

The roles of neutrophils linking periodontitis and atherosclerotic cardiovascular diseases

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RAI wrote the original draft. RAI, STC, GH, VP, JED, and FD'A provided critical revisions to the article. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

Keywords

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Abstract

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Inflammation plays a crucial role in the onset and development of atherosclerosis. Periodontitis is a common chronic disease linked to other chronic inflammatory diseases such as atherosclerotic cardiovascular diseases (ASCVD). The mechanistic pathways underlying this association are yet to be fully understood. This critical review aimed at discussing the role of neutrophils in mediating the relationship between periodontitis and ASCVD. Systemic inflammation triggered by periodontitis could lead to adaptations in hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPCs) resulting in trained granulopoiesis in the bone marrow, thereby increasing the production of neutrophils and driving the hyper-responsiveness of these abundant innate-immune cells. These alterations may contribute to the onset, progression, and complication of atherosclerosis. Despite the emerging evidence suggesting that the treatment of periodontitis improves surrogate markers of cardiovascular disease, the resolution of periodontitis may not necessarily reverse neutrophil hyper-responsiveness since the hyper-inflammatory re-programming of granulopoiesis can persist long after the inflammatory inducers are removed. Novel and targeted approaches to manipulate neutrophil numbers and functions are warranted within the context of the treatment of periodontitis also to mitigate its potential impact on ASCVD.

Contribution to the field

Inflammation plays a crucial role in the onset and development of atherosclerosis. Periodontitis is a common chronic disease linked to other chronic inflammatory diseases such as atherosclerotic cardiovascular diseases. The mechanistic pathways underlying this association are yet to be fully understood. We discussed the role of neutrophils in mediating the relationship between periodontitis and atherosclerotic disease. Systemic inflammation triggered by periodontitis could lead to adaptations in bone marrow progenitor cells resulting in trained granulopoiesis in the bone marrow, thereby increasing the production of neutrophils and driving the hyper-responsiveness of these abundant innate-immune cells. These alterations may contribute to the onset, progression, and complications of atherosclerosis. Despite the emerging evidence suggesting that the treatment of periodontitis improves surrogate markers of cardiovascular disease, the resolution of periodontitis may not necessarily reverse neutrophil hyper-responsiveness since the hyper-inflammatory re-programming of granulopoiesis can persist long after the inflammatory inducers are removed. We then discussed the current approaches to target neutrophils in treating both atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease and periodontitis. Collectively, this review provides some molecular basis of neutrophils in linking periodontitis to atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease.

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12 **Keywords: neutrophils, systemic inflammation, trained immunity, innate immune memory,**
13 **periodontitis, periodontal disease, atherosclerosis, atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease.**

14 **Abstract**

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29 potential impact on ASCVD.

30 **1 Introduction**

31 Atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD) consists of a group of disorders that affect heart and
32 blood vessel (1) and include coronary heart disease, cerebrovascular disease, and peripheral vascular
33 disease (2). ASCVD is a major cause of global mortality and leading contributor to disability as it
34 causes 18.6 million deaths and contributes to 34.4 million people lives with disability in 2019 (3).

35 Although its pathogenesis, progression, and complications comprise of multiple complex processes,
36 inflammation presents a key role in each stage of the disease (4).

37 Periodontitis is a common chronic inflammatory disease caused by oral microbial dysbiosis. The
38 onset and progression of the disease could span over decades and are influenced by genetic and
39 environmental factors. This prevalent oral disease is characterized by progressive destruction of hard
40 and soft tissues supporting the tooth, including periodontal ligament and alveolar bone (5). Untreated
41 periodontitis leads inevitably not only to tooth loss but also to masticatory impairment and negative
42 influences on the patient's quality of life (6). Like ASCVD, periodontitis is a major public health
43 concern as it affects over the half of world's population (7) and 5-15% of the global population
44 presented a severe form of the disease (8) causing increased costs of oral healthcare (9).

45 The evidence linking periodontitis to systemic diseases previously focused on the findings that
46 periodontal bacteria and their endotoxins disseminate physically through the blood circulation (10,
47 11). However, periodontitis also triggers systemic inflammation indicated by an increased level of C-
48 reactive protein (CRP), TNF α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 in the serum of patients (2). As a result of chronic
49 inflammation occurring at the periodontium, endotoxemia, bacteremia, and systemic inflammation
50 collectively are implicated in numerous systemic diseases including atherosclerotic cardiovascular
51 disease (ASCVD) (12-14).

52 Neutrophils are the most abundant inflammatory cells in humans and the first-line defense against
53 infection in innate-arm of immune system. They are derived from the myeloid differentiation lineage
54 of hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) in the bone marrow. Upon detection of pathogens, neutrophils
55 capture and destroy invading pathogens via phagocytosis and intracellular degradation,
56 degranulation, and formation of neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) (15). Moreover, the emerging
57 evidence over the past decade reveals that neutrophils are involved in chronic inflammation and
58 implicated in chronic inflammatory disorders including periodontitis and ASCVD (16-20).
59 Periodontitis appears to be associated with hyper-responsive neutrophils (21-23) which might, at
60 least in part, be attributed to the notion that oral disease could influence hematopoietic tissue activity
61 and trained immunity (12). Trained immunity represents a non-specific memory in innate immune
62 cells that is induced by earlier encounters with infectious or inflammatory stimuli, and which
63 promotes increased immune responses to future challenges with the same or different stimuli (24,
64 25). Meanwhile in ASCVD, neutrophils contribute to different stages and clinical manifestation of
65 atherosclerosis (26) and literature also suggests that inflammation-adapted hematopoietic stem and
66 progenitor cells (HSPCs) may contribute to the disease pathogenesis (27-29). As such, recent
67 consensus between European Federation of Periodontology and World Heart Federation includes
68 neutrophil hyper-responsiveness as one of mechanisms to explain epidemiological association
69 between periodontitis and ASCVD (2).

70 Mechanisms linking periodontitis to ASCVD and the effect of periodontitis treatment in improving
71 the surrogate markers of ASCVD in attempt to show causal interactions between the two diseases
72 have been extensively explored (2, 14). However, the causal mechanistic pathways between these
73 two common non-communicable diseases are yet to be fully understood. In this review, we aim to
74 critically address the roles of neutrophils in linking periodontitis to ASCVD. Systemic inflammation
75 triggered by different causes including periodontitis may drive inflammatory adaptation of HSPCs
76 and trained granulopoiesis in the bone marrow resulting in increased production of neutrophils with a
77 hyper-responsive phenotype (12, 30) This systemic inflammation-driven modification of
78 granulopoiesis can contribute to atherosclerosis in a stage-dependent manner. However, although the
79 periodontitis treatment successfully achieves the resolution in periodontal tissue site and improves

80 surrogate markers of ASCVD, studies reveal that the hyper-responsive function in neutrophils may
81 persist (23, 31). Therefore, novel approaches to target neutrophils by manipulating their numbers and
82 functions are warranted in periodontitis treatment and to mitigate its impact on ASCVD.

