

Original Article

Effects of Orthodontic Force on Osteoblasts and Alkaline Phosphatase

Sankha Biswas✉

ABSTRACT

Acid and alkaline phosphatase changes have been demonstrated histo-chemically and biochemically during the early stages of an orthodontic tooth movement cycle. However, quantitative data on neither alveolar bone nor serum phosphatase changes over an entire tooth movement cycle have been reported. This study examined acid, tartrate-resistant acid (TRAP), and alkaline phosphatase changes in serum and alveolar bone during an orthodontic tooth movement cycle in 288 adult male Sprague-Dawley strain rats. The effect of differing initial force magnitudes on phosphatase changes was also examined. Phosphatase measures were obtained by colorimetric assays. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures were performed to examine for differences within groups across time and among groups at each time Point. Data from treated animals were combined, adjusted for control values, and examined across time to permit comparisons with previously described histomorphometric changes. Both the serum and the bone phosphatase data clearly support previous histomorphometric observations that bone turnover, characterized by periods of activation, resorption, and formation, occurs during orthodontic tooth movement; serum data suggested differing force magnitudes may alter the timing of these bone turnover events.

Keywords: Orthodontic Force, Tooth Movements, Periodontium, Alkaline Phosphatase, Osteoblasts.

Introduction

Bone turnover during orthodontic tooth movement has typically been described as a balanced process, characterized by continual bone deposition on the tension side and continual bone resorption at sites of pressure.¹ However, recent

histomorphometric data suggest that this process may be more complex than this classical paradigm. During orthodontic tooth movement in a rodent model, an early wave of resorption (3 to 5 days), followed by its reversal (5 to 7 days), and a late wave of formation (7 to 14 days), has been described

Dept. of Orthodontics & Dentofacial Orthopaedics
Haldia Institute of Dental Sciences & Research
Haldia, West Bengal

✉ email: biswas.sankha2012@gmail.com

Received: 24 November 2019

Accepted: 03 May 2020

Published online: 01 July 2020

Citation: Biswas S. Effects of orthodontic force on osteoblasts and alkaline phosphatase. J West Bengal Univ Health Sci. 2020; 1(1):57-63

in total alveolar tissue, as well as on both the pressure and the tension sides of the alveolar wall. Resorbing cells, such as osteoclasts and macrophages, have been shown to have high acid phosphatase activities; bone forming cells (i.e., osteoblasts) to have alkaline phosphatase activities.² In addition, osteoclasts have been demonstrated to have enhanced tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase (TRAP) activities. Changes in acid and alkaline phosphatase in serum and bone have been used as markers to monitor bone changes in several diseases.³

Phosphatase changes have been described in orthodontically treated tissues.⁴ With descriptive histochemistry and biochemical techniques, previous investigators have reported increased acid phosphatase and decreased alkaline phosphatase activities on the pressure side and increased acid and alkaline phosphatase activities on the tension side of orthodontically treated teeth up to 7 days after appliance activation in the rat.⁵ As no description of changes past 7 days was made, it is likely that the reversal in activity of these enzymes was missed in these studies in light of recent histo-morphometric data.⁶

Recent data have also demonstrated that initial force magnitudes of 40 and 60 gm yielded identical tooth movement curves in this rodent model; these movements, however, were greater at all time points than that produced by an initial force of 20 gm.⁷ Less inhibition in alkaline phosphatase activity during the first 7 days of rodent tooth movement has been associated with lighter forces in one report, although no quantitative data were presented.⁸ Changes in phosphatase activities as a function of differing initial forces over the entire tooth movement cycle have not previously been reported.⁹ The purpose of this study was to examine the time course of phosphatase changes during an entire tooth movement cycle, in both the serum and the alveolar bone.¹⁰

Materials and Method

The data were obtained from 288 adult male Sprague Dawley strain rats (180 to 200 days old). These were shipped by air freight and acclimatized for at least 2 weeks under experimental conditions including being housed in plastic cages, fed a diet of ground laboratory chow and distilled water *ad libitum*, and maintained on a standard 12-hour light/dark cycle. All animal manipulations, including euthanasia, were done at the same time of day.

After achieving anesthesia, the chest cavity was opened, and the great vessels of the heart cut. Blood was drawn from the chest cavity with 20 ml syringes without needles attached. The blood was stored in test tubes at room temperature to permit clotting. The samples were then centrifuged at 700g for 20 minutes, and the serum was retrieved.

