

# Quantitative detection and virulence gene profiling of *Prevotella intermedia* and *Porphyromonas gingivalis* in periodontitis patients

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## Abstract

**Objective:** The present study was designed to determine the prevalence and detection of key virulence genes in individuals with gingivitis and periodontitis in Al-Diwaniyah Governorate and is one of the initial reports of fimA and adpC gene prevalence in Iraq.

**Methods:** Patients' age ranged from 18 to 68 years (mean = 36.77 years). Ninety clinical isolates were collected from these patients. The real-time PCR detected *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* to calculate the number of bacterial loads [cycle threshold (Ct) values and copy numbers] and to detect the virulence factors fimA and adpC.

**Results:** The percentages of detection for *P. intermedia* and *P. gingivalis* were 82.22% and 34.44%, respectively. The differences were found independent of sex and age. The average age of infected participants was 36.47±8.67 and 39.16±8.31 years for *P. intermedia* and *P. gingivalis*, respectively. Cycle threshold values were 33.69±4.45 and 26.85±3.71, and loads were 533,612 and 745.95 copies, respectively. *P. gingivalis* was more abundant in subjects over 45 years, while *P. intermedia* was more frequent in those over 65. The fimA gene was present in 60% of *P. gingivalis* isolates and adpC in 70% of *P. intermedia*.

**Conclusion:** The percentage of *P. intermedia* was higher than that of *P. gingivalis* in periodontitis patients. The higher bacterial load with age indicated that cumulative tissue damage is involved. fimA and adpC genes were also particularly informative as they represent potential diagnostic and therapeutic targets. High *P. intermedia* prevalence suggests its role as a primary pathogen in periodontitis.

**Keywords:** Periodontal diseases, *P. intermedia*, *P. gingivalis*, qPCR, adpC, fimA.

## Plain English Summary

Gum diseases are strongly associated with disrupting the normal balance of bacteria and other microorganisms in the mouth. *Prevotella intermedia* and *Porphyromonas gingivalis* are most associated with the disease. The present study was designed to determine the prevalence and expression of microorganisms that have specified virulence in these individuals with inflammation of the gum and gum infection (periodontitis). Microorganisms were isolated from 90 patients during clinical investigation. Real-time PCR was used to detect real-time amplified DNA products. The percentage of *P. intermedia* was higher than that of *P. gingivalis* in patients with gum infection.

## Introduction

Gingivitis is an infection of the soft tissue of the teeth triggered by the presence of pathogenic

bacteria in the oral cavity. It is one of the commonest dental conditions and has the potential to progress to periodontitis. When it is

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not treated, the tooth is lost due to destruction of the supportive material around the teeth. It is an inflammatory condition that is heavily implicated in oral biofilm, which is a pathogenic biofilm that contains numerous bacteria and antigens, prompting chronic inflammation. Identification of the specific functions of these bacteria inducing this type of inflammation is important for the development of targeted treatments and prevention strategies (1).

There is that complex life community of bacteria and fungi, and viruses, and so on, in just a tiny drop of saliva. It is critical for oral and systemic health. The homeostasis of this ecosystem is influenced by diverse factors, among them the diet, tobacco, alcohol, way of life, and other diseases. Disturbance of this microbial homeostasis can cause several pathologies, including dental caries, gingivitis, oral candidiasis, and halitosis (2).

Gingival diseases, such as gingivitis, affect almost 50% of the global population at different levels. A severe form of gingivitis is found in 10–15 per cent of adults and is the greatest single cause of tooth loss. It generally occurs in adolescence and young adulthood and is often due to plaque accumulation along with poor oral hygiene. Notably, the prevalence of periodontal disease increases markedly with age, with 70%–80% of those older than 65 expressing at least a form of this disease (3).

Gingivitis-associated bacteria have virulence factors that affect their pathogenicity. Within the oral cavity, such virulence factors can be enzymes, e.g., proteases which degrade structural proteins, such as collagen in the gingiva, and endotoxins, such as LPS (lipopolysaccharides), inducing severe inflammatory reactions. Furthermore, these microorganisms can manipulate the host immune response or can be resistant to the detrimental inflammatory environment, thus providing a survival advantage and contributing to their pathogenic potential. The interrelationships and synergies between these pathogens continuously promote colonisation and detrimental consequences (4).

The quantitative distribution of bacterial species is proven to be a dependable marker for evaluating the degree of gingivitis. Accurate determination of the bacterial load within the tissues at the level of the individual patient may aid clinical staging of the disease and individualising treatment protocols. These analyses allow the tracking of the evolution of disease and the response to treatment (5). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) has been used based on its high sensitivity for the determination of PG and PI DNA since it can identify small amounts of bacterial DNA, such as that found in

*P. intermedia* (PI) and *P. gingivalis* (PG) (6, 7). This technique has also been used in Iraq to evaluate the long-term outcome of patients under treatment.

Lopes et al. developed a PCR technique for detecting the accumulation of three primary pathogens of periodontal disease, *Actinobacillus actinomycetemcomitans*, *P. intermedia*, and *P. gingivalis*. Their strategy was successful in defining the unique functions of these bacteria at different stages of gingivitis. It provided an insight into microbial interactions in periodontal pathology and highlighted the significance of such insights in the design of targeted therapeutic strategies (8). Hameed et al. studied the novel inflammatory pathway of *P. gingivalis* in chronic periodontal disease. Their results underscored the ability of the bacterium to disrupt microbial homeostasis in the oral cavity and foster an inflamed environment, promoting the growth of other pathogens. Strategies consisted of the production of enzymes with proteolytic action to destroy the gingival tissues and with immuno-evasion mechanisms. For example, LPS release led to the production of cytokines, including IL-1 and IL-6, which cause a greater degree of local inflammation and ultimately periodontal destruction (9).

Ruan et al. recognised *P. intermedia* as an important cause of diseases as gingivitis, periodontitis, and peri-radicular inflammation. From an infected root canal of a Chinese patient with periodontitis, the strain possesses certain genomic characteristics conducive to adaptability in various environments and virulence, thereby facilitating its long-term existence in habitats like the oral and respiratory tracts (10).