83 **2 The link between periodontitis and ASCVD**

84 The impact of the treatment of periodontitis on cardiovascular outcomes and surrogate markers
85 of ASCVD has been extensively explored. Patients with periodontitis exhibited an increased risk of
86 coronary and cerebrovascular events compared to periodontally healthy individuals. These findings
87 may not apply to the whole population as influenced by the demographic characteristics, individuals,
88 studies, and case definition of periodontitis (2, 32). In the ARIC study on 6736 dentate participants
89 with 299 incidents of ischemic stroke revealed that seven periodontal profile classes that were used to
90 assess the participants were associated with increased risk of cardioembolic and thrombotic stroke
91 subtypes compared to periodontally healthy participants. The assessment in this study was based on
92 seven tooth-clinical parameters resulting in seven different periodontal profile classes and the greater
93 class indicates more severe form of periodontitis (33). Lastly, based on the 1999–2010 Taiwanese
94 National Health Insurance Research Database involving 393,745 patients with periodontitis and
95 393,745 non-periodontitis individuals demonstrated a significantly increased incidence of arterial
96 fibrillation in patients with periodontitis compared to controls (34). The findings from all studies had
97 been adjusted for wide potential confounders indicating that periodontitis is an independent risk for
98 an increased risk of ASCVD events.

99 Treatment of periodontitis may influence the progression of ASCVD. The study involving
100 511,630 periodontitis patients and 208,713 individuals without periodontitis from The Longitudinal
101 Database of Taiwan's National Health Insurance demonstrated that patients receiving dental
102 prophylaxis had lower hazard ratio of acute myocardial infarction compared to periodontally healthy
103 controls suggesting an almost 10% reduction in the risk of a new ASCVD event (35). These
104 improvements were not observed across all types of periodontitis and controls suggesting a
105 difference in host susceptibility and response even after the treatment of periodontitis when looking at
106 future incidence of ASCVD events (36).

107 Consistent evidence suggests that periodontitis is associated with higher blood pressure and
108 endothelial dysfunction (2, 37-39). A recent review and subsequent meta-analysis of intervention
109 studies confirmed that the management of periodontitis can be a novel non-drug approach for the
110 treatment of hypertension. The evidence is still inconclusive as whether the treatment of periodontitis
111 influences blood pressure even in absence of hypertension (40). The basis of this improvement in
112 vascular function could be linked to the effect of the treatment of periodontitis in improving
113 endothelial function as assessed by FMD (41-44). A possible mechanism by which local periodontal
114 treatment improves endothelial function in periodontitis patients is endothelial nitric oxide
115 synthase/nitric oxide (eNOS/NO) activation. NO is mainly produced by eNOS in endothelial cells
116 and induces the relaxation of smooth muscle cells (45, 46). Meanwhile, IL-6, TNF α , IL-1 β and CRP
117 directly reduced eNOS at both mRNA and protein levels in human endothelial cells (47-49). As a
118 result, NO bioavailability in the serum is reduced leading to endothelial dysfunction and periodontitis
119 is associated with this surrogate marker of ASCVD (50, 51). Hepatocytes are the major producer of
120 CRP triggered by IL-6 and IL-1 β stimulation, while TNF α also upregulated CRP production in
121 human coronary artery smooth muscle cells (52-55). A recent meta-analysis reveals a progressive
122 CRP level reduction up to 6 months in patients with periodontitis following effective treatment (37).
123 This was also associated with reduction of reduced serum IL-6, TNF α , and IL-1 β in patients with
124 periodontitis compared to baseline (56-59). Collectively, these findings suggest that reduced levels of

125 CRP, IL-6, TNF α , and IL-1 β after treatment of periodontitis could restore eNOS activity and NO
126 bioavailability resulting in improved endothelial dysfunction.

127 **3 Periodontitis as a trigger of systemic inflammation**

128 Periodontitis and ASCVD share similar hallmark of inflammatory mechanisms (60), genetic
129 (2, 61), and common risk factors (62). However, a significant body of evidence supports an
130 independent association between periodontitis and ASCVD following adjustment for confounders
131 and shared risk factors (63, 64). This independent association can be explained by the capability of
132 periodontitis to trigger a low-grade, but consistent systemic inflammation which may contribute to
133 the development of ASCVD (65). Patients with periodontitis exhibit an elevated level of systemic
134 pro-inflammatory mediators which include CRP, TNF α , IL-1 β , IL-6, as well as increased neutrophil
135 numbers in the blood (2, 14, 66-69). A retrospective study involving 60,174 participants revealed that
136 even after the adjustment of confounders, participants with periodontitis were 1.59 times more likely
137 to have ASCVD (63). Previously, an 8-year prospective cohort study involving 11,869 participants
138 also showed that those reporting poor-oral hygiene had an enhanced risk of CVD event as well as an
139 elevated level of CRP and fibrinogen in the serum (70).

140 Systemic inflammation triggered by periodontitis potentially occurs as a result of bacterial
141 dissemination or periodontal tissue-derived inflammatory mediator leakage to blood circulation. The
142 ulceration of the epithelium owing to local periodontium inflammation along with the support of its
143 rich vascularization may provide greater access for bacteria and their endotoxins such as
144 lipopolysaccharides (LPS) to circulation, leading to bacteremia (13). This event was reported in
145 patients with periodontitis during mastication, toothbrushing, and dental scaling (10, 11). The
146 bacteremia would induce inflammatory alteration in the endothelium which are enhanced expression
147 of adhesion molecules and production of pro-inflammatory cytokines. With regards to the spillover
148 of inflammatory mediators to the bloodstream, this can affect vascular tissues as well as other distant
149 organs including liver which then may initiate acute-phase response (14).

150 **4 Inflammation and neutrophils: implications for atherosclerosis**

151 Atherosclerosis is a cause for myocardial infarction, ischemic cardiomyopathy, and ischemic stroke
152 that contribute to the majority of death in the population worldwide (4). Arterial wall damage due to
153 blood lipid profile imbalance, oscillating shear stress, and pro-inflammatory mediators initiate this
154 underlying ASCVD pathology. The subsequent process is endothelial cell activation in arterial tissue,
155 myeloid cell adhesion to endothelium, and infiltration into the arterial intima (26). At the late stage of
156 atherosclerosis, inflammatory cell accumulation, lipoprotein deposition, and cellular debris buildup
157 are responsible for the arterial plaque formation followed by the plaque instability leading to
158 atherosclerotic plaque rupture. Atherosclerosis is a decades-long process with many stages of
159 evolution and evidence suggests that neutrophils involve in different stages of atherosclerosis
160 (**Figure 1**) (26).

