Mouse gingival single-cell transcriptomic atlas: An activated fibroblast subpopulation guides oral barrier immunity in periodontitis

Takeru Kondo [1,2], Annie Gleason [1,3], Hiroko Okawa [1,2], Akishige Hokugo [1,4], Ichiro Nishimura [1]*

[1]Weintraub Center for Reconstructive Biotechnology, UCLA School of Dentistry, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

[2]Division of Molecular and Regenerative Prosthodontics, Tohoku University Graduate School of Dentistry, Sendai, Miyagi 980-8575, Japan

[3]UCLA Bruin in Genomics Summer Program,

[4]Regenerative Bioengineering and Repair Laboratory, Division of Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery, Department of Surgery, David Geffen School of Medicine at UCLA, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

*Corresponding Author:

Ichiro Nishimura, DDS, DMSc, DMD

Weintraub Center for Reconstructive Biotechnology

UCLA School of Dentistry

Box 951668, CHS B3-087, Los Angeles, CA 90095, USA

Tel: +1 (310) 794-7612, Fax: +1 (310) 825-6345

E-mail: inishimura@dentistry. ucla.edu

Abstract

Chronic cardiovascular and metabolic diseases have been linked with oral inflammation in the tooth-supporting gingiva. Therefore, elucidating the mechanisms underlying development of gingival inflammation may hold critical insight into the pathogenesis of these debilitating non-communicable diseases. Here, we report a unique fibroblast subpopulation <u>a</u>ctivated to <u>g</u>uide oral inflammation (AG fibroblasts), identified in a single-cell RNA sequencing-based gingival cell atlas constructed from the mouse ligature-induced periodontitis model. Collagen-XIV-positive AG fibroblasts localized beneath gingival epithelium express chemokine ligands and Toll-like receptor-related molecules upon ligature placement, which were linked to receptors expressed by neutrophils and lymphocytes, including innate lymphoid cells (ILCs). We further identify ILCs as the primary source of proinflammatory interleukin-17 cytokines and show that cervical alveolar bone resorption is absent in $Rag2^{-/-}\gamma c^{-/-}$, but not $Rag2^{-/-}$, mice suggesting ILC3s mediate the human periodontitis-like phenotype. We therefore propose AG fibroblasts function as a previously unrecognized surveillant to orchestrate chronic gingival inflammation in periodontitis.

Introduction

The oral mucosa must constantly respond to a diverse array of oral microbes, as well as to dietary and airborne antigens, making it one of the most active barrier tissues in the human body[1, 2]. Consequently, oral barrier immunity acts as a crucial surveillance system, which must defend from pathogenic organisms, while ensuring sustained tolerance of commensal microbes and harmless antigens, without excessive inflammation[3]. Within this system, the junction between the gingiva and the tooth surface represents a weak link, wherein the initiation of localized inflammation often leads to chronic gingivitis and periodontitis. Once this gingival inflammation progresses, adjacent alveolar bone supporting the cervical area of the dentition is subjected to a localized, but often severe, osteoclastic bone resorption, resulting in tooth loss and disruption of the maxillofacial structure[4]. Globally, periodontitis ranks among the most significant contributors to poor health and decreased quality of life, imposing substantial economic and healthcare burdens, particularly in low- and middle-income countries[8]. It is therefore acutely important to elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying the initiation of gingival inflammation, in order to facilitate the development of effective preventive and therapeutic measures for this debilitating condition.

Critically, periodontitis is not only the most frequent cause of tooth loss in adults[5], it is also associated with a number of severe non-communicable diseases, such as metabolic and cardiovascular diseases. A recent systematic review revealed that type 2 diabetes mellitus patients had significantly worse periodontal status with more tooth loss, and the presence of severe periodontitis increased the incidence of type 2 diabetes mellitus by 53%[6]. Chronic inflammatory conditions are also known to increase the risk of cardiovascular diseases, including valvular heart disease. Recently, a possible association has been recognized between periodontal inflammation—distinct from transient bacteremia due to dental procedures—and

atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease[7]. Although a direct causal relationship between these

non-communicative diseases and periodontitis has not been established, it is postulated that

periodontitis triggers an inflammatory cascade that begins in oral barrier tissues and

subsequently spreads throughout the body. Thus, elucidating the mechanisms underlying

periodontitis development may further provide insight on the signaling pathways that induce and

sustain systemic inflammation.

Clinical characterization of periodontitis patients and observations made during treatment

have not yielded a comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms that promote periodontal

disease. Rather, our current model for the pathological framework of periodontitis has been

reconstructed from animal models, harvested immune cell analyses, and oral microbial

associations[4, 9]. Of particular importance has been the development of a ligature-induced

periodontitis model in mice, combined with targeted gene mutations[10]. This model has shown

that fully developed periodontal inflammation is closely associated with the abundant

recruitment and excessive activation of neutrophils[11] and pathological induction of interleukin

(IL)-17–secreting proinflammatory effector $CD4^+$ T helper (Th)17 cells[12]. Based on our current

understanding of osteoimmunology, it was hypothesized that these pathological immune cells

activate osteoclasts, leading to induction of periodontal alveolar bone resorption[13 14]. However,

the precise cascade of events leading to this pathological outcome has not been fully

deciphered.

Investigation of the molecular mechanisms underlying chronic inflammation in

immunological disorders is an intense area of research. Prior studies have shown that

chemokines are involved in the trafficking and activation of inflammatory cells during both

homeostasis and disease-associated inflammation[15]. These small proteins, which typically

contain disulfide cysteine–cysteine (CC) and cysteine–X–cysteine (CXC) molecular signatures,

act as ligands for cellular receptors that modulate inflammatory signaling pathways[16]. Such

chemokine–receptor networks direct the migration of inflammatory cells, potentially amplifying

the resulting tissue damage. However, in addition to immune cells, barrier tissues are also

composed of epithelial cells and fibroblastic stromal cells, and increasing evidence suggests

that stromal cells are involved in innate immune cell regulation[17, 18, 19, 20]. In particular, we and

others have found that oral fibroblasts secrete cytokines and chemokines in response to

microbial stimuli or a proinflammatory environment, suggesting a possible mechanism by which

they may regulate immune cell function[21, 22]. Therefore, a comprehensive elucidation of

chemokine–receptor signaling networks will likely need to include all types of gingival cells.

