



MICROBIAL DYSBIOSIS AND AUTOIMMUNITY IN PERIODONTAL DISEASE - A REVIEW

Periodontology

**Dr. N. Sakthi
Ganesh**

MDS., Senior Lecturer, RVS Dental College & Hospital, Coimbatore.

ABSTRACT

Dysbiosis/infection and chronic inflammation could trigger autoimmunity by several mechanisms including bystander activation, dysregulation of toll-like receptors, amplification of autoimmunity by cytokines, epitope spreading, autoantigens complementarity, autoantigens overproduction, microbial translocation, molecular mimicry, superantigens, and activation or inhibition of receptors related to autoimmunity by microorganisms. The most prominent organisms involved in etiology of periodontitis are group of bacteria known as the "red complex," namely, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Treponema denticola* and *Tannerella forsythia*. Dysbiotic communities exhibit synergistic interactions that can enhance colonization, persistence, or virulence; bacteria known as keystone pathogens are involved in the breakdown of periodontal tissue homeostasis, whereas other, known as pathobionts, can trigger destructive inflammation once homeostasis is disrupted. The dysbiosis is closely related to periodontitis, and the relationship between the subgingival microbiome and the immune and inflammatory response seems to be important in the pathogenesis of the disease. The microbiome-host interrelation is responsible for the occurrence of tissue damage in dysbiosis related infectious diseases. At systemic level, the link of autoimmunity and periodontopathogens needs to be interpreted from the role of dysbiosis in the occurrence of systemic autoimmune responses, related to the possibility of periodontopathic bacteria ability to generate an alteration of the microflora in other organs with the consequent activation of autoimmunity mechanisms.

KEYWORDS

Dysbiosis, Autoimmunity, Bystander Activation, Auto Antibodies, Epigenetics

INTRODUCTION

The current paradigm of onset and progression of periodontitis includes oral dysbiosis directed by inflammophilic bacteria, leading to altered resolution of inflammation and lack of regulation of the inflammatory responses. However, dysbiosis/infection and chronic inflammation could trigger autoimmunity by several mechanisms including bystander activation, dysregulation of toll-like receptors, amplification of autoimmunity by cytokines, epitope spreading, autoantigens complementarity, autoantigens overproduction, microbial translocation, molecular mimicry, superantigens, and activation or inhibition of receptors related to autoimmunity by microorganisms. The alteration in the activation of almost any immune process in a susceptible host could trigger immune dysregulation and autoimmunity. Immunodeficiencies in which the flaws are not in the effector response but in the immune regulatory mechanisms, have been called immune dysregulation disorders (1, 39). Periodontitis as the result of dysbiosis of the oral microbiota guided by inflammophilic bacteria, leading to an altered resolution of inflammation and lack of regulation of the inflammatory responses (12).

Host- Microbiome Interaction

It has been observed in animals and humans with genetic predisposition, that the microbiota provides signals that induce antimicrobial effectors that are neutralized by inhibitory microbial signals, establishing as a result, a homeostatic relationship with the host (26). If a specific microorganism's line expands, this blocks the development of autoimmunity and improves their own chances of staying in that expanded state suppressing the host's adaptive and inflammatory responses (5).

Microbiome Dysbiosis

The change in the characteristic microorganism communities of a particular microenvironment is known as dysbiosis, also called dysbacteriosis. Bacterial translocation, related to the pathogenesis of multiple diseases, could be better described as atopobiosis, which is the appearance of microorganisms that are characteristic of a certain microenvironment in the "wrong" place.

It has been described that there are community members, specifically *P. gingivalis* (a suggested keystone pathogen in animal models), that even in low numbers can increase the virulence of the entire community (38); communication between it and normally commensal microorganisms (accessory pathogens) facilitate synergy and the transition to pathogenicity, allowing the continued development of the dysbiotic community and stimulating the inflammatory response. The virulence of the community rises as a consequence of the subversion of specific components of the immune response, and thus, this dysbiotic community increases causing additional damage and greater alteration to the homeostasis of the system, mediated mainly by pathobionts.