161 The onset of atherosclerosis is characterized by endothelial dysfunction which induces neutrophil
162 recruitment to the endothelium. Specifically, the dysfunction up-regulates the expression of various
163 endothelial cell adhesion molecules including E-selectin, P-selectin, and intracellular adhesion
164 molecule-1 (ICAM-1) (71). Platelets then deliver CCL5, the primary ligand of CCR5 on the
165 endothelium and promote cathepsin G secretion by neutrophils resulting in the firm adhesion to and
166 accumulation of the cells in the endothelium (72, 73). Further, neutrophils aggravate the endothelial
167 dysfunction by secreting reactive oxygen species (ROS), azurocidin, proteinase 3, cathelicidin, and

168 cathepsin G in the arterial lumen (26, 74). ROS and proteases activate and dysregulate endothelial
169 cell layer and degrade the underlying extracellular matrix, enabling leukocyte infiltration and low-
170 density lipoprotein (LDL) extravasation (26). Azurocidin also contributes to increasing endothelial
171 permeability (26, 74-76), while azurocidin, proteinase 3, cathelicidin, α -defensin and, cathepsin G all
172 promote myeloid cell recruitment facilitating monocyte entry to the atherosclerotic lesion (74, 77-
173 82).

174 The progression of the lesion continues following the aggravation of endothelial dysfunction by
175 neutrophils where macrophage activation and foam cell formation occur in the arterial intima.
176 Neutrophil-derived granule proteins, cathelicidin, and α -defensin activate macrophages toward pro-
177 inflammatory state (M1 macrophage phenotype). Neutrophils also secrete myeloperoxidase (MPO) to
178 generate oxygen radicals that oxidize apolipoprotein B, a protein structure in LDL (82).
179 Subsequently, macrophages take up this oxidized LDL (oxLDL) resulting in foam cell formation
180 (83). Moreover, NETs stimulate macrophages by turning on transcription factors encoding IL-6 and
181 IL-1 β . These cytokines promote the differentiation of Th17 cells, which in turn amplify neutrophils
182 recruitment in the lesion (84). At this stage, as a result of sustained myeloid cell recruitment and
183 foam cell generation, the atheroma becomes pronounced.

184 In the late stage of atherosclerosis, neutrophils destabilize the atherosclerotic plaque.
185 Mechanistically, activated vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) in advanced atherosclerotic lesion
186 induce neutrophil chemotaxis and secrete CCL7 that stimulates NET release. One of NET cytotoxic
187 components, histone H4, disrupts the integrity of VSMC plasma membrane leading to the cell lysis
188 (85). Moreover, endotoxemia in mice model of atherosclerosis revealed that leukotriene B4-induced
189 neutrophil recruitment to atherosclerotic plaques induces collagen degradation and VSMC lysis
190 leading to the feature of plaque instability (86). In eroded human plaques, neutrophils colocalized
191 with toll-like receptor 2 of endothelial cells and in vitro experiment showed that co-culture of
192 neutrophil with endothelial cells potentiates endothelial stress and apoptosis, resulting in endothelial
193 cell detachment followed by luminal endothelial cell desquamation (plaque erosion) (19). Lastly,
194 NETs also involve during endothelial erosion as the disruption of NETs by either peptidyl arginine
195 deiminase 4 (PAD4) gene knockout or DNase I treatment in atherosclerotic mice attenuated
196 endothelial disintegration and endothelial cell apoptosis (87).

197 Neutrophils play dual roles which are both adverse and favorable for cardiac tissue repair following
198 myocardial infarction (**Figure 2A**). Tissue necrosis/ischemia post-acute myocardial infarction
199 releases alarmins and inflammatory signals that attract neutrophils to the site of infarction (88).
200 Activated neutrophils secrete ROS, proteases, NETs, and IL-1 β . Granulopoiesis stimulated by IL-1 β
201 leads to neutrophil accumulation in the injured site which is detrimental to the remodeling of
202 ischemic area resulting in eventual heart failure (89, 90). Following neutrophil accumulation,
203 monocytes and monocyte-derived macrophages infiltrate the infarcted site to phagocytose cell debris
204 and apoptotic neutrophils, leading to the activation of cardiac repair (88). Intriguingly, neutrophils
205 also contribute to this cardiac healing as their damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), such
206 as neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin (NGAL) and S100A8/A9, stimulate macrophages to
207 shift towards reparative phenotypes (91, 92). These anti-inflammatory macrophages aid the
208 resolution of inflammation (88). Neutrophils also secrete annexin A1 that stimulates pro-angiogenic
209 macrophage polarization. These macrophage phenotypes release vascular endothelial growth factor A
210 (VEGFA) to support angiogenesis in the ischemic site of the myocardium (93). Beside cardiac tissue
211 repair, neutrophils aggravate other atherosclerosis complications, namely ischemic stroke (**Figure**
212 **2B**). Following episode of ischemic stroke, dying neurons attract neutrophils to the area to release
213 ROS and elastase that enhance endothelial cell dysfunction and permeability. NETs promote

214 thrombus growth, thereby increasing stroke volume. Finally, neutrophils increase neuronal cell death
 215 in a process that is likely to involve NETs (26, 94).

216 **5 Impact of periodontitis-induced systemic inflammation on bone marrow activity and**
 217 **subsequent circulating neutrophil alterations: Plausible mechanisms**

218 **5.1 Modulation of HSPCs in the bone marrow: a key role for periodontitis-induced systemic**
 219 **inflammation**

220 Trained immunity can be initiated in the bone marrow via sustained epigenetic, metabolic, and
 221 transcriptional adaptations in HSPCs, leading to enhanced myeloid-biased differentiation and
 222 production of increased numbers of trained myeloid cells including neutrophils (trained
 223 myelopoiesis/granulopoiesis) (95, 96). This training is based on the ability of HSPCs to sense
 224 numerous inflammatory cues in response to hematopoietic stress such as systemic inflammation (12,
 225 96). HSPCs can directly sense pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), such as LPS, via
 226 their pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) such as toll-like receptors (for example, TLR-4 for sensing
 227 LPS). Regarding the direct mechanism, in the context of periodontitis-induced bacteremia, it could be
 228 envisioned that systemically disseminated periodontal pathogens or their products (for example LPS
 229 or lipopeptides) may also reach the bone marrow resulting in innate immune training on HSPCs. On
 230 the other hand, indirect activation relies on specialized cells residing in either the peripheral tissue or
 231 bone marrow affecting the hematopoietic system through the release of cytokines (97, 98).

232 In addition to direct sensing of pathogens, cytokines and growth factors derived from both the bone
 233 marrow niche and peripheral tissue can mediate indirect adaptation of HSPCs (97, 98). IL-1 β
 234 promotes myeloid differentiation and self-renewal of HSPCs as chronic administration of this
 235 cytokine elevates the number of myeloid-bias HSPCs. This is also consistent with the recent finding
 236 that enhanced myelopoiesis of HSPCs in a mouse model of β -glucan or experimental periodontitis-
 237 induced trained immunity is mediated by IL-1 β (95, 99). TNF α exhibits different actions on HSPCs
 238 as it promotes both the survival and myeloid differentiation of HSCs while inducing the apoptosis of
 239 myeloid progenitors (100). Increased level of IL-6 in the bone marrow niche promotes myelopoiesis
 240 indicated by an elevated number of multipotent progenitors (MPPs) and common myeloid
 241 progenitors (CMPs) (101). Type 1 IFN mediates trained granulopoiesis in mice following β -glucan
 242 treatment resulting in the production of neutrophils with an enhanced ROS-dependent anti-tumor
 243 phenotype (102). IFN γ promotes HSC self-renewal and myeloid differentiation in mouse model of
 244 repeated *Mycobacterium avium* infection (103). Granulocyte colony stimulating factor (G-CSF) is a
 245 key growth factor that drives granulopoiesis. Specifically, G-CSF produced by monocytes in the
 246 bone marrow niche is responsible for HSPC mobilization from the bone marrow to circulation (104).
 247 Moreover, in emergency granulopoiesis, G-CSF promotes the expansion and granulocyte lineage
 248 specification of granulocyte-monocyte progenitors (GMPs) (105).

