

1 **Apolipoprotein E, periodontal disease and the risk for atherosclerosis: a review**

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21 **Running head:** ApoE, chronic periodontitis and atherosclerosis

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23 **Highlights**

- 24 • **Accumulating evidence has demonstrated a relationship between chronic**
- 25 **periodontal diseases and atherosclerosis**
- 26 • **Periodontal pathogens have been associated with atherosclerosis in apoE**
- 27 **knockout mice.**
- 28 • **ApoE4 may be a candidate antagonistic pleiotropy gene in periodontal**
- 29 **diseases.**

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ABSTRACT

The association between cardiovascular and periodontal diseases is characterized by chronic inflammatory processes, with a high prevalence worldwide and complex genetic-environment interactions. Although apolipoprotein E4 (ApoE4), one of the isoforms coded by a polymorphic APOE gene, has been widely recognized as a risk factor for cardiovascular diseases and as an immunoinflammatory factor, but less is known regarding how ApoE4 affects atherosclerosis in periodontitis patients. The aim of this review was to investigate the potential underlying mechanisms related to APOE4 that could increase the risk of periodontal disease and, ultimately, of atherosclerosis. There have only been a few studies addressing apoE polymorphisms in patients with chronic periodontitis. To date, no studies have been performed that have assessed how ApoE4 affects atherosclerotic disease in chronic periodontitis patients. Although clinical studies are warranted, experimental studies have consistently documented the presence of periodontal pathogens, which are usually found in the oral cavity and saliva, in the atherosclerotic plaques of ApoE-deficient mice. In addition, in this review, the potential role of the APOE4 allele as an example of antagonistic pleiotropy during human evolution and its relation to oral health is discussed.

Keywords: Apolipoprotein E, periodontal disease, oral microbiota, inflammation, atherosclerosis

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64 **1. Introduction**

65 Periodontal disease (PD) is a multifactorial, chronic, inflammatory disease,
66 associated with bacterial plaque, gingival bleeding, edema and increased crevicular fluid
67 formation that results from endotoxin bacteria-driven host immune responses. PD is
68 characterized by the inflammation and destruction of tooth-supporting connective tissues in
69 response to subgingival infection by various periodontal pathogens (Kinane, Stathopoulou, &
70 Papapanou, 2017). Periodontitis pathophysiology is associated with a myriad of pro-
71 inflammatory cytokines, skewed towards Th1/Th17 responses (de Vries, Andreotta, Loos, &
72 Nicu, 2017) and induced osteolysis (Goncalves, Evangelista, da Silva et al., 2014), **the latter**
73 **of which has been found to be reduced by simvastatin treatment** (a cholesterol-lowering
74 drug) (Dalcico, de Menezes, Deocleciano et al., 2013).

75 Due to its chronic inflammatory etiology, a potential link between the occurrence of
76 periodontal disease and atherosclerosis has been investigated (Cardoso, Reis, &
77 Manzanares-Cespedes, 2018). Pioneer studies from Mattila and colleagues have suggested
78 associations between myocardial infarction and poor oral health, which could be facilitated
79 by chronic low grade bacterial infections (such as dental caries and chronic periodontitis)
80 (Mattila, Nieminen, Valtonen et al., 1989). However, the determination of a causative effect
81 has been hampered because patients with chronic illnesses (including metabolic syndrome
82 and diabetes) are also likely to be affected by periodontitis. However, in the studies reported
83 by Mattila, poor oral health was a predictor of myocardial infarction, even after adjusting for
84 age, social class, hypertension, serum lipid and lipoprotein concentrations, smoking, the
85 presence of diabetes, and serum C peptide concentrations (Mattila, Nieminen, Valtonen et
86 al., 1989).

87 **The complications associated with atherosclerosis and metabolic syndrome are**
88 **recognized as** worrisome public health problems in developing countries and may especially
89 affect populations with nutritional and immunoinflammatory disorders, with the likelihood of
90 increased fatalities (DeBoer, Lima, Oria et al., 2012; Teo & Dokainish, 2017). The systemic
91 inflammatory processes (even those that are low-grade) induced by chronic periodontal

92 disease (Cardoso, Reis, & Manzanares-Cespedes, 2018) may be related to peripheral
93 arterial (and endothelial) inflammatory conditions (Calapkorur, Alkan, Tasdemir et al., 2017),
94 which may further elevate the risks of atherosclerosis, coronary disease, myocardial
95 infarction, and death.