The most prominent organisms involved in etiology of periodontitis are group of bacteria known as the "red complex," namely, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Treponema denticola* and *Tannerella forsythia*. (33) However, culture-independent molecular methods used in recent metagenomic studies have revealed a more heterogeneous and diverse periodontitis-associated microbiota than previously known from cultural studies (10). Many of the newly recognized organisms (e.g., certain gram-positive bacteria and other species from the gram-negative genera *Prevotella*, *Selenomonas*, *Desulfobulbus*, *Dialister* and *Synergistes*) show as good or better a correlation with disease than the red complex bacteria (7). A recent metatranscriptomic study revealed that the majority of virulence factors that are upregulated in the microbiome of periodontitis patients is primarily derived from the previously underappreciated species that were not traditionally associated with periodontitis. (7) These recent human microbiome analyses and animal model-based mechanistic studies collectively suggest that the pathogenesis of periodontitis involves polymicrobial synergy and dysbiosis (20). The dysbiosis of the periodontal microbiota represents an alteration in the relative abundance or influence of individual components of the bacterial community (relative to their abundance or influence in health) leading to dysregulated host-microbial interaction. Review of Literature 15 countries sufficient to induce destructive inflammation and bone loss. (13).

Dysbiotic communities exhibit synergistic interactions that can enhance colonization, persistence, or virulence; bacteria known as keystone pathogens are involved in the breakdown of periodontal tissue homeostasis, whereas other, known as pathobionts, can trigger destructive inflammation once homeostasis is disrupted. Certain commensals, though non-pathogenic by themselves in the oral environment, can promote keystone pathogen colonization and, as such, are implicated as accessory pathogens. *P. gingivalis* acts as a keystone pathogen at low colonization levels. Specifically, *P. gingivalis* induces the conversion from a symbiotic community structure to a dysbiotic one capable of causing destructive inflammation and periodontal bone loss. (6)

According to the polymicrobial synergy and dysbiosis (PSD) model, the host immune response is initially subverted by keystone pathogens with the help of accessory pathogens and is subsequently overactivated by pathobionts, leading to destructive inflammation in susceptible hosts. Therefore, according to the PSD model, periodontitis is not a bacterial infection in the classical sense (i.e., not caused by a single or a select few pathogens) but rather represents a polymicrobial community-induced perturbation of host homeostasis that leads to destructive inflammation in susceptible individuals.

The dysbiosis is closely related to periodontitis, and the relationship between the subgingival microbiome and the immune and

inflammatory response seems to be important in the pathogenesis of the disease. The microbiome-host interrelation is responsible for the occurrence of tissue damage in dysbiosis related infectious diseases.

Microbial Dependent Autoimmunity

The overproduction of autoantigens may well occur because the microorganisms produce enzymes that can break the extracellular matrix (i.e. fibrinogen, fibronectin, and type I collagen), creating "remnant epitopes" that act as autoantigens or because of an enzymatic modification of antigens (e.g. citrullination) that ends in the generation of autoantibodies (4). The post-translational modification of proteins by the enzymatic deamination of arginine residues converts positively charged peptidyl arginine to neutral peptidylcitrulline (28). This process is called citrullination and is catalyzed by the enzyme peptidylargininedeiminase (PAD) (37)

Microbial Translocation

In animal models, it has been shown that oral administration of *P. gingivalis* can induce intestinal dysbiosis (27) and result in endotoxemia and inflammation of the liver and adipose tissue, as well as an increase in the severity of collagen-induced arthritis mediated by an increase in T helper 17 cells (Th17) function at the intestinal level (16)

Molecular Mimicry

The oral cavity, especially in the presence of periodontal diseases, has proven to be a source of antigens both locally and systemically and molecular mimicry is undoubtedly one of the mechanisms by which it participates as a chronic infection in local and remote autoimmunity. The heat shock proteins (HSP) belong to a family of proteins conserved in prokaryotic and eukaryotic organisms during the evolutionary process, whose homology gives them a strong immunogenicity. In a chronic infection the immune response generated by human HSP60 and its bacterial equivalent, activates human vascular endothelial cells for the expression of E-selectin, intercellular adhesion molecule1, and the vascular cell adhesion molecule-1. This generates the activation of endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, and monocytes/macrophages for the production of IL-6 and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) (40).

