

Molecular Strategies Underlying Porphyromonas gingivalis Virulence

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16 **Abstract**

17

18 The anaerobic Gram-negative bacterium Porphyromonas gingivalis is considered the 19 keystone of periodontitis diseases, a set of inflammatory conditions that affects the 20 tissues surrounding the teeth. In the recent years, the major virulence factors exploited 21 by P. gingivalis have been identified and characterized, including a cocktail of toxins, 22 mainly proteases called gingipains, which promote gingival tissue invasion. These 23 effectors use the Sec pathway to cross the inner membrane and are then recruited and 24 transported across the outer membrane by the type IX secretion system (T9SS). In P. 25 gingivalis, most secreted effectors are attached to anionic lipopolysaccharides (A-LPS), 26 and hence form a virulence coat at the cell surface. P. gingivalis produces additional 27 virulence factors to evade host immune responses, such as capsular polysaccharide, 28 fimbriae and outer membrane vesicles. In addition to periodontitis, it is proposed that 29 this broad repertoire of virulence factors enable P. gingivalis to be involved in diverse 30 human diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis, and neurodegenerative, Alzheimer, and 31 cardiovascular disorders. Here, we review the major virulence determinants of P. 32 gingivalis and discuss future directions to better understand their mechanisms of 33 action.

34 Highlights

- 35
- 36 Porphyromonas gingivalis is the etiologic agent of gingivitis and periodontitis
- 37 Porphyromonas pathogenesis relies on a broad repertoire of virulence factors
- 38 *Porphyromonas* virulence factors include the T9SS, fimbriae, and OMVs
- 39 The T9SS is a multiprotein complex of the cell envelope that transports effectors
- 40 T9SS effectors are mainly proteolytic enzymes that degrade the tooth tissues.

41 *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and the oral cavity microbiota

42

43 Porphyromonas gingivalis is an anaerobic immotile Gram-negative bacterium, and 44 member of the phylum Bacteroidetes. This bacterium is a natural member of the 45 human oral microbiome and one of the main agents of periodontitis, a set of 46 inflammatory conditions that affect the tissues surrounding the teeth, which eventually 47 causes gum degradation, bone loss and teeth to fall out [1]. Its chronic persistence in 48 the periodontium depends on its ability to evade host immunity without inhibiting the 49 overall inflammatory response [2,3]. P. gingivalis is an asaccharolytic bacterium; it 50 generates its metabolic energy by fermenting amino acids, a property decisive for its 51 survival in deep periodontal pockets, where sugars are extremely scarce [4]. To access 52 amino-acids and peptides, P. gingivalis secretes a broad variety of proteases that 53 degrade exogenous proteins to generate peptides that enter the periplasm where they 54 are broken into di- or tri-peptides by dipeptidyl peptidases before being transported into 55 the cytoplasm by oligopeptide transporters [5] (Figure 1).

56 P. gingivalis is unique among pathogenic bacteria in being able to accumulate a cell-57 surface heme (iron protoporphyrin IX [FePPIX])-containing pigment, µ-oxo-bisheme 58 ([FePPIX]₂O), when cultured on blood-containing media, yielding a black pigmentation. 59 This heme is obtained by degradation of host proteins, mainly hemoglobin, by a 60 cocktail of lysine- and arginine-specific proteinases, called gingipains, and collected by 61 heme-binding proteins such as hemin-binding protein 35 (HBP35) and the HmuY 62 hemophore [6-8] (Table 1 and Figure 1). Gingipains and HBP35 are effectors of a 63 secretion apparatus, the type IX secretion system (T9SS), which is hence the major 64 determinant of *P. gingivalis* pathogenesis [9]. In addition, *P. gingivalis* produces a 65 number of potential virulence factors such as lipopolysaccharides (LPS), capsule and 66 fimbriae, that trigger deleterious effects on host cells, allowing P. gingivalis to invade 67 cells and tissues, avoiding the immune surveillance (Table 1 and Figure 1). Once P.

gingivalis is established within the cell, it secretes an ATP-hydrolase enzyme that prevents ATP-dependent apoptosis, allowing its survival into the host [10].