96 Cardiovascular diseases (CVD) and periodontal disease share genetic bases of
97 susceptibility and important behavioral components, such as diet, plaque control and
98 smoking-related habits. Studies have shown that both conditions increase with age, lower
99 socioeconomic strata and poor educational background, especially for males, the diabetic
100 population, and individuals undergoing psychological stress or who have a significant
101 genetic predisposition (Nazir, 2017).

102 Apolipoprotein E (ApoE=protein; APOE=gene) is a glycoprotein synthesized in the
103 liver that plays a key role in the catabolism of triglycerides and cholesterol. In addition, ApoE
104 plays a pivotal role in different inflammatory conditions (Azevedo, Bolick, Roche et al., 2014;
105 Azevedo, Oliveira, Oliveira et al., 2012). In animal models, an ApoE deficiency can lead to
106 increased lipid levels in the bloodstream, even under chow diet conditions. In addition,
107 APOE null mice have been extensively used as animal models for atherosclerosis, as these
108 mice accumulate atheroma in the aortae when chronically fed with cholesterol-enriched diets
109 (Getz & Reardon, 2016).

110 In this review, recent findings were discussed, highlighting how different ApoE
111 isotypes may affect atherosclerosis in patients with periodontal disease, and discuss about
112 the use of APOE knockout mice as tool for understanding how oral pathogens can be
113 translocated and their effects on the atherosclerotic plaque. Finally, it was speculated that
114 the APOE4 allele may play a potential role as an example of antagonistic pleiotropy during
115 human evolution in relation to oral health. Antagonistic pleiotropy is an evolutionary theory
116 (Gaillard & Lemaitre, 2017) that postulates that certain genes or alleles may differentially
117 impact fitness during the lifespan of an organism (Tuminello & Han, 2011).

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120 **2. Periodontal and cardiovascular diseases**

121 Teeth are supported by a connective tissue attachment apparatus (periodontal
122 ligament), which is partly inserted into the outer layer of the root surface (root cementum)
123 and partly into the bone of the maxillary or mandibular alveolar processes, and, to a lesser
124 extent, by the gingival tissues that surround the teeth (Cho & Garant, 2000).

125 In periodontal disease, inflammatory processes induced by microbes result in the
126 formation of a periodontal pocket with the apical migration of both the gingival attachment to
127 the root surface and the plaque biofilm, gingival recession and alveolar bone resorption
128 (Hajishengallis & Sahingur, 2014).

129 According to the WHO, severe periodontal disease affects 15% to 20% of the middle-
130 aged global population (35–44 years of age) and may cause 5% to 15% of total tooth loss.
131 Approximately 50% of periodontal diseases have been attributed to genetic variance
132 (Rajendra Santosh, Ogle, Williams, & Woodbine, 2017).

133 Atherosclerosis or atherosclerotic vascular disease is a chronic inflammatory process
134 characterized by the progressive accumulation of atheroma plaques in the vessel
135 endothelium, which originate from inflammatory responses and immune system activation
136 (Nguyen, Kim, Quan et al., 2015).

137 Oral infections may interfere with vascular, endothelial, and smooth muscle cell
138 biology, which could cause predisposition to atherosclerosis (Chistiakov, Orekhov, &
139 Bobryshev, 2016). Oral pathogen-related inflammation can promote pro-coagulant effects,
140 followed by greater scavenger receptor (SR) A and CD36 expression and activity by
141 macrophages. (Baer, Huang, & Gibson, III, 2009) The uptake of cholesterol-rich LDL was
142 also related to the increased expression of cell-adhesion molecules (such as integrin CD49c
143 ($\alpha 3$ -subunit) in monocytes) (Escate, Padro, & Badimon, 2016). In addition, smooth muscle
144 cell proliferation, migration and anti-apoptosis machinery can be upregulated after exposure
145 to certain oral pathogens, such as *Porphyromonas gingivalis*, which are known to induce
146 pro-inflammatory cytokines in periodontal tissues (Naruishi & Nagata, 2018; Teles & Wang,
147 2011). Furthermore, oral pathogens may exert pro-atherosclerotic effects by activating the

148 uptake of oxidized LDL (LDLox) and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (such as
149 TNF, IL-6 and IL1- β) and transforming macrophages in "foam cells". The migration of other
150 leukocyte subtypes (such as lymphocytes) contributes to the increased inflammatory status
151 and leads to atherosclerotic plaque instability and rupture (Nguyen, Kim, Quan et al., 2015).