Superantigens

Microbial superantigens (SAG) induce the activation and expansion of a large number of T and B cells, which can result in the production of great amounts of regulatory and effector cytokines, modifying the host's immune functions (31). They are mainly secreted by gram-positive bacteria and are capable of inducing pathological symptoms (35). This SAG binding mechanism activates a large proportion of T cells (up to 25% of all T cells) in comparison to conventional antigens (0.0001% of all T cells) (30,34). SAG differs from regular antigens because interacts with the variable region of TCR-V β chain and CMH-II in the antigen-presenting cell in a segment outside the antigenbinding site and induce the cell activation by cross linking of receptors. Therefore, SAG recognition by T cells has a significantly lower degree of specificity, as compared with their interaction with conventional antigens (36)

Bystander Activation

An adaptation mechanism of innate immunity has been described as bystander activation. This occurs as a consequence of infected cells which alert and give instructions to neighboring uninfected cells to produce inflammatory mediators either by direct cell to cell contact (mediated by GAP junctions by modulation of connexin) or by paracrine action (soluble signals). This mechanism may allow the immune system to overcome the pathogen's ability to disarm the immune signaling pathways in infected cells.

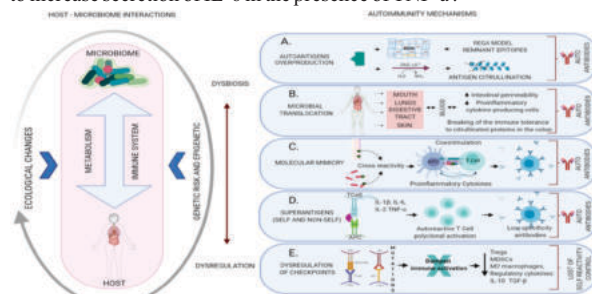
This mechanism could participate in the pathogenesis of periodontitis from the activation of host responses to dysbiotic changes, which involve innate immunity, as in the case of dysregulation of TLRs and all the branches of immunity as in the hyperproduction of cytokines.

Dysregulation of TLRs

The activation of oral epithelial cells, cells of the innate and acquired immune response through CD14, TLR2, and TLR4, are considered a relevant event in the generation of the inflammatory response by the production of proinflammatory cytokines by binding with LPS of periodontopathic microorganisms in periodontal disease. The altered expression of these receptors has been reported in periodontitis (15, 2). TLR 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 9 are differentially expressed in connective

tissue and epithelium in periodontitis and in greater numbers in periodontitis patients compared to healthy tissue (2).

In periodontal disease, both IL-17 and IL-17F activate cells of innate immunity as neutrophils and cells from surrounding nonimmune tissues (fibroblasts and epithelial cells), by activating the transcription factor NF- κ B. IL-17 can activate both fibroblasts and endothelial cells to increase secretion of IL-6 in the presence of TNF- α .

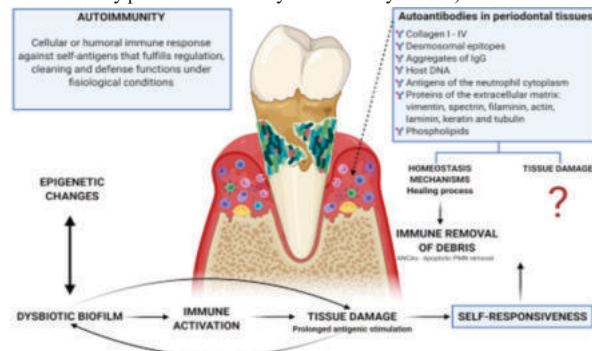


Epitope Spreading

There are 2 mechanisms for the epitope spreading to occur in autoimmunity, one independent of the antigenic presentation, in which inflammation and cytokine activation are sufficient to allow T cells to recognize cryptic epitopes and activate B cell complementarity (19), and the other dependent on binding to an APCs that occurs when there is no tissue destruction, and relies on processing and presentation to activate T cell which in turn reciprocally activate B cell (25)