In the present study, to better understand the pathways contributing to chronic oral

inflammation, we determined the gingival single-cell transcriptomic atlas of mice with ligature-

induced periodontitis and identified a novel subpopulation of fibroblasts activated to guide

chronic inflammation (AG fibroblasts). Our findings suggest that chemokines and ligands

derived from AG fibroblasts bind to and activate receptors involved in neutrophil and lymphocyte

activation. We further show that *Cd4* innate lymphoid cells (ILCs) produce proinflammatory IL-

17 cytokines in the inflamed gingiva, and provide evidence that type 3 ILCs (ILC3s) are

responsible for cervical alveolar bone resorption in mice—a pathological feature consistent with

the human periodontitis phenotype. Thus, the results from this study identify the AG fibroblast–

neutrophil–ILC3 axis as a previously unrecognized mechanism contributing to pathological

inflammation in periodontitis.

Results

Alterations in major cell type proportions during periodontitis development

Periodontal disease was induced in C57BL/6J mice by placing a ligature around the maxillary left second molar[23]; gingival defect developed after Day 3 following ligature placement (**Figure 1A and B**). Three-dimensional (3D) reconstruction of micro-computed tomography (microCT) images (**Figure 1C**) further revealed a reduction in alveolar bone height starting from Day 3, which progressively increased on Day 7 (**Figure 1D—figure supplement 1**). Overall, the observed pattern of periodontal tissue degradation was consistent with that reported in previous studies[24, 25].

Left-side palatal gingiva tissue was harvested from mice on Day 0 (*i.e.*, healthy gingiva without ligature placement) and on Days 1, 4, and 7 after ligature placement, and gingival cells were dissociated for single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq)[22, 26]. On Days 0 and 1, the major cell types identified included epithelial cells expressing cadherin 1 (*Cdh1*)[27] and type XVII collagen (*Col17a1*)[28], fibroblasts expressing type I collagen (*Col1a1*)[29] and lumican (*Lum*)[30], B cells expressing membrane spanning 4 domains A1 (*Ms4a1*)[31] and cluster of differentiation 79A (*Cd79a*)[32], T cells expressing epsilon subunit of T cell receptor complex (*Cd3e*)[33] and cluster of differentiation 5 (*Cd5*)[34], and myeloid cells expressing lysozyme 2 (*Lyz2*)[35] and integrin subunit alpha M (*Itgam*)[36] (**Figure 1E and F—figure supplement 2**). On Days 4 and 7, an additional endothelial cell fraction expressing selectin P (*Selp*)[37] and selectin E (*Sele*)[38] emerged (**Figure 1E and F—figure supplement 2**), suggesting increased inflammatory neovascularization with the progression of periodontal inflammation. The proportion of B cells was increased on Day 1, and the proportion of myeloid cells increased progressively from Day 4 to 7 (**Figure 1F**). In addition, the proportion of fibroblasts was increased on Day 7 (**Figure 1F**).

Myeloid cell composition and activity during periodontitis development

The infiltration of proinflammatory neutrophils into the gingiva has been extensively characterized in this mouse model of periodontitis[11, 39]. Here, we found that macrophages expressing cluster of differentiation 86 (*Cd86*)[40] and integrin subunit alpha X (*Itgax*)[41] were predominant on Day 0 in the myeloid cell fraction from healthy gingiva (**Figure 2A and B— figure supplement 3**). In contrast, the proportion of neutrophils expressing CXC motif chemokine receptor (*Cxcr2*)[42] and G0/G1 switch gene 2 (*G0s2*)[43] increased after ligature placement and during periodontitis development from Day 1 to 7 (**Figure 2A and B—figure supplement 3**), suggesting continuous neutrophil infiltration into the early and established gingival lesion. Moreover, after ligature placement, gingival neutrophils upregulated the expression of triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 1 (*Trem1*), indicating that these cells are activated and participating in the amplification of inflammatory signals[44, 45] (**Figure 2C**). Strikingly, the *Trem1*-expressing activated neutrophils also show upregulation of matrix metalloproteinase 9 (*Mmp9*; **Figure 2C**)—a protein associated with extracellular matrix degeneration within gingival tissue[46]. We further detected expression of tumor necrosis factor alpha (*Tnfa*) and transforming growth factor beta 1 (*Tgfb1*) in both macrophages and neutrophils on Day 0 and after ligature placement (**Figure 2D**). Collectively, these myeloid cell behaviors are consistent with those reported in prior studies on periodontitis development, thus validating our scRNA-seq data.

Myeloid cells are also known to stimulate other immune cells through the expression of CC motif chemokine ligands (CCLs) and CXC motif chemokine ligands (CXCLs), many of which are associated with periodontitis development[47]. Our scRNA-seq analysis revealed that macrophages expressed *Ccl2*, *Ccl9*, Cxcl4, and *Cxcl6*, and neutrophils expressed *Ccl3*, *Ccl4*,

Ccl6, *Cxcl2,* and *Cxcl3* throughout periodontitis development (**Figure 2E and F**). These data

suggest that chemokines and cytokines produced by macrophages and neutrophils in inflamed

tissue may amplify and polarize the immune response toward chronic gingival inflammation.

Fibroblasts activated to guide leukocyte migration in periodontitis development

We previously identified two distinct subpopulations of gingival fibroblasts, differentiated by

expression of type XIV collagen (*Col14a1*)[22], and these were also detected in our current

scRNA-seq data from Day 0 to 7 (**Figure 3A**). Gene ontogeny (GO) enrichment analysis of the

Col14a1-expressing fibroblast subpopulation revealed expression of major gene clusters related

to immune regulation, including "Regulation of leukocyte migration" (**Figure 3B**). This immune

regulatory phenotype appears to be unique to *Col14a1*-expressing fibroblasts, which are

therefore referred to as 'fibroblasts activated to guide leukocyte migration' or AG fibroblasts. The

other subpopulation of *Col1a1*-expressing fibroblasts appeared to keep typical fibroblastic

features and is thus referred to as KT fibroblasts (**Figure 3C**). An additional fibroblast

subpopulation expressing smooth muscle aortic actin 2 (*Acta2*) was detected on Day 7, and

these were identified as myofibroblasts[48] (MF) (**Figure 3A**). We found that the proportions of KT

and AG fibroblasts were equal on Day 0 and on Days 1 and 4 after ligature placement (**Figure**

3E and F). However, on Day 7, the proportion of AG fibroblasts decreased, and the MF fraction

emerged (**Figure 3E and F**).