152 Chronic inflammatory processes driven by the periodontal biofilm may be facilitated
153 by complex host-pathogen interactions (e.g., worsened by immunosuppression and
154 pathogenic virulence). Multiple risk factors, such as age, CVD familial history, dyslipidemia,
155 smoking, systemic arterial hypertension, sedentary lifestyle, diabetes mellitus and being
156 overweight may debilitate the host and create an appropriate scenario for a pro-atherogenic
157 effect that is spread by oral pathogens (Chistiakov, Orekhov, & Bobryshev, 2016; Lockhart,
158 Bolger, Papapanou et al., 2012).

159 The American Heart Association's Committee on Rheumatic Fever, Endocarditis, and
160 Kawasaki Disease (1992) reviewed several risk factors and found a strong association
161 between atherosclerotic vascular disease (ASVD) and PD that was independent of known
162 confounders. However, it was not possible to demonstrate causality between these two
163 disorders. Therefore, therapeutic interventions for PD cannot be considered to prevent
164 ASVD-related events at this stage (Lockhart, Bolger, Papapanou et al., 2012). In a robust
165 meta-analysis of 15 observational studies involving 17,330 patients, Zeng et al. (Zeng, Leng,
166 Lam et al., 2016) found that periodontal disease was an independent risk factor for
167 atherosclerosis, although these authors reported substantial statistical heterogeneity in their
168 studies

169 Ahn and colleagues (Ahn, Shin, Han et al., 2016) studied the association between
170 PD and atherosclerosis in an adult Korean population, using carotid intima-media thickness
171 (cIMT) and ankle-brachial index (ABI) as markers of central arterial and lower extremity
172 stenosis, respectively. The authors observed that periodontitis was associated with
173 subclinical atherosclerosis and peripheral arterial disease after adjusting for age, gender,
174 education level, smoking, drinking, exercise, central obesity, triglycerides, HDL, LDL, hs-
175 CRP, diabetes and hypertension (Ahn, Shin, Han et al., 2016). These results are consistent

176 with previous studies showing independent associations between periodontitis and both
177 subclinical atherosclerosis (SA) and peripheral arterial disease (PAD), which represent early
178 atherosclerotic vascular changes (Ahn, Shin, Han et al., 2016)

179 The biological mechanism through which PD contributes to atherosclerosis may
180 involve direct bacterial effects on platelets, autoimmune responses, the bacterial invasion of
181 endothelial cells and the systemic upregulation of pro-inflammatory mediators (Gurav, 2014).
182 Periodontal infection results in a chronic low-grade bacteremia, which induces both local (at
183 the blood vessel wall) and systemic inflammatory cytokine upregulation, such as IL-1 β , IL-
184 12, IL-18 and TNF- α , causing the increased expression of adhesion molecules and the
185 release of leukocyte chemotactic chemokines, such as MCP-1/CCL2, by the endothelium
186 (Teles & Wang, 2011). The subsequent chemoattracted leukocyte infiltration and cytokine
187 release into the vessel wall lead to endothelial dysfunction, increasing the likelihood of
188 atherosclerotic plaque formation, which can be detected at the early stages of an
189 atherosclerotic lesion by the thickening of the carotid wall and the decreased patency of
190 arteries in extremities (Ahn, Shin, Han et al., 2016). Hence, longer and more severe chronic
191 periodontitis increases the risks of experiencing an atherogenic effect (Ahn, Shin, Han et al.,
192 2016) in predisposed and at-risk individuals.

193 In a cohort of 106 patients with a diagnosis of ischemic stroke or transient ischemic
194 attack (TIA) that were screened for periodontal disease, 27 reported recurrent vascular
195 events (16 with TIA or ischemic stroke) at the 24-month follow-up. However, a survey
196 demonstrated that there was an important association between increased aortic arch
197 atheroma (AA) plaque thickness and calcification in patients with advanced PD (Sen, Chung,
198 Duda et al., 2017). Thus, in this study, the authors concluded that, in patients with TIA or
199 ischemic stroke, PD at an advanced stage is associated with an increase in the AA plaque
200 thickness and is therefore, an important risk factor for recurrent vascular events (Sen,
201 Chung, Duda et al., 2017).

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204 3. ApoE, periodontal disease and atherosclerosis

205 ApoE is a 34 KDa glycoprotein, discovered in 1970, composed of 299 amino acids
206 and synthesized primarily by the liver and exported to the plasma. ApoE is an important
207 component of all lipoproteins, except LDL, and is involved in the redistribution of triglycerides
208 and cholesterol in various tissues (Mahley, 2016). ApoE, similar to other apoproteins, helps
209 to stabilize and solubilize lipoproteins while circulating in the blood. In general, the role of
210 ApoE in lipid metabolism includes maintaining the integrity of the lipoprotein structure and
211 acting as a ligand for lipoprotein receptors (Mahley, 2016).

212 The APOE gene is polymorphic, with the three most common alleles being the
213 epsilons E2, E3 and E4 (Huebbe & Rimbach, 2017). Point mutations in the codons result in
214 either a cysteine or arginine residue at positions 112 and 158. In the E2-coded ApoE allele,
215 cysteine amino acids are found at both positions; in the E3-coded ApoE allele, there is a
216 cysteine at position 112 and an arginine at position 158; and in the E4-coded ApoE allele,
217 arginine is found at both positions. The frequency of the E2, E3 and E4 alleles vary widely
218 between different populations, although the E3 allele is the most common, followed by E4
219 and E2 (Mendes-Lana, Pena, Freitas et al., 2007; Riemenschneider, Schwarz, Wagenpfeil et
220 al., 2002). The E4 allele is considered to be the ancestral allele. In addition to these 3
221 isotypes, there are other rarer ApoE variants, such as E1, E5 and E7 (Gerdes, 2003).

222 These modifications of the ApoE isoforms are able to differentially influence lipid
223 metabolism. Due to the tertiary structural conformations of the ApoE molecules (E3= cys-
224 112, arg-158; E3= cys-112, arg-158; E4= arg-112, arg-158), distinct binding forces exist for
225 the ApoE isoforms, either with the LDL receptor or with heparan sulfate proteoglycans
226 (HSPGs), which are important for cholesterol metabolism. These interactions affect lipid
227 levels, with the ApoE4 allele being more associated with increased total cholesterol (rather
228 than ApoE3 and ApoE3) and increasing the risk for cardiovascular diseases. Helix 4 of the
229 ApoE structure contains the LDL-receptor binding region (residues 136-150). In the ApoE 3
230 and 4 isoforms, the arginine at residue 158 builds a salt bridge with the aspartate at residue
231 154, allowing the arginine at residue 150 to remain in the highly basic region of the receptor

232 binding site. A diagram of the ApoE isoforms is depicted in **Figure 1**. Conversely, in the
233 ApoE2 isoform, the cysteine at residue 158 does not bind to aspartate and, therefore,
234 aspartate is allowed to bind to the arginine at residue 150, which is external to the binding
235 site. As a consequence, the ApoE2 isoform has the lowest binding affinity to the LDL
236 receptor.

237 Kesaniemi and colleagues were the first to report that the E4 phenotype is associated
238 with an increased intestinal absorption of cholesterol (Kesaniemi, Ehnholm, & Miettinen,
239 1987). APOE4 is associated with increased cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein (LDL) and
240 apolipoprotein B levels, effects which can lead to atherosclerosis, hyperlipidemia and
241 cardiovascular diseases (Eichner, Dunn, Perveen et al., 2002). An increase in the level of
242 LDL in the systemic circulation can activate endothelial cells and build an inflammatory
243 response, which culminates in macrophage recruitment and atherosclerosis formation. This
244 process is accelerated by an adjacent inflammatory disease, such as PD (Finch & Morgan,
245 2007; Huebbe, Nebel, Siegert et al., 2011).

246 In a meta-analysis, including 4,564 coronary artery disease (CAD) cases and 3,985
247 controls, Yin et al. (2013) documented an association between the E4 allele and an increase
248 in the CAD risk of a Chinese population, accumulating valid evidence (Yin, Sun, Zhang et al.,
249 2013).

250 Bergdahl and colleagues (2008) reported on dentate and edentulous individuals and
251 related sociodemographic data, including years of education, age and living conditions.
252 These authors found that APOE4 was found significantly more frequently in the edentulous
253 group (Bergdahl, Bergdahl, Nyberg, & Nilsson, 2008). **However, in a Chinese case/control**
254 **study, Gao and colleagues found that individuals expressing APOE-rs429358-CC/CT had**
255 **decreased odds for generalized aggressive periodontitis when compared with individuals**
256 **expressing the APOE-rs429358-TT polymorphism, after controlling for age, sex, BMI and**
257 **smoking status (Gao, Tian, Meng et al., 2015).**

258 These results have raised questions regarding whether genetic factors, such as
259 APOE4, might contribute to an increased risk of developing complex dental diseases that
260 lead to tooth loss, which is an undesirable outcome for any individuals.

261 Interestingly, vitamin D deficiency has been associated with chronic periodontitis
262 (Abreu, Tatakis, Elias-Boneta et al., 2016). Vitamin D is considered an important
263 immunomodulatory factor, regulating immune responses in the gingival epithelium and
264 influencing the degree of host responses to *P. gingivalis* (De, Fiorentino, Guida et al., 2017;
265 Huebbe, Nebel, Siegert et al., 2011).

266 In addition, APOE4 has been associated with an improvement in urinary vitamin D
267 reuptake and a more efficient UVB-induced conversion of pro-vitamin D in the skin (Gerdes,
268 2003). Because APOE4 carriers have been found to have high levels of vitamin D, it can be
269 speculated that APOE4 could protect against periodontal diseases in vitamin D-deficient
270 endemic areas (Huebbe, Nebel, Siegert et al., 2011).

271 Although the relationships between APOE4 and cardiovascular diseases are better
272 known, the existence of an APOE4 risk factor for stroke is controversial (Tang, Amiesimaka,
273 Harrison et al., 2018); however, this allele has been associated with subclinical
274 atherosclerotic changes (Doliner, Dong, Blanton et al., 2018) and stroke-related mortality
275 (Rajan, Aggarwal, Schneider et al., 2016).

276 A model of the potential interactions between APOE4, periodontitis and
277 atherosclerosis is shown in **Figure 2**.

278

279 **4. Oral infection and risk factors for atherosclerosis in animal models**

280 Studies in atherosclerotic-prone mice have suggested that oral pathogens influence
281 the onset and progression of atherosclerosis (Chukkapalli, Rivera, Velsko et al., 2014), as
282 shown by increased lipid accumulation in the arterial wall, macrophage infiltration, atheroma
283 plaques, and inflammatory responses (Kebschull, Demmer, & Papapanou, 2010;
284 Tuomainen, Jauhiainen, Kovanen et al., 2008).

285 The intraoral inoculation of *Treponema denticola* in 12- and 24-week-old ApoE *-/-*
286 mice causes chronic oral infection and, consequently, chronic periodontitis, which shows that
287 this pathogen has a strong relationship with periodontal disease and the progression of
288 atherosclerotic disease (Chukkapalli, Rivera, Velsko et al., 2014).

289 Decreased HDL levels and increased total and LDL cholesterol serum levels, along
290 with systemic inflammatory markers, such as C-reactive protein (CRP) and interleukin-6 (IL-
291 6), may increase the risk of atherosclerosis (Ferri, Paoletti, & Corsini, 2006; Hermus,
292 Lefrandt, Tio et al., 2010). In the ApoE *-/-* mouse model, mice subjected to a hyperlipidemic
293 diet and treated with *Fusobacterium nucleatum* showed significantly higher CRP, LDL and
294 IL-6 plasma levels, as well as lower levels of HDL, when compared with controls without *F.*
295 *nucleatum* administration (Lee, Jun, Kim et al., 2012). However, oral pathogens, such as *P.*
296 *gingivalis*, altered vascular responsiveness, mediated by alpha-adrenoceptors, which may
297 not only cause periodontitis but also atherosclerosis (Gibson, III, Hong, Chou et al., 2004;
298 Lalla, Lamster, Hofmann et al., 2003; Miyauchi, Maekawa, Aoki et al., 2012; Pereira,
299 Vasquez, Stefanon, & Meyrelles, 2011).

300 Some authors have indicated that the development of atherosclerosis in ApoE-
301 deficient mice infected with *P. gingivalis* could be prevented and inhibited by the employment
302 of vaccination and human β -defensin-3 (Gibson, III, Hong, Chou et al., 2004; Li, Messas,
303 Batista, Jr. et al., 2002). In another study, using the same experimental model, a significant
304 40% increase in the area of the atherosclerotic lesion was identified in the aortic sinus when
305 compared with the uninfected group (Lalla, Lamster, Hofmann et al., 2003). The
306 advancement of atherosclerosis was also present in an ApoE-deficient murine model
307 infected with this bacterium (Li, Messas, Batista, Jr. et al., 2002).

308 The immune response of polybacterial infections (*P. gingivalis*, *T. denticola*, *T.*
309 *forsythia* and *F. nucleatum*) in ApoE null mouse models is different from those observed for
310 individual (monobacterial) infections (Rivera, Lee, Aneja et al., 2013). Polybacterial
311 infections exhibited synergism, inducing a significant increase in plasma risk factors, such as

312 oxidized LDL, nitric oxide, altered lipid profiles and the formation of aortic plaques
313 (Chukkapalli, Rivera, Velsko et al., 2014; Velsko, Chukkapalli, Rivera-Kweh et al., 2015).

314 In another study, using the same mice models and polymicrobial infections, three of
315 these bacterial strains, with the exception of *F. nucleatum*, were found to result in a
316 significant association between PD and atherosclerotic disease, and the presence of a
317 polymicrobial infection by both areas of the aorta was identified in several of the infected
318 mice through the PCR analysis of thoracic and abdominal aorta samples (Cui, Li, Lei et al.,
319 2016; Rivera, Lee, Aneja et al., 2013), demonstrating that periodontitis caused by binding in
320 experimental models may trigger an inflammatory response in the vascular wall and that
321 nonsurgical periodontal treatment during the early stages of atherosclerosis can reduce
322 systemic inflammation, improving the lipid profile (Cui, Li, Lei et al., 2016).

323 To date, preclinical studies have consistently demonstrated that periodontal
324 pathogens are able to translocate from the oral microbiota to atherosclerotic plaques in
325 ApoE-deficient mice (see **Table 1** for a summary of the revised literature relating
326 periodontitis pathogens and atherosclerotic lesions). However, only three studies have
327 reported on the effects of APOE polymorphisms in individuals with oral diseases and their
328 associations with cardiovascular risk (**Table 2**).

329

330 **5. APOE4, a candidate gene for antagonistic pleiotropy in oral infections?**

331 Cohort studies in Brazilian shantytown communities with poor hygiene and sanitation
332 have highlighted a protective role for the APOE4 allele in children with a history of heavy
333 diarrhea illnesses during the first years of life in areas endemic for enteric infections and
334 malnutrition (Oria, Patrick, Oria et al., 2010; Oria, Patrick, Zhang et al., 2005). The APOE4
335 allele was associated with improved cognitive scores (in a subset of children with heavy
336 diarrheal burdens), even though APOE4 is considered to be deleterious and to increase the
337 risk of developing Alzheimer's disease later in life (Kim, Basak, & Holtzman, 2009;
338 Strittmatter, 2001; Yamazaki, Painter, Bu, & Kanekiyo, 2016). These initial studies were
339 supported by findings from the Bolivian Tsimane populations, which are highly exposed to

340 enteric infections, where APOE4 was associated with lower C-reactive protein (CRP) serum
341 levels (Vasunilashorn, Finch, Crimmins et al., 2011), which is a marker of systemic
342 inflammation, suggesting reduced infection-driven inflammatory responses.

343 In another study from the same group, non-APOE4 carriers with a high parasite
344 burden (those with high IgE serum levels) showed a reduction in cognitive performance,
345 which was not observed in APOE4 carriers (Trumble, Stieglitz, Blackwell et al., 2017). These
346 studies suggest that APOE4 might display an antagonistic pleiotropy effect, which means it
347 may be helpful early in life during environmental challenges, such as enteric infections and
348 malnutrition (which prevail in nonindustrialized human civilization). This idea suggests that
349 APOE4 is better fitted for traits related to protection against pathogens and improved fertility
350 (van, Koopman, Bodegom et al., 2017a); however, later in life, it is known to be detrimental
351 during aging-related diseases (Finch & Morgan, 2007). This same premise may be applied
352 to oral infections. Precivilized meat hunters were likely afflicted with
353 severe dental diseases (and enteric diseases) and oral microbiota changes (Weyrich,
354 Duchene, Soubrier et al., 2017) but did not live long enough to develop age-related
355 cardiovascular and Alzheimer's diseases. Therefore, it can be speculated that APOE4 might
356 have played a significant role in this protection. The relationships between APOE4 carriers
357 and the oral microbiota and dental diseases, both during early life and with aging, require
358 further investigation, particularly in regard to western diets. In addition, the associations
359 between APOE4, periodontal diseases and Alzheimer's disease still require further research.
360 One study has documented associations between a low number of teeth, a low level of
361 APOE4 and lower delayed word recall scores in elderly patients in Milwaukee, WI, USA
362 (Stein, Kryscio, Desrosiers et al., 2010).

363 The interactions between chronic cardiovascular disease, Alzheimer's disease and
364 periodontitis still remain an unexplored field, and research initiatives are unfortunately
365 unrepresented in worldwide populations, especially in the developing world. A diagram of
366 these relationships is shown in **Figure 3**.

367

368 **6. Summary**

369 The direct causality between atherosclerosis and periodontal diseases is challenging
370 to dissect, due to common etiological roots, such as aging, life-style (diet, sedentarism), and
371 immune-inflammatory and genetic factors. Apolipoprotein E4 (APOE4) is an attractive gene
372 because it has been extensively associated with increased risks and worse outcomes for
373 cardiovascular diseases.

374 In human evolution, APOE4 is considered to be the ancestral APOE allele, and its
375 preservation in our genetic pool may be related to its role in improving infectious diseases,
376 which were ubiquitous in the preindustrialized era (Oria, Patrick, Blackman et al., 2007;
377 Trumble, Stieglitz, Blackwell et al., 2017). Therefore, the occurrence of APOE4 might be an
378 example of antagonistic pleiotropy, as this gene may be protective under heavy burdens of
379 enteric infections and an adverse environment (by raising innate immunity and inflammation
380 (Gale, Gao, Mikacenic et al., 2014)) early in life (Oria, Patrick, Zhang et al., 2005; van,
381 Koopman, Bodegom et al., 2017a), while being deleterious during aging, contributing to
382 atherosclerosis if one lives long enough in western societies. The antagonistic pleiotropy of
383 genes related to worse CAD outcomes (such as APOE4) are designed for adverse
384 environments during human evolution, which have been reported previously (Corbett,
385 Courtiol, Lummaa et al., 2018; van, Koopman, Bodegom et al., 2017b).

386 Early human populations were also often afflicted with chronic dental diseases and
387 related-oral infections (in the preantimicrobial therapy era), for which APOE4 would be
388 potentially protective (this unexplored area deserves attention in future studies); however,
389 with this trade-off, individuals become more prone to later cardiovascular diseases if one
390 lives long enough, as we have observed in modern times in western societies. The lack of
391 long-term cohorts and clinical studies examining APOE polymorphisms, especially in
392 deprived countries, have hampered the understanding of how APOE4 affects oral pathogens
393 and related inflammatory responses and how these affects could be associated with
394 atherosclerotic plaques. Studies performed in both clinical settings and using APOE4 target-
395 replacement mice are required. Long-term cohort studies with larger sample numbers in

396 developing countries and humanized APOE4 knock-in mice are warranted to evaluate the
397 causal association between APOE4, PD and atherosclerosis, especially when considering
398 the periodontal biofilm and its potential atherogenic effects.

399 In addition, currently, clinicians aim for minimally invasive strategies to manage
400 dental diseases. Over the years, when older patients enter a restorative cycle, as a
401 consequence of a series of traditionally invasive approaches, and present a high disease
402 burden, early detection and prevention are the keys to managing dental diseases. APOE4
403 could be a marker for dental diseases and for chronic systematic diseases. Therefore,
404 further laboratory and clinical studies are required to investigate these effects.

405

406 **Conflicts of Interest**

407 The authors declare no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

408

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