249 Systemic inflammation indicated by elevated levels of TNF α , IL-1 β , IL-6, and IFN γ in the serum is
 250 clinically present in patient with periodontitis (66, 67). Plasma IFN α , a type 1 IFN is also higher in
 251 periodontitis patients compared to healthy controls (106). However, the role of type 1 IFN-mediated
 252 trained granulopoiesis in inducing hyper-responsive neutrophils in periodontitis patients needs to be
 253 addressed experimentally. Recent evidence indicates an increased level of serum G-CSF in ligature-
 254 induced periodontitis mice (107). Fibroblasts in the periodontal tissue contribute to the release of G-
 255 CSF during periodontal inflammation resulting in the promotion of granulopoiesis (108). Based on
 256 the cumulative evidence of the effect of cytokines and growth factors on HSPCs and clinical studies
 257 mentioned above, it could be supported that periodontitis-associated systemic inflammation may

258 modulate HSPCs toward trained granulopoiesis (**Table 1**). This notion was recently confirmed in a
259 preclinical model. Specifically, it was shown that ligature-induced periodontitis (LIP)-associated
260 systemic inflammation leads to maladaptive innate immune training in the bone marrow (i.e.,
261 generating inflammatory memory) and the generation of increased numbers of hyper-responsive
262 neutrophils; these populate oral and non-oral tissues and promote the emergence of inflammatory
263 comorbidities, as exemplified by the periodontitis-arthritis axis (99). This is consistent with available
264 clinical observations as outlined below. Intriguingly, the transplantation of bone marrow from LIP-
265 subjected mice to healthy recipient mice resulted in increased severity of arthritis in the latter, as
266 compared to transplantation of bone marrow from periodontally healthy mice (99). The implication
267 of this finding (if a similar phenomenon is confirmed in humans) is that clinicians should take
268 inflammatory memory in the bone marrow into consideration when selecting appropriate donors for
269 hematopoietic transplantation (99).

270 Indeed, the notion that periodontitis might trigger adaptation of HSPCs is supported by clinical
271 imaging studies using ^{18}F -fluorodeoxyglucose positron emission tomography/computed tomography
272 (^{18}F -FDG-PET/CT). One study revealed that periodontal inflammation was associated with
273 hematopoietic activity in the bone marrow, and arterial inflammation. Further, the authors used
274 mediation path analysis to show that the relationship between periodontal and arterial inflammation
275 was significantly mediated by bone marrow activity (109). More recently, another study using the
276 same cohort of 304 participants as the aforementioned study, showed that periodontal inflammation
277 (as determined by ^{18}F -FDG-PET/CT) is independently correlated with not only increased arterial
278 inflammation but also increased risk of future cardiovascular events (64). In addition, another study
279 harnessing the same imaging technique also reported a trend for increased periodontal inflammation
280 and femur bone marrow activity in patients with periodontitis (relative to controls), albeit no
281 differences were observed in vascular inflammation between the two groups (110). The lack of
282 apparent differences in this study is likely attributed (a) to the small sample size (14 participants as
283 opposed to >300 participants in the above-discussed studies) and (b) to the fact that participants with
284 severe periodontal disease were under supportive periodontal therapy, which could have mitigated
285 inflammation and associated parameters, including surrogate markers of ASCVD (discussed below)
286 (110). Moreover, the control group also included individuals with mild periodontitis, which could
287 also impact systemic inflammation and hematopoietic tissue activity, thus reducing potential
288 differences as compared to the experimental group.

289 **5.2 Alteration of circulating neutrophils in periodontitis and its putative effect on** 290 **atherosclerosis**

291 Patients with periodontitis exhibit an elevated numbers of neutrophils and altered phenotypes
292 presenting hyper-reactive features in cellular functions (discussed below) (21-23, 68, 69, 110-117).
293 These include increased level of ROS production in response to fMLP, PMA, or periodontal
294 pathogens (21-23, 102, 111-115), elevated TNF α production following the stimulation with the
295 periodontal pathogen, *Fusobacterium nucleatum*, in vitro (116), and elevated neutrophil elastase
296 levels linked to periodontal tissue destruction (117, 118). The systemic effect of this alteration has
297 been recently confirmed in an experimental study with mice and experimental periodontitis that
298 exhibited hyper-inflammatory neutrophil response following the exposure of secondary peritonitis
299 compared to mice without periodontitis (119).

300 These altered features in neutrophils present a hallmark of trained myelopoiesis which includes
301 increased numbers of myeloid cells with enhanced inflammatory responsiveness (24, 95). As such,

302 these changes may implicate the response of future inflammatory stimuli that drive certain
303 pathological process such as atherosclerosis.

304 Neutrophils that are increased in number and hyper-responsiveness due to periodontitis can
305 contribute to any stage of this ASCVD pathology. Further research should address this hypothesis
306 experimentally. However, it is still interesting to speculate that periodontitis-induced neutrophil
307 alteration contributes to the association between periodontitis to ASCVD because of several clinical
308 studies that back this notion. An elevated number of neutrophils in peripheral blood may increase the
309 risk of ASCVD in periodontitis patients because neutrophil counts from peripheral blood is positively
310 correlated with ASCVD risk (120, 121). Moreover, periodontitis patients consistently present
311 endothelial dysfunction which is a key feature in ASCVD (2). This disturbed vascular function and
312 an elevated neutrophil ROS production triggered by periodontitis can aggravate the initiation of
313 atherosclerosis. The latter may also potentiate the progression of atherosclerosis, particularly in
314 oxidizing LDL. Hyper-responsiveness of neutrophils characterized by excessive production of
315 neutrophil elastase and ROS in periodontitis patients could also contribute to the late stage of
316 atherosclerosis as both hyper-reactive features induce endothelial apoptosis resulting in endothelial
317 desquamation (plaque erosion), fibrous cap thinning and plaque ruptures. Finally, whereas the
318 production of NETs by circulating neutrophils have been shown to be comparable between patients
319 with periodontitis and healthy controls, plasma NET degradation was lower in patient with
320 periodontitis than controls suggesting an impaired NET degradation process in the plasma in
321 periodontitis patients (122). This impairment might favor atherosclerosis complication, especially in
322 post-ischemic stroke where NET accumulation is known to promote thrombus formation and expands
323 stroke volume. In this context, a case-control study revealed that periodontitis was an independent
324 predictor of poor outcome in post-ischemic stroke patients (123).