70 P. gingivalis is one of the three components of the so-called "red complex", a bacterial 71 association that also comprises the Gram-negative bacteria Treponema denticola and 72 Tannerella forsythia. The presence of the red complex is strongly correlated with 73 advanced periodontal lesions such as increased pocket depth and bleeding [1]. Recent 74 studies suggest that, within the red complex, P. gingivalis acts as the main pathogen 75 contributing to microbial imbalance and leading to the disease progression, whereas T. 76 denticola and T. forsythia contribute to the nososymbiocity of the microbial community 77 after homeostasis is disrupted, thereby acting as pathobionts that accelerate disease 78 progression [11,12]. Furthermore, P. gingivalis presents synergy biofilm formation with 79 T. denticola [13], which increases the development of gingivitis [14].

80 In addition, bacterial commensals or opportunistic pathogens of the human oral flora 81 have been shown to facilitate P. gingivalis infection or to increase its survival. 82 Streptococcus gordonii enhances accumulation of P. gingivalis in dual species 83 communities, helps adhesion to gingival tissue by increasing expression of *P. gingivalis* 84 fimbrial adhesins and promotes its survival in murine oral infection models [15]. 85 Similarly, Acinetobacter baumannii increases the abundance of P. gingivalis in dual 86 species communities, adapting to each other [16]. Finally, the yeast-like fungus 87 Candida albicans, a common species of the oral cavity, deplete oxygen within poly-88 species biofilms [17], hence protecting anaerobic bacteria such as P. gingivalis in 89 unfavourable, high-oxygen, conditions. In addition, this C. albicans-P. gingivalis 90 microbial community influences host immunity by attenuating macrophage and 91 fibroblast responses and reducing cytokine production, promoting tissue invasion and 92 colonization [18,19].

93

94 Proteins secreted by Porphyromonas gingivalis

95 The major secreted proteins of *P. gingivalis* participate in proteolytic degradation of 96 host proteins, protein citrullination and heme acquisition (Table 1 and Figure 1). All 97 these secreted factors share a Sec-dependent signal sequence for export into the 98 periplasm, and a Ig-fold C-terminal domain (CTD) that addresses the proteins to the 99 T9SS.

100 Gingipains – The gingipain protein family comprises proteases that cleave upstream 101 arginine (RgpA and RgpB) or lysine (Kgp) residues. Gingipains are either secreted in 102 the milieu or anchored to the cell surface and represent the major virulence factors of 103 P. gingivalis [20]. Structurally, these proteins share a similar multidomain organization: 104 from N- to C-terminal, the signal peptide is followed by a prodomain, a catalytic 105 domain, an immunoglobulin-superfamily fold (IgSF), and the CTD. Additionally, RgpA 106 and Kgp possess several copies of hemagglutinin/adhesion domains (HA) located 107 between the IgSF and CTD domains [21]. These HA domains, as well as those of the 108 HagA hemagglutinin, have pleiotropic functions as they have been shown to promote 109 co-aggregation with other bacteria [22] and tissue colonization through adhesion to 110 epithelial cells and gingival fibroblasts [23], and to participate to heme-pigment 111 formation by converting FePPIX.OH monomers into [FePPIX]₂O [24]. Expression of gingipain-encoding genes is downregulated once the pathogen has invaded the 112 113 gingival epithelial cells, suggesting that these proteinases are important for the early 114 stages of *P. gingivalis* infection [25]. Indeed, gingipains proteolyse a broad repertoire of 115 substrates. Gingipains participate to the erosion of periodontal tissues and to the 116 degradation of iron-binding proteins, and target important extracellular matrix 117 components, such as tight-junction associated protein JAM1, hence disrupting the 118 epithelial barrier function and allowing P. gingivalis penetration into subepithelial 119 tissues [26]. In addition, by cleaving T-cell surface proteins such as CD4 and CD8 [27], 120 the IL-6, IL-8, IL-12 cytokines [28] and the gamma-interferon (IFN-y) [29], gingipains 121 interfere with the immune host response and hence facilitate evasion of host defense

mechanisms. *P. gingivalis* also secretes Tpr, a cysteine protease of the papain family[30].

