2	HNP3	AMPCol	BAR
	Bacitracin	Cateslytin	DSS-RKF	GL13K	HBD3-C15
	hLF1-11	LFchimera	LyeTx I	Nal-P-113	oligopeptide
	P-15	P15-CSP	SAP3-TA	SMAP28	TiBPs
	ZS37-37	ZS37-38			
● Promote healing of periodontal tissues	LL37	hBD-1	hBD-2	hBD-3	Histatin-2
● Promote healing of bone	AMPCol	Bacitracin	GL13K	hBD-2	Histatin-1
	oligopeptide	P-15	P15-CSP	TiBPs	
● Serve as potential indicator of the severity of periodontal diseases	hBD-2	HNP1	HNP2	HNP3	
<b>Mucosal disease</b>					
● Inactivate virus	LL37	hBD-2	hBD-3		
● Inhibit growth of fungi	LL37	Lactoferricin	hBD-1	hBD-2	hBD-3
	Histatin-5	HNP1	HNP2	HNP3	ToAP2
	dhvar4	dhvar5	KSL-W	LL37	hBD-1
● Serve as potential indicator of mucosal disease risk and treatment outcome	hBD-2	hBD-3	Histatin-5	HNP1	HNP2
	HNP3				
<b>Oral cancer</b>					
● Inhibit proliferation of tumour cells	LL37	hCAP <sub>109-135</sub>			
● Serve as tumour suppressor gene in oral squamous cell carcinoma	hBD-1	hBD-2	HNP1	HNP2	HNP3
● Serve as protooncogenes in oral squamous cell carcinoma	hBD-2	hBD-3			
● Serve as tumour suppressor gene in salivary gland tumour	hBD-1				

Some synthesised antimicrobial peptides, such as VSL2 (Winfred et al. 2014), D-GL13K (Hirt et al. 2018) as well as PR39 and its fragments (Veldhuizen et al. 2014) showed activity against *E. faecalis* at different levels. Other kinds of antimicrobial peptides such as DJK-5 (Wang et al. 2017a) also showed activity against *E. faecalis* and have been evaluated to determine whether they could be used as a root canal irrigation agent in the *in vitro* condition. IDR-1002 is a synthetic peptide which has anti-inflammatory and antibacterial properties against *E. faecalis*. It is also a potential synergistic agent of ciprofloxacin in regenerative therapies (Sousa et al. 2020).

Among the abovementioned artificial antimicrobial peptides, targeting antimicrobial peptides is currently of major interest in research. It creates a new opportunity for antimicrobial peptide development. Given the property of amino acids, some functional groups could be designed or grafted to antimicrobial peptides for selective targeting purposes. For instance, antimicrobial peptide C16G2 has been synthesised to target *S. mutans* (Eckert et al. 2006). C16G2 consists of two functionally independent moieties conjoined in a linear peptide sequence: a nonspecific antimicrobial peptide serves as the killing moiety. Meanwhile, a species-specific binding peptide comprises the targeting moiety that provides specific binding to *S. mutans*. It facilitates the targeted delivery of the attached antimicrobial peptide. Previous studies have shown that C16G2 is potent against *S. mutans* grown in liquid or biofilm states (Kaplan et al. 2011). Data have also shown that several bacterial species with metabolic dependency or physical interactions with *S. mutans* suffered a drastic reduction in their abundance. Meanwhile, *S. mutans*' natural competitors, including health-associated *Streptococci*, became dominant after C16G2 treatment (Guo et al. 2015). Other studies involved developing tooth-binding antimicrobial peptides by grafting a hydroxyapatite-binding antimicrobial peptide to a broad-spectrum antimicrobial peptide domain. This was done

to achieve the long-term retention of antimicrobial peptides in the oral cavity (Huang et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2019).

### **3 Prevention of periodontal disease**

Periodontal disease is an inflammatory disease stemming from biofilms on periodontal support tissue and is also closely related to systemic health. Periodontal infections are usually mixed, most often involving such anaerobes as *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Prevotella intermedia*, *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* and *Fusobacterium nucleatum*. In addition, it has been reported that 90% of all types of implants show signs of inflammation, and 50% of all implants show signs of irreversible tissue destruction (Mombelli et al. 2012). The main reason for the failure of dental implants is peri-implantitis, which is generally the result of pathogenic biofilms. Antimicrobial peptide research regarding periodontal disease has mainly focused on two aspects: its antibacterial effect and its role in the regulation of immune responses. Moreover, antimicrobial peptides have recently been used to improve implant performance, as they possess broad-spectrum antimicrobial activity, promote osteogenic differentiation and reduce bone loss.