325 **6 Impact of periodontitis treatment on neutrophils**

326 Whereas the treatment of periodontitis improves the surrogate markers of ASCVD, its long-term
327 cardiovascular-protective effect is uncertain. A reduction of several serum inflammatory markers that
328 is expected to reduce the risk of ASCVD is not observed in serum IFN γ and IL-10 because both
329 markers remain unchanged following periodontitis treatment (40). As these markers are
330 predominantly generated and released to blood circulation by inflammatory cells, it is interesting to
331 speculate that the successful treatment indeed achieves the resolution of periodontal inflammation,
332 but circulating inflammatory cells still retain their periodontitis-induced altered phenotypes. The
333 latter is supported by clinical studies that investigated the functions of peripheral blood-derived
334 neutrophils and monocytes in periodontitis patients after the treatment. The hyper-responsiveness of
335 these myeloid cells persisted as the levels of cytokines produced by the cells in response to pathogen
336 or LPS stimulation were comparable between neutrophils from patients before and after periodontal
337 treatment (31, 116). Similarly, a longitudinal study on the circulating neutrophil profiles of patients
338 with periodontitis showed that neutrophils (as a proportion of total cells isolated from peripheral
339 blood of periodontitis patients) did not change between baseline (prior to treatment) and after 3-, 6-,
340 and 12-months post-periodontitis treatment (124). The retained neutrophil phenotypes might be as a
341 result of trained myelopoiesis induced by periodontitis-triggered systemic inflammation. In murine
342 experiments, long-lasting changes in myelopoiesis were observed following either microbial- or
343 sterile-induced inflammation (29, 95). Similarly, recent report shows that upon LIP resolution,
344 HSPCs in the bone marrow retain a myeloid differentiation bias. (99).

345

346 7 Targeting neutrophils as a novel therapeutic approach: Dual benefit on periodontitis and 347 ASCVD

348 The targeted therapeutic approach for ASCVD has been established focusing on the reduction of
349 inflammation (**Table 2**). The first clinical trial, CANTOS, in attempt to close the gap between pre-
350 clinical studies and clinical practice, was conducted providing evidence that reducing inflammation
351 could be relevant to treat atherosclerosis in human. In this trial, the anti-IL-1 β antibody,
352 Canakinumab were administered subcutaneously to individuals with a sustained acute myocardial
353 infarction. The trial reveals a significant reduction in the rate of recurrent cardiovascular events,
354 hospitalization for heart failure, and heart failure-associated death (125, 126). However, the adverse
355 events in the group receiving Canakinumab was a significant more death due to infection or sepsis
356 compared to placebo group (125). Moreover, oral administration of Colchicine in patients with a
357 recent myocardial infarction significantly reduced the risk of ischemic cardiovascular events (127).
358 The benefits of Colchicine were also observed in patients with chronic coronary disease (128).
359 Unfortunately, patients in Colchicine group showed higher incident of pneumonia and non-
360 cardiovascular caused death than those in placebo group (127, 128). Other clinical studies on
361 targeting inflammation in ASVD treatment are reviewed elsewhere (129). These clinical trials
362 indicate that therapies with alternative strategies are needed to achieve outcomes in which the
363 benefits outweigh the risks.

364
365 Beside the necessity of different strategies to reduce the risk-benefit ratio, a refined understanding on
366 the potential role of periodontitis-induced neutrophil alteration in the pathology of ASCVD and its
367 retained phenotypes following successful periodontitis treatment highlight the importance of
368 selectively targeting neutrophils during the treatment of periodontitis. This therapeutic approach is
369 warranted to mitigate potential impacts of periodontitis on ASCVD. The main endpoint of this
370 intervention is to either manipulate the number of neutrophils and/or their functional activities. We
371 only discuss about the approaches to block neutrophil recruitment and prevent NET-driven
372 inflammation, while other neutrophil-targeted therapeutics was extensively reviewed elsewhere
373 (130).

374
375 While the results of neutrophil recruitment blockage are promising in preclinical studies, clinical
376 trials exhibit unsuccessful outcomes due to the redundancy of signals during neutrophil recruitment
377 and off-target effects caused by receptor cross-linking. Recent studies provide strategies to overcome
378 such difficulties. The combined inhibition of several endothelial cell molecules interrupts redundant
379 signals that recruit neutrophils (131). Intravenous injection of nanoparticle carrying small interfering
380 RNAs (siRNAs) that target endothelial adhesion molecules including ICAM-1, E-, P-selectin, and
381 vascular cellular adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1) decreased leukocyte recruitment to ischemic
382 myocardium in mice model of post-myocardial infarction (131). Moreover, specific blockage of
383 neutrophils that traffic to certain vascular tissue requires refined understanding on recruitment patters
384 in particular sites (16). A neutrophil granule protein, cathepsin G promotes myeloid cell adhesion to
385 only arterial, but not microvascular tissue (73). Indeed, antibody-assisted cathepsin G neutralization
386 in atherosclerotic mice model specifically alleviated neutrophil recruitment to carotid artery resulting
387 in reduced atherosclerotic plaque sizes. The similar treatment, however, did not affect neutrophil
388 adhesion in lung microcirculation following LPS-induced lung inflammation model in mice (73).
389 Further, the elucidation of heteromeric interactions between neutrophil-derived human neutrophil
390 peptide-1 (HNP1) and platelet-borne CCL5 that are required to stimulate monocyte adhesion via
391 CCR5 ligation allows to design a peptide that can disturb these neutrophil-platelet interactions. This
392 specifically designed short peptide alleviated inflammation in mouse model of myocardial infarction
393 (20). Finally, inducing endogenous inhibitors in leukocytes can overcome integrin activation by

394 chemokine, thereby suppressing myeloid cell adhesion. For example, growth differentiation factor-15
395 (GDF-15) and annexin A1 inhibited chemokine-induced $\beta 2$ integrin activation then subsequently
396 reduced neutrophil recruitment in mouse model of chronic inflammation (72, 132). Moreover,
397 recombinant developmental endothelial locus-1 (DEL-1), the first identified endogenous inhibitor of
398 the leukocyte adhesion cascade (133), inhibited neutrophil recruitment in mouse and non-human
399 primate models (134, 135).