AG fibroblasts and immune surveillance in periodontitis development

To further characterize AG fibroblasts and their "Regulation of leukocyte migration" phenotype,

we analyzed expression of CCL and CXCL chemokines within fibroblast subpopulations in our

scRNA-seq dataset[13]. Results show that AG fibroblasts activated expression of *Ccl8, Ccl11,*

Ccl19, Cxcl1, Cxcl11, and *Cxcl12* immediately after ligature placement on Days 1 and 4 (**Figure**

4A). Chemokine expression levels then decreased on Day 7, suggesting that AG fibroblasts

might initiate early leukocyte migration into gingival tissue. Given that activation of Toll-like

receptors (TLR) is known to increase chemokine expression, we further assessed expression of

TLRs in fibroblast subpopulations. We found that AG fibroblasts displayed temporal activation of

Tlr2, Tlr3, and *Tlr4* expression on Days 1 and 4 (**Figure 4B**). Similarly, the TLR downstream

genes *Myd88, Irak1, Map3k7*, and *Rela* were also expressed on Days 1 and 4 (**Figure 4B**).

These data suggest that AG fibroblasts may guide the establishment of an early inflammatory

environment within the gingiva and thereby promote periodontitis pathogenesis.

To validate the presence of AG fibroblasts, Day 1 gingiva and periodontal tissue

histological sections were subjected to immunohistochemistry with antibodies against COL14A1

and CXCL12 (**Figure 4C**). We detected COL14A1- and CXCL12-positive AG fibroblasts

localized near gingival epithelial cells in the connective tissue papillae and free gingiva, as well

as in the cervical zone of the periodontal ligament (PDL) space (**Figure 4C**). We note that this

localization pattern of AG fibroblasts appears to be highly suitable for early immune surveillance

during periodontitis pathogenesis.

Role of AG fibroblasts in myeloid cell activation

The interaction between chemokine ligands and their receptors has been extensively studied.

Here, to evaluate the interaction between chemokine ligands strongly expressed by AG

fibroblasts and chemokine receptors in innate immune cells, we matched AG fibroblast-

expressed chemokines to expression of their putative receptors in myeloid cells. Results show

that AG fibroblasts may regulate macrophages via the expression *Ccl8* and *Ccl11*, which

encode chemokines that can interact with CC chemokine receptors (CCRs) encoded by *Ccr2*

and *Ccr5* in macrophages. Similarly, gene expression signatures suggest that AG fibroblast-

mediated neutrophil regulation may occur through CCL8–CCR1, CXCL1–CXCR2, and

CXCL12–CXCR4 interactions (**Figure 5A and B**). Notably, all chemokine–receptor pairs are

expressed throughout periodontitis development, although expression of factors mediating the

interaction between AG fibroblasts and macrophages was decreased on Day 7.

Intercellular communication may occur via other ligand–receptor interactions, which

induce downstream target gene expression in recipient cells. Here, we performed NicheNet

analysis to identify potential interactions between gingival fibroblasts and myeloid cells,

revealing a trend toward increasing ligand–target interactions between fibroblasts and myeloid

cells from Day 1 to Day 7 (**Figure 5C and D**). On Day 1, ligand expression was present

primarily in AG fibroblasts (**Figure 5E**), whereas on Day 7, MF fibroblasts also exhibited

prominent ligand expression (**Figure 5F**). Analysis of target gene expression revealed that both

macrophages and neutrophils expressed receptors capable of interacting with AG fibroblast

ligands on Day 1 (**Figure 5G**). In contrast, on Day 7, receptor expression was almost

exclusively present in neutrophils, suggesting these cells are primarily targeted by MFs and AG

fibroblasts at later stages of periodontitis development (**Figure 5H**).

T cells and ILCs in periodontitis development

We next analyzed expression of T cell-related genes in our scRNA-seq dataset and found that

the Day 0 healthy gingiva exclusively contained Th cells expressing *Cd4*[49]. However, after

ligature placement, cytotoxic T (Tc) cells expressing *Cd8*[49] emerged, and on Day 7, *Cd4*⁻

Zbtb16⁺ ILCs and *Cd4*⁺*Foxp3*⁺ regulatory T (Treg) cells[50] were also detected (**Figure 6A and B**).

The ILCs expressed *Nfil3*, a basic leucine zipper (bZIP) transcription factor required for ILC

development[51] (**Figure 6C**). However, to our surprise, expression of *Rorγ*, *Il17a*, and *Il17f* was

only detected in ILCs (**Figure 6C**), indicating that this gingival subpopulation is predominantly

composed of ILC3s.

ILC3s and Th17 cells share similar regulatory functions. However, the role of ILC3s in

osteoimmunology has not been fully deciphered. Macrophage-colony stimulating factor (M-CSF),

encoded by *Csf1,* and receptor activator of nuclear factor kappa-B ligand (RANKL), encoded by

Tnfsf11, are known to play critical roles in osteoclast induction. We found that in gingival tissue,

AG fibroblasts and neutrophils are the primary cellular sources of *Csf1*; ILC3s also express this

gene*,* albeit at lower levels (**Figure 6E**). Expression of *Tnfsf11* was detected in AG fibroblasts

and ILC3s (**Figure 6G**). These observations suggest that ILC3s may function as inducers of

inflammatory osteoimmune responses, similar to Th17 cells, leading to osteoclastogenesis in

periodontitis downstream of AG fibroblast activation.

ILC3s are critical for cervical alveolar bone resorption in the mouse periodontitis model

We next examined the role of ILC3s in periodontitis pathogenesis by measuring ligature-induced

gingival defects and alveolar bone resorption in Rag2$^{-/-}$ mice, which lack functional B, Th, and

Tc cells, and *Rag2*–IL-2 receptor common gamma (*Il2rg*) double-knockout mice (Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$),

lacking all lymphocytes, including ILCs. After ligature placement, gingival defects developed

similarly in wild-type (WT), Rag2$^{-/-}$, and Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$ mice (**Figure 7A and B**). However, we found

that alveolar bone loss was decreased in Rag2$^{-/-}$ mice and nearly eliminated in Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$ mice

(**Figure 7C and D—figure supplement 4A**). MicroCT image analysis further indicated a better

perseveration of alveolar bone structure in Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$ mice, relative to the other groups (**Figure**

7C—figure supplement 4B). Histologically, osteoclastic resorption lacunae were observed on

the alveolar bone surface at the cervical PDL and tooth apex PDL zones only in WT mice

(**Figure 7E and F**). In addition, we detected a significant decrease in the number of tartrate-

resistant acid phosphatase (TRAP)-positive osteoclasts in the cervical PDL zone of Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$

mice and in the apical PDL zone of both Rag2$^{-/-}$ and Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$ mice (**Figure 7G and H**).

Collectively, these data suggest that ILC3s, not Th17 cells, are responsible for cervical alveolar

bone resorption in the mouse periodontitis model, a pathological phenotype consistent with

human disease.