#### *3.1 Natural antimicrobial peptides*

Natural antimicrobial peptides have shown antibacterial activity against periodontal pathogens. hBD-2 showed an approximately equal level of antibacterial activity to that of minocycline at equimolar concentrations (Ouhara et al. 2005). Meanwhile, the antibacterial activity of natural  $\beta$ -defensin is reduced by the increase in concentration of metallic ions, such as sodium and calcium ions (Bowdish et al. 2006; Gursoy and Kononen 2012). Similarly, LL37 suppressed the *P. gingivalis*-induced proinflammatory

responses of human gingival fibroblasts in a paracrine manner (Into et al. 2010). However, *P. gingivalis* can down-regulate LL37 production (Tada et al. 2017) and directly degrade synthetic LL37 (McCrudden et al. 2013). All of the above limit the role of antimicrobial peptides as a potential therapeutic in the gingival crevice.

Levels of natural antimicrobial peptide differ in healthy people and patients with periodontitis (Gorr 2012). The LL37 level in saliva was positively correlated with severe periodontal destruction in patients with chronic periodontitis. This increase might occur as an innate immune response against the periodontopathic *Treponema denticol* (Takeuchi et al. 2012). Interestingly, edentulous patients had the lowest salivary antimicrobial peptide levels, suggesting that gingival tissues may contribute to the secretion of peptides in the oral environment (Davidopoulou et al. 2013). In addition, the level of the antimicrobial peptide in salivary and gingival crevicular fluid is associated with systemic status such as diabetes (Yilmaz et al. 2018) or vitamin D deficiency (Bayirli et al. 2020). These situations might lead to lower antimicrobial peptide levels in the oral cavity, as well as an increased risk of periodontitis (Bayirli et al. 2020; Turkoglu et al. 2016; Yilmaz et al. 2018). In addition, pregnancy could affect the salivary concentrations of hBD-1, hBD-2 and HNP-1 (Gursoy et al. 2016).

Antimicrobial peptides also carry a broad range of immunomodulatory activities and contribute to the bacterial clearance of the host. Antimicrobial peptides also boost specific innate immune responses and exert selective immunomodulatory effects on the host. Antimicrobial peptides scavenge the endotoxin lipopolysaccharides (LPSs) to prevent the LPSs from binding the Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) and triggering inflammation (Lai and Gallo 2009). For instance, LL37 has been reported to inhibit the TLR4-induced secretion of TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6, and it is involved in neutrophil recruitment

into an inflammatory site within diseased periodontal tissues (Montreekachon et al. 2014). The expression levels of hBD-1, -2 and -3 are also associated with that of TNF- $\alpha$  (Saitoh et al. 2004). Researchers proposed three models to describe the mechanism of antimicrobial peptides' immunomodulatory actions in mammalian cells, namely alternate ligand model, trans-activation model and membrane disruption model (Lai and Gallo 2009). In the alternate ligand model, antimicrobial peptides bind to a specific receptor to activate signal. In the trans-activation model, antimicrobial peptides stimulate the release of a membrane-bound ligand, and the ligand then binds to its receptor to activate signal. In the membrane disruption model, antimicrobial peptides modify the membrane containing the receptor and alter the membrane activity to activate signal.

Antimicrobial peptides also promote tissue healing. Among natural antimicrobial peptides, hBDs are expressed in oral bone (Warnke et al. 2006) and mediate tissue remodelling by increasing levels of metalloproteinases in articular cartilage. Further studies have demonstrated that hBDs could promote the proliferation of human mesenchymal stem cells, osteoblasts and keratinocytes in cultures (Warnke et al. 2013). In addition, hBDs and histatin-1 promoted bone regeneration and prevented infection (Lee et al. 2018; Peng et al. 2020; Sun et al. 2020).

Studies have shown that alterations in antimicrobial peptide-related genes may also be associated with periodontal inflammation. A low hBD-2 genomic (*DEFB4*) copy number increased the risk of severe chronic periodontitis (Jaradat et al. 2013). In addition, the mutation of the gene p.S34N in CAMP (LL37-encoding gene) associated with generalised aggressive periodontitis (Turkoglu et al. 2011).

Furthermore, activating natural antimicrobial peptides through therapeutic methods is

a useful strategy for exploring the application of antimicrobial peptides for management of periodontal disease. Laser irradiation has been used to induce the expression of antimicrobial peptides (LL37 and hBD-2), which promotes *P. gingivalis* elimination and tissue healing (Kim et al. 2015; Tang et al. 2017). Applying Cyclosporin A can extend inflammation, lead to neutrophil infiltration and increase the LL37 level in gingival crevicular fluid (Turkoglu et al. 2015).