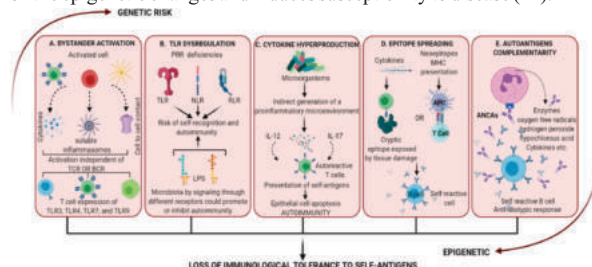
Autoantibodies In Autoimmune Damage

In periodontal disease, antibodies have been found against almost all types of collagen (I to IV), desmosomal epitopes, aggregates of IgG, host DNA, antigens of the neutrophil cytoplasm, proteins of the extracellular matrix (vimentin, spectrin, filaminin, actin, laminin, keratin, and tubulin) and phospholipids (32, 9, 18) prolonged antigenic stimulation caused by the rupture of the tissue and the release of the proteins of the extracellular matrix (a secondary event to the inflammatory process induced by microbial dysbiosis).



Epigenetics And Autoimmune Response

Epigenetics refers to heritable genomic expression without alterations in the original DNA sequence (42) leading to remodeling of the chromatin and activation or inactivation of a gene (23). There have been described three epigenetics modifications: DNA methylation, histone modifications, mainly by short-chain fatty acids and microRNA (miRNA) regulations (42). The post-translational modification of histone proteins in chromatin and the methylation of DNA are the two primary epigenetic mechanisms in periodontitis (42, 23). In addition, many environmental factors may have profound effects on the epigenetic changes and induces susceptibility to disease (42).



Conclusion

The translocation of oral microorganisms, its components or its

metabolites from periodontal tissues could be involved in the occurrence of autoimmune responses at a systemic level. Thus, at systemic level, the link of autoimmunity and periodontopathogens needs to be interpreted from the role of dysbiosis in the occurrence of systemic autoimmune responses, related to the possibility of periodontopathic bacteria ability to generate an alteration of themicroflora in other organs with the consequent activation of autoimmunity mechanisms.