400
401 Important roles of NETs in both atherosclerosis progression (atherogenesis, plaque destabilization
402 and erosion) and complication (atherothrombosis) stand out as a potential therapeutic target to
403 manipulate cardiovascular inflammation. Peptidyl arginine deiminase 4 (PAD4) citrullinates histone
404 to disrupt electrostatic bond in nucleosomes decondensing chromatin that leads NET release (136).
405 Cl-amidine, a PAD inhibitor administered intravenously in atherosclerotic mice model prevented
406 NET formation leading to reduced atherosclerotic lesion area and thrombosis (137). However, the
407 mechanism of NETosis in mouse is different with human as ex vivo experiments of human
408 neutrophils showed that PMA-induced NETosis of the cells was not affected following PAD4
409 inhibitor, Cl-amidine (138). Meanwhile, DNase 1 treatment might be considered to mitigate ASCVD
410 complication, thrombosis due to NET deposition in vascular lumen. This notion is supported by a
411 study where the treatment protected mice from deep vein thrombosis following inferior vena cava
412 stenosis model (139). A reduction in lesion size was also observed in atherosclerosis mice model
413 after DNase injections (84). In human, DNase 1 treatment to eliminate NET deposition might need a
414 combination with other substance as DNase 1 alone was not adequate to degrade NETs in vitro
415 (140). Lastly, NET chromatin can stimulate macrophage by activating AIM2 inflammation causing
416 the release of IL-8 and IL-1 β in atherosclerotic lesion. The use of AIM2 inhibitor could also attenuate
417 ASCVD complication because reduced plaque vulnerability through the thickening of fibrous cap
418 was observed in atherosclerotic mice model after the treatment of AIM2 inhibitor (141). ApoE-
419 deficient mice on 6-week high fat diet and injected with anti-chromatin antibodies also showed a
420 reduced plaque area per lumen suggesting the potential of chromatin blockage to hinder
421 atherosclerosis (142). The use of substances to block NET in human should be implemented with
422 caution because studies about pro-inflammatory features of NETs in human is still conflicting as in
423 vitro NET clearance by human macrophages did not induce pro-inflammatory cytokines (140), but
424 NET transfection to mouse macrophages did (143).

425
426 Targeting neutrophils as an approach to mitigate the potential impacts periodontitis on ASCVD is
427 appealing considering numerous efforts outlined previously. This targeted strategy can have direct
428 effects on ASCVD, but also reduce periodontitis which triggers inflammation that primes neutrophils
429 for ASCVD pathology. However, safety and specificity issues are challenges that need to be solved
430 as neutrophils interact with other myeloid lineages (130). The solution for the former concern is that
431 the intervention should consider the therapeutic window, where the attenuation of inflammatory
432 processed mediated by neutrophils does not interfere with neutrophil capacity during host defence
433 (130). Recent study reveals that the use of antibodies to inhibit NET-derived histones reduced the
434 amplification of NET-induced inflammation rather completely blocked NETosis or inflammation
435 (142). A small number of studies presented strategies to obtain the specificity to therapeutically
436 target neutrophil. For example, the conjugation of siRNA targeting Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK)
437 to F(ab')₂ fragment of an anti-neutrophil monoclonal antibody specifically targeted alveolar
438 neutrophils in acute lung injury mice model. This treatment was administered locally using a
439 technique called intranasal instillation (144). Meanwhile, others harness nanoparticle technology for
440 the enhancement of specificity. One of them reported that neutrophils adhered to activated
441 endothelium engulfed albumin nanoparticles carrying piceatannol leading to inactivation of these
442 adherent neutrophils that consequently prevented vascular inflammation (145). In addition, another

443 report exhibited lipid-based nanoparticles that were successfully incorporated with identified peptides
444 that interact with neutrophil-specific surface marker, CD177 (146).

445
446 The clinical trial in targeting neutrophils to lower ASCVD risk is still lacking. However, two
447 randomized clinical trials reported that metoprolol provides a cardio-protective effect following acute
448 myocardial infarction which is one of atherosclerosis complications (**Table 2**). Specifically,
449 intravenous administration of metoprolol reduced infarct size and improved cardiac function in
450 patient with acute myocardial infarction (147, 148). Studies using myocardial infarct mice model
451 reveal the mechanism of this protection in which metoprolol attenuates neutrophil migration and
452 infiltration by impairing the neutrophil-platelet interaction that is crucial during early phases of
453 neutrophil recruitment (149, 150). Another drug candidate, AZD5069, a CXCR2 antagonist could be
454 a potent drug candidate in treating patients with advanced atherosclerotic lesion. CXCR2 is a
455 chemokine receptor 2 in neutrophils that regulates neutrophil migration and the inhibition of this
456 receptor successfully prevented neutrophil recruitment to the site of inflammation (151). Adverse
457 effect on neutrophil function was not observed and no safety concerns were raised in participants
458 receiving oral administration of AZD5069 (152). The CICADA trial was proposed to investigate the
459 effect of CXCR2 antagonist (administered orally) on coronary flow, structure, and function in
460 patients with coronary heart disease (153).

461
462 Mechanical intervention in periodontitis management with adjunctive neutrophil-targeted therapeutic
463 approach could also provide benefit to reduce periodontal-induced systemic inflammation that can
464 implicate all stages of atherosclerosis. A phase IIa clinical trial of complement C3 inhibitor, AMY-
465 101, summarized in **Table 2** shows promising results in reducing local inflammation in periodontal
466 tissue (154). The pharmacological blockade of the central complement component, C3, inhibits
467 downstream activation of the anaphylatoxin C3a and C5a receptors (C3aR and C5aR, respectively),
468 which have been shown to induce inflammatory bone loss in a preclinical model (155). C5aR and
469 TLR2 coactivation in neutrophils contributes to oral microbiota dysbiosis leading to overt periodontal
470 inflammation and subsequent periodontal tissue destruction (156). Local injection of AMY-101 to
471 the gingiva reduced gingival inflammation without adverse events warranting phase III clinical trials
472 as further investigations (154, 157). Importantly, AMY-101 significantly reduced the gingival
473 crevicular levels of MMP-8 and MMP-9 (153), which are the major neutrophil-derived proteases and
474 considered as biomarkers of periodontal tissue destruction (158). Meanwhile, other local neutrophil-
475 targeted treatments including resolvin E1, developmental endothelial locus-1, and milk fat globule
476 epidermal growth factor 8 are still in pre-clinical studies. These proteins reduce neutrophil
477 recruitment to the site of inflammation and prevent animal models of ligature-induced periodontitis
478 (135, 159, 160). In addition, resolving E1 also promotes neutrophil apoptosis and its clearance
479 (efferocytosis) resulting in the resolution of periodontal inflammation (158). Focusing on the
480 termination of periodontitis may prevent its systemic impact which is heightened systemic
481 inflammation. These strategies of local intervention potentially further improve the current
482 periodontal treatment in providing a sustained protection to cardiovascular health.

483 **8 Conclusion**

484 Periodontitis triggers systemic inflammation which could modulate hematopoietic tissue activity in
485 the bone marrow resulting in trained myelopoiesis. Clinical studies demonstrating an increased
486 numbers as well as enhanced inflammatory responsiveness in neutrophils back this notion. The
487 evidence of persistent elevated neutrophil numbers and their altered phenotypes, despite the
488 resolution of periodontitis following local treatment, also supports the speculation that periodontitis-
489 induced systemic inflammation can induce long-term myelopoiesis bias, a hallmark of innate

490 immune training in the bone marrow. The quantitative and qualitative alterations in neutrophils may
 491 contribute to all stages of the ASCVD pathology, atherosclerosis (**Figure 3**). Although clinical
 492 intervention studies suggest that periodontal therapy improves surrogate marker of ASCVD, long
 493 term effect of this oral treatment to maintain such improvement and convincing evidence that
 494 successful periodontitis treatment can reduce the risk or incidence of ASCVD are yet to be
 495 investigated. Meanwhile, targeting neutrophils are warranted to improve local periodontal therapy
 496 eliminating periodontitis effectively that can reduce periodontitis-triggered systemic inflammation
 497 and to reverse the periodontitis-induced neutrophil changes. Such targeted approaches can be
 498 harnessed as a direct treatment for ASCVD and indirect intervention of the disease through the
 499 reduction of heightened systemic inflammation triggered by periodontitis.