How et al. defined periodontal diseases as infectious-mediated inflammatory conditions primarily induced by the initial build-up of bacterial biofilms on the tooth surfaces. These biofilms are communities of bacteria that can cause a gradual loss of supporting tooth structure. Although the subgingival plaque can accommodate over 500 bacterial species, *P. gingivalis* has been regarded as a keystone pathogen in chronic periodontitis owing to its large number of virulence factors, which induce direct tissue destruction in the gingival tissue and/or disrupt host immune response (11).

Deo and Deshmukh highlighted the importance of the oral microbiome, which is the second most complex and diversity-rich ecosystem after the gut microbiome, and hosts around 100 species of bacteria, as well as fungi, viruses, and protozoa. The development of advanced genomic technologies, such as high-throughput sequencing and bioinformatics, makes it possible to perform a comprehensive analysis of microbial function and metabolism, advancing our ability to

study the pathogenesis and develop precision therapy (12). Abdulkareem et al. suggest interleukin-15 may be critically involved in the initiation and development of periodontitis. The structural heterogeneity of the biofilm matrix in dental plaque (i.e., densely covered microbial communities) requires a better understanding of host-microbe interactions other than simple elevations in plaque load. Diagnostic improvements have shown that gingivitis progression is more associated with these complex interactions (13).

Könönen et al. studied the ecological functions of oral early coloniser *Prevotella* species, the majority of which contribute to inflammation in oral tissues. *P. denticola*, *P. tanneriae*, *P. intermedia*, and *P. nigrescens* were found to be involved in periodontal and endodontic infections, dental caries, and were reported to be related to systemic diseases such as head and neck cancers (14). Bielecki et al. showed that *P. intermedia*, like *P. gingivalis* HmuY, expresses heme-reactive proteins with distinct nucleotide sequences but is capable of binding heme in a coordinated manner with heme iron. Such adaptation might help in the acquisition of heme and allow the bacteria to survive in inflammatory locations. Such molecular detail might aid the development of diagnostic and therapeutic approaches that are more effective (15).

Recent investigations have consistently demonstrated the important role of *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and *Prevotella intermedia* in both initiating and advancing severe periodontitis, largely due to their strong capacity to induce inflammation and cause tissue destruction (16, 17). Although these microorganisms are recognised as clinically important, there remains a noticeable deficiency of molecular epidemiological data concerning *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* within Middle Eastern populations. Of particular concern is Iraq, where unique regional microbial profiles may shape disease severity and influence therapeutic outcomes.

The main objective was to determine the relation of the presence of *P. intermedia* and *P. gingivalis* with the severity of gingivitis. Moreover, it attempted to measure these two types of bacteria in clinical samples to find out about their involvement in the pathogenesis and progression of gingival inflammation. Our hypothesis posits that *P. intermedia* will be more commonly found in older patients and that its prevalence, along with the presence of virulence factors such as *fimA* and *adpC* genes, will be associated with greater destruction of periodontal tissues.

## Materials and methods

### Sample Collection

Participants eligible for the study were adults aged between 18 and 70 years, all of whom had a clinical diagnosis of either chronic gingivitis or periodontitis. Individuals who had taken widespread antibiotics, received periodontal treatment within the last three months, or had widespread health conditions affecting the periodontium, such as diabetes or immunosuppression, were not considered eligible.

Assessment of gingival inflammation and periodontal disease severity was carried out by a qualified periodontist using the Community Periodontal Index (CPI) along with clinical measurements, including probing pocket depth (PPD) and clinical attachment loss (CAL). The classification of periodontitis adhered to the 2018 case definitions established by the American Academy of Periodontology (AAP) and the European Federation of Periodontology (EFP).

Ninety clinical oral samples were taken with sterile dental paper points from patients diagnosed with gingivitis at the dental clinics. Participants were 90 adults (46 females, 44 males) between the ages of 18 and 70 years who attended private dental clinics in Al-Diwaniyah during the period from April to August 2024. Clinical indices were measured in gum redness, bleeding, pain, and halitosis. The following information was recorded for both patients: demographic data and clinical profile (name, age, sex, systemic illness, and date of collection). The collected specimens were immediately transferred into a guided medium and stored under appropriate conditions before transport to the laboratory for molecular analysis.

### DNA Extraction

Genomic DNA from the bacterial samples was isolated according to the manufacturer's instructions with the Geneaid Presto™ Mini gDNA Bacteria Kit (Geneaid, USA). In brief, the samples were framed from the suspension saline, and the supernatant was centrifuged and removed. The bacterial pellet was disrupted by GT buffer and Proteinase K with incubation at 60°C, then cryptic genomic DNA was released by GB buffer and heated at 70 °C. The DNA and RNA pollution was re-cleansed by silica membrane with ethanol in the GD column. The column was washed with W1 and Wash Buffers several times before being air dried. At last, the DNA was eluted by preheated (65°C) elution buffer and stored at 20 °C for subsequent use.

### DNA Quantification

The extracted DNA was quantified, and purity was measured by a NanoDrop™

spectrophotometer. The concentration of DNA was determined (ng/μl), and the purity was checked based on the absorbance ratio at 260/280 nm. A solution of 2 μl deionised water was measured in the spectrophotometer as calibration before each measurement. Preparation was carried out using 1 μL of each DNA sample, and the coefficient of variation was calculated, and the substrate was wiped clean between runs for accuracy. Samples with a 260/280 ratio close to 1.8 were referred to as high purity.

**qPCR (Quantitative Real-Time PCR)**

To establish the *P. gingivalis* and *P. Intermedia* bacteria count in gingival samples, quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed via commercial kits: GPS Preint detect-qPCR F100 and PorGin detect-qPCR F100 (Genetic PCR Solutions, Spain). These kits included species-specific primers and probes. Amplified products were generated in 20 μl reactions on a Stratagene Mx3005P Real-Time PCR machine (Agilent Technologies). The amplification conditions, as well as the reagent composition, are listed in Table 1.

**Table 1: Thermal cycling conditions for qPCR analysis of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia*.**

Step	Temperature	Time	Description
Initial activation	95 °C	2 min	Enzyme activation
Denaturation (×40 cycles)	95 °C	5 sec	DNA denaturation
Annealing/Extension	60 °C	20 sec	Primer hybridisation and fluorescence detection

*Fluorescent signals were read through FAM and HEX channels for target DNA and internal controls, respectively.*

The positive control was diluted for standard curves with decimal dilutions to be used for copy number determination, fitted according to a linear regression equation between Ct values and log<sub>10</sub> of the copy number:

$$1. Ct = Y\text{-intercept} + (Slope \times \log_{10} (\text{Copy number}))$$

$$2. \text{Copy number} = 10^{[(Ct - Y\text{-intercept}) / Slope]}$$

Additional wells containing DNase/RNase-free water were included as negative controls for the reaction specificity in each run.

For each qPCR test, positive controls, using reference strains of *P. gingivalis* and *P. Intermedia*, were included, along with no-template negative controls to confirm the specificity of amplification. Standard curves constructed from serial dilutions of known DNA

concentrations were employed to determine bacterial loads, with amplification efficiency and R<sup>2</sup> values carefully monitored to ensure accuracy.

**Detection of Virulence Genes**

The genes encoding a virulence factor (*fimA* for *P. gingivalis*, *adpC* for *P. intermedia*) were screened by conventional PCR. The procedure for DNA extraction was as follows, with that used for clinical isolates described above. The primers used were primer pairs designed from sequences available from the NCBI GenBank and synthesised commercially. The details of the primers are shown in Table 2.

**Table 2: Primer sequences used for virulence gene detection**

Gene	Primer Name	Sequence (5'–3')	Product Size (bp)
fimA	FimA-F	ATGAGGTTGAGGCCTTGACG	278
	FimA-R	GGCTGCGATTTTAGCGTCAG	
adpC	adpC-F	CACAAGCAAACGCACTCGAA	584
	adpC-R	CTGCCAACGGGTAAGCTACA	

**PCR Amplification**

The reaction mixture (25 μl) was composed of GoTaq G2 Green Master Mix (Promega, USA), containing 12.5 μl master mix, 2.5 μl forward

primers and reverse primers each, 3 μl DNA template, and 4.5 μl nuclease-free water. Amplification was performed with the following thermal-cycling profile (Table 3).

**Table 3: PCR conditions for the detection of *fimA* and *adpC* genes**

Step	Temperature	Time	Cycles
Initial denaturation	95 °C	5 min	1
Denaturation	94 °C	1 min	35
Annealing	58 °C	1 min	35
Extension	72 °C	1 min	35
Final extension	72 °C	10 min	1

**Gel Electrophoresis**

The products were separated on a 2% agarose gel in the presence of Green Star™ dye. The gel was electrophoresed at 100 V for 36 minutes. The bands were visualised under a UV light with a Dual LED Blue/White Transilluminator (Bioneer, Korea), and the product sizes were estimated with a 100 bp DNA ladder.

**Statistical Analysis**

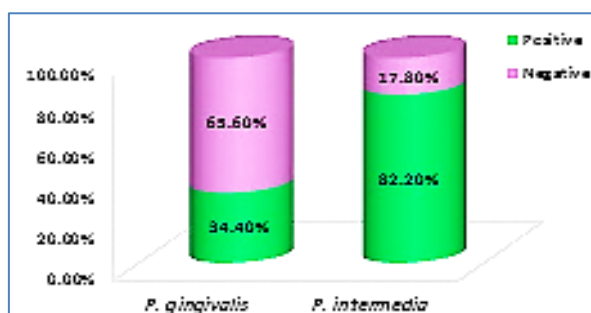
All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics v23. The data were expressed in frequency (%), Mean ± SD. Pearson correlation tests were performed, and the significance level was set at p < 0.05 and p < 0.01. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to evaluate the relationship between bacterial loads and clinical indices, and clinical periodontal indices, given that these variables were continuous and exhibited a normal distribution. To compare bacterial quantities across different age groups, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, with a significance threshold set at p < 0.05.

Pearson's correlation coefficient was employed to examine the linear relationship between bacterial load and clinical periodontal indices, given that these variables were continuous and exhibited a normal distribution. To compare bacterial quantities across different age groups, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, with a significance threshold set at p < 0.05.

**Results**

**Investigation of bacterial distribution**

The present study included 90 clinical isolates from patients with a suspicion of gingivitis or periodontitis during the period from July 2024 to January 2025. The subjects varied in age between 18 and 68 years (mean: 36.77). *P. gingivalis* was detected in 34.44% (n = 31) of samples and *P. intermedia* in 82.22% (n = 74) by molecular analysis using real-time PCR. These results are visualised in Figure 1 and summarised in Table 4.



**Figure 1: Detection rates of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* in clinical samples.**  
X-axis: Bacterial species (*P. gingivalis*, *P. intermedia*), Y-axis: Detection rate (%)

This bar chart illustrates the proportion of patient samples (total = 90) in which *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* were identified through real-time PCR analysis. Notably, *P. intermedia* was present in a much higher percentage of cases (82.22%)

compared to *P. gingivalis* (34.44%), suggesting that *P. intermedia* may play a more prominent role in periodontitis among the studied population.

**Table 4: Relative distribution of bacteria detected in patients with gingivitis and periodontitis by real-time PCR analysis**

Result	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Positive	31	34.4%	74	82.2%
Negative	59	65.6%	16	17.8%
Total No	90	100%	90	100%
p value	0.003*		0.001*	

**Demographic Characteristics of the Infected Patients**

Demographic distribution of infection was examined and compared according to age and sex of the patients between the detection of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia*. The average ages of patients infected with *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* were 39.16±8.31 and 36.47±8.67

years, respectively. Statistical comparisons indicated no significant difference between groups for age (Table 5; p=0.292) or age category (Table 5; p=0.748). Regarding gender, *P. gingivalis* was detected in 38.7% of the male patients and 61.3% of the female patients, and *P. intermedia* in 51.4% of the males and 48.6% of the females. There were also no statistical

differences in these values ( $p = 0.237$ ), as presented in Table 5.

**Table 5: Demographic characteristics of patients with positive bacterial infections**

Characteristics	<i>P. gingivalis</i>	<i>P. intermedia</i>	<i>P-value</i>
<b>Age</b>			
Mean $\pm$ SD	39.16 $\pm$ 8.31	36.47 $\pm$ 8.67	0.292
Range	22-68 years	20-68 years	
< 25, <i>n</i> (%)	4 (12.9 %)	14 (18.9 %)	0.748
25-45, <i>n</i> (%)	18 (58.1 %)	41 (55.4 %)	
$\geq$ 45, <i>n</i> (%)	9 (29.0 %)	19 (25.7 %)	
<b>Gender</b>			
Male, <i>n</i> (%)	12 (38.7 %)	38 (51.4 %)	0.237
Female, <i>n</i> (%)	19 (61.3 %)	36 (48.6 %)	

*n*: number of cases; *SD*: standard deviation; \*: significant at  $P < 0.05$ .

The prevalence of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* in general was 34.44% and 82.22%, respectively, using real-time PCR. These data are presented

in Table 6 and were significantly different for both species ( $p < 0.05$ ).

**Table 6. The relative distribution of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* in patients with gingivitis and periodontitis using real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR)**

Specie	Result	Number	Percentage
<i>P. gingivalis</i>	Positive	31	34.44%
	Negative	59	65.56%
	Total number	90	100%
	P value	P = 0.003*	
<i>P. intermedia</i>	Positive	74	82.22%
	Negative	16	17.78%
	Total number	90	100%
	P value	<0.0001*	

\*Represents a significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation

Additional analysis of Ct values and bacterial copy numbers revealed that *P. gingivalis* has a mean Ct value of 26.85 $\pm$ 3.71 and copy number

of 745.95 $\pm$ 2531.8, while *P. Intermedia* had a higher mean Ct of 33.69 $\pm$ 4.45 and copy number of 533.612 $\pm$ 1547.4 (Table 7).

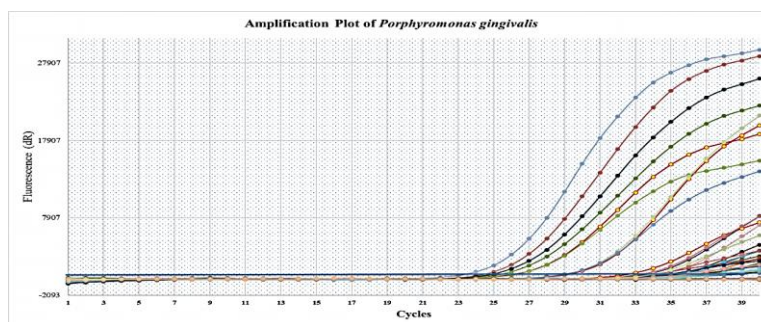
**Table 7. Comparison between the cycle threshold (Ct) and copy number of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* in the patient group**

Specie	Result	Values
<i>P. gingivalis</i>	Cq	26.85 $\pm$ 3.71
	Copy number	745.95 $\pm$ 2531.8
<i>P. intermedia</i>	Cq	33.69 $\pm$ 4.5
	Copy number	533.61 $\pm$ 1547.4

\*Represents a significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation

Figures 2 and 3 show the amplification plots of real-time PCR for *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia*, respectively. These results demonstrate a

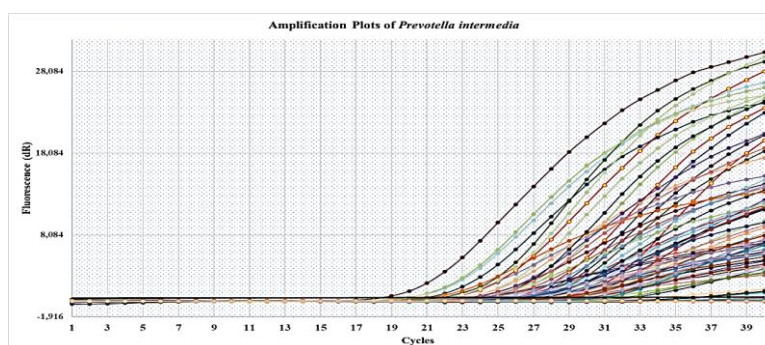
positive standard curve to correlate with patient copy numbers (exponential amplification phase) and assay robustness.



**Figure 2: Amplification plot for *P. gingivalis* detection by real-time PCR**

This amplification plot illustrates real-time PCR analysis results of *P. gingivalis* in 90 clinical samples. Standard curve dilutions from a 10-fold serial dilution of positive control DNA were taken as a reference for the precise approximation of bacterial copies. Curves for the patient samples are plotted independently, with the exponential phase of amplification occurring. The “dR” signal

is from the baseline-subtracted fluorescence ( $\Delta R_n$ ), which represents the difference in fluorescence due to DNA amplification. X-axis: Cycle number (Ct), Y:  $\Delta R_n$  (change in fluorescent intensity), Legend: Curves represent patient sample; quantification is performed using standard curve points; negative controls have flat lines (nonamplification).



**Figure 3: Amplification plot for *P. intermedia* detection by real-time PCR**

This plot displays real-time PCR amplification data for *P. intermedia* across 90 samples. A standard curve derived from decimal dilutions of known DNA concentrations was included to calculate copy numbers. Amplification curves show a broader distribution of Ct values, suggesting variation in bacterial load. The “dR” label denotes the  $\Delta R_n$  signal, representing fluorescence adjusted for background noise. X-axis: Cycle number (Ct), Y-axis: Fluorescence intensity ( $\Delta R_n$ ), Legend: Patient samples, standard curve, positive control, and negative control are differentiated by color or symbol.

**Gender Predominance of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia***

Quantitative analysis of bacterial load according to gender, described in Table 8, did not produce statistically significant differences between the groups in the number of copies of *P. gingivalis*

and *P. intermedia*. Average *P. gingivalis* copy number in males was  $805.45 \pm 2214.3$ , and in females,  $361.93 \pm 956.3$ . For *P. intermedia*, the mean CNV was  $748.7 \pm 3059$  for males and  $742.9 \pm 1863$  for females. The two species differed but not significantly in this regard ( $p > 0.05$ ).

**Table 8: Comparison of the cycle threshold (Ct) and the number of copies of bacteria by gender, *P. intermedia*, and *P. gingivalis***

Specie		Male (12)	Female (19)	p-value
<i>P. gingivalis</i>	Ct	32.59±4.64	34.39±4.3	0.293
	Copy number	805.45±2214.3	361.93±956.3	
<i>P. intermedia</i>		Male (38)	Female (36)	0.385
	Cq	27.20±3.5	26.40±3.8	
	Copy number	748.70±3059.0	742.90±1863.0	

\*Represents a significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation

**Age-Dependent Distribution of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia***

The stratification of single-copy bacterial load by patient age showed age-correlated patterns in colonisation (Table 9). The mean value of *P.*

gingivalis count was highest in the >45 years of age group (954.9±2532), followed by the 65 years group (1002.13±2074), followed by the 45–65 years group (794.03±3089) and <45 years group (257.4±560.9), but the differences were

not significant (p=0.437). These findings provide evidence for potentially accelerating bacterial accumulation with age, probably by inducing long-term periodontal tissue destruction or dysbiosis.

**Table 9: Comparison Between Cycle Threshold (Ct) and Copy Number of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia* According to Age**

Specie	Age	Number	Gene expression	
			Ct	Copy number
<i>P. gingivalis</i>	<25	4		436.4±869.08
	25-45	18		344.6±969.9
	>45	9		954.9±2532
	P value		0.855	
<i>P. intermedia</i>	<45	14	26.17±2.4	257.40±560.9
	45-65	41	27.35±3.8	794.03±3089.0
	>65	19	26.26±4.2	1002.13±2074
	P value		0.437	

\*Represents a significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05$  Data are expressed as mean ± standard deviation

**Distribution of Virulence Genes**

To further explore the distribution of virulence genes across demographic groups, the positive samples for *fimA* and *adpC* were categorised by sex and age. Although the sample size for gene

detection was limited to ten isolates per species, this analysis provides preliminary insight into possible patterns of gene prevalence. The findings are summarised in Table 10.

**Table 10 Prevalence of virulence genes (*fimA* and *adpC*) by sex and age group**

Gene	Group	Positive Cases	Total Cases	Prevalence (%)
<i>fimA</i>	Male	3	5	60
<i>fimA</i>	Female	3	5	60
<i>fimA</i>	<45 years	2	4	50
<i>fimA</i>	≥45 years	4	6	66.7
<i>adpC</i>	Male	4	5	80
<i>adpC</i>	Female	3	5	60
<i>adpC</i>	<45 years	3	4	75
<i>adpC</i>	≥45 years	4	6	66.7

A total of twenty isolates, comprising ten and ten for *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia*, respectively, were randomly chosen from the samples that tested positive via qPCR. This selection aimed to ensure both species were adequately represented, assisting the subsequent conventional PCR detection of virulence genes while maintaining practicality within laboratory

constraints. The result of virulence genes expression among the isolates showed that the *fimA* gene was detected in 60% of *P. gingivalis*-positive samples and the *adpC* gene in 70% of *P. intermedia*-positive samples (Table 11 and Figures 4, 5 and 6). These genes are known to be major pathogenic factors among periodontal bacteria.

**Table 11: Distribution of virulence factor genes**

Genes	Positive n (%)	Negative n (%)	Total n (%)	p value
<i>fimA</i>	6 (60)	4 (40)	10 (100)	0.046*
<i>adpC</i>	7 (70)	3 (30)	10 (100)	0.0001*

\*Significant difference at 0.05 expressed as mean and standard deviation

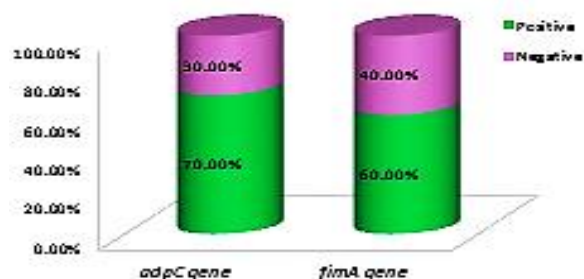


Figure 4: Percentages of virulence genes

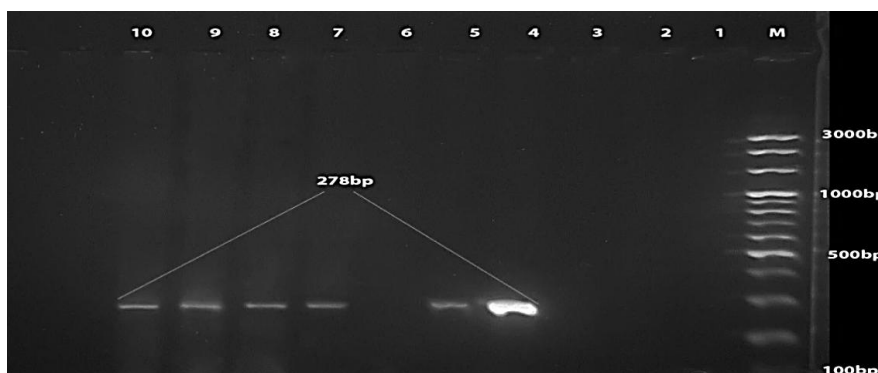


Figure 5: Agarose gel electrophoresis image showing PCR products amplified with fimA-specific primers from ten *P. gingivalis* isolates.

Lane M: 100 bp DNA ladder (molecular size marker); Lanes 1–10: PCR products of clinical isolates. A 278 bp band confirms the presence of the fimA gene in positive samples. Clear size markers and labelled lanes allow comparison and verification of product size



Figure 6: Agarose gel Electrophoresis results of PCR amplification targeting the adpC gene from ten *P. intermedia* isolates.

Lane M: 100 bp DNA ladder used as a molecular marker. Lanes 1–10: Clinical isolates tested for the adpC gene. Positive samples show a band at 584 bp. Each lane is clearly labelled, and size markers aid in confirming correct amplification

### Discussion

The results of the current study concur with those reported by Papone et al., who studied 51 patients diagnosed with chronic periodontitis. Using traditional “microbial” microbiological techniques, these latter authors demonstrated the presence of *Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans* in all (100%) of these clinical specimens, with black-pigmented anaerobic bacteria. Monoplex PCR analysis revealed that the most commonly prevalent

bacteria were *P. gingivalis* (88%), *T. forsythia* (92%), and *F. nucleatum* (100%) (18).

Similar findings were found in the report of Van der Weijden et al., wherein *P. intermedia* and *A. actinomycetemcomitans* were the two most frequently detected species, found in 39% and 33% of sites, respectively. Among their study group, *P. intermedia*, *P. gingivalis*, and *A. actinomycetemcomitans* were recovered from 49 ( $P = 0.0007$ ), 35 ( $P 0.05$ ). In a similar study (19). Alazemi et al. reported a relatively less isolated *P. gingivalis* (33.3%) from periodontitis as

compared to other gingival pathogens. In their investigation, which included 30 peri-implant disease patients (14 men and 16 women between 35 and 60 years of age; mean age 45.8 years), they found 26 positive samples—19 for *P. intermedia* and 7 for *P. gingivalis*. In the 73 periapical samples examined, 4 (5.48%) were found to be positive for *P. intermedia* and none for *P. gingivalis*. Another subset of samples was positive in nine (12.33%) for only *P. intermedia*, and one sample (1.37%) was found positive for *P. gingivalis* (20).

In odontogenic stomatitis, *P. intermedia* and *F. nucleatum* were commonly found. In Brazilians suffering from periodontal infections, the most frequent species isolated were *P. gingivalis* (67%), *T. forsythia* (20%), and *A. actinomycetemcomitans* (13%) (21). Taba et al. confirmed these results, and *P. gingivalis* was identified in 26.7% and *A. actinomycetemcomitans* in 13% of 450 patients with periodontitis (22). In a case-control study performed in patients with oropharyngeal cancer, *P. intermedia* was detected in 83.3% (20/24), *P. gingivalis* in 66.7% (16/24), and *T. forsythia* in 41.7% (10/24) of cases, with significantly higher prevalence compared with the controls (23). The oral cavity hosts an extremely diverse microbiota, and more than 700 bacterial species have been identified to date, thus highlighting the complex microbial ecosystem that inhabits this site (24). Alteration in this equilibrium was related to the initiation of oral diseases, including caries, periodontitis, by and large owing to microbial dysbiosis (25).

While these findings are not in agreement with those of Choi et al., who detected the *P. nucleatum* to be the most prevalent bacterium in the salivary samples, followed by *P. anaerobius*, *P. intermedia*. Values of DNA copies of *P. denticola*, *Campylobacter rectus*, *Eikenella corrodens*, and *P. gingivalis* were relatively smaller. Such discrepancies may be due to differences in geographic region, genetic background, institutional protocol, personal hygiene, and the technical aspects of sample collection and DNA extraction (26).

Our results are supported by many previous studies that focused on the prevalence of *P. gingivalis* in patients with periodontitis and gingivitis. Those studies used both non-genomic culture methods and genetic methods (classical polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and real-time PCR to reveal the pathogen. For instance, Boutaga et al. assessed the sensitivity of RT-PCR vs. culture for the detection of *P. gingivalis* in subgingival plaque. Their findings showed *P. gingivalis* as 60% and 93.3% positive in group II and group III, respectively. In addition, a participant in group I was also positive for the

bacterium (27). Similar results have been reported by Kulkarni et al., who used real-time PCR and culture to study 259 samples obtained from subjects with severe periodontitis. *P. gingivalis* was detected in 111 (43%) samples by culture and 138 (53%) samples by real-time PCR, confirming the superior sensitivity of molecular assays (28).

Griffen et al. also confirmed these results by analysing 400 chronic periodontitis cases. Their results revealed 73% and 75% *P. gingivalis*-positive samples by culture and real-time PCR, respectively. For the chronic periodontitis group, detection rates were 89.5% by culture and 91.5% by real-time PCR. By comparison, the detection rates were 54.4% and 58.0% in the healthy control (29). In a study by Kugaji et al., 79.16% (95/120) chronic periodontitis cases were positive for *P. gingivalis* from the samples in a 120 healthy individual control group (35-29.17%). Our findings are consistent with the study conducted by Joshi et al, showing that 66% of chronic periodontitis patients were positive for *P. gingivalis* (30). Other studies have recorded even greater levels of prevalence, regularly over 80% (31, 32). *P. gingivalis* can be identified in healthy individuals but is usually found in lower abundance. This implies that it can transform from a commensal bacterium to a pathogenic organism under certain environmental and/or immunological circumstances (33). Mahdi et al. tested 30 samples of root canals and detected *P. intermedia* in 6 (20%) samples using molecular methods, and in 10 (33.3%) samples by culture and biochemical analysis (34). In line with this, Milsom et al. demonstrated a 33% detection rate of *P. intermedia* using PCR versus only a 13% detection rate by culture (35). Additional evidence, from Riggio et al., was demonstrated by the detection of *P. intermedia* in 38 of 97 subgingival plaque samples from adults through PCR (36). Several studies have reported the existence of remarkably high levels of *T. forsythia*, *P. intermedia*, and *P. gingivalis* in periodontitis patients at some sites, in some cases 20 times greater than those observed in healthy subjects (37).

In a nested case-control study, Castañeda-Corzo et al. demonstrated *P. intermedia* in 83.3% of PD patients as against 25% in healthy individuals, which was found to be a very significant difference [35].

Recent literature has highlighted the association between *P. intermedia* and various systemic diseases. It is virulent mainly due to its virulence factors, which include cysteine proteinases, adhesions, and strong biofilm formation. These properties allow the organism to invade host cells, facilitate colonisation by other pathogens, and manipulate host immune-mediated

responses, and are involved in the aetiology of periodontal and systemic diseases (1).

The results of the current study were consistent with previous studies, such as the study conducted by Belcheva et al., who reported on the transmission pattern of *C. gingivalis* from mothers and fathers (caregivers) to their children. In their study, the presence of bacteria was not significantly different in male and female caregivers (38). In a similar study, Kulkarni et al. evaluated 40 subjects in three groups, 60% of them females. These results were in line with those of a study that did not show a significant difference in the distribution of bacteria between males and females (28).

Kugaji et al. carried out a comparative analysis of the frequency of the presence of *P. gingivalis* between men and women in the SPCP and R groups. Thirty-six cases (61.01%) among the 59 male patients with periodontitis, and 20 (26.66%) male controls of 75 had positive samples. For women participants, the *P. gingivalis* detection rate in periodontitis patients was 77.04%, while that in the control group was 33.33%. In the overall population, the bacterium was found in 58.49% of females and 50.74% of males, without a statistically significant difference (30). Similarly, Ingalagi et al. reported that 72% of the periodontitis patients were culture positive for *P. gingivalis*, and 75% tested positive for *P. gingivalis* by real-time PCR, without any significant gender difference (39). A study by Abe et al. contextualised this remark by stating that while total bacterial loads were significantly higher in men than in women, the prevalence of pathogens also did not differ strikingly. The findings of this study were explained by hormonal variation and poorer oral hygiene practices in men (40). Choi et al. had also found consistent evidence of *F. nucleatum* at higher levels in males compared to females, supporting the gender-specific microbial load trend observed in the present study (26).

Tomazinho and Avila carried out a microbiological study of the microbiology of chronic endodontic infections by the bacteriological culture technique and detected *P. intermedia* in 75.6 % of the PCR-studied samples. No significant differences by gender were identified (41). Another study showed that the co-detection of *F. nucleatum* and *T. forsythia* was 100% in male subjects but was significantly lower in females at 83%. The combined detection rate of *P. gingivalis*, *T. forsythia*, and *F. nucleatum* was also higher in men (70%) than in women (39%) (18). Zhang et al. noted that the number of *P. intermedia* was higher than that of *P. gingivalis* in subgingival biofilm retrieved from pregnant women during the second and third trimesters. The results of hormonal changes of

pregnancy, which are known to irritate existing gingival inflammation (1).

In similar research, Usin et al. Detected *P. intermedia* in 3.3% of the gingival samples from pregnant women only during the first trimester. The detection of *P. intermedia* raised the odds of gingival inflammation (GMI > 2) by 51 times (42). In addition, experimental studies concerning gingivitis in pregnancy have recorded an increase in subgingival *P. intermedia* levels over time.

The findings of the present study were like observations of Kulkarni et al., in which 40 subjects were classified into three groups. The first group had an average age of 29.4±3.80 years, these cases had no infection. The second group had an average of 15 infected cases < 40.60±5.27 years; the third group had an average of infected patients < 45.66±5.08 years. *P. gingivalis* was detected in 10.00%, in 60.00%, and in 93.33% of non-infected, periodontitis, and chronic periodontitis individuals, respectively (28).

In the same line, Kugaji et al. observed a more substantial rate of *P. gingivalis* in patients between 41–50 and 51–62 years. Statistically significant difference was detected only between these two age groups, and no statistical difference was observed in younger age groups (21–30, 31–40) (33).

Alazemi et al. reported that *P. gingivalis* was present in 10 patients of group II and only in 2 healthy controls of the same age group (33.3 vs. 6.4%, respectively) (20). Kareem et al have performed a study in which they crafted grooves in the hyperopic eyes and analysed the frequency of *P. gingivalis* in COVID-19 patients. The mean age of the infected group and non-infected group was 51.04±13.25 and 47.08±11.45 years, respectively. Age > 40 years was the most affected. Although no statistically significant differences regarding age and gender were observed between the two groups (43).

Griffen et al. observed that subjects with periodontitis were 51.4 years old, and healthy subjects were aged 49.2 years. No significant association was found for detection of *P. gingivalis* with age; however, for older individuals, a higher detection rate was observed (29). Mättö et al. applied PCR to identify *P. gingivalis* in subjects 0–18 years old and demonstrated that it was present in 37% of the samples from all age groups, thus indicating that colonisation of the oral cavity can be initiated early in life (44, 45).

In paediatric patients, Tanaka and coworkers associated *P. intermedia* with halitosis in caries-active as well as caries-free children, showing no difference between the two groups (46). Okada et al. identified *P. intermedia* in 25% of gingivitis

and periodontitis, affected children aged 2 to 12 years, but found no positives in children without inflammation (47). Lie et al. found that 73% of the 22-year-old subjects were positive for *P. intermedia* (48).

Alazemi et al. also reported that *P. intermedia* was detected in 27 (90%) of 50–59-year-old individuals with periodontitis and in 30 (96.7%) age-matched, periodontally healthy subjects [18]. Merchant et al. evaluated adults aged 60 years or older and demonstrated that there was worse cognitive performance when the serum antibody level of IgG against *P. intermedia* in periodontally infected subjects was increased, revealing that the pathogen has a systemic effect (49). These results are contrary to those of Ambrosio et al., which were performed for 60 participants with an average age of 30 years. They found that *P. intermedia* was present in most infected sites (97%) while *F. nucleatum* was less frequently detected (50).

Fukui et al. 13 evaluated bacterial spread among family members and observed the presence of *P. intermedia* in the three members (mother, father, and son) of 6 families. A total of 293 strains were isolated (number of strains per individual: 5–20). Of the 18 individuals screened, 7 (39%) were identified to be carriers. The ages of the parents were between 36 and 49 years (average age 42.6 years), and the ages of the children ranged from 4 to 15 years (average age 11.0 years) (51). In the current study, there was also an age-related increase in the prevalence of *P. intermedia*. This finding is in line with the report by Umeda et al., who suggested that the severity of periodontitis is likely to be elevated with age based on cumulative damage to periodontal tissues over time rather than immunological failure due to ageing (52).

Our results are by the study of Rodrigues et al., which analysed several clinical parameters such as the gingival index, plaque index, PD, and BoP. Their study showed a *P. gingivalis* detection rate in 61.96% of clinical samples and was more prevalent in grade C periodontitis patients. The *fimA* genotype II type had strong correlations with increased probing depth and percentage of bleeding on probing sites (53). Several other investigations supported the pathogenic role of certain *fimA* genotypes. In this context, *fimA* II and IV genotypes by PCR analysis were observed in 3.6% and 0.7% of healthy subjects and 19.6% and 16.5% of periodontitis patients, respectively (54). Shimoyama et al. also reported *fimA* genotype I in 7.4% and type IV in 37% of apparently healthy children (55).

In another broader study that included 95 patients with periodontitis and 35 healthy individuals, *P. gingivalis* genotyping isolates showed the highest prevalence of *fimA* type II

among patients with periodontitis (55.89%), whereas *fimA* type IV was 30.52%. In healthy individuals, however, *fimA* type I (75.42%) was the predominant type. These results demonstrate a strong association of *fimA* types II and IV with periodontitis, while *fimA* type I is strongly associated with periodontal health (56). Krishnan et al. found that *fimA* type II was present in the chronic and aggressive periodontitis population at a frequency of 50.5% and 45.3%, respectively, versus 13.6% in healthy controls. The *prtC* gene was detected in a total of 28.9% and 33.3 % of chronic and aggressive periodontitis samples, respectively. In addition, the genetic combination *fimA*+/*prtC*+ was detected in 49.5% of the periodontitis patients, and only in 9.1% of the healthy individuals, and it again represents the integrated clinical significance of these genotypes (57).

Van der Ploeg et al. found *P. gingivalis* in 71% of those with periodontitis and 9% of periodontally healthy subjects. The majority (73%) of positive samples were infected with multiple *fimA* genotypes. Genotype II was the most common (60%), followed by genotype IV (20%), with genotypes I, III, and V being relatively infrequent (58). Zhao et al. similarly detected that *fimA* type I was 81.4 % prevalent in periodontally healthy subjects, whereas type II/IV was more highly detected in periodontitis (59).

This trend was similarly reflected in a European population study by Beikler et al.: genotype I was also the most prevalent in healthy individuals (60). In contrast, the work by Missailidis et al. 2 *fimA* genotype in Brazilian patients and inferred some possible geographic and ethnic variables that could justify the distribution of the genotypes between the populations (61).

For *P. intermedia*, examination of virulence genes indicated that 70% of the ten isolates harboured the *adp* gene. Rodriguez Herrero et al. showed that if the bacterial cultures are supplemented with dead *P. intermedia* or *P. gingivalis*, *adp* and *estP* genes are upregulated by 1.96–4.21-fold in comparison to cultures without addition (62). Sengupta et al. described the gene product of *adpF* as a leucine-rich repeat domain protein, which mediates bacterial uptake by eukaryotic cells (63). Similarly, Iyer et al. could demonstrate the internalin-like character of this protein in *P. intermedia* with a similar functional repertoire (64).

Taken together, these virulence factors substantially contribute to its pathotype interference with the host through invasion of host tissues, evasion of the immune response, and the establishment of persistent colonisation, confirming its role in chronic gingivitis or periodontitis (1).

### *Study limitations*

Several limitations should be acknowledged in this study. The relatively small sample size (n = 90) and the fact that participants were recruited from a single centre may restrict the extent to which these findings can be generalised to broader populations. Also, the reliance on PCR-based detection, while sensitive, carries fundamental risks of false negatives, especially due to primer mismatches or limitations in specificity, which are particularly relevant when dealing with genetically diverse strains of *P. gingivalis* and *P. intermedia*.

### **Conclusion**

The present investigation revealed again that *P. intermedia* and *P. gingivalis* were highly prevalent in gingivitis and periodontitis patients, *P. intermedia*. Age and sex were not significantly associated with bacterial load, although there was increased bacterial copy number among older subjects. The prevalence of *fimA* and *adpC* virulence factors in most of the isolates emphasises their significance in bacterial adherence and immune avoidance. These results indicate a possible role of molecular detection and gene profiling as useful approaches to establish the diagnosis and to monitor therapy in patients with periodontal diseases.

In summary, this investigation emphasises the major prevalence of *P. intermedia* and *P. gingivalis* among patients with periodontitis, with important virulence genes such as *fimA* and *adpC* frequently identified. The persistent detection of *fimA* emphasises its likely essential function in biofilm development and tissue invasion, supporting its potential as a promising target for therapeutic intervention in chronic periodontitis management (65). What's more, the observed higher incidence of *P. intermedia* compared to data from Western populations (66) suggests possible regional variability in oral microbial profiles. This variability emphasises the importance of developing prevention and treatment strategies personalised to specific populations. Future approaches could focus on targeting species-specific virulence mechanisms to effectively disrupt biofilm-related pathogenic processes.

Future research needs to incorporate longitudinal studies that track bacterial load and virulence gene expression before and after periodontal therapy. This approach can clarify the microbial dynamics over time. Also, implementing functional assays, such as gene knockout studies, will be valuable for confirming the specific roles of *fimA*, *adpC*, and other virulence factors in biofilm development and tissue invasion.

### **List of Abbreviations**

PCR: Polymerase chain reaction

qPCR: quantitative PCR

### **Declarations**

#### *Ethical consideration and consent to participate*

This research received ethical clearance from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of [University of Al-Qadisiyah], with approval number [IRB/2024/55]. Before sample collection, written informed consent was obtained from all participants or their legal guardians.

#### *Consent for Publication*

All the authors gave consent for the publication of the work under the Creative Commons Attribution Non-Commercial 4.0 license.

#### *Availability of Data*

Data for this work is available from the authors and may be provided upon reasonable request.

#### *Conflicts of Interest*

None.

#### *Funding*

None.

#### *Authors' contributions*

**ARS:** Designed the study, supervised clinical sample collection, performed statistical analysis, and contributed to manuscript drafting and critical revision.

**MHQ:** Conducted laboratory experiments including DNA extraction and real-time PCR, compiled and analysed molecular data, and participated in manuscript writing and figure preparation.

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