REFERENCES

- Allenspach E, Torgerson TR. Autoimmunity and Primary Immunodeficiency Disorders. *J Clin Immunol* (2016) 36 Suppl 1:57–67. doi: 10.1007/s10875-016-0294-1
- Beklen A, Hukkanen M, Richardson R, Kontinen YT. Immunohistochemical localization of Toll-like receptors 1-10 in periodontitis. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* (2008) 23(5):425–31. doi: 10.1111/j.1399-302X.2008.00448.x
- Belkaid Y, Harrison OJ. Homeostatic immunity and the microbiota. *Immunity*. (2017) 46:562–76. doi: 10.1016/j.immuni.2017.04.008
- Chen B, Sun L, Zhang X. Integration of microbiome and epigenome to decipher the pathogenesis of autoimmune diseases. *J Autoimmun* (2017) 83:31–42. doi: 10.1016/j.jaut.2017.03.009
- Chinen T, Rudensky AY. The effects of commensal microbiota on immune cell subsets and inflammatory responses. *Immunol Rev* (2012) 245(1):45–55. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-065X.2011.01083.x
- Darveau RP, Hajishengallis G, Curtis MA. *Porphyromonas gingivalis* as a potential community activist for disease. *Journal of dental research*. 2012;91:816–20.
- Dewhirst FE, Chen T, Izard J, Paster BJ, Tanner AC, Yu WH, Lakshmanan A, Wade WG. The human oral microbiome. *Journal of bacteriology*. 2010;192:5002–17. 14.
- El-Awady AR, Arce RM, Cutler CW. Dendritic cells: microbial clearance via autophagy and potential immunobiological consequences for periodontal disease. *Periodontology* (2000) 201569(1):160–80. doi: 10.1111/prd.12096
- Govze Y, Herzberg MC. Serum and gingival crevicular fluid anti-desmosomal antibodies in periodontitis. *J Periodontol* (1993) 64(7):603–8. doi: 10.1902/jop.1993.64.7.603
- Griffen AL, Beall CJ, Campbell JH, Firestone ND, Kumar PS, Yang ZK, Podar M, Leys EJ. Distinct and complex bacterial profiles in human periodontitis and health revealed by 16S pyrosequencing. *The ISME journal*. 2012;6:1176–85
- Hajishengallis G, Lamont RJ. Dancing with the Stars: How Choreographed Bacterial Interactions Dictate Nosymbiosis and Give Rise to Keystone Pathogens, Accessory Pathogens, and Pathobionts. *Trends Microbiol* (2016) 24(6):477–89. doi: 10.1016/j.tim.2016.02.010
- Hajishengallis G. Immunomicrobial pathogenesis of periodontitis: keystones, pathobionts, and host response. *Trends Immunol* (2014) 35 (1):3–11. doi: 10.1016/j.it.2013.09.001
- Hajishengallis G, Lamont RJ. Beyond the red complex and into more complexity: the polymicrobial synergy and dysbiosis (PSD) model of periodontal disease etiology. *Molecular oral microbiology*. 2012;27:409–19
- Holmgren AM, McConkey CA, Shin S. Outrunning the Red Queen: bystander activation as a means of outpacing innate immune subversion by intracellular pathogens. *Cell Mol Immunol* (2017) 14(1):14–21. doi: 10.1038/cmi.2016.36
- Jin L, Ren L, Leung WK, Darveau RP. The in vivo expression of membrane-bound CD14 in periodontal health and disease. *J Periodontol* (2004) 75 (4):578–85. doi: 10.1902/jop.2004.75.4.578
- Kato T, Yamazaki K, Nakajima M, Date Y, Kikuchi J, Hase K, et al. Oral Administration of *Porphyromonas gingivalis* Alters the Gut Microbiome and Serum Metabolome. *mSphere* (2018) 3(5):1–11. doi: 10.1128/mSphere.00460-18
- Kirst ME, Li EC, Alfant B, Chi YY, Walker C, Magnusson I, et al. Dysbiosis and alterations in predicted functions of the subgingival microbiome in chronic periodontitis. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. (2015) 81:783–93. doi: 10.1128/AEM.02712-14
- Koutouzis T, Haber D, Shaddox L, Aukhil I, Wallet SM. Autoreactivity of serum immunoglobulin to periodontal tissue components: a pilot study. *J Periodontol* (2009) 80(4):625–33. doi: 10.1902/jop.2009.080422
- Kurien BT, Scofield RH. Autoimmunity and oxidatively modified autoantigens. *Autoimmun Rev* (2008) 7(7):567–73. doi: 10.1016/j.autrev.2008.04.019
- Lamont RJ, Hajishengallis G. Polymicrobial synergy and dysbiosis in inflammatory disease. *Trends Mol Med* (2015) 21(3):172–83. doi: 10.1016/j.molmed.2014.11.004
- Lamont RJ, Koo H, Hajishengallis G. The oral microbiota: dynamic communities and host interactions. *Nat Rev Microbiol*. (2018) 16:745–59. doi: 10.1038/s41579-018-0089-x
- Lamont RJ, Hajishengallis G. Polymicrobial synergy and dysbiosis in inflammatory disease. *Trends Mol Med*. 2014;Epub ahead of print: doi: 10.1016/j.molmed.2014.11.004