500 **9 Conflict of Interest**

501 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
 502 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

503 **10 Author Contributions**

504 RAI wrote the original draft. RAI, STC, GH, VP, JED, and FD provided critical revisions to the
 505 article. All authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

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1001 **Figure captions**

1002 **Figure 1.** Stage-dependent role of neutrophils in atherosclerosis.

1003 **Figure 2.** Neurophils in ASCVD complications.

1004 **Figure 3.** Periodontitis-induced systemic inflammation, inflammatory modulation of bone marrow
 1005 progenitor cells, and implications for atherosclerosis.

1006 **Figure legends**

1007 **Figure 1.** During the early stage of atherosclerosis, upregulation of E-selectin, P-Selectin, and
 1008 ICAM-1 induce neutrophil recruitment. Platelet-derived CCL5 activates neutrophil to release
 1009 cathepsin G leading to the firm adhesion to and accumulation of neutrophils in the endothelium. ROS
 1010 and proteases secreted by neutrophils activate and dysregulate endothelial cell layer and degrade the
 1011 underlying extracellular matrix resulting in monocyte infiltration and LDL extravasation. Neutrophils
 1012 secrete MPO that mediates LDL oxidation and promotes foam cell formation. Cathelicidin- and α -
 1013 defensin-derived neutrophils activate macrophages towards pro-inflammatory state, while NETs

1014 stimulate macrophage to release IL-6 and IL-1 β that promote Th17 differentiation followed by the
1015 amplification of neutrophil recruitment. At the late stage of atherosclerosis, activated VSMCs induce
1016 neutrophil chemotaxis and release CCL7 to stimulate NETs. Histone H4-derived from NETs induce
1017 VSMC lysis and the secretion of proteases by neutrophils degrade collagen and lyse VSMCs leading
1018 to the plaque instability. Neutrophils contribute to plaque erosion through NET release as well as
1019 colocalization with TLR2 of endothelial cells to induce endothelial cell stress and apoptosis.

1020 **Figure 2a.** After acute myocardial infarction, ischemic/necrotic tissues release alarmins and
1021 inflammatory signals to induce neutrophil recruitments. Activated neutrophils secrete ROS,
1022 proteases, and NETs. S100A8/A9-derived from NETs induces IL-1 β release following NLRP3
1023 inflammasome priming in naïve neutrophils. IL-1 β reaches the bone marrow to stimulates
1024 granulopoiesis leading tthe amplification of neutrophil production and accumulation which in turn,
1025 detriments the ischemic heart and eventual heart failure. During cardiac tissue repair, NGAL and
1026 S100A8/A9 stimulate macrophages to shift towards reparative phenotypes resulting in increased
1027 clearance of apoptotic cells/debris . Neutrophils also secrete Annexin A1 to favor the shift of
1028 macrophage towards pro-angiogenic phenotypes that release VEGFA to promote angiogenesis in the
1029 ischemic site of cardiac tissue.

1030 **Figure 2b.** Following ischemic stroke, dying neurons attract neutrophils to the ischemic area and
1031 neutrophil ROS and elastase promote endothelial cell dysfunction and vascular permeability. NETs
1032 contribute to thrombus growth thereby increasing stroke volume. Neutrophils also promote neuronal
1033 cell death that is likely mediated by NETs.

1034 **Figure 3.** Periodontitis triggers systemic inflammation which cause inflammatory modulation of
1035 hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells resulting in trained myelopoiesis. In turn, as a hallmark of
1036 trained myelopoiesis, increased number of myeloid cells including neutrophils with enhanced
1037 inflammatory responsiveness may contributes to all stages of the ASCVD pathology, atherosclerosis.

1038

1039 **Table 1.** Summary of circulating molecules that are elevated in periodontitis and involved in
 1040 hematopoietic tissue adaptation.

1041

No.	Molecules	Action on hematopoietic tissue adaptation	References
1.	IL-1 β	Promotes myeloid differentiation and self-renewal of HSPCs	95, 97-99 1043
2.	TNF- α	Promotes survival of HSPCs and myeloid differentiation Induces myeloid progenitor apoptosis	100 1044
3.	IL-6	Enhances myelopoiesis by elevating MPPs and CMPs	101 1045
4.	Type 1 IFN	Mediates trained granulopoiesis with hyper-responsive neutrophils	102 1046
5.	IFN- γ	Promotes HSC self-renewal and myeloid differentiation	103 1047
6.	G-CSF	Drives granulopoiesis Promotes GMP expansion and granulocyte lineage specification	104 105 1048

1049

In review

1050 **Table 2.** Summary of clinical trials

1051

No.	Name of drug	Mechanism of action	Phase	Identifier (Trial registration)	Outcome
1.	Canakinumab	Binds to IL-1 β resulting in blocking the interaction between IL-1 β and IL-1 receptor	Phase 3	NCT01327846	Reduction in cardiovascular events, hospitalization for heart failure, and heart failure-associated death Emergence of death due to sepsis
2.	Colchicine	Prevents microtubule formation resulting in tubulin disruption	Phase 3	NCT02551094	Reduction in ischemic cardiovascular events Increase in pneumonia
3.	Metoprolol	Attenuates neutrophil migration and infiltration by impairing the neutrophil-platelet interaction that is crucial during early phases of neutrophil recruitment	Phase 4	NCT01311700	Reduction of infarct size Improvement of cardiac function
4.	AZD5069 (a CXCR2 antagonist)	Prevents neutrophil recruitment to the site of inflammation	Phase 1 Phase 2	NCT01480739 ISRCTN48328178	No adverse events and safety concerns Currently on going
5.	AMY-101 (a complement C3 inhibitor)	Inhibits downstream activation of the anaphylatoxin C3a and C5a receptors	Phase 2a	NCT03694444	Reduction in gingival inflammation Reduction of MMP-8 and MMP-9 levels in gingival crevicular fluids