124 Peptidylarginine deiminase - Members of the Porphyromonas genus are the only 125 bacteria known to produce and to secrete a peptidylarginine deiminase (PAD), an 126 enzyme involved in the citrullination of proteins [31] (Table 1). Citrullination is an 127 enzymatic reaction that converts arginine into citrulline, a neutral, non-natural amino 128 acid. By neutralizing a positively-charged residue, this post-translational modification 129 increases the overall hydrophobicity of target proteins and causes protein unfolding 130 and dysfunction [32]. Citrullinated proteins are targeted by the immune system, and 131 ultimately lead to autoimmune diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis (RA). Indeed, a 132 correlation between the development of RA and severe periodontitis was noticed early 133 [33] and further results demonstrated that Porphyromonas PAD (PPAD) is a significant 134 factor in the development of experimental periodontitis and RA in mice [34]. At the 135 structural level, PPAD presents an organization similar to gingipains, with the catalytic 136 domain followed by IgSF and CTD domains [35].

Hemin-binding protein – The hemin-binding protein 35 (HBP35) is a secreted protein
that plays a significant role in heme acquisition [36]. In addition, HBP35 facilitates *P. gingivalis* binding to erythrocytes and host epithelial gingival cells [37]. HBP35
possesses a functional 4-cysteine thioredoxin motif [36,38], which physiological role is
unknown.

142

143 **The Type IX secretion system**

The T9SS is a secretion apparatus that is restricted to bacteria of the Bacteroidetes phylum [39]. Type IX secretion is a two-step mechanism, in which effectors first cross the inner membrane (IM) by the Sec pathway before being recruited to and transported by the T9SS through the outer membrane (OM) [40] (Figure 2). Deletion of T9SS genes causes effector accumulation in the periplasm [9,41]. Processing and activation of T9SS effectors, though studied since decades, remains unclear. Periplasm-

150 sequestered gingipains have shown partial enzymatic activity [42,43], but the 151 requirement of an Ig-like domain for T9SS transport and the internal diameter of the 152 OM translocon [44,45] suggest that T9SS effectors achieve proper folding in the 153 periplasm, before translocation through the OM. Effectors are addressed to the 154 secretion apparatus by a conserved ~ 80-amino acid CTD [46]. In P. gingivalis, CTDs 155 are cleaved when effectors reach the cell exterior, and effectors are either released 156 into the extracellular medium or anchored to the surface by covalent attachment to 157 anionic lipopolysaccharides (A-LPS) [47,48]. In wild-type P. gingivalis, CTD proteins 158 attached to the cell surface yield an additional electron-dense surface layer that can be 159 observed by electron microscopy [49].

160

161 Secretion signal – More than 600 CTD-containing proteins have been bioinformatically 162 identified in at least 20 Bacteroidetes species [50]. Such as T9SS subunits, CTD 163 domains are restricted to the Bacteroidetes phylum, suggesting co-evolution between 164 CTD substrates and the T9SS apparatus [50]. CTDs belong to two different families: 165 type-A (TIGR04183) and type-B (TIGR0413143) [51]. Type-A CTDs are the most 166 abundant and have been studied in different Bacteroidetes species. CTDs are 167 necessary for secretion through the T9SS, as deletion of these domains causes 168 accumulation of the effectors into the periplasm [52]. Type-A CTDs are also sufficient 169 for targeting a T9SS-unrelated protein to the secretion apparatus, as fusion of the type-170 A CTD of *P. gingivalis* HBP35 to the jellyfish Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) supports 171 secretion to the cell exterior in a T9SS-dependent manner [53]. Finally, effectors such 172 as F. johnsoniae ChiA, are handled by the T9SS, in absence of any identifiable type-A 173 or type-B CTD [54,55].

174 Most *P. gingivalis* CTDs belong to type-A. The structures of CTDs from three *P. gingivalis* T9SS substrates (RgpB, PorZ and HBP35) have been reported [44,56,57]. 176 The structures are well conserved: they comprise a β -sandwich with an Ig-like fold

177 conformation organized in two parallel β -sheets that are formed by three and four 178 antiparallel strands respectively [44,56,57] (see insert in Figure 2). How CTD 179 substrates are recruited to the T9SS is not well understood, but a recent non peer-180 reviewed study showed that CTDs interact with two subunits of the trans-envelope 181 complex, PorM and PorN [58], suggesting that PorM and PorN could constitute an 182 entry gate for the effectors into the T9SS. Sequence alignment of type-A CTDs showed 183 that five motifs, named A-to-E, are conserved including three (B, D and E) with a high 184 degree of conservation [46,50]. It has been demonstrated that the two last residues of 185 motif E, are necessary for effector secretion [59]. In contrast, the 22-aminoacid C-186 terminal fragment of HBP35, which comprises only motifs D and E, still supports a 187 significant level of transport, suggesting that motif B improves substrate transport by 188 the T9SS without being fully indispensable [53]. These motifs are likely involved in CTD 189 folding and/or interactions with T9SS components [46,59]. Indeed, a recent study 190 showed that motif D is required for proper interaction with PorM [58].