- Larsson L, Castilho RM, Giannobile WV. Epigenetics and its role in periodontal diseases: a state-of-the-art review. *J Periodontol* (2015) 86 (4):556–68. doi: 10.1902/jop.2014.140559
- Marsh PD. Microbial ecology of dental plaque and its significance in health and disease. *Adv Dent Res*. (1994) 8:263–71. doi: 10.1177/08959374940080022001
- McCluskey J, Farris AD, Keech CL, Purcell AW, Rischmueller M, Kinoshita G, et al. Determinant spreading: lessons from animal models and human disease. *Immunol Rev* (1998) 164:209–29. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-065X.1998.tb01222.x
- Medzhitov R, Schneider DS, Soares MP. Disease tolerance as a defense strategy. *Science* (2012) 335(6071):936–41. doi: 10.1126/science.1214935
- Nakajima M, Arimatsu K, Kato T, Matsuda Y, Minagawa T, Takahashi N, et al. Oral Administration of *P. gingivalis* Induces Dysbiosis of Gut Microbiota and Impaired Barrier Function Leading to Dissemination of Enterobacteria to the Liver. *PLoS One* (2015) 10(7):e0134234. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0134234
- Potempa J, Mydel P, Koziel J. The case for periodontitis in the pathogenesis of rheumatoid arthritis. *Nat Rev Rheumatol* (2017) 13(10):606–20. doi: 10.1038/nrrheum.2017.132
- Potgieter M, Bester J, Kell DB, Pretorius E. The dormant blood microbiome in chronic, inflammatory diseases. *FEMS Microbiol Rev* (2015) 39(4):567–91. doi: 10.1093/femsre/fuv013
- Schmidt RE, Grimbacher B, Witte T. Autoimmunity and primary immunodeficiency: two sides of the same coin? *Nat Rev Rheumatol* (2017) 14(1):7–18. doi: 10.1038/nrrheum.2017.198
- Scherer MT, Ignatowicz L, Winslow GM, Kappler JW, Marrack P. Superantigens: bacterial and viral proteins that manipulate the immune system. *Annu Rev Cell Biol* (1993) 9:101–28. doi: 10.1146/annurev.cb.09.110193.000533
- Schenkein HA, Berry CR, Burmeister JA, Brooks CN, Barbour SE, Best AM, et al. Anticardiolipin antibodies in sera from patients with periodontitis. *J Dental Res* (2003) 82(11):919–22. doi: 10.1177/154405910308201114
- Socransky SS, Haffajee AD, Cugini MA, Smith C, Kent RL. Microbial complexes in subgingival plaque. *Journal of clinical periodontology*. 1998;25:134–44.
- Stappenbeck TS, Hooper LV, Gordon JI. Developmental regulation of intestinal angiogenesis by indigenous microbes via Paneth cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* (2002) 99(24):15451–5. doi: 10.1073/pnas.202604299
- Slaskalova-Hogenova H, Stepankova R, Hudcovic T, Tuckova L, Cukrowska B, Lodinova-Zadnikova R, et al. Commensal bacteria (normal microflora), mucosal immunity and chronic inflammatory and autoimmune diseases. *Immunol Lett* (2004) 93(2-3):97–108. doi: 10.1016/j.imlet.2004.02.005
- Tomar N, De RK. A model of an integrated immune system pathway in *Homo sapiens* and its interaction with superantigen producing expression regulatory pathway in *Staphylococcus aureus*: comparing behavior of pathogen perturbed and unperturbed pathway. *PLoS One* (2013) 8(12):e80918. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0080918
- Vitkov L, Hannig M, Minnich B, Herrmann M. Periodontal sources of citrullinated antigens and TLR agonists related to RA. *Autoimmunity* (2018) 51(6):304–9. doi: 10.1080/08916934.2018.1527907
- Wolf DL, Neiderud AM, Hinckley K, Dahlen G, van de Winkel JG, Papapanou PN. Fcγ receptor polymorphisms and periodontal status: a prospective follow-up study. *J Clin Periodontol* (2006) 33(10):691–8. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-051X.2006.00973.x
- Wong GK, Heather JM, Barmettler S, Cobbold M. Immune dysregulation in immunodeficiency disorders: The role of T-cell receptor sequencing. *J Autoimmun* (2017) 80:1–9. doi: 10.1016/j.jaut.2017.04.002
- Yamazaki K, Ohsawa Y, Itoh H, Ueki K, Tabeta K, Oda T, et al. T-cell clonality to *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and human heat shock protein 60s in patients with atherosclerosis and periodontitis. *Oral Microbiol Immunol* (2004) 19(3):160–7. doi: 10.1111/j.0902-0055.2004.00134.x
- Yost S, Duran-Pinedo AE, Teles R, Krishnan K, Frias-Lopez J. Functional signatures of oral dysbiosis during periodontitis progression revealed by microbial metatranscriptome analysis. *Genome Med*. (2015) 7:27. doi: 10.1186/s13073-015-0231-6
- Zhang P, Lu Q. Genetic and epigenetic influences on the loss of tolerance in autoimmunity. *Cell Mol Immunol* (2018) 15(6):575–85. doi: 10.1038/cmi.2017.137