To ensure adequate sample for analyses of the bone enzymes, supernatants obtained from the hemimaxillae of two animals were pooled, resulting in a sample size of six for each time point. For the serum analyses, blood from six randomly selected animals at each time point were analyzed.

Acid phosphatase, TRAP, alkaline phosphatase, and protein were assayed by using commercially available quantitative, colorimetric kits. The determination of alkaline phosphatase used 2-amino-2-methyl-1-propanol (AMP) (1.5 mol/L, pH 10.3 at 25 ~ C) buffer and involves a 15-minute incubation. The assays are based on the hydrolysis of p-nitrophenol phosphate by the enzymes. The phosphatase readings were performed at 414 nm with a Titertek Multiskan MC, the protein colorimetric assays with a bovine serum albumin standard, and the Coomassie Blue dye method at 595 nm with an Ultrospec 4050 spectrophotometer. Serum phosphatase values were expressed in Sigma units, and

the bone values were calculated as Sigma units per microgram of protein.

Data Analysis

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures were performed to examine for differences within groups (control, 20 gm, 40 gm, and 60 gm) across time and at each time point among groups for each enzyme. Scheffe pairwise comparisons were performed when ANOVA indicated that differences existed ($p < 0.05$).²⁰ In addition, data from the three force groups for each enzyme were combined, after adjusting for day-specific mean control values, and examined across time by ANOVA and Scheffe comparisons.

Results

Acid, TRAP, and alkaline phosphatase changes in serum and alveolar bone clearly demonstrated that bone turnover is not balanced in the short-term during orthodontic tooth movement. Instead, there seems to be an early period characterized by a preponderance of bone resorption followed by a later period when bone formation is primary.¹¹ This finding confirms earlier reports of bone turnover characterized by tandem periods of activation, resorption, reversal, and formation occurring after orthodontic force application with histomorphometry¹⁶ and of a transient reduction in bone density in a similar animal model.¹² Differences within groups across time were more obvious in the serum data than in the bone derived enzyme data (Tables I and II) because the latter had greater variability.¹³ This variability might be reduced in future studies by increasing sample size and not pooling the maxillae from two animals. In retrospect, the pooling of hemimaxillae from two animals to create one sample for analysis was unnecessary, as the methods were sufficiently sensitive for the analysis of one hemimaxilla.¹⁴ To examine further for differences across-time.

in the bone derived enzymes, the data from all force groups were combined.¹⁵ This was also done with the serum enzyme data for discussion and comparison.¹⁶ The early peak in serum acid phosphatase and TRAP preceded the peak in bone, as well as the peak in several resorptive parameters measured histomorphometrically.¹⁷ This early serum peak occurred during the induction (activation) phase of the bone turnover cycle, during which no bone changes could be quantified histologically.¹⁸ The serum peak fell off early (day 3) and remained depressed until the end of the observation period.¹⁹ The peak in bone acid phosphatase and TRAP activities lasted longer (from days 3 to 7), and reversed between days 7 and 10, remaining depressed at 10 and 14 days.²⁰ Histomorphometric parameters reflecting resorption followed similar kinetics, reversing between 5 and 7 days. The finding that the serum peak in these enzyme activities preceded their appearance in bone suggests that osteoclasts or preosteoclasts may be detectable during their migration to the treated PDL, and that these data may have some predictive value.²¹

There was a peak in alkaline phosphatase activity in both the serum and alveolar bone at day 7, paralleling the peak in histomorphometric parameters reflecting formation that occurred between 7 and 10 days.²² However, alkaline phosphatase in serum and bone fell off by day 10 in sharp contrast to the histomorphometric data depicting formation.⁴⁴ In addition, a second, but significant, late peak at day 14 was observed in the serum, but not the bone.²³ That the timing of the serum alkaline phosphatase changes reflected those in the bone confirms previous observations that the osteoblasts are present locally without a requirement for significant blood-borne migration.²⁴