Once substrates are translocated across the OM, CTDs are removed by the sortaselike protein PorU, which belongs, with PorV, PorZ and PorQ to the attachment complex [60]. The cell surface-exposed attachment complex is responsible for the covalent anchoring of T9SS substrates to A-LPS [61]. Interestingly, PorU and PorZ, also possess a CTD and are hence transported to the cell surface by the T9SS [48]. In contrast to other T9SS substrates, the PorU and PorZ CTDs are not cleaved [48,56], suggesting that specific signals or motifs distinguish the PorU/Z and effector CTDs.

198

T9SS components – While the number of genes required for proper function of the
T9SS varies between species, a set of 18 genes is necessary in *P. gingivalis*.
Surprisingly, except the *porKLMNP* locus, these genes are widespread within the
genome, which is an uncommon situation for other secretion apparatuses in which
genes are usually clustered [39,62].

204

The T9SS trans-envelope core complex. The trans-envelope core complex comprises 4 subunits, PorK, -L, -M and -N, which localize in the cell envelope (coloured yellow in Figure 2). These genes are, together with *porP*, genetically linked on the chromosome and co-transcribed (Table 1) [63]. Blue native gel electrophoresis (BN- PAGE) assays suggested that the PorKLMN proteins assemble large complexes of over 1.2 MDa [9]. PorL and PorM are inner membrane proteins, while PorN is a periplasmic protein and PorK an outer membrane lipoprotein.

212 PorL presents two TMHs and a cytoplasmic domain [63]. PorM is anchored into the IM 213 by a single TMH, and possesses a large periplasmic C-terminal domain (PorMp). PorM 214 forms homodimers and interacts with PorL via their transmembrane helices (TMHs), 215 and with PorN in the periplasm [63]. The crystal structures of the periplasmic domains 216 PorM and its homologue GldM from F. johnsoniae were solved: they both comprise 217 four domains, including a N-terminal all-α-helical domain, and three Ig-like domains 218 [64,65]. Interestingly, the dimer presents swapping elements, were strands from a 219 monomer complete the structure of the second monomer. In addition, kinks exist 220 between the first and second and between the second and third domains [64,65], as 221 well as between the transmembrane portion and first periplasmic domain [66]. 222 Recently, it has been shown that the PorLM sub-complex serves as energy module by 223 converting electrochemical energy into mechanical energy to power T9SS assembly or 224 effector transport [63,66]. In F. johnsoniae, gliding motility is dependent on the proton-225 motive force and on a functional GldLM module (PMF) [66,67]. The cryo-EM structure 226 of a truncated GldLM complex demonstrated that it forms an asymmetric motor of 227 GldL₅GldM₂ stoichiometry [66]. The GldL TMHs assemble a pentameric cage that 228 surrounds two copies of the GldM TMH [66], an organization similar to the PMF-229 dependent ExbBD or MotAB molecular motors [68-70]. Energy modules using PMF 230 usually carry protonotable glutamate or aspartate residues within their TMHs, as in the 231 case of MotAB, ExbBD or TolQR [71]. Interestingly, sequence analysis revealed that 232 PorM and PorL TMHs bears conserved residues, including a glutamate residue in PorL

TMH2 [63,72]. In the GldLM complex structure, the Arg-9 residue of one GldM TMH copy forms a salt bridge with residue Glu-49 of GldL, and it is suggested that protonation of GldL Glu-49 breaks this Arg-9/Glu-49 ion pair and induces reorientation of the GldLM TMHs [66]. It is proposed that electrochemical energy is converted to mechanical movement via the rotation of the two copies of GldM TMH, and subsequent conformation changes within the GldM periplasmic domains [66].

PorK and PorN form a stable complex of 1:1 molecular ratio, associated to the outer membrane [41]. Electron microscopy analyses showed that PorKN assemble into ~50nm large ring-like structures that can comprise 32-36 copies of PorKN [41]. Recently, an *in vivo* cryo-electron tomography study confirmed these *in vitro* results and further proposed an organization in double-layered ring [73].