### 3.2 Artificial antimicrobial peptides

Researchers have introduced new synthetic antimicrobial peptides for management of periodontal disease. A novel peptide, P-113, derived from Histatin5 was biocompatible but highly degradable in serum, plasma and saliva (Oudhoff et al. 2010). A novel antimicrobial peptide called Nal-P-113 was synthesised through replacing the histidine residues using the bulky amino acid of  $\beta$ -naphthylalanine. Nal-P-113 has demonstrated an inhibitory effect on a *P. gingivalis*-induced local inflammatory response and alveolar bone loss (Wang et al. 2017b). In addition, hBD3-C15, derived from hBD3, has shown the potential to be a therapeutic agent for the inhibition of bone destruction (Park et al. 2017). Several synthesised cathelicidins from cattle (BMAP28), sheep (SMAP28 and SMAP29) and pigs (PMAP23) have shown broad-spectrum antimicrobial activities (Brogden et al. 2007). Meanwhile, SMAP28 has shown the most antibacterial activity but also the most cytotoxicity (Weistroffer et al. 2008). Some researchers used SMAP28 as a template to develop a 'bacteria-specific' antimicrobial peptide targeting *P. gingivalis*, but the results showed the peptide lacked specificity (Bratt et al. 2010). Thus, further work should focus on developing new targeting domains that specifically involve selecting *P. gingivalis* (Bratt et al. 2010). Other poly acid nanoparticles that BAR (a peptide derived from *S. gordonii*) has modified might represent a potential

therapeutic approach to limiting *P. gingivalis* colonisation in the oral cavity (Kalia et al. 2017).

Researchers used the surface coating of antimicrobial peptides to prevent peri-implantitis or to promote the osseointegration of the implant. *In vitro* and *in vivo* studies showed that the surface coating of antimicrobial peptides was effective in inhibiting bacterial adhesion and biofilm formation (Coelho et al. 2014). Moreover, the coating of antimicrobial peptides on the implant surface reduces the vascular distribution and potential cytotoxicity of antimicrobial peptides (Yucesoy et al. 2015). Coating strategies include bonding covalently antimicrobial peptides to a titanium or hydroxyapatite surface; coupling the titanium-binding peptide domain with the antimicrobial peptides; employing the layer-by-layer technique; and using antimicrobial peptide biohydrogels.

The covalently immobilised coating process has been used to bond antimicrobial peptides to titanium surfaces using silane coupling agents to produce coatings. Chen et al. developed a GL13K-coated titanium implant that has demonstrated the inhibition of biofilm growth. The coated implant promoted the adhesion and proliferation of human gingival fibroblasts. It guided the growth of the fibroblasts along with the microgrooves (Chen et al. 2014). Furthermore, the GL13K-coated titanium implant had a similar bone growth rate as that of gold-standard dental implants during the six-week period after implantation in rabbit femurs (Chen et al. 2017). Bifunctional chimeric peptides were developed by coupling the titanium-binding peptide domain with the antimicrobial peptides (Wisdom et al. 2020). Bifunctional chimeric peptides had titanium-binding affinity and were antimicrobial. The surfaces that bifunctional chimeric peptides modified inhibited the adhesion of *S. mutans*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis* and *Escherichia coli* (Yazici et al. 2016). Proper selection of linkers could optimise the

performance of chimeric peptides (Wisdom et al. 2016). Another study coated a synthetic antimicrobial peptide, namely AMPCol, on smooth titanium surfaces using the layer-by-layer technique (Shi et al. 2015). The coating provided the sustained release of the antimicrobial peptides for the prevention of peri-implantitis. In addition, researchers adopted biohydrogels for the release of antimicrobial peptide (Yang et al. 2018). Most biohydrogels require an antibacterial agent to enhance the antimicrobial activity. A study reported that the gel containing antimicrobial peptides formed a strong mechanical barrier. The barrier inhibited *P. gingivalis* on gingiva and titanium alloys (Mateescu et al. 2015).

#### **4 Antifungal/virus property and protection against oral mucosal diseases**

Oral mucosal diseases are often associated with autoimmune inflammatory conditions or infections from fungi or viruses. Antimicrobial peptides play an essential role in innate immunity (Ganz 2003) and help to prevent infections and maintain oral health. Research has focused on fostering an understanding of the involvement of antimicrobial peptides in mucosal disorders (Dale and Fredericks 2005). (Table 3).

Oral candidiasis is a common oral mucosal disease. In the *in vitro* condition, several natural antimicrobial peptides (e.g., HNP-1, hBD-2, hBD-3, LL37, histatin 5 and Lactoferricin B) have shown antifungal activity (Bates et al. 2017). Recombinant human interleukin 17A induces the secretion of hBD-2 and LL37 (Jiang et al. 2020). Synthetic peptides, such as ToAP2, have also shown anti-fungal activity against *C. albicans* (do Nascimento Dias et al. 2020). Furthermore, a study reported a library of linear peptoids with significant fungicidal activity against *C. albicans* biofilms (Luo et al. 2017). In another study, hBD-2 and hBD-3 in adult oral epithelial cells inactivated the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) by forming oligomers with virions. This



caused a reduction of HIV transmission through adult oral epithelium (Herrera et al. 2016).