It is important to consider that the individual effects of chemokines on bone cells

are usually investigated in highly controlled systems (i.e., in vitro or in knockout mouse).²⁵ When interpreting in vivo data, their putative function of chemokines must be estimated in view of the presence of other cytokines, growth factors and hormones,⁴³ which can also modulate osteoblast metabolism in a number of ways until the establishment of an overall outcome.²⁶ In fact, we previously demonstrate an association between the levels of IL-10 and the bone remodeling markers COL-I and OCN [5], suggesting that cytokines, and not chemokines, may play a major role over osteoblasts under orthodontic force.²⁷ However, further studies are required to evaluate the putative role of chemokines in osteoblast function throughout tooth movement.²⁸

Osteoblasts can be an important source of chemokines during orthodontic tooth movement.²⁹ Chemokine production by osteoblasts can be induced by mechanical stress, inflammatory mediators and even by dentin proteins.³⁰ The osteoblast derived chemokines include MCP-1 and SDF-1, whose effects on bone cells were previously discussed. Osteoblasts are also able to produce chemokines (such as KC/CXCL1, LIX/CXCL5, CINC-1/CXCL1 and BCA-1/CXCL13) involved in the recruitment of different leukocyte subsets,³¹ suggesting an interesting role of osteoblasts in development of inflammatory reaction in periodontal ligament environment after force application.³² In fact, several immunocompetent cells are recruited to periodontal ligament during experimental orthodontic tooth movement, and in their turn can modulate both osteoblast and osteoclast metabolism.³³ However, the putative role of chemokine-mediated leukocyte migration to periodontium in the outcome of tissue response to orthodontic force remains unknown.³⁴

The initially applied forces (20, 40, and

60 gm) used in this animal model might seem excessive to the clinical orthodontist.³⁵ Histomorphometric and biochemical studies of bone turnover should be performed using lower sustained forces;³⁶ however, such studies would require the use of coils not commercially available today.³⁷ By using the lightest coils available, the 20 gm initial force was likely deactivated within the first several days after activation.³⁸ Although the rate of force decay and average force were not known, it is doubtful that any of the forces applied remained constant during the 14 days of observation.³⁹ Unlike methods used in previous studies (for example, the use of latex elastics forced interproximally), this animal model at least permitted the application of well described, measured initial forces.⁴⁰ Although it is dangerous to extrapolate force levels from species to species and impossible to determine what force level is most physiologic in rodents (or human beings),⁴¹ this article and previous articles, which have reported on findings with this model, demonstrated tooth movement kinetics and biologic responses similar to that generally reported with other models, including human models.⁴²

Conclusion

The data support the following conclusions:

1. Changes in serum and alveolar bone phosphatases reflect bone turnover in orthodontically treated tissues, supporting previous histomorphometric findings that bone turnover in treated tissues is not balanced in the short-term, but is characterized by tandem periods of activation, resorption, reversal, and formation.
2. The timing of bone turnover events (activation, resorption, reversal and formation) may be altered by differing force magnitudes.