244

245 The T9SS translocon. Until recently, the identity of the T9SS OM pore was a mystery. 246 As a conserved and large (267 kDa) predicted OM component required for T9SS, the 247 Sov protein was an obvious candidate [39,74-76]. In 2018, the F. johnsoniae Sov 248 homologue SprA was isolated in complex with a peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase, 249 and either the PorV OM β-barrel or the Fjoh 1759 plug protein [45] (coloured pink in 250 Figure 2). Cryo-electron microscopy analyses of these complexes showed that SprA is 251 a giant 36-strand β-barrel with a lateral opening and delimiting a 70-Å internal channel 252 that is large enough to allow the transit of folded substrates. In the "PorV" complex, 253 SprA displays a lateral opening that is filled by a loop of PorV. This loop penetrates 254 inside the lumen of the SprA pore [45], supporting the hypothesis that PorV collects 255 substrates from the translocon and shuttles them to the attachment complex [77]. In 256 the "Plug" complex, PorV is absent and the lateral opening of SprA is unobstructed, but 257 the pore is plugged at the periplasmic entrance by the Fjoh 1759 protein [45]. These 258 two complexes are likely to represent two different states of the mechanism of 259 transport: while the "PorV" complex may correspond to the open complex, prior to 260 substrate engagement, the "Plug" complex may represent the pore after substrate

release, occluded to preserve membrane permeability. Recently, a partner of PorV, named PorA, was identified in *P. gingivalis* and proposed to be a component of the translocon complex. However, PorA is absent in most T9SS+ bacteria and might be specific to gingipains [73]. More recently, PorA was suggested to be involved in a signaling pathway from the translocon to the PorXY-SigP transcriptional regulatory system [78].

267

The attachment complex. As mentioned above, most of the T9SS substrates are anchored to the cell surface rather than being secreted into the extracellular medium. In *P. gingivalis*, the CTD signal of the substrate is cleaved at the cell surface and the new C-terminus is covalently attached to A-LPS by a sortase-like mechanism carried out by PorU [61,79].

273 PorU possesses a CTD domain and hence is transported to the cell surface in a T9SS-274 dependent manner; however, the PorU CTD is not cleaved. Deletion of the porU gene 275 leads to partial substrate secretion but prevents CTD cleavage and substrate 276 attachment [48]. PorU has therefore a dual activity: CTD cleavage and A-LPS 277 attachment. Substrate maturation is mediated by the PorU cysteine proteinase activity. 278 Similar to sortases, PorU proteins bear a conserved arginine residue that is likely part 279 of the catalytic site involved in A-LPS attachment [61]. In addition, PorU is involved in 280 the activation of gingipains by removing their inhibitory N-terminal pro-domain [80].

281 PorU is a subunit of the T9SS attachment complex, which also comprises PorV, PorZ 282 and PorQ [60] (coloured green in Figure 2). PorV (formerly known as LptO) is a 14-283 strand β -barrel outer membrane protein and a member of the fatty acid FadL 284 transporters family [45,49,77]. Initially, PorV was shown to be involved in deacetylation 285 of A-LPS and hence in the coordination of LPS and T9SS effector processing [49,81]. 286 PorV binds to multiple CTD proteins [77], a result that correlates well with the PorV 287 structure in complex with SprA, where a loop outwards the PorV barrel penetrates the 288 interior of SprA through its lateral opening [45]. It is suggested that this loop mediates

recognition of T9SS substrates in the translocon and shuttles them to the attachment complex. Indeed, PorV associates tightly with the Sov translocon [45] and with the PorU C-terminal signal peptidase [82].

The function of the cell surface-exposed PorZ subunit is not well defined but it has been proposed based on its crystal structure that it could bind and recruit A-LPS [56]. Indeed, recent data demonstrated that PorZ specifically binds to A-LPS and feeds the PorU sortase with A-LPS [83]. BN-PAGE analysis showed that PorZ interacts with PorQ [73], a FadL-like OM β -barrel protein family that improves the efficiency of the type IX secretion apparatus [9,73,77,79].