The role of AG fibroblasts and neutrophils in ILC3 development in periodontitis

Based on our present data, we hypothesize that ILC3s within the gingival tissue play a

pathological role in alveolar bone resorption in our mouse model. We therefore aimed to identify

the cells that promote ILC3 development in mice. Similar to Th17 cells, ILC3 development was

shown to be triggered by IL-6 and IL-23a[52, 53]. A survey of our scRNA-seq data identified

epithelial cells, fibroblasts, and myeloid cells as the source of *Il6* in gingival tissue (**Figure 8A**).

On Days 1 and 4 following ligature placement, AG fibroblasts primarily expressed *Il6,* whereas

neutrophils became the predominant source on Day 7. We further found that gingival epithelial

cells comprise at least four different subpopulations, plus an additional group displaying an

epithelial–mesenchymal transition (EMT) phenotype on Day 7; *Il6* was expressed by several of

these epithelial subpopulations, including the EMT subgroup (**Figure 8A—figure supplement**

5A–D). *Il23a* was also detected in AG fibroblasts and myeloid cells (**Figure 8B**), with expression

present in all epithelial cell subsets at various points in periodontitis development (**Figure 8B—**

figure supplement 5D).

Lastly, we evaluated potential interactions between chemokine ligands expressed by AG

fibroblasts and neutrophils and chemokine receptors in innate immune cells. Our data suggest

the presence of a chemokine–receptor association between ILC3s and both AG fibroblasts

(**Figure 8C**) and neutrophils (**Figure 8D**), although interactions with other innate immune cells

are also possible. NicheNet analysis further identified potential ligand–target gene associations

between lymphocytes, including ILC3s, and both fibroblasts (**Figure 8E**) and myeloid cells

(**Figure 8F**). Ligand expression was more prominent in AG fibroblasts than in other fibroblast

subpopulations (**Figure 8G**) and elevated in neutrophils relative to macrophages (**Figure 8H**).

Additionally, target gene expression was detected in ILC3s, although it was not specific to these

cells (**Figure 8I, J**). Thus, in total, our data suggest a regulatory role for a newly identified AG

fibroblast subpopulation in the gingiva, which appears to orchestrate chronic gingival

inflammation, at least in the early stages, and to promote alveolar bone resorption via

stimulation of neutrophils and ILC3s.

Discussion

In this study, we used scRNA-seq to generate a gingival cell transcriptomic atlas across the time course of periodontal inflammation development, leading to pathological alveolar bone resorption, in a mouse ligature-induced model of disease. Our results suggest the presence of a unique and previously uncharacterized subpopulation of gingival fibroblasts, referred to as AG fibroblasts, which show upregulated expression of TLRs and chemokines immediately after ligature placement (**Figure 3 and 4**). Previous studies have proposed that TLR-expressing gingival fibroblasts regulate innate immune responses in the oral barrier tissue[54, 55]; however, the precise mechanisms underlying this fibroblast-mediated regulation remained poorly understood. Here, we found that not all gingival fibroblasts acquired an immune-sensing capability, but rather, AG fibroblasts represent a distinct fibroblast subpopulation, capable of upregulating TLRs and potentially responding to microbial and tissue damage signals. Consistent with this possibility, the temporal expression of TLRs was found to be associated with increased expression of CC and CXC chemokine ligands.

The signature gene of AG fibroblasts is *Col14a1*, which encodes a member of the Fibril-Associated Collagen with Interrupted Triple-helices (FACIT) superfamily[56]. To our knowledge, our present findings represent the first observation of COL14A1 in the gingiva (**Figure 4**). However, in a previous study, we detected COL14A1-positive AG fibroblasts immediately under the gingival epithelium and in the cervical region of PDL, making them ideally situated to mediate immune surveillance for oral stimuli and microbial signals[22]. Given the strategic localization within the gingiva and the temporal expression of TLRs and chemokines after ligature placement, we hypothesize that AG fibroblasts play a previously unrecognized role in innate immune regulation during periodontitis development.

Neutrophils are well-established as crucial players in periodontitis progression. One study

found that gingival neutrophils in chronic periodontitis patients are longer-lived than those from

healthy patients[57]. Moreover, it was shown that dysregulated neutrophils can induce destruction

of periodontal connective tissue through the production of toxic molecules, such as reactive

oxygen species, leading to initiation of bone resorption[58, 59]. Critically, neutrophil function in

periodontitis is dependent on trafficking to the affected gingiva, and accordingly, we found that

the proportion of neutrophils increased after ligature placement (**Figure 2**). Neutrophils were

previously reported to express a relatively limited number of chemokine receptors, including

CXCR2, CXCR4, and CCR1[60, 61]. Consistent with prior studies, we detected expression of these

chemokine receptors in gingival neutrophils and linked them to ligands expressed by AG

fibroblasts—CXCL1, CXCL12, and CCL8, respectively (**Figure 5).** In addition to chemokines,

neutrophils can respond to various chemoattractants that modulate and finetune various cellular

behaviors, such as migration direction, adhesion strength, and functional heterogeneity[62]. Here,

we observed evidence for substantial intracellular communication between AG fibroblasts and

neutrophils through ligand–target gene interactions (**Figure 5**). Although validation of each

putative ligand–receptor interaction is beyond the scope of this study, our data suggest that AG

fibroblasts may play an important role in neutrophil trafficking in both early and established

periodontitis lesions.

A primary pathological consequence of periodontitis is uncontrolled alveolar bone

resorption, leading to tooth loss, which is thought to be mediated by osteoimmune pathways

involving IL-17–expressing Th17 cells[63]. In contrast, analysis of our scRNA-seq revealed

expression of *Rorγ, Il17a*, and *Il17f* not in CD4$^+$ Th cells, but rather, in lymphocytes with ILC

characteristics (**Figure 6**). ILCs share phenotypic and functional features with CD4$^+$ T cells,

although they lack antigen-specific T cell receptors[51]. In particular, the gingival ILCs detected in

our study strongly expressed *Rorγ*, *Il17a,* and *Il17f,* but not *Tbx21* and *Gata3,* indicating they

are ILC3s, which are functionally similar to Th17 cells. Notably, recent clinical studies have

reported the presence of ILCs in gingiva from human periodontitis patients[64, 65] and leptin

receptor–deficient mice[66]. However, the specific role of these cells in alveolar bone loss had not

been previously established.