References

1. Krishnan V, Davidovitch Z. Cellular, molecular, and tissue-level reactions to orthodontic force. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 2006;129:1–32.
2. Masella RS, Meister M. Current concepts in the biology of orthodontic tooth movement. *Am J Orthod Dentofacial Orthop.* 2006;129:458–68.
3. Meikle MC. The tissue, cellular, and molecular regulation of orthodontic tooth movement: 100 years after Carl Sandstedt. *Eur J Orthod.* 2006;28:221–40.
4. Cattaneo PM, Dalstra M, Melsen B. The finite element method: a tool to study orthodontic tooth movement. *J Dent Res* 2005;84:428–33.
5. Garlet TP, Coelho U, Silva JS, Garlet GP. Cytokine expression pattern in compression and tension sides of the periodontal ligament during orthodontic tooth movement in humans. *Eur J Oral Sci* 2007;115:355–62.
6. Dudic A, Kiliaridis S, Mombelli A, Giannopoulou C. Composition changes in gingival crevicular fluid during orthodontic tooth movement: comparisons between tension and compression sides. *Eur J Oral Sci* 2006;114:416–22.
7. Rossi D, Zlotnik A. The biology of chemokines and their receptors. *Annu Rev Immunol* 2000;18:217–42.
8. Bendre MS, Montague DC, Peery T, Akel NS, Gaddy D, Suva LJ. Interleukin-8 stimulation of osteoclastogenesis and bone resorption is a mechanism for the increased osteolysis of metastatic bone disease. *Bone* 2003;33:28–37.
9. Wright KM, Friedland JS. Regulation of chemokine gene expression and secretion in *Staphylococcus aureus*-infected osteoblasts. *Microbes Infect* 2004;6:844–52.
10. Silva TA, Garlet GP, Fukada SY, Silva JS, Cunha FQ. Chemokines in oral inflammatory diseases: apical periodontitis and periodontal disease. *J Dent Res* 2007;86:306–19.
11. Yu X, Collin-Osdoby P, Osdoby P. SDF-1 increases recruitment of osteoclast precursors by upregulation of matrix metalloproteinase-9 activity. *Connect Tissue Res* 2003;44:79–84.
12. Yu X, Huang Y, Collin-Osdoby P, Osdoby P. CCR1 chemokines promote the chemotactic recruitment, RANKL development, and motility of osteoclasts and are induced by inflammatory cytokines in osteoblasts. *J Bone Miner Res* 2004;19:2065–77.
13. Kim MS, Day CJ, Selinger CI, Magno CL, Stephens SR, Morrison NA. MCP-1-induced human osteoclast-like cells are tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase, NFATc1, and calcitonin receptor-positive but require receptor activator of NF- κ B ligand for bone resorption. *J Biol Chem* 2006;281:1274–85.
14. Kim MS, Magno CL, Day CJ, Morrison NA. Induction of chemokines and chemokine receptors CCR2b and CCR4 in authentic human osteoclasts differentiated with RANKL and osteoclast like cells differentiated by MCP-1 and RANTES. *J Cell Biochem* 2006;97:512–8.
15. Scheven BA, Milne JS, Hunter I, Robins SP. Macrophage-inflammatory protein-1 α regulates preosteoclast differentiation in vitro. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 1999;254:773–8.
16. Choi SJ, Cruz JC, Craig F et al. Macrophage inflammatory protein 1- α is a potential osteoclast stimulatory factor in multiple myeloma. *Blood* 2000;96:671–5.

17. Han JH, Choi SJ, Kurihara N, Koide M, Oba Y, Roodman GD. Macrophage inflammatory protein-1alpha is an osteoclastogenic factor in myeloma that is independent of receptor activator of nuclear factor kappaB ligand. *Blood* 2001;97:3349–53.
18. Okamoto Y, Kim D, Battaglini R, Sasaki H, Späte U, Stashenko P. MIP-1 gamma promotes receptor-activator-of-NF-kappa-B-ligand-induced osteoclast formation and survival. *J Immunol* 2004;173:2084–90.
19. Yano S, Mentaverri R, Kanuparthi D, Bandyopadhyay S, Rivera A, Brown EM, et al. Functional expression of beta-chemokine receptors in osteoblasts: role of regulated upon activation, normal T cell expressed and secreted (RANTES) in osteoblasts and regulation of its secretion by osteoblasts and osteoclasts. *Endocrinology* 2005;146:2324–35.
20. Lisignoli G, Toneguzzi S, Piacentini A et al. CXCL12 (SDF-1) and CXCL13 (BCA-1) chemokines significantly induce proliferation and collagen type I expression in osteoblasts from osteoarthritis patients. *J Cell Physiol*. 2006;206:78–85.
21. Katagiri T, Takahashi N. Regulatory mechanisms of osteoblast and osteoclast differentiation. *Oral Dis* 2002;8:147–59.
22. Alhashimi N, Frithiof L, Brudvik P, Bakht M. Chemokines are upregulated during orthodontic tooth movement. *J Interferon Cytokine Res* 1999;19:1047–52.
23. Yang M, Mailhot G, MacKay CA, Mason-Savas A, Aubin J, Odgren PR. Chemokine and chemokine receptor expression during colony stimulating factor-1-induced osteoclast differentiation in the toothless osteopetrotic rat: a key role for CCL9 (MIP-1gamma) in osteoclastogenesis in vivo and in vitro. *Blood* 2006;107:2262–70.
24. Grassi F, Cristino S, Toneguzzi S, Piacentini A, Facchini A, Lisignoli G. CXCL12 chemokine up-regulates bone resorption and MMP-9 release by human osteoclasts: CXCL12 levels are increased in synovial and bone tissue of rheumatoid arthritis patients. *J Cell Physiol* 2004;199:244–51.
25. Rahimi P, Wang CY, Stashenko P, Lee SK, Lorenzo JA, Graves DT. Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 expression and monocyte recruitment in osseous inflammation in the mouse. *Endocrinology* 1995;136:2752–9.
26. Volejnikova S, Laskari M, Marks Jr SC, Graves DT. Monocyte recruitment and expression of monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 are developmentally regulated in remodeling bone in the mouse. *Am J Pathol* 1997;150:1711–21.
27. Graves DT, Alsulaimani F, Ding Y, Marks Jr SC. Developmentally regulated monocyte recruitment and bone resorption are modulated by functional deletion of the monocytic chemoattractant protein-1 gene. *Bone* 2002;31:282–7.
28. Oba Y, Lee JW, Ehrlich LA et al. MIP-1alpha utilizes both CCR1 and CCR5 to induce osteoclast formation and increase adhesion of myeloma cells to marrow stromal cells. *Exp Hematol*. 2005;33:272–8.
29. Toh K, Kukita T, Wu Z et al. Possible involvement of MIP-1alpha in the recruitment of osteoclast progenitors to the distal tibia in rats with adjuvant-induced arthritis. *Lab Invest* 2004;84:1092–102.
30. Watanabe T, Kukita T, Kukita A et al. Direct stimulation of osteoclastogenesis