298

299 Additional T9SS components. Other uncharacterized or poorly characterized T9SS 300 components have been reported, all being associated to the OM. These include the 301 PorP, PorT, and PorG OM β-barrels and the PorE, PorF and PorW outer membrane 302 lipoproteins. The essential PorG subunit interacts with the PorKN ring and has been 303 suggested to facilitate assembly or stability of the ring [41,84]. By contrast, no 304 information is available regarding the accessory PorF protein except that it improves 305 the efficiency of the T9SS [76]. PorW, known as SprE in F. johnsoniae, is an OM 306 lipoprotein that interacts with the Sov translocon and a protein of unknown function. 307 PGN 1783 [73]. It is proposed that PorW links the PorKN submembrane ring to the 308 Sov translocon [73]. While the localization of PorT has been subject of debate 309 [43,85,86], it is now admitted that it is an OM β -barrel, but its role in type IX secretion 310 remains unknown.

In *P. gingivalis*, the *porP* gene is co-transcribed with the *porKLMN* genes and its product has been shown to interact with the PorK and PorM proteins [63]. Interestingly, *porP* gene homologues (*sprF*) are in multiple copies in the *F. johnsoniae* genome, and are genetically linked to genes encoding *porE* homologues and substrates with a type-B CTD, suggesting that SprF-PorE modules are involved to the secretion of specific

T9SS type-B substrates [87]. In *P. gingivalis*, only one substrate, PG1035, possesses a type-B CTD. Interestingly, PG1035 was shown to form a complex with PorP and PorE [73]. The PorE lipoprotein (formerly known as PG1058) is composed of four domains: a tetratricopeptide repeats domain, a five bladed β -propeller domain, a carboxypeptidase regulatory domain-like fold, and an OmpA_C-like domain [88]. Recently, the structure of the OmpA_C-like domain was solved in complex with a peptidoglycan fragment, suggesting that PorE anchors the T9SS to the peptidoglycan layer [89]..

Finally, the housekeeping PGN_0300 Skp/OmpH-like periplasmic chaperone was shown to be necessary for the function of the *P. gingivalis* T9SS, likely by stabilizing the PorU sortase [90].

326

327 Regulation of T9SS genes - Little is known regarding the regulatory mechanism of 328 T9SS genes expression in P. gingivalis. Three regulators have been identified based 329 on the downregulation of T9SS genes and reduction of gingipain activity in their 330 absence: the two-component system PorY sensor and PorX response regulator [9], 331 and the SigP extracytoplasmic sigma factor [91]. By contrast to most response 332 regulators, PorX does not bind to DNA, but interacts with SigP, and this interaction is 333 necessary for SigP to bind to promoter regions of several T9SS genes [91]. In addition, 334 PorX binds to the C-terminal hydrophobic region of the T9SS PorL protein, suggesting 335 that PorX may regulate the activity of the T9SS [92]. How the PorXY two-component 336 system is activated is not known but recent data have shown that the translocon-337 associated PorA protein participates to the signaling cascade [78]. Finally, other factors 338 have been shown to modulate the expression of *P. gingivalis* genes encoding T9SS 339 subunits and effectors, such as the orphan response regulator RprY [93], (p)ppGpp 340 levels [94], deletion of T9SS accessory proteins [56], or dual-species biofilm formation 341 with S. gordonii [95].

342

343 Other virulence factors

344 Fimbriae - Fimbriae are a variety of adhesive pilus structures on the cell surface of 345 bacteria (Figure 1). In pathogenic species, fimbriae are often crucial virulent factors, 346 being involved in attachment and infection of target cells, evasion of the host immune 347 system, or biofilm formation [96]. P. gingivalis produces short (Mfa pili) and long (Type 348 V pili) fimbriae (Table 1). By their adhesive properties they participate to polyspecies 349 biofilm formation with synergistic species, cell host colonization, and development of 350 periodontitis [97,98]. Type V pili are composed of the major FimA fimbrillin. 351 Interestingly, FimA are first transported to the cell surface as lipoproteins and are then 352 proteolytically processed by the Arg-protease RgpB gingipain before being polymerized 353 into fimbrial structures by a strand-exchange mechanism [99-101]. In addition to 354 promoting adhesion to host tissues, long fimbriae bind $\alpha 5\beta 1$ -integrin [102] and inhibit 355 the Toll-like receptor (TLR)-mediated proinflammatory response [103] allowing P. 356 gingivalis to invade host cells. Finally, long fimbriae mediate coaggregation with other 357 oral pathogens such as Treponema denticola, Streptococcus oralis or S. gordonii 358 [102,104]. Similar to Type V pili FimA, the major fimbrillin of the Mfa short fimbriae, 359 Mfa1, is also processed by gingipains before being polymerized [105]. Interestingly, 360 recent data have shown that mimetic peptides are efficient to inhibit polymerization of 361 Mfa pili and hence reduce the ability of *P. gingivalis* to form dual-species biofilms with 362 S. gordonii [106].

