1 Review

Bacterial sialoglycosidases in virulence and pathogenesis

4 Preethi Sudhakara¹, Iyappan Sellamuthu¹, A. Wilson Aruni^{2, 3, 4}

¹Department of Genetic Engineering, SRM Institute of Science and Technology, Chennai, India

6 ²School of Medicine, California University of Science and Medicine, California, USA

- ⁷³Musculoskeletal disease center, Loma Linda Veterans Affairs, US Department of Veteran Affairs, CA, USA
- 8 4Sathyabama Institute of Science and Technology, Chennai, India.
- 9 * Correspondence: A. Wilson Aruni, Musculoskeletal disease center, Loma Linda Veterans Affairs, US
- 10 Department of Veteran Affairs, CA, USA, Tel +123 4 56789,
- 11 Email drwilsonaruni@hotmail.com; aruni.wilsonsanthoshkumar@va.gov

12

13 Abstract: Periodontitis is a chronic inflammatory disease affecting the tissues that surround and 14 support the teeth. In the U.S., approximately 65 million people are affected by this condition. Its 15 occurrence is also associated with many important systemic diseases such as cardiovascular disease, 16 rheumatoid arthritis, and Alzheimer's disease. Among the most important etiologies of 17 periodontitis is Porphyromonas gingivalis, a keystone bacterial pathogen. Keystone pathogens can 18 orchestrate inflammatory disease by remodeling a normally benign microbiota causing imbalance 19 between normal and pathogenic microbiota (dysbiosis). The important characteristics of P. gingivalis 20 causing dysbiosis are its virulence factors that cause effective subversion of host defenses to its 21 advantage [1], allowing other pathogens to grow. However, the mechanisms involving these 22 processes are poorly understood. However, various microbial strategies target host 23 sialoglycoproteins for immune dysregulation. In addition, the enzymes that break down 24 sialoglycoproteins/sialoglycans are the "sialoglycoproteases", resulting in exposed terminal sialic 25 acid. This process could lead to pathogen-toll like receptor (TLR) interactions mediated through 26 sialic acid receptor-ligand mechanisms. By assessing the function of P. gingivalis 27 sialoglycoproteases, could pave the way to designing carbohydrate analogues and sialic acid 28 mimetics to serve as drug targets.

29 Keywords: Sialidase, sialic acid, sialoglycoprotease, pathogenicity, therapeutic target, Siglec

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Human microbiota consists of about 100 trilion microbial cell that constantly interact with the 33 host counterpart through various mechanisms [2]. There exists a symbiotic relationship among these 34 microorganisms, however, such a state can be reverted to exploiting pathogenic potential by certain 35 organisms that lead to dysbiotic microbiota. Dysbiosis can lead to major pathogenic conditions 36 especially in the gut, oral and vaginal niche due to the richness of glycans that act as an energy source 37 to the microorganisms. Among the host pathogen interaction strategies, many microorganisms, 38 especially bacteria possess a strong affinity to sialic acid which coat the cell surface. Sialic acid has 39 been predominantly found as the terminal carbohydrate in eukaryotes and prokaryotes. Sialic acid 40 naturally occurs in prokaryotes as nine-carbon keto sugar acids derived from N-acetylneuraminic 41 acid (Neu5Ac) [3].

42

The major enzyme that facilitate this interaction between the host and pathogen is bacterial "sialoglycosidases" – the enzymes which cleave the sialic acid from sialoglycoproteins. This include the sialidases and sialoglycoproteases. Sialidases (neuraminidases) are glycosylhydrolases that