Figure 1.JPEG

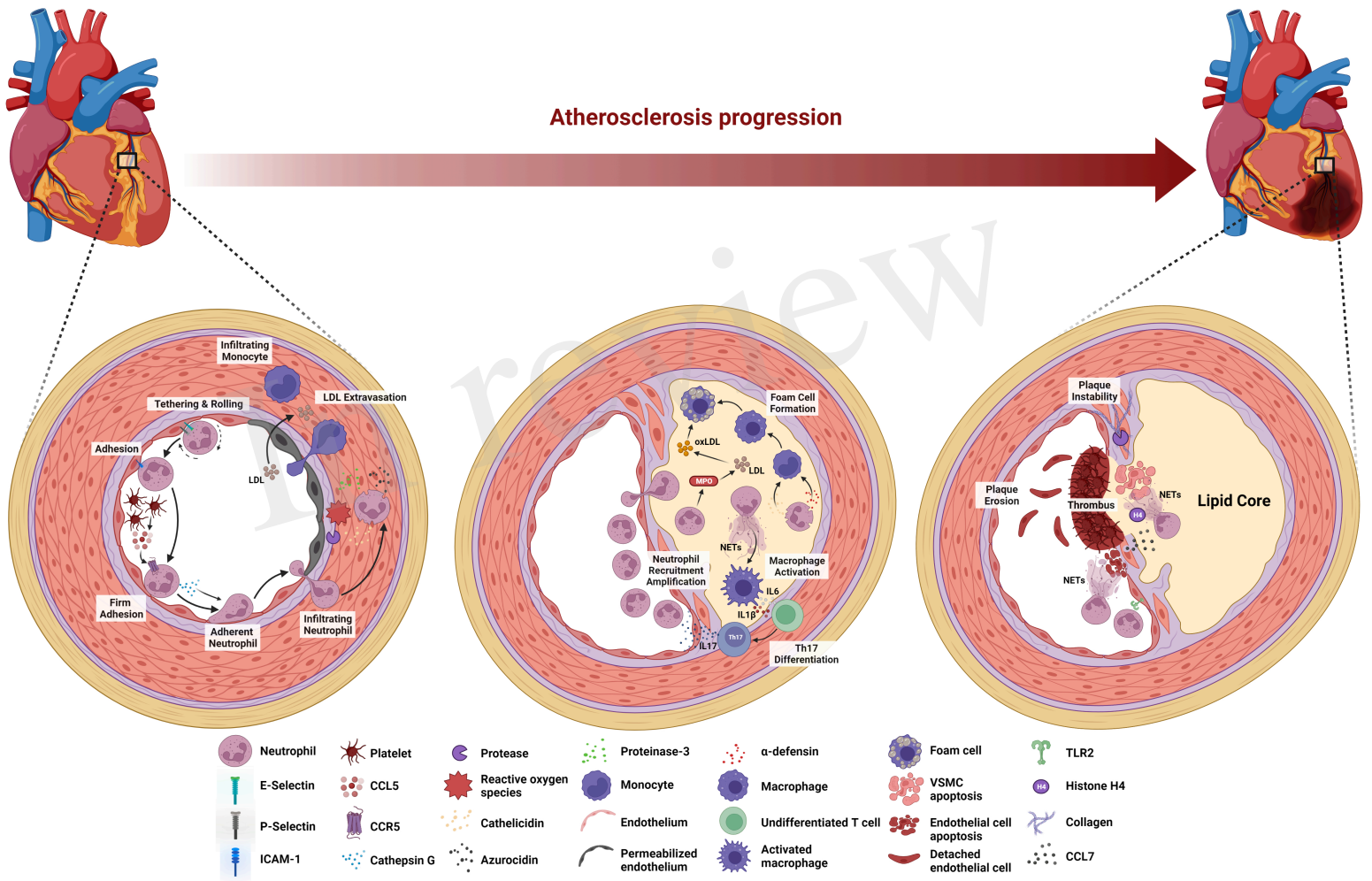


Figure 2.JPEG

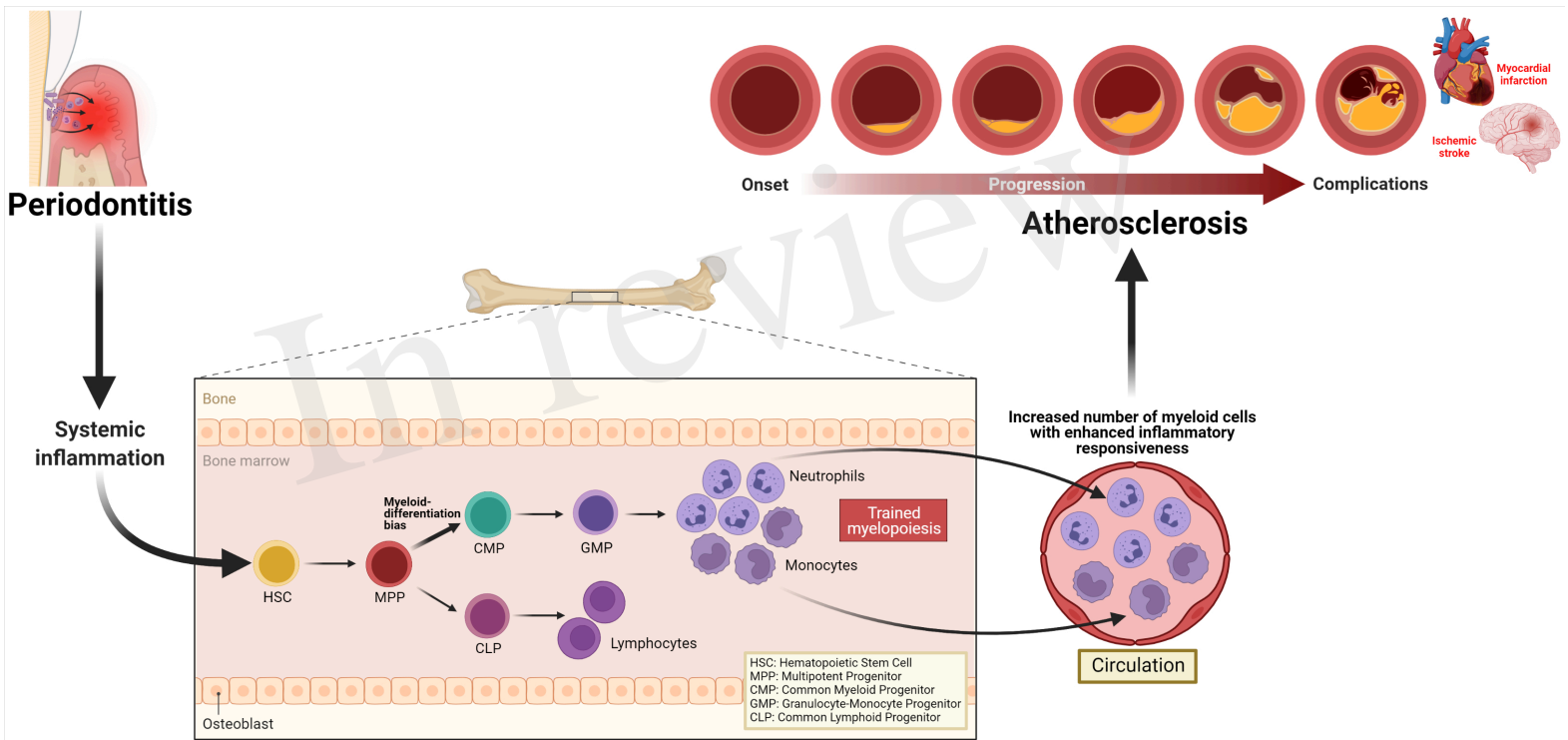


Figure 3.JPEG