363

364 Lipopolysaccharide and capsule - Such as other Gram-negative bacteria, the outer 365 leaflet of the *P. gingivalis* OM is mainly composed of lipopolysaccharides (LPS). LPS 366 molecules are recognized by the host and commonly trigger intracellular signaling 367 pathways (Table 1). P. gingivalis produces two types of LPS: O-LPS and A-LPS. A-368 LPS triggers a reduced proinflammatory activity compared to conventional LPS and is 369 required for serum resistance [3,107]. Because A-LPS is necessary for attachment of 370 gingipains and other T9SS effectors at the cell surface, mutations affecting A-LPS 371 production lead to loss of virulence and aberrant protein sorting into the OM [108]. The

polysaccharide portion of A-LPS is synthesized by a specific pathway, recently designed as Wbp/Vim [109-112]. In addition to the electron-dense surface layer constituted of T9SS effectors attached to A-LPS, most strains of *P. gingivalis* are covered by a capsule that protects the bacterium from aggressions and from killing by the host complement (Table 1 and Figure 1), and hence encapsulated strains are more virulent in a mouse model of infection [113,114].

378

Outer membrane vesicles – Gram-negative bacteria normally produce outer membrane vesicles (OMVs) that are composed of a single membrane derived from their OM [115]. OMVs are virulence factors involved in the release of toxins, defence against other bacteria and bacterial adherence [116]. Due to the additional layer of effectors bound to the A-LPS of the OM, *P. gingivalis* OMVs are enriched in gingipains and other CTD proteins anchored at the cell surface and hence participate to toxin delivery and pathogenicity [86,108,117-119] (Table 1 and Figure 1).

386

387 **Conclusive remarks and research outlook**

388 P. gingivalis is an important human pathogen. Initially identified as the etiologic agent 389 of oral diseases such as gingivitis and periodontitis, the presence of *P. gingivalis* was 390 more recently linked to the development of neuroinflammatory disorders. Indeed, early 391 researches correlated periodontitis with dementia and Alzheimer's disease (AD) [120]. 392 Later, studies using animal models showed that chronic oral application of *P. gingivalis* 393 caused neuropathologies characteristics of AD [121]. While how P. gingivalis induces 394 neuropathologies is not known, mice oral infection with P. gingivalis resulted in (i) brain 395 inflammation and increased production of amyloid- β , the main component of amyloid 396 plaques, and (ii) gingipain-dependent cleavage of Tau, a protein necessary for normal 397 neuronal function [122]. Understanding the molecular bases on how P. gingivalis 398 induces neurological disorders is of critical importance for therapeutic purposes. 399 Notably, vaccines or treatments that interfere with Porphyromonas growth will be of

specific interest. Recently, a number of molecules that affect *P. gingivalis* growth or
reduce its overall virulence have been identified such as the SSAP or the sialidase
DANA inhibitors [123-125].

Oral diseases provoked by *P. gingivalis* are exacerbated by the presence of other bacterial species, such as those of the "red complex", *T. denticola* and *T. forsythia*, as well as *S. gordonii*. Current researches should now focus to understand how these different bacterial species coordinate their action and how they synergistically cause diseases. Here again, inhibitors or antibodies that target fimbriae biogenesis or adhesins, involved in interspecies interactions have been recently developed [106,126].

410 As emphasized in this review, and similarly to what is observed in many pathogens, the 411 virulence of *P. gingivalis* is multifactorial. While the capsule protects the bacterium from 412 external aggressions, LPS and OMVs trigger pro-inflammatory cytokine and chemokine 413 responses, and thus play an important role during the infection process. However the 414 key virulence factor is the type IX secretion system. This multiprotein transport 415 apparatus translocates effectors through the OM and covalently attaches them on the 416 A-LPS at the cell surface, and indirectly participates to fimbriae assembly by secreting 417 proteases that process fimbrial subunits. The major P. gingivalis effectors include the 418 gingipain proteases, and the citrullinating PPAD toxin. Given the broad range of 419 activities combined with cell surface localization, it is not surprising that gingipains have 420 been considered for a long time as promising targets for designing preventive 421 strategies like inhibitors and vaccines not only for periodontitis treatment [123,127] but 422 also to prevent brain colonization and neurodegeneration [122]. Several potent 423 inhibitors of gingipains or proteases activity have been described [127-132]. In addition, 424 CI-amidine, a known inhibitor of citrullinating proteins, is also active on the PPAD [133]. 425 However, due to the redundancy of gingipains, a better solution will be to target the 426 secretion apparatus itself. By blocking the T9SS, such inhibitors will prevent cell 427 surface exposure of the gingipains and of PPAD, and will hamper fimbriae biogenesis.