In the present study, we explored the role of ILC3s in periodontitis-associated bone loss

using $Rag2^{-/-}$ and $Rag2^{-/-}γc^{-/-}$ mice and observed differential patterns of alveolar bone resorption

following ligature placement in these animals. $Rag2^{-/-}$ mutation prevents V(D)J recombination

required for generating immunoglobulin and T cell receptors, resulting in the production of

functionally immature B and T cells, including Th17 cells. However, ILCs do not undergo

genomic receptor rearrangements and, thus, are unaffected by $Rag2^{-/-}$ mutation. In contrast,

$Rag2^{-/-}γc^{-/-}$ mice have the $Rag2^{-/-}$ mutation in combination with the $Il2rg^{-/-}$ mutation, which

disables common γ chain cytokines (γc). Therefore, in addition to non-functional B and T cells,

these animals also have defective γc-dependent ILCs. Here, we found that $Rag2^{-/-}$ mice

contained a reduced number of osteoclasts in the apical PDL area, indicative of reduced bone

resorption in this region, whereas a significant loss of bone resorption was present in both the

cervical and apical PDL areas of $Rag2^{-/-}γc^{-/-}$ mice (**Figure 7**). Human periodontitis induces

alveolar bone at the cervical PDL zone relative to the gingival legion. In contrast, apical alveolar

bone resorption is observed in clinical cases of root canal infection (apical periodontitis).

Therefore, our findings suggest that ILCs, which are differentially impacted by $Rag2^{-/-}γc^{-/-}$ *vs.*

$Rag2^{-/-}$ mutation, may be involved in human periodontitis-like alveolar bone resorption near the

site of gingival inflammation. It must be noted that $Rag2^{-/-}$ and $Rag2^{-/-}γc^{-/-}$ mice developed

gingival defects similar to WT mice. However, this observation may be explained by results from

our previous study, which suggest that early gingival degradation in the mouse model is

mediated by cathepsin K (CTSK) secreted from gingival fibroblasts[22], rather than by activated

lymphocytes.

Differentiation of ILC3s and Th17 cells is mediated by similar environmental cues, with IL-

6 and IL-23a playing critical roles in both pathways[67, 68]. Our present scRNA-seq data (**Figure 8**)

suggest that AG fibroblasts and neutrophils are the primary cellular sources of *Il6* during the

early and later stages, respectively, of periodontitis development. In contrast, *Il23a* was found to

be expressed by a variety of cell types, such as AG fibroblasts, myeloid cells, and multiple

subsets of epithelial cells, including those with an EMT phenotype[69]. Further, CC and CXC

chemokine–receptor associations between ILC3s and both AG fibroblasts and neutrophils

appeared to be non-specific. Therefore, our data suggest that rather than a specific trigger, the

collective gingival environment, which includes AG fibroblasts, might contribute to ILC3

differentiation.

In conclusion, based on our present findings, we propose that a previously unrecognized

AG fibroblast subpopulation in the gingiva can facilitate immune surveillance and participate in

the pathological regulation of innate immune cells, such as proinflammatory neutrophils, within

oral barrier tissue (**Figure 9**). Moreover, we hypothesize that ILC3s in the inflamed gingiva play

a critical role in pathological alveolar bone resorption in the mouse model of periodontitis and,

potentially, in human disease. Thus, the newly proposed AG fibroblast–neutrophil–ILC3 axis

may hold valuable clues for unraveling the pathological mechanisms underlying periodontitis

development. Moreover, these findings also provide a basis for investigation of new preventive

and therapeutic strategies to contain oral barrier inflammation and potentially sever the link

between periodontitis and debilitating non-communicative metabolic and cardiovascular

diseases.

Methods

Animal care

All protocols for animal experiments were reviewed and approved by the University of California

Los Angeles (UCLA) Animal Research Committee (ARC# 2003-009) and followed the Public

Health Service Policy for the Humane Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and the UCLA

Animal Care and Use Training Manual guidelines. C57BL/6J WT, Rag2$^{-/-}$, and Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$ mice

were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME, USA). Animals had free access

to regular rodent diet and water and were maintained in standard housing conditions with 12-h

light/dark cycles in the Division of Laboratory Animal Medicine at UCLA.

Evaluation of gingival defect and alveolar bone resorption in a ligature-induced mouse

model of periodontitis

A silk thread was gently tied around the left maxillary second molar of 8- to 12-week-old female

WT, Rag2$^{-/-}$, and Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$ mice under general inhalation anesthesia with isoflurane (Henry

Schein, Melville, NY, USA). On Days 1, 3, and 7 after ligature placement, WT mice were

randomly chosen and euthanized by 100% CO_2 inhalation. WT mice without ligature placement

were used as Day 0 pre-periodontitis control. Rag2$^{-/-}$ and Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$ mice were euthanized on

Day 7. The palatal tissue was digitally photographed, and maxillae were harvested and fixed in

10% buffered formalin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The gingival defect area

was measured from digital photographs, using the ImageJ Java-based image-processing

program (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA), and normalized to the circumferential area of the maxillary

first molar. Fixed maxillae were subjected to microCT imaging at an energy level of 60 kV and

166 µA, and 3D images were reconstructed from microCT scans (Skyscan 1275: Bruker,

Billerica, MA, USA). Alveolar bone loss was assessed at three sites (mesiobuccal cusp,

distobuccal cusp, and distal cusp) of the first molar, two sites (mesiobuccal cusp and distobuccal cusp) of the second molar, and one site (buccal cusp) of the third molar by measuring the distance from the cementoenamel junction (CEJ) to the alveolar bone crest (ABC) on the buccal and palatal side of the alveolar bone. Total bone loss was calculated from the six-site total CEJ–ABC distance. The bone volume/total volume (BV/TV) ratio, bone surface, trabecular number (Tb.N), and trabecular thickness (Tb.Th) in the buccal side of alveolar bone of the second molar were determined using the proprietary analysis program (CTan: Bruker, Billerica, MA, USA). Statistical analysis to assess differences among multiple experimental groups was performed using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's multiple-comparison test; $p < 0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

Single cell dissociation from mouse maxillary gingiva

On Days 1, 4, and 7 after ligature placement, mice were euthanized by 100% CO_2 inhalation. And maxillary gingival tissues ($n = 4$ per group) were harvested from freshly isolated mouse maxillae.

Collagenase II treatment: The tissues were cut into 1-mm pieces and placed immediately into digestion buffer, containing 1-mg/ml collagenase II (Life Technologies, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), 10-units/ml DNase I (Sigma–Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), and 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma–Aldrich) in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM; Life Technologies). The tissues were incubated in digestion buffer for 20 min at 37 °C on a shaker at 150 rpm and then passed through a 70-μm cell strainer. The collected cells were pelleted at 1,500 rpm for 10 min at 4 °C and resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Life Technologies), supplemented with 0.04% BSA (Cell suspension A).

Trypsin treatment: Immediately following collagenase II treatment, tissues were incubated in

0.25% trypsin (Life Technologies) and 10-units/ml DNase I for 30 min at 37 °C on a 150-rpm

shaker. Trypsin was neutralized with fetal bovine serum (Life Technologies), and the tissues

were passed through a 70-µm cell strainer and washed with DMEM. The collected cells were

then pelleted at 1,500 rpm for 10 min at 4 °C and resuspended in PBS with 0.04% BSA (Cell

suspension B). Cell suspension A and Cell suspension B were combined in one tube. An equal

number of combined cell suspensions A and B from four animals per group were combined for

scRNA-seq analysis (10X Genomics, San Francisco, CA, USA).

Cell clustering and Identification

Cell Ranger was used to align reads, generate feature–barcode matrices, and perform

clustering and gene expression analyses on the scRNA-seq data, and the output from this

program was analyzed using the R-program Seurat (https://satijalab.org/seurat/). Cells with

<2,400 genes detected or >1% mitochondrial gene expression were filtered out as low-quality

cells. Individual gene counts for each cell were divided by the total gene counts for that cell and

multiplied by a scale factor of 10,000; natural-log transformation was then applied to the counts.

The FindVariableFeatures function was used to select 2,000 variable genes with default

parameters, and the ScaleData function was used to scale and center the counts in the dataset.

Principal component analysis and Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection dimensional

reduction were performed on variably expressed genes. The cluster markers were found using

the FindAllMarkers function, and cell types were manually annotated based on the cluster

markers. Cell types were assigned based on expression of cell marker genes, and gene

expression within different cell types was displayed using dot plots and violin plots.

Histological analysis

Fixed maxillae were decalcified in 10% EDTA (Sigma–Aldrich) for 3 weeks and then embedded in paraffin. Histological cross-sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (HE) and evaluated on a light microscope. Adjacent paraffin sections (4 µm) were subjected to a heat-induced epitope retrieval procedure and then immunohistochemically stained with polyclonal antibodies to COL14A1 (#PA5-49916, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and CXCL12 (#PA5-30603, Thermo Fisher Scientific) at a 1:100 dilution, followed by secondary antibody application, diaminobenzidine staining, and methylene blue counterstaining.

Using maxillary cross-sections of WT, $Rag2^{-/-}$, and $Rag2^{-/-}\gamma c^{-/-}$ mice, osteoclasts were evaluated by TRAP staining using a commercially available kit (Acid Phosphatase TRAP kit, Sigma–Aldrich), according to the manufacturer's instructions. TRAP-positive cells were counted in the 0.01-mm^2 area. Statistical analysis to assess the differences among multiple experimental groups was performed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparison test; $p < 0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

Functional annotation and pathway enrichment analysis

Annotation and visualization of GO terms were performed by Metascape (http://metascape.org/gp/index.html#/main/step1). The top-100 differentially expressed genes in each population were input and filtered with the term "immune". Filtered genes were then input, and only "biological process" gene sets were retrieved from the GO database.

Ligand–target matrix prediction

NicheNet (v.1.0.0, https://github.com/saeyslab/nichenetr) was used to predict interactions between cell types. In brief, the integrated Seurat object containing each cell subpopulation was

input into the NicheNet Seurat wrapper. Sender cells and receiver cells were determined, and

interactions between active ligands expressed by sender cells and target receptors expressed

by receiver cells were predicted based on information in signaling and ligand–receptor

databases.

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Author contributions

I.N. conceptualized the project and obtained funding. T.K. and A.H. performed animal studies.

H.O. collected microCT data from the animal model. T.K. and A.G. performed scRNA-seq and

data analysis. T.K. and I.N. drafted the manuscript. All authors gave final approval and agreed

to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

Competing interests

I.N. is a consultant for FUJI FILM Corp and BioVinc LLC and received a research fund from

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other authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability statement

We specify where the data supporting the results of this study can be found and provide

hyperlinks to publicly archived datasets analyzed or generated during the study, where

applicable. scRNA-seq data are found in NIH Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE228635).

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 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Changes in proportions of major cell types during periodontitis development in mice.

(**A**) A ligature (5.0 silk suture) was placed around the maxillary second molar (M2) of wild-type

(WT) mice. Representative intra-oral photographs of the maxilla on Day 0, prior to ligature

placement (healthy gingiva), and on Days 1, 3, and 7 after ligature placement. (**B**) The gingival

defect area was measured and normalized to the circumferential area of the maxillary first molar

(M1) (n = 6). Gingival defects appeared on Day 3. (**C**) Representative micro-computed

tomography (microCT) images of the maxilla taken from the lateral view. (**D**) Alveolar bone loss

was determined from the total distance between the cementoenamel junction (CEJ) and the

alveolar bone crest (ABC) of the buccal or palatal bone at six sites in the ligated side (n = 6).

Alveolar bone loss was apparent on Day 7. (**E**) Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) t-

distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (t-SNE) projection plots showing the major cell types

present within gingival tissue during periodontitis development on Day 0, 1, 4, and 7. Colors

indicate cell type, as follows: green, epithelial cells; blue, fibroblasts; pink, endothelial cells;

yellow, B cells; red, T cells; and purple, myeloid cells. (**F**) Proportion plots showing the relative

amounts of each major cell type on Days 0, 1, 4, and 7. Significance was determined by

analysis of variance (ANOVA), with Tukey's multiple-comparison test (**B**, **D**). Data are presented

as mean values ± standard deviation (SD); $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Figure 2. Myeloid cell composition and activity in gingival tissue during in periodontitis

development. (**A**) *t*-SNE projection plots showing myeloid cell subpopulations in gingival tissue

during periodontitis development on Days 0, 1, 4, and 7. Colors indicate cell type, as follows:

green, macrophages and red, neutrophils. (**B**) Proportion plots showing the relative amounts of

neutrophils and macrophages on Days 0, 1, 4, and 7. (**C**) Violin plots showing *Trem1* and *Mmp9*

expression levels in myeloid cells on Days 0, 1, 4, and 7; both genes are upregulated in

neutrophils after ligature placement. (**D**) Violin plots showing *Tgfb1* and *Tnfa* expression in

myeloid cells on Days 0, 1, 4, and 7; no obvious induction is observed in response to ligature

placement. Dot plots depicting expression levels of the C motif chemokine ligand (CCL) genes

Ccl2, *Ccl3*, *Ccl4*, *Ccl6*, *Ccl9* (**E**), and the CXC motif chemokine ligand (CXCL) genes *Cxcl2*,

Cxcl3, *Cxcl4,* and *Cxcl9* (**F**). Chemokine expression in myeloid cells was unrelated to

progression of gingival inflammation from Day 1 to 7.

Figure 3. Fibroblasts activated to guide leukocyte migration (AG fibroblasts) are one of three fibroblast subpopulations in gingival tissue during periodontitis development. (**A**) Violin plots showing gene expression levels of type I collagen (*Col1a1*), type XIV collagen (*Col14a1*), and smooth muscle aortic actin 2 (*Acta2*) in gingival fibroblast subpopulations during periodontitis development. AG, AG fibroblasts; KT, 'keep typical' (KT) fibroblasts; MF, myofibroblasts. Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of the biological functions of AG fibroblasts and KT fibroblasts on Day 0 without ligature placement (**B**) and on Day 1 (**C**) and Day 7 (**D**) after ligature placement. Gene clusters related to immune regulation (red) were identified in AG fibroblasts, and these clusters dominate after ligature placement. (**E**) *t*-SNE projection plots showing fibroblast subpopulations in gingival tissue during periodontitis development. Colors indicate cell type, as follows: blue, KT fibroblasts; red, AG fibroblasts; and yellow, MFs. (**F**) Proportion plots showing the relative amounts of each fibroblast subpopulation on Days 0, 1, 4, and 7.

Figure 4. AG fibroblasts and immune surveillance in periodontitis development. (**A**) Dot plots

depicting expression levels of the CCL genes *Ccl8*, *Ccl11*, *Ccl19*, *Cxcl1*, *Cxcl9*, *Cxcl11*, and

Cxcl12 in gingival fibroblast subpopulations during periodontitis development. (**B**) Dot plots

depicting expression levels of the Toll-like receptor and related genes *Tlr2*, *Tlr3*, *Tlr4*, *Myd88*,

Irak1, *Map3k7*, and *Rela* in gingival fibroblast subpopulations during periodontitis development.

Upregulation of chemokines and TLR-related molecules is predominantly observed in the AG

fibroblast subpopulation. (**C**) Hematoxylin and eosin (HE) staining and immunohistochemical

(IHC) staining for COL14A1 and CXCL12 in periodontal tissue on Day 1; scale bars, 100 μm

(HE) and 20 μm, (IHC). Yellow arrows indicate COL14A1- and CXCL12-positive cells in the

connective tissue papillae and periodontal ligament (PDL).

Figure 5. Role of AG fibroblasts in myeloid cell activation. Interaction between chemokine

ligands expressed by AG fibroblasts and their putative chemokine receptors expressed by

myeloid cells during periodontitis development. Dot plots depicting expression levels of the CC

chemokine receptor (CCR) and the CXC chemokine receptor (CXCR) genes *Ccr1*, *Ccr2*, *Ccr5*,

Ccr7, *Cxcr2*, *Cxcr3*, and *Cxcr4* in myeloid cell subpopulations on Day 1 (**A**) and Day 7 (**B**)

following ligature placement. NicheNet ligand–target matrix indicating the regulatory potential

between active ligands expressed in fibroblasts and target genes expressed in myeloid cells

from the p-EMT program on Day 1 (**C**) and Day 7 (**D**). (**E**) Dot plot depicting expression levels of

active ligand genes from panel (**C**) in fibroblast subpopulations on Day 1. (**F**) Dot plots depicting

expression levels of active ligand genes from panel (**D**) in fibroblast subpopulations on Day 7.

(**G**) Dot plot depicting expression levels of target genes from panel (**C**) in myeloid cell

subpopulations on Day 1. (**H**) Dot plot depicting expression levels of target genes from panel (**D**)

in myeloid cell subpopulations on Day 7. Results suggest a strong intercellular communication

network from AG fibroblasts to neutrophils.

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Figure 6. T cell subpopulations in periodontitis development. (**A**) Proportion plots showing the

relative amounts of T cell subpopulations in gingival tissue during periodontitis development.

Treg, T regulatory cells; ILC, innate lymphoid cells; Th, T helper cells; Tc, cytotoxic T cells. (**B**)

Violin plots showing expression levels of the T cell marker genes *Cd8* (Tc), *Cd4* (Th), *Zbtb16*

(ILC), and *Foxp3* (Treg) on Day 7 following ligature placement. (**C**) Violin plots showing

expression levels of *Nfil3*, *Rorγ*, *Il17a*, *Il17f*, *Tbx21*, and *Gata3* on Day 7 following ligature

placement. These gene signatures indicate that gingival ILCs primarily comprise type 3 ILCs

(ILC3s). (**D**) Violin plots showing expression levels of the macrophage-colony stimulating factor

(M-CSF)-encoding gene, *Csf1* (M-CSF), in each major cell type. (**E**) Violin plots showing

expression levels of *Csf1* in fibroblast subpopulations, myeloid cell subpopulations, and T cell

subpopulations. (**F**) Violin plots showing expression levels of the nuclear factor kappa-B ligand

(RANKL)-encoding gene, *Tnfsf11,* in each major cell type. (**G**) Violin plots showing expression

levels of *Tnfsf11* in fibroblast subpopulations, myeloid cell subpopulations, and T cell

subpopulations.

Figure 7. ILC3s are critical for cervical alveolar bone resorption in the mouse periodontitis

model. (**A**) Representative intra-oral photographs of maxilla from WT, Rag2$^{-/-}$, and Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$

mice taken on Day 7 following ligature placement. (**B**) The gingival defect area was measured

and normalized to the circumferential area of M1 (n = 5). (**C**) Representative microCT images of

the maxilla taken from the lateral view for the ligated side and from the contralateral view for the

unligated side. (**D**) Alveolar bone loss was determined from the total distance between the CEJ

and the ABC of the buccal bone or palatal bone at six sites in the ligated side (n = 6). (**E**) HE

staining of the periodontal tissue on Day 7. gCT, gingival connective tissue; Bone, alveolar

bone; PDL, periodontal ligament; scale bars, 100 μm. (**F**) Tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase

(TRAP) staining of periodontal tissue from WT mice on Day 7; scale bar, 100 μm. Total number

of TRAP-positive cells in a 0.01 mm^2-area of the buccal and palatal bone in the cervical PDL

site (**G**) and apical PDL site (**H**) (n = 6). Significance was determined by ANOVA, with Tukey's

multiple-comparison test (**D**, **G**, **H**). Data are presented as mean values ± SD; p < 0.05 was

considered significant.

Figure 8. The role of AG fibroblasts and neutrophils in ILC3 development in periodontitis. Violin

plots showing expression levels of the genes encoding interleukin (IL)-6 (*Il6*) (**A**) and IL-23

(Il23a) (**B**) in each major cell type, fibroblast subpopulations, and myeloid cell subpopulations

during periodontitis development. (**C**) Interaction between chemokine ligands strongly

expressed by AG fibroblasts and their putative chemokine receptors expressed by T cells,

including ILCs. Dot plots depict gene expression levels of *Ccr1*, *Ccr2*, *Ccr5*, *Ccr7*, *Ccr8*, *Cxcr2*,

Cxcr3, and *Cxcr4* in T cell subpopulations on Day 7 following ligature placement. (**D**) Interaction

between chemokine ligands strongly expressed by neutrophils and their putative chemokine

receptors expressed by T cells. Dot plots depicting gene expression levels of *Ccr1*, *Ccr4*, and

Ccr5 in T cell subpopulations on Day 7 following ligature placement. (**E**) NicheNet ligand–target

matrix denoting the regulatory potential between active ligands in fibroblasts and target genes in

T cells from the p-EMT program on Day 7 following ligature placement. (**F**) NicheNet ligand–

target matrix denoting the regulatory potential between active ligands in myeloid cells and target

genes in T cells from the p-EMT program on Day 7 following ligature placement. (**G**) Dot plot

depicting expression levels of active ligand genes from panel (**E**) in fibroblast subpopulations.

(**H**) Dot plot depicting expression levels of active ligand genes from panel (**F**) in myeloid cell

subpopulations. (**I**) Dot plot depicting expression levels of target genes from pane (**E**) in T cell

subpopulations. (**J**) Dot plot depicting expression levels of target genes from panel (**F**) in T cell

subpopulations.

Figure 9. Schematic overview of the newly proposed AG fibroblast–neutrophil–ILC3 axis. We

propose that periodontal inflammation is initiated by the activation of AG fibroblasts, which

secrete chemokines and cytokines that recruit neutrophils to sites of tissue damage. Activated

neutrophils and AG fibroblasts, in turn, activate ILC3s, leading to production of proinflammatory

IL-17 cytokines. Ultimately, cervical alveolar bone resorption is facilitated by a localized

osteoclastogenic environment, induced by activated ILC3s, together with AG fibroblasts,

neutrophils, myofibroblasts, and gingival epithelial cells, including those with an epithelial–

mesenchymal transition (EMT) phenotype.

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Figure supplement 1. Alveolar bone loss in the ligature-induced mouse periodontitis model.

Alveolar bone loss was assessed at the mesiobuccal cusp (M1-1), distobuccal cusp (M1-2), and

distal cusp (M1-3) of the first molar, the mesiobuccal cusp (M2-1) and distobuccal cusp (M2-2)

of the second molar, and the buccal cusp (M3) of the third molar by measuring the distance from

the cementoenamel junction (CEJ) to the alveolar bone crest (ABC) on the buccal or palatal

side of the alveolar bone ($n = 6$). Significance was determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA),

with Tukey's multiple-comparison test. Data are presented as mean values ± standard deviation

(SD); $p < 0.05$ was considered significant.

Figure supplement 2. Identification of major cell types in mouse gingival tissue during

periodontitis development by single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq). Violin plots showing

expression levels of cell-type marker genes in each major cell type: epithelial cells, cadherin 1

(*Cdh1*) and type XVII collagen (*Col17a1*); fibroblasts, type I collagen (*Col1a1*) and lumican

(*Lum*); endothelial cells, selectin P (*Selp*) and selectin E (*Sele*); B cells, membrane spanning 4

domains A1 (*Ms4a1*) and cluster of differentiation 79A (*Cd79a*); T cells, epsilon subunit of T cell

receptor complex (*Cd3e*) and cluster of differentiation 5 (*Cd5*); and myeloid cells, lysozyme 2

(*Lyz2*) and integrin subunit alpha M (*Itgam*).

Figure supplement 3. Identification of myeloid cell subpopulations in mouse gingival tissue

during periodontitis development by scRNA-seq. Violin plots showing expression levels of

macrophage and neutrophil marker genes in myeloid cell subpopulations: macrophages, cluster

of differentiation 86 (*Cd86*) and integrin subunit alpha X (*Itgax*); and neutrophils, CXC motif

chemokine receptor 2 (*Cxcr2*) and G0/G1 switch gene 2 (*G0s2*).

Figure supplement 4. Effects of innate lymphoid cell (ILC) deletion on alveolar bone loss in the mouse periodontitis model. (**A**) Alveolar bone loss was assessed at six sites by measuring the distance from the CEJ to the ABC on the buccal or palatal side of the alveolar bone of wild-type (WT), Rag2$^{-/-}$, and Rag2$^{-/-}$γc$^{-/-}$ mice on Day 7 following ligature placement (n = 6). (**B**) Bone volume/total volume (BV/TV), bone surface, trabecular number (Tb.N), and trabecular thickness (Tb.Th) in the buccal side of alveolar bone of the second molar were measured on Day 7 (n = 6). Significance was determined by ANOVA, with Tukey's multiple-comparison test. Data are presented as mean values ± SD; $p < 0.05$ was considered significant.

    Figure supplement 5. Epithelial cell subpopulations involved in periodontitis development in

    mice. (**A**) *t*-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (*t*-SNE) projection plots showing epithelial

    cell subpopulations in gingival tissue on Days 1, 4, and 7 following ligature placement. Colors

    indicate cell type, as follows: dark green, epithelial cell population 1 (Epi 1); sea green, epithelial

    cell population 2 (Epi 2); pale green, epithelial cell population 3 (Epi 3); light green, epithelial cell

    population 4 (Epi 4); and light blue, epithelial cell population expressing epithelial–mesenchymal

    transition (EMT) genes. (**B**) Heatmap showing expression of the top-10 differentially expressed

    genes in Epi 1, Epi 2, Epi 3, Epi4, and EMT. (**C**) Violin plots showing gene expression levels of

    keratin 5 (*Krt5*), keratin 14 (*Krt14*), cadherin 11 (*Cdh11*), *Col1a1*, tenascin C (*Tnc*), and smooth

muscle aortic actin 2 (*Acta2*) in epithelial cell subpopulations. (**D**) Violin plots showing gene expression levels of interleukin 6 (*Il6*) and interleukin 23A (*Il23a*) in epithelial cell subpopulations.