- by MIP-1alpha: evidence obtained from studies using RAW264 cell clone highly responsive to RANKL. *J Endocrinol* 2004;180:193–201.
31. Barillé-Nion S, Bataille R. New insights in myeloma-induced osteolysis. *LeukLymphoma* 2003;44(9):1463–7.
 32. Yu X, Huang Y, Collin-Osdoby P, Osdoby P. Stromal cell-derived factor-1 (SDF-1) recruits osteoclast precursors by inducing chemotaxis, matrixmetalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) activity, and collagen transmigration. *J Bone Miner Res* 2003;18:1404–18.
 33. Zannettino AC, Farrugia AN, Kortessidis A et al. Elevated serum levels of stromal-derived factor-1alpha are associated with increased osteoclast activity and osteolytic bone disease in multiple myeloma patients. *Cancer Res* 2005;65:1700–9.
 34. Kim MS, Day CJ, Morrison NA. MCP-1 is induced by receptor activator of nuclear factor- κ B ligand, promotes human osteoclast fusion, and rescues granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor suppression of osteoclast formation. *J Biol Chem* 2005;280:16163–9.
 35. Ruddy MJ, Shen F, Smith JB, Sharma A, Gaffen SL. Interleukin-17 regulates expression of the CXC chemokine LIX/CXCL5 in osteoblasts: implications for inflammation and neutrophil recruitment. *J Leukoc Biol* 2004;76:135–44.
 36. Silva TA, Lara VS, Silva JS, Garlet GP, Butler WT, Cunha FQ. Dentin sialoprotein and phosphoprotein induce neutrophil recruitment: a mechanism dependent on IL-1beta, TNF-beta, and CXC chemokines. *Calcif Tissue Int* 2004;74:532–41.
 37. Fritz EA, Jacobs JJ, Glant TT, Roebuck KA. Chemokine IL-8 induction by particulate wear debris in osteoblasts is mediated by NF-kappaB. *J Orthop Res* 2005;23:1249–57.
 38. Wright LM, Maloney W, Yu X, Kindle L, Collin-Osdoby P, Osdoby P. Stromal cell-derived factor-1 binding to its chemokine receptor CXCR4 on precursor cells promotes the chemotactic recruitment, development and survival of human osteoclasts. *Bone* 2005;36:840–53.
 39. Marriott I, Gray DL, Rati DM et al. Osteoblasts produce monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 in a murine model of Staphylococcus aureus osteomyelitis and infected human bone tissue. *Bone* 2005;37:504–12.
 40. Marriott I. Osteoblast responses to bacterial pathogens: a previously unappreciated role for bone-forming cells in host defense and disease progression. *Immunol Res* 2004;30:291–308.
 41. Bischoff DS, Zhu JH, Makhijani NS, Yamaguchi DT. KC chemokine expression by TGF-beta in C3H10T1/2 cells induced towards osteoblasts. *BiochemBiophysRes Commun* 2005;326:364–70.
 42. Bandow K, Nishikawa Y, Ohnishi T et al. Low-intensity pulsed ultrasound (LIPUS) induces RANKL, MCP-1, and MIP-1beta expression in osteoblasts through the angiotensin II type 1 receptor. *J Cell Physiol* 2007;211:392–8.