428 While virulence blockers that target other secretion systems have been developed 429 [134-138], no inhibitor of the T9SS has been described so far. Understanding how the 430 function of the different components of the apparatus, solving the structure of the 431 subunits or of sub-complexes, and defining how effectors are recognized, selected, 432 sorted and transported is of critical importance to rationally design molecules or 433 peptides that will block the biogenesis or mode of action of the T9SS. This will not only 434 provide potential treatments against gingivitis and periodontitis but also might be an 435 alternative strategy to reduce the risk of extra-oral diseases such as cardiovascular 436 and neurological disorders.

437

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447

448 **CRediT** authorship contribution statement

- 449 Ignacio Lunar Silva: Writing original draft
- 450 Eric Cascales: Writing review and editing
- 451

452 Keywords

- 453 *Porphyromonas gingivalis*; Pathogenesis; Protein transport; Virulence factors; Type IX
- 454 secretion system

456 **Abbreviations used**

T9SS, Type IX secretion system; CTD, C-terminal domain; PPAD, *Porphyromonas*peptidylarginine deiminase; RA, rheumatoid arthritis; HBP35, hemin-binding protein 35;
IM, inner membane; OM, outer membrane; A-LPS, anionic lipopolysaccharide; OMVs
outer membrane vesicles.

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462 **References**

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1003 Legend to Figures

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Figure 1. Major virulence factors of *P. gingivalis*. Schematic representation of a *P. gingivalis* cells (yellow, cytoplasm; green, periplasm; blue lines, inner and outer membranes). The cell is surrounded by an electron dense surface layer (EDSL, blue) made of gingipains anchored to the cell surface, and by the capsule (grey). Gingipains

and other effectors (blue lozenges) are secreted by the Type IX secretion system (T9SS, orange). Other virulence factors include fimbriae (green), outer membrane vesicles (OMVs, blue). Mechanisms of acquisition of essential elements: iron (red circles) acquisition systems (blue), and di- and tri-peptides (peptidases and oligopeptide transporters, orange) that serve as carbon sources.

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1015 Figure 2. Organization and mechanism of action of the P. gingivalis Type IX 1016 secretion system. Schematic representation of the T9SS and of the effector secretion 1017 pathway. The different subunits of the T9SS are shown, with their localizations. 1018 Subunits of the trans-envelope complex (PorK-L-M-N) are coloured yellow; subunits of 1019 the translocon complex (Sov, Plug, PorV, PorW, PorP, PorE, and possibly PorA, PorT 1020 and PorG) are coloured pink; subunits of the attachment complex (PorQ, PorZ, PorU) 1021 are coloured green. The translocation pathway of T9SS effectors (blue; ss, signal 1022 sequence, CTD, C-terminal domain) is depicted: export by the Sec machine (red 1023 arrow), and then transport to the cell exterior or to the cell surface by the T9SS (green 1024 arrow). The insert highlights the structure of the RgpB CTD (PDB: 5HFS [44]). Note 1025 that all contacts shown in this figure have not been experimentally established (see text 1026 for details).

1028 Table 1. Major virulence factors of *P. gingivalis*

1030	Virulence factor	Major role	Actions
1031 1032	T9SS	Secretion system	 cell surface exposition of gingipains secretion of iron-chelating proteins
1033 1034	Gingipains	Proteolytic enzymes	 degradation of host proteins processing of fimbriae subunits
1035	PAD	Peptidylarginine deiminase	- citrullination of host proteins
1036 1037	Type V pili and Mfa	Fimbriae	 adhesion to host cells bacterial aggregation and biofilms
1038	Lipopolysaccharides	Protection	- triggers host signaling pathways
1039 1040	Capsule	Protection	 protection against aggressions protection against host complement
1041 1042	OMVs	Extracellular vesicles	- toxin delivery and transport
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12 13	Capsule	Protection	 protection against aggressions protection against host complement
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