2 of 11

46 cleave the sialic acid (Sia) O-acceptor substrates by an exohydrolytic reaction. Functionally similar to 47 sialidases, the O-sialoglycoprotease hydrolyzes the Sia O-acceptor substrate through an 48 endohydrolytic reaction [4,5]. Sialidase activity has been found in viruses, bacteria, protozoa, fungi, 49 and metazoans [5–7]. Bacterial sialidases have been considered virulence factors in many pathogenic 50 organisms, such as Corynebacterium diphtheriae, Vibrio cholerae, Streptococcus pneumoniae, and group B 51 streptococci, which colonize mucosal surfaces [8]. They have been shown to be involved in infection 52 and tissue destruction [9], peroxide scavenging during oxidative stress [10], and the modulation of 53 host innate immunity [5]. Furthermore, production of sialoglycosidases may be a critical factor in the 54 provision of free sialic acid, a fermentable carbohydrate source for bacterial proliferation [8,11]. There 55 are four mammalian sialidases such as NEU1, NEU2, NEU3 and NEU4 and they are found in 56 lysosomes, cytosol, plasma membrane and lysosomes or mitochondria or endoplasmic reticulum 57 respectively [12].

58

59 The human oral microbiome is one of the major microbiota contributing to the overall 60 microbiome in humans. With more than 700 species of bacteria with varied diversifications in their 61 composition give a significant curiosity to study its role in both the oral and overall health of the 62 individual. Periodontitis is a general infectious disease affecting most of the population [13]. Many 63 commensal and pathogenic bacteria use environmental (host) sialic acids as sources of carbon, 64 nitrogen, energy, and amino sugars for cell wall synthesis [14]. The breakdown of sialic acid residues 65 and sialoconjugates by sialidases contributes to a wide range of important biological functions such 66 as cellular interaction and conformational stabilization of glycoproteins in the cell membrane that 67 could expose or mask receptors for ligand binding and other enzymatic interactions [15]. While the 68 role of sialidase in sialic acid metabolism has been known in other oral pathogens like Tannerella 69 forsythia [16], it is yet to be explored in *P. gingivalis*.

70 1.1. Sialic acid

71 Sialic acid is a derivative of neuraminic acid, a monosaccharide with nine carbon acidic sugar. 72 Sialic acids are present at the terminal location of the glycans of glycolipids, polysaccharides and 73 glycoproteins in the cell [17]. There are about 50 types of Sia but Neuraminic acid (Neu), N-74 glycolylneuraminic acid (Neu5Gc), N - acetylneuraminic acids (Neu5Ac) and deaminated 75 neuraminic acid (KDN) are the four types of sialic acids which are the most frequent monosaccharides 76 [17,18]. These four dominant sialic acids are subjected to variety of modifications such as substitution 77 at, O –acetyl, O – sulfate, O - methyl, hydroxyl groups and phosphate groups [17]. Sialic acid are 78 detected on the other surface of cell such as terminal components of glycoprotein and glycolipids and 79 in cellular secretion of both eukaryotic and prokaryotic species [18].

80

81 A typical cell displays millions of Sialic acid molecules [19]. Given their ubiquitous presence and 82 abundance at the surface of all cell types (including those of the immune system), Sialic acids have 83 major biophysical effects. Earlier studies showed removal of Sialic acid from immune cell surfaces 84 using sialidases showed marked changes in behavior of such cells [20]. Removal of cell surface Sialic 85 acids has many potentially pleiotropic effects, such as, removal reduces the net charge and 86 hydrophilicity of the cell surface. It can reduce the charge repulsion between adjacent cell surface 87 molecules. It eliminates ligands for endogenous receptors like Siglecs and selectins (see below). 88 Sialic acid removal exposes underlying glycans (mostly galactose residues), which can be recognized 89 by other endogenous receptors, such as galectins and the galactose-binding proteins of macrophages 90 and receptors in the neutrophils.

91 1.2. Sialidase

Sialidase (neuraminidases) are superfamily of N-acylneuraminidase residues from the glycans
of polysaccharides, glycoproteins and glycolipids that are released by glycosyl hydrolases [17].
Sialidases are found in higher eukaryotes and in some pathogenic bacteria, viruses, fungi, metazoan
and protozoans. Structurally, sialidase can be divided into two types such as small and large based

3 of 11

96 on the difference in molecular mass and a differential calcium requirement for protein stability or 97 catalysis of some large sialidases [5]. The sialidases breaks down the residues of sialic acid and 98 sialoglycoproteins that could mask or expose that receptors for enzymatic interactions and ligand 99 binding by contributing to biological functions such as cellular interaction and conformational 100 stabilization of glycoproteins in the cell membