

Predictive association between periodontitis and oral cancer

¹Dr. Rameshwari Singhal, M.D.S., Professor (Jr), Department of Periodontology, Faculty of Dental Sciences, King George's Medical University, Lucknow, India

²Dr Vivek Agarwal, M.D. (Internal Medicine), Professor, Mayo Institute of Medical Sciences, Barabanki

³Dr. Pragati RA, B.D.S., Junior Research Assistant, Department of Periodontology, Faculty of Dental Sciences, King George's Medical University, Lucknow, India

Corresponding Author: Dr. Rameshwari Singhal, M.D.S., Professor (Jr), Department of Periodontology, Faculty of Dental Sciences, King George's Medical University, Lucknow, India

Citation of this Article: Dr. Rameshwari Singhal, Dr Vivek Agarwal, Dr. Pragati RA, "Management of SARS-Cov-2 inflicted orthodontics", IJDSIR- August - 2020, Vol. – 3, Issue -4, P. No. 232 – 244.

Copyright: © 2020, Dr. Rameshwari Singhal, et al. This is an open access journal and article distributed under the terms of the creative commons attribution noncommercial License. Which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.

Type of Publication: Review Article

Conflicts of Interest: Nil

Abstract

Periodontitis is a dysbiotic inflammatory disease which causes constant irritation at molecular tissue level. Periodontopathogens release substances which are toxic to local micro-environment and may lead to genetic mutations and tumorigenesis. Evidence regarding role of Porphyromonas gingivalis in oral cancer initiation and progression through anti-apoptotic action and immunosuppression gives credence to association between oral cancer and periodontitis. This review attempts to highlight the recent evidence in regards to periodontal microbiota and their role in cancer. The review also suggests areas of future research where an indirect association between periodontal disease and oral cancer may be explored.

Keywords: periodontal diseases, oral cancer, Porphyromonas gingivalis, inflammation, tobacco, nutrition.

Introduction

Periodontitis is a dysbiotic, inflammatory disease leading to a variety of oral and systemic complications. It is a biofilm associated chronic oral infection caused by predominantly gram-negative anaerobic bacteria. (1) According to World Health Organisation, severe periodontitis affects more than 10% of world population. (2)

Periodontitis is a chronic, irreversible, destructive condition leading to tooth loss in adults. It presents clinically as periodontal pockets, gingival recession and alveolar bone loss. Periodontitis starts as gingivitis, which is a reversible condition, but if unchecked, approximately 10–15% of cases progress to chronic periodontitis.

Considerable evidence indicates that cancer may develop as a consequence of persistent inflammation and infection through the years. (3,4) Viral etiology had been mostly associated with carcinogenesis. However, the evidence

regarding connection between bacterial infections is also increasing like implication of *Helicobacter pylori* (gastric cancer), *Chlamydia pneumonia* (lung cancer), *Streptococcus bovis* (colon cancer), *Salmonella typhi* (gall bladder and hepato-biliary carcinoma) in carcinogenesis.

Key pathogenic bacteria for periodontitis initiation and progression are *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, *Tannerella forsythia* (previously *Bacteroides forsythus*) and *Treponema denticola*. Recent evidence correlates periodontal disease with an increased cancer risk.(5,6) The studies have explored positive association between carcinoma and periodontal infection not only in oral cancers but also in upper gastrointestinal tract, lungs, colon and pancreas. Corbella et al in their metanalysis concluded that sparse scientific evidence exists with results of low statistical power and studies lacking in standardization and comparable methods to give credence to a possible association between periodontitis and cancer. (5) Further population-based studies are required to provide substantial evidence for a possible relationship.

This narrative review attempts to describe the available evidence and discuss the areas where future research might benefit in answering hitherto unexplained questions about oral carcinoma and potential role of inflammatory chronic periodontitis in its initiation or progression.

Role of Periodontal diseases in cancer development?

Periodontal disease is associated with chronic infection caused by dysbiotic bacteria, characterised by inflammation of the gums, and gradual destruction of periodontal tissues and tooth supporting alveolar bone in periods of exacerbation and remissions. (7) Exact mechanism through which periodontal disease may promote cancer development remains unclear. Oral pathogens may contribute to carcinogenesis at oral sites as well as extra-oral distant sites. Oral pathogens may be

ingested through saliva into the gut, transferred through blood from inflamed periodontal disease sites into circulation, or aspirated into the respiratory tract. These theories are similar to those implicated in periodontal disease association with systemic diseases like diabetes, cardio-vascular events, rheumatic disease, adverse pregnancy outcomes, and respiratory events. (8–10)

It is believed that increased bacterial load in systemic circulation is short-lived leading to transient bacteraemia, however, certain bacteria like *Porphyromonas gingivalis* have inherent characteristics that protect them from natural phagocytosis by neutrophils.(11,12) A study by Tezal et al has found that each millimeter increase in alveolar bone loss caused by chronic periodontitis was associated with >4-fold increase in risk of head and neck cancers. The odds ratio for this association was calculated to be 4.36 (95% confidence interval: 3.16-6.01). (13)

Reasonability of association between periodontitis and oral cancer may be explained through-(14)

- Enhanced exposure of carcinogens like tobacco through broken mucosal barrier as a result of periodontal disease.
- Inflammation leads to diffused, chronic epithelial hyperplasia as a result of increased cellular content in microvasculature and in inflamed connective tissue. Epithelial hyperplasia is a common precursor for periodontitis and intraepithelial neoplasia.
- Suppression of antibacterial, antiviral, and antitumour defensins expressed on neutrophils, macrophages and gingival epithelial cells leading to compromise in critical immune surveillance within periodontal attachment apparatus.
- Isolation of viruses (human papilloma virus (HPV), herpes simplex virus-1, *Candida albicans*) from lesions of both oral cancer and periodontal disease.

- Poor oral hygiene may lead to accumulation of degradation products with possible carcinogenic potential like acetaldehyde from ethanol.

Periodontitis being chronic inflammatory process may exert both direct and indirect role in carcinogenesis.

1. Direct effect through microorganism

Microorganisms and their products such as endotoxins, enzymes, and metabolic by products are toxic to surrounding cells and may directly induce genetic changes in tumour suppressor genes/ proto- oncogenes.

Direct role of periodontal key Pathogens (P gingivalis)?

Main etiological factor for periodontal disease is dental plaque associated biofilm. Lipopolysaccharides, proteases, collagenases, fibrinolysin, phospholipase A, hydrogen sulfide, and fatty acids are certain metabolic products released from periodontopathogens that create toxic micro-environment which may alter signalling pathways related to epithelial-mesenchymal transition and change in cell proliferation and/ or survival of epithelial cell (Table 1).

Red complex bacteria Porphyromonas gingivalis, Tannerella forsythia and Treponema denticola are associated with severity of periodontitis. (15) Amongst these, P gingivalis fulfils all criteria of key pathogen hypothesis and is implicated in pathogenesis of chronic periodontitis. (16) The inflammatory and immune response to these key pathogens bring about a change in local sub-gingival environment, resulting in homeostatic imbalance, converting healthy symbiotic community into dysbiotic periodontal and systemic disease-causing trigger. (17)

In animal studies, P gingivalis has been found colonising distant tissues like coronary artery, liver, brain, etc, leading to activation of Toll like receptors and resulting in specific infections. (18) Molecular biology for increased P

gingivalis pathogenicity are not completely understood including possible mechanism of P gingivalis associated periodontitis and its association with the head and neck cancer.

An inherent feature of P gingivalis is intra-cellular invasion and infection of mucosal surfaces and inhibition of host cell apoptosis. (19) This multi-step, regulated apoptotic pathway is disrupted through impingement of caspases, Nuclear factor kappa, and Bcl2 family of proteins. (20,21) Apoptosis regulates removal of old and damaged cells. It is part of host protective mechanism wherein infected cells are removed and healthy, normal epithelial cells are allowed to grow to maintain tissue integrity. (21) Disruption of apoptotic pathways may have detrimental effects on pathogen-host equilibrium. Role of P gingivalis on apoptosis is uncertain. P gingivalis produces butyric acid and proteases which may induce apoptosis in T and B lymphocytes, and fibroblasts respectively. (22,23) However, P gingivalis lipopolysaccharides inhibit apoptosis in polymorphonuclear leukocytes. (24) Various studies have proven survival of epithelial cells for upto 8 days after exposure with P gingivalis giving credence to its role in inducing an anti-apoptotic phenotype in epithelial cells. (25–28) Studies suggest that P gingivalis inhibit apoptosis in gingival epithelial cells through up-regulation of the anti-apoptotic molecule Bcl-2. (19) The prevention of apoptosis of invaded host cells may lead to their accumulation and may be a process in cancer initiation and progression.

Besides anti-apoptotic mechanisms, bacteria may induce carcinogenesis either through induction of chronic inflammation and continuous irritation of tissues. They may also cause interference, directly or indirectly, with eukaryotic cell cycle and signalling pathways. Another mechanism may be by affecting metabolism of potentially

carcinogenic substances (acetaldehyde) leading to mutations.

2. Indirect effect through inflammation

Chronic periodontitis is an inflammatory disease leading to clinical attachment loss and alveolar bone destruction. Bacterial ingress starts a cascade of events causing release of pro inflammatory cytokines like interleukin (IL)-1 or tumour necrosis factor (TNF) alpha. These cytokines trigger osteoclastic activity. The localised inflammation softens the cancellous bone and may serve as a potential route of invasion for progressing carcinoma. Oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) of the mandible may invade through occlusal route, neural foramen, cortical defects in edentulous ridges, attached gingivae, extension of neck tumours through lower borders, and periodontal membranes. (29) Inflamed periodontal space will form a soft target for tumour invasion and progression.

Inflammation also exposes gingival epithelial cells to substances with carcinogenic potential. Sustained and persistent inflammation leads to development of a micro-environment infested with presence of variable inflammatory cellular components released by neutrophils, macrophages, lymphocytes and fibroblasts. They stimulate release of inflammatory cytokines and growth factors, chemotactic factors, and genotoxic substances like reactive oxygen species and nitrogen oxide which have a potential for inducing DNA methylation and destruction. (30) It therefore stands to reason that chronic inflammation provides intrinsic niche for oncogenesis and onco-progression.

3. Indirect effect through Tobacco use

Tobacco in any form, cigarettes, cigars, pipes, bidi, snuff, chewable or any other form is the single largest associated risk factor for OSCC. (31,32) More than 85% of head and neck cancers are linked to some form of tobacco use. (33)

Prolonged tobacco use lead to epigenetic alterations in oral epithelial cells, inhibit at multiple levels host-systemic immune functions. More than sixty toxic metabolites and by-products from tobacco may invade tissues and cause oxidative stress which may lead to induction of OSCC. (34)

Similarly, smoking is also associated with increased risk of periodontal disease. (35) The relative risk for severe periodontal disease in a smoker is estimated to be 5 to 6-fold higher compared to a non-smoker. This risk increases for heavy smokers to about 10- to 15-fold compared to non-smokers. A synergistic effect may therefore link tobacco and periodontal disease with initiation and progression of oral cancer.

4. Indirect effect through Diet and Nutrition

Food plays an important role in boosting individual immunity. Vegetables and fruits provide diverse variety of nutrients and phytochemicals rich in carotenoids, vitamins (A, C, E), selenium, flavonoids, and other micro-nutrients with anti-tumorigenic effects. Few animal and human studies have focused on effect of vegetable rich diet or specific vegetables and reduced risk of cancer development. (36–38) Evidence suggests that consumption of non-starchy vegetables decreases the risk of oro-pharyngeal cancer. (39,40)

Chronic periodontal disease results in progressive attachment loss leading to increased tooth mobility and eventually tooth loss. This can inadvertently affect nutritional status and vegetable intake of an individual. In patients with co-morbidities, periodontitis may exert an indirect effect in cancer initiation. This is a research area that needs to be addressed in future studies.

5. Indirect effect through Obesity

Increase body weight, waist-hip ratio, and fat is associated with endocrine and metabolic syndromes like hyperinsulinemia, diabetes and high levels of bioavailable

estrogen. Evidence suggests increased insulin and estrogen accumulation in tissues stimulates mitogenesis and inhibits apoptosis. (41–43) This in turn leads to exponential cell proliferation.

Periodontal disease is an inflammatory disease and obesity stimulates inflammatory response and may lead to tumorigenesis. (44) Further research is required to explore this link further.

Periodontal management

Despite lack of substantial evidence, periodontal disease may be a probable cause of cancer initiation, progression and worsening prognosis. Management of periodontal disease at an early stage may prevent significant burden of systemic disease and reduce risk for premalignant lesions and malignant transformations. Suggestions for preventing periodontal disease and maintenance of oral health:

- Early diagnosis through regular half-yearly check ups
- Community surveillance
- Meticulous oral hygiene maintenance at home
- Proper and balanced dietary intake
- Regular physical activity and obesity control
- Stress management
- Counselling for smoking and habit breaking regimens
- Personalised supportive periodontal therapy and maintenance protocols

Conclusion

Current evidence gives a probable causality association between chronic periodontitis and cancer. If this association is proved through further research, it will add to the impact on understanding of cancer etiology and open further avenues for its prevention, early diagnosis and control measures. Confounders like smoking, alcohol use, nutritional state, and socio-economic status play a crucial role when describing association between cancer and periodontal disease. Till date, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, key pathogen of periodontitis, and its virulence

factors like GroEL proteins, gingipains, proteases, etc. have shown to exert effect on epithelial cell lines linked to OSCC. Further, human studies are required to assess its role in carcinogenesis, and effectiveness of periodontal therapy in controlling disease.

To conclude, severe periodontitis is the sixth most prevalent disease afflicting mankind. Dysbiotic oral biofilm is the major etiologic agent in development of periodontal disease. The micro-organisms exert direct role in modifying local micro-environment and releasing tumorigenic stimuli. Besides, various indirect effects associated with inflammation and synergistic effects can also increase risk for genetic mutations and malignant transformations. Cancer is a slow, multilevel process involving micro-changes in local environment and signalling pathways. Periodontitis is also a slow inflammatory chronic disease causing persistent irritation to tissues and disrupting host immune responses. A predictive association between the two diseases stand to reason and should be explored further with robust study designs accounting for potential confounders.

References

1. Loesche WJ, Grossman NS. Periodontal Disease as a Specific, albeit Chronic, Infection: Diagnosis and Treatment. *Clin Microbiol Rev.* 2001 Oct;14(4):727–52.
2. Petersen PE, Ogawa H. The global burden of periodontal disease: towards integration with chronic disease prevention and control. *Periodontol* 2000. 2012 Oct;60(1):15–39.
3. Moss SF, Blaser MJ. Mechanisms of Disease: inflammation and the origins of cancer. *Nat Clin Pract Oncol.* 2005 Feb;2(2):90–7.
4. Rajesh KS, Thomas D, Hegde S, Kumar MSA. Poor periodontal health: A cancer risk? *J Indian Soc Periodontol.* 2013;17(6):706–10.

5. Corbella S, Veronesi P, Galimberti V, Weinstein R, Del Fabbro M, Francetti L. Is periodontitis a risk indicator for cancer? A meta-analysis. Trackman PC, editor. PLOS ONE. 2018 Apr 17;13(4):e0195683.
6. Sayehmiri F, Sayehmiri K, Asadollahi K, Soroush S, Bogdanovic L, Jalilian FA, et al. The prevalence rate of Porphyromonas gingivalis and its association with cancer: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Int J Immunopathol Pharmacol. 2015 Jun;28(2):160–7.
7. Lamster IB, Karabin SD. Periodontal disease activity. Curr Opin Dent. 1992 Mar;2:39–52.
8. Babu NC, Gomes AJ. Systemic manifestations of oral diseases. J Oral Maxillofac Pathol JOMFP. 2011;15(2):144–7.
9. Linden GJ, Lyons A, Scannapieco FA. Periodontal systemic associations: review of the evidence. J Periodontol. 2013;84(4S):S8–19.
10. Otomo-Corgel J, Pucher JJ, Rethman MP, Reynolds MA. State of the Science: Chronic Periodontitis and Systemic Health. J Evid Based Dent Pract. 2012 Sep 1;12(3, Supplement):20–8.
11. Maharaj B, Coovadia Y, Vayej AC. An investigation of the frequency of bacteraemia following dental extraction, tooth brushing and chewing. Cardiovasc J Afr. 2012 Jul;23(6):340–4.
12. Zenobia C, Hajishengallis G. Porphyromonas gingivalis virulence factors involved in subversion of leukocytes and microbial dysbiosis. Virulence. 2015 Feb 5;6(3):236–43.
13. Tezal M, Sullivan MA, Hyland A, Marshall JR, Stoler D, Reid ME, et al. Chronic Periodontitis and the Incidence of Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2009 Sep 1;18(9):2406–12.
14. Tezal M, Grossi SG, Genco RJ. Is Periodontitis Associated With Oral Neoplasms? J Periodontol. 2005;76(3):406–10.
15. Socransky SS, Haffajee AD, Cugini MA, Smith C, Kent RL. Microbial complexes in subgingival plaque. J Clin Periodontol. 1998 Feb;25(2):134–44.
16. Hajishengallis G, Darveau RP, Curtis MA. The Keystone Pathogen Hypothesis. Nat Rev Microbiol. 2012 Oct;10(10):717–25.
17. Abdi K, Chen T, Klein BA, Tai AK, Coursen J, Liu X, et al. Mechanisms by which Porphyromonas gingivalis evades innate immunity. PloS One. 2017;12(8):e0182164.
18. Olsen I, Yilmaz Ö. Modulation of inflammasome activity by Porphyromonas gingivalis in periodontitis and associated systemic diseases. J Oral Microbiol. 2016;8:30385.
19. Nakhjiri SF, Park Y, Yilmaz O, Chung WO, Watanabe K, El-Sabaeny A, et al. Inhibition of epithelial cell apoptosis by Porphyromonas gingivalis. FEMS Microbiol Lett. 2001;200(2):145–9.
20. Gao S-G, Yang J-Q, Ma Z-K, Yuan X, Zhao C, Wang G-C, et al. Preoperative serum immunoglobulin G and A antibodies to Porphyromonas gingivalis are potential serum biomarkers for the diagnosis and prognosis of esophageal squamous cell carcinoma. BMC Cancer. 2018 Dec;18(1):17.
21. Kim JM, Eckmann L, Savidge TC, Lowe DC, Witthöft T, Kagnoff MF. Apoptosis of human intestinal epithelial cells after bacterial invasion. J Clin Invest. 1998 Nov 15;102(10):1815–23.
22. Kurita-Ochiai T, Ochiai K, Fukushima K. Volatile fatty acid, metabolic by-product of periodontopathic bacteria, induces apoptosis in WEHI 231 and RAJI B lymphoma cells and splenic B cells. Infect Immun. 1998 Jun;66(6):2587–94.

23. Wang PL, Shirasu S, Shinohara M, Daito M, Oido M, Kowashi Y, et al. Induction of apoptosis in human gingival fibroblasts by a Porphyromonas gingivalis protease preparation. Arch Oral Biol. 1999 Apr;44(4):337–42.
24. Hiroi M, Shimojima T, Kashimata M, Miyata T, Takano H, Takahama M, et al. Inhibition by Porphyromonas gingivalis LPS of apoptosis induction in human peripheral blood polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Anticancer Res. 1998 Oct;18(5A):3475–9.
25. Belton CM, Izutsu KT, Goodwin PC, Park Y, Lamont RJ. Fluorescence image analysis of the association between Porphyromonas gingivalis and gingival epithelial cells. Cell Microbiol. 1999 Nov;1(3):215–23.
26. Darveau RP, Belton CM, Reife RA, Lamont RJ. Local chemokine paralysis, a novel pathogenic mechanism for Porphyromonas gingivalis. Infect Immun. 1998 Apr;66(4):1660–5.
27. Katz J, Sambandam V, Wu JH, Michalek SM, Balkovetz DF. Characterization of Porphyromonas gingivalis-induced degradation of epithelial cell junctional complexes. Infect Immun. 2000 Mar;68(3):1441–9.
28. Madianos PN, Papapanou PN, Nannmark U, Dahlén G, Sandros J. Porphyromonas gingivalis FDC381 multiplies and persists within human oral epithelial cells in vitro. Infect Immun. 1996 Feb;64(2):660–4.
29. Tezal M, Sullivan MA, Reid ME, Marshall JR, Hyland A, Loree T, et al. Chronic Periodontitis and the Risk of Tongue Cancer. Arch Otolaryngol Neck Surg. 2007 May 1;133(5):450–4.
30. Kanda Y, Osaki M, Okada F. Chemopreventive Strategies for Inflammation-Related Carcinogenesis: Current Status and Future Direction. Int J Mol Sci [Internet]. 2017 Apr 19 [cited 2020 Jul 17];18(4). Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC5412448/>
31. Gupta B, Johnson NW. Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis of Association of Smokeless Tobacco and of Betel Quid without Tobacco with Incidence of Oral Cancer in South Asia and the Pacific. PLoS ONE [Internet]. 2014 Nov 20 [cited 2020 Jul 17];9(11). Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4239077/>
32. Rahman M, Sakamoto J, Fukui T. Bidi smoking and oral cancer: A meta-analysis. Int J Cancer. 2003;106(4):600–4.
33. Danaei G, Vander Hoorn S, Lopez AD, Murray CJL, Ezzati M, Comparative Risk Assessment collaborating group (Cancers). Causes of cancer in the world: comparative risk assessment of nine behavioural and environmental risk factors. Lancet Lond Engl. 2005 Nov 19;366(9499):1784–93.
34. Jiang X, Wu J, Wang J, Huang R. Tobacco and oral squamous cell carcinoma: A review of carcinogenic pathways. Tob Induc Dis [Internet]. 2019 Apr 12 [cited 2020 Jul 17];17. Available from: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC6752112/>
35. Leite FRM, Nascimento GG, Scheutz F, López R. Effect of Smoking on Periodontitis: A Systematic Review and Meta-regression. Am J Prev Med. 2018;54(6):831–41.
36. Bauman JE, Zang Y, Sen M, Li C, Wang L, Egner PA, et al. Prevention of Carcinogen-Induced Oral Cancer by Sulforaphane. Cancer Prev Res Phila Pa. 2016 Jul;9(7):547–57.
37. Liu C-M, Peng C-Y, Liao Y-W, Lu M-Y, Tsai M-L, Yeh J-C, et al. Sulforaphane targets cancer stemness and tumor initiating properties in oral squamous cell carcinomas via miR-200c induction. J Formos Med Assoc Taiwan Yi Zhi. 2017 Jan;116(1):41–8.

38. Patel J, Umarji H, Dhokar A, Sapkal R, Patel S, Panda A. Randomized controlled trial to evaluate the efficacy of oral lycopene in combination with vitamin E and selenium in the treatment of oral leukoplakia. 2014;26:369–73.
39. Chuang S-C, Jenab M, Heck JE, Bosetti C, Talamini R, Matsuo K, et al. Diet and the Risk of Head and Neck Cancer: A Pooled Analysis in the INHANCE Consortium. Cancer Causes Control CCC. 2012 Jan;23(1):69–88.
40. Li W-Q, Park Y, Wu JW, Goldstein AM, Taylor PR, Hollenbeck AR, et al. Index-based dietary patterns and risk of head and neck cancer in a large prospective study. Am J Clin Nutr. 2014 Mar;99(3):559–66.
41. Cezard JP, Forgue-Lafitte ME, Chamblier MC, Rosselin GE. Growth-promoting effect, biological activity, and binding of insulin in human intestinal cancer cells in culture. Cancer Res. 1981 Mar;41(3):1148–53.
42. Kooijman R. Regulation of apoptosis by insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-I. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev. 2006 Aug;17(4):305–23.
43. Wu X, Fan Z, Masui H, Rosen N, Mendelsohn J. Apoptosis induced by an anti-epidermal growth factor receptor monoclonal antibody in a human colorectal carcinoma cell line and its delay by insulin. J Clin Invest. 1995 Apr;95(4):1897–905.
44. Khandekar MJ, Cohen P, Spiegelman BM. Molecular mechanisms of cancer development in obesity. Nat Rev Cancer. 2011 24;11(12):886–95.
45. Groeger S, Domann E, Gonzales JR, Chakraborty T, Meyle J. B7-H1 and B7-DC receptors of oral squamous carcinoma cells are upregulated by Porphyromonas gingivalis. Immunobiology. 2011 Dec;216(12):1302–10.
46. Katz J, Onate MD, Pauley KM, Bhattacharyya I, Cha S. Presence of Porphyromonas gingivalis in gingival squamous cell carcinoma. Int J Oral Sci. 2011 Oct;3(4):209–15.
47. Ahn J, Segers S, Hayes RB. Periodontal disease, Porphyromonas gingivalis serum antibody levels and orodigestive cancer mortality. Carcinogenesis. 2012 May;33(5):1055–8.
48. Inaba H, Sugita H, Kuboniwa M, Iwai S, Hamada M, Noda T, et al. Porphyromonas gingivalis promotes invasion of oral squamous cell carcinoma through induction of proMMP9 and its activation. Cell Microbiol. 2014 Jan;16(1):131–45.
49. Binder Gallimidi A, Fischman S, Revach B, Bulvik R, Maliutina A, Rubinstein AM, et al. Periodontal pathogens Porphyromonas gingivalis and Fusobacterium nucleatum promote tumor progression in an oral-specific chemical carcinogenesis model. Oncotarget. 2015 Sep 8;6(26):22613–23.
50. Ha NH, Woo BH, Kim DJ, Ha ES, Choi JI, Kim SJ, et al. Prolonged and repetitive exposure to Porphyromonas gingivalis increases aggressiveness of oral cancer cells by promoting acquisition of cancer stem cell properties. Tumour Biol J Int Soc Oncodevelopmental Biol Med. 2015 Dec;36(12):9947–60.
51. Lin F-Y, Huang C-Y, Lu H-Y, Shih C-M, Tsao N-W, Shyue S-K, et al. The GroEL protein of Porphyromonas gingivalis accelerates tumor growth by enhancing endothelial progenitor cell function and neovascularization. Mol Oral Microbiol. 2015 Jun;30(3):198–216.
52. Gao S, Li S, Ma Z, Liang S, Shan T, Zhang M, et al. Presence of Porphyromonas gingivalis in esophagus and its association with the clinicopathological characteristics and survival in patients with esophageal cancer. Infect Agent Cancer. 2016;11:3.
53. Ha NH, Park DG, Woo BH, Kim DJ, Choi JI, Park BS, et al. Porphyromonas gingivalis increases the

invasiveness of oral cancer cells by upregulating IL-8 and MMPs. *Cytokine*. 2016;86:64–72.

54. Mai X, Genco RJ, LaMonte MJ, Hovey KM, Freudenheim JL, Andrews CA, et al. Periodontal Pathogens and Risk of Incident Cancer in Postmenopausal Females: The Buffalo OsteoPerio Study. *J Periodontol*. 2016 Mar;87(3):257–67.

55. Geng F, Liu J, Guo Y, Li C, Wang H, Wang H, et al. Persistent Exposure to *Porphyromonas gingivalis* Promotes Proliferative and Invasion Capabilities, and Tumorigenic Properties of Human Immortalized Oral Epithelial Cells. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol*. 2017;7:57.

56. Lee J, Roberts JS, Atanasova KR, Chowdhury N, Han K, Yilmaz Ö. Human Primary Epithelial Cells Acquire an Epithelial-Mesenchymal-Transition Phenotype during Long-Term Infection by the Oral Opportunistic Pathogen, *Porphyromonas gingivalis*. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol*. 2017;7:493.

57. Woo BH, Kim DJ, Choi JI, Kim SJ, Park BS, Song JM, et al. Oral cancer cells sustainedly infected with *Porphyromonas gingivalis* exhibit resistance to Taxol and have higher metastatic potential. *Oncotarget*. 2017 Jul 18;8(29):46981–92.

58. Abdulkareem AA, Shelton RM, Landini G, Cooper PR, Milward MR. Periodontal pathogens promote epithelial-mesenchymal transition in oral squamous carcinoma cells in vitro. *Cell Adhes Migr*. 2018 04;12(2):127–37.

59. Cho B-H, Jung Y-H, Kim DJ, Woo BH, Jung JE, Lee JH, et al. Acetylshikonin suppresses invasion of *Porphyromonas gingivalis*-infected YD10B oral cancer cells by modulating the interleukin-8/matrix

metalloproteinase axis. *Mol Med Rep*. 2018 Feb;17(2):2327–34.

60. Wu J-S, Zheng M, Zhang M, Pang X, Li L, Wang S-S, et al. *Porphyromonas gingivalis* Promotes 4-Nitroquinoline-1-Oxide-Induced Oral Carcinogenesis With an Alteration of Fatty Acid Metabolism. *Front Microbiol*. 2018;9:2081.

61. Chang C, Geng F, Shi X, Li Y, Zhang X, Zhao X, et al. The prevalence rate of periodontal pathogens and its association with oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 2019 Feb;103(3):1393–404.

62. Geng F, Wang Q, Li C, Liu J, Zhang D, Zhang S, et al. Identification of Potential Candidate Genes of Oral Cancer in Response to Chronic Infection With *Porphyromonas gingivalis* Using Bioinformatical Analyses. *Front Oncol*. 2019 Feb 21;9:91.

63. Kageyama S, Takeshita T, Takeuchi K, Asakawa M, Matsumi R, Furuta M, et al. Characteristics of the Salivary Microbiota in Patients With Various Digestive Tract Cancers. *Front Microbiol*. 2019;10:1780.

64. Park D-G, Woo BH, Lee B-J, Yoon S, Cho Y, Kim Y-D, et al. Serum Levels of Interleukin-6 and Titers of Antibodies against *Porphyromonas gingivalis* Could Be Potential Biomarkers for the Diagnosis of Oral Squamous Cell Carcinoma. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2019 Jun 4;20(11):2749.

65. Wen L, Mu W, Lu H, Wang X, Fang J, Jia Y, et al. *Porphyromonas gingivalis* Promotes Oral Squamous Cell Carcinoma Progression in an Immune Microenvironment. *J Dent Res*. 2020 Jun;99(6):666–75.

Table 1: Evidence related to direct effects of periodontopathogens on carcinogenesis.

Study	Model	Bacteria associated	Inference
Groeger et al, 2014 (45)	Oral squamous cell carcinoma cells (OSCC) SCC-25,BHY, and primary human gingival keratinocytes	P gingivalis	Induce expression of B7-H1 and B7-DC receptors in OSCC and human gingival keratinocytes facilitating immune evasion by oral cancers.
Katz et al, 2011(46)	Human	P gingivalis and Streptococcus gordonii	Potential association with gingival squamous cell carcinoma. Abundant presence of P gingivalis in malignant oral epithelium
Ahn et al, 2012(47)	Human survey	P gingivalis	Periodontitis (moderate or severe) relative risk (RR) for orodigestive cancer mortality: 2.28 (95% confidence interval:1.17-4.45); RR: 4.56 for periodontitis-associated mortality for colorectal and for pancreatic cancer Greater serum P gingivalis IgG
Inaba et al, 2014(48)	OSCC cell lines	P gingivalis	Activates ERK1/2-Ets1, p38/HSP27, and PAR2/NF-kB pathways to induce proMMP9 expression. This proenzyme is activated by gingipains to promote cellular invasion of OSCC cell lines.
Gallmidi et al, 2015 (49)	Murine	P gingivalis and F nucleatum	Chronic bacterial infection promotes OSCC with augmented signaling along the IL-6-STAT3 axis Direct interaction with oral epithelial cells through Toll-like receptors
Ha et al, 2015(50)	OSCC cell lines	Repeated infection of oral cancer cells by P gingivalis twice a week for 5 weeks	Morphological changes in host cancer cells and acquisition of an epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT).