Some antimicrobial peptides are related to oral mucosal diseases. HBDs, HNP-1 and LL37 have been identified at high levels from saliva samples of patients with oral lichen planus, Behçet's disease and recurrent aphthous ulcer. The levels of these antimicrobial peptides considerably decreased after treatment (Davidopoulou et al. 2014; Kucukkolbasi et al. 2013). LL37 exhibits a noticeable antiviral activity against Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus, which indicates that LL37 could play an essential role in the host defence against oral Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (Brice et al. 2018). In addition, low salivary levels of HNPs have been shown to be related to oral ulcer activity in Behçet's disease (Mumcu et al. 2013). Furthermore, the increased expression of the HNP (DEFA4) in oral leukoplakia might characterise its potency in malignant transformation (Wenghoefer et al. 2010). Further studies should focus on the application of specific antimicrobial peptides as an indicator of the disease risk or treatment outcome measurement.

## **5 Some antimicrobial peptides are tumour suppressors**

Interest in the development of antimicrobial peptides as anticancer agents is growing. Some cationic peptides from the Antimicrobial Peptide Database have shown selectivity towards tumour cells (Kuroda et al. 2015; Niu et al. 2021). This is due to the negative membrane potential over the cytoplasmic membranes of many types of cancer cells, which attract cationic peptides (Utsugi et al. 1991). However, the relationship between antimicrobial peptides and oral cancer remains unclear.

### 5.1 Natural antimicrobial peptides

The natural antimicrobial peptides such as hBDs may play different roles in oral cancer. The expression of hBD-1 showed a significant decrease in human oral squamous cell carcinoma cell line when compared with normal cells (Wenghoefer et al. 2008). In addition, hBD-1 deficiency promotes malignant transformation in pleomorphic adenomas. hBD-1 might be a potential tumour suppressor in oral squamous cell carcinoma and benign salivary gland tumours (Pantelis et al. 2009; Winter et al. 2011). In contrast, hBD-3 was considerably overexpressed in oral squamous cell carcinoma cells (Kesting et al. 2009) and might serve as proto-oncogenes (Winter et al. 2011). Interestingly, researchers have arrived at contrary findings on the effect of hBD-2 in stimulating oral squamous cell carcinoma cell lines (Kamino et al. 2014). The reason for this might be that hBD-2 on carcinoma cells is dependent on the concentration of the hBD-2 peptide and the types of cell lines (Kamino et al. 2014). HNPs' role in cancer is inconclusive. HNPs were overexpressed (greater than 12-fold) in the squamous cell carcinomas of the human tongue compared with nontumour tissue (Lundy et al. 2004). In the *in vitro* condition, HNP-1 simultaneously has an inhibitory effect on antitumorigenic matrix metalloproteinases-8 (MMP-8) and several protumorigenic matrix metalloproteinase (MMP-2 and -9) secretions of oral squamous cell carcinoma cells (Musrati et al. 2016). LL-37 might act as a tumour suppressor in oral squamous cell carcinoma. The mechanisms may involve the induction of caspase-3 mediated apoptosis via the P53-Bcl-2/BAX signalling pathway (Chen et al. 2020). However, LL37 had no effect on the progression of squamous cell carcinoma on the tongue (Vierthaler et al. 2020).

## 5.2 Artificial antimicrobial peptides

hCAP109–135 derived from LL37-induced mitochondrial depolarisation and apoptosis in human oral squamous cell carcinoma cells. However, it did not induce apoptosis in healthy human cells in the *in vitro* condition (Okumura et al. 2004). No clear pattern currently exists in the relationship between antimicrobial peptides and oral cancer. However, evidence indicates that antimicrobial peptides might influence oral cancer via three mechanisms: as tumour suppressor genes, as an immune enhancer or as direct cytotoxic/anticancer agents. Antimicrobial peptides show potential for oral cancer treatment.

## 6 Conclusion

Antimicrobial peptides play an essential role in various oral diseases, such as dental caries, periodontal disease, mucosal disease and oral cancer. Antimicrobial peptides can kill pathogenic microorganisms, promote tissue healing, serve as biomarkers and inhibit tumour cells. Natural antimicrobial peptides are essential in immune resistance to oral diseases. Synthetic antimicrobial peptides are also a potential therapeutic strategy for managing oral diseases.

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