			Long-term infection induced increased expression of CD44 and CD133 (cancer stem cell markers)
Lin et al, 2015 (51)	C26 carcinoma cell-carrying BALB/c mice and chick eggs and human endothelial progenitor cells	P gingivalis	P gingivalis GroEL protein may act as a potent virulence factor resulting in neovascuogenesis of tumor cells and accelerated tumor growth
Gao et al, 2016(52)	Human (Case- control)	P gingivalis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • qRT-PCR for 16S rDNA • immunohistochemistry using antibodies targeting whole bacteria and gingipain Kgp 	P gingivalis detected in: 61 % of esophageal cancerous tissues 12 % of adjacent tissues undetected in normal esophageal mucosa. Similar distribution of gingipain P gingivalis infection was positively associated with multiple clinicopathologic characteristics (differentiation, metastasis, and overall survival rate)
Ha et al, 2016 (53)	OSCC cell lines (SCC-25, OSC-20, SAS cells)	P gingivalis	Promotes invasive ability of OSC-20 and SAS cells via upregulation of MMP-1 and MMP-2 and increased secretion of IL-8
Mai et al, 2016 (54)	Human	Orange-complex Bacteria (Fusobacterium nucleatum, Prevotella intermedia, and Campylobacter rectus) Red-complex periodontal pathogens (Porphyromonas gingivalis and Tannerella forsythia)	No associations between the presence of individual subgingival pathogens and cancer risk. Borderline positive associations of orange-complex pathogens with total cancer and lung cancer risk.
Geng et al, 2017 (55)	human immortalized oral epithelial cells	Exposure to P gingivalis at a low multiplicity of infection for 5-23 weeks	Bioinformatics analyses and validation assays: tumor-related genes (NNMT, FLI1, GAS6, lncRNA CCAT1, PDCD1LG2, and

			CD274) are key regulators in tumor-like transformation in response to long-time exposure of P gingivalis.
Lee et al, 2017 (56)	primary oral epithelial cells	Long-term P gingivalis infection	Increased Matrix metalloproteinases 2, 7, and 9 Epithelial cells show initial molecular and cellular changes consistent with EMT with long-term infection by P gingivalis
Woo et al, 2017 (57)	mouse xenograft model oral squamous cell carcinoma cell lines	Sustained infection with P gingivalis	P gingivalis-infected cells showed higher resistance to Taxol through Notch1 activation and formed more metastatic foci in the lung than uninfected cells.
Abdulkareem et al, 2018 (58)	Cultures of OSCC cell line (H400)	Treated separately with F. nucleatum, or P. gingivalis or E. coli LPS for 8 days	EMT induced in OSCC cells in response to stimulation by periodontal pathogens
Cho et al, 2018(59)	YD10B oral cancer cells	P gingivalis	oral cancer cells become more aggressive when they are infected with P gingivalis
Wu et al, 2018 (60)	Mice	P gingivalis	P gingivalis promoted oral carcinogenesis and aggravated disturbance of fatty acid metabolism, indicating a close association among P gingivalis, lipid metabolic and oral carcinogenesis.
Chang et al, 2019 (61)	oral squamous cell carcinoma cell lines	Porphyromonas gingivalis, Fusobacterium nucleatum and Streptococcus sanguinis	P gingivalis and F nucleatum at higher levels in cancer tissue compared to normal tissues. P gingivalis: 60.7% of OSCC tissues 32.8% of paracancerous tissues 13.3% of normal tissues.
Geng et al, 2019(62)	immortalized oral epithelial	Persistently exposed to P gingivalis for 15 weeks	Identified IL6, STAT1, LYN, BDNF, C3, CD274, PDCD1LG2,

	cells		and CXCL10 as potential candidate genes for prevention and treatment of OSCC
Kageyama et al, 2019 (63)	Human (Case-control)	Salivary microbiota (diverse group through 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequencing)	salivary bacteria higher in tongue/pharyngeal/esophageal cancer most abundant: P gingivalis Fusobacterium nucleatum, Streptococcus parasanguinis II, and Neisseria species: higher in tongue/pharyngeal cancers Neisseria species: gastric cancer Actinomyces odontolyticus: colorectal cancer
Park et al, 2019(64)	Human (case-control)	P gingivalis and F nucleatum	serum levels of P. gingivalis IgG and IL-6 were higher in OSCC patients than in non-OSCC controls High serum level of IL-6 was associated with a worse prognosis in OSCC patients
Wen et al (65)	Mouse	P gingivalis	Generates cancer-promoting microenvironment CXCL2, CCL2, interleukin (IL)-6, and IL-8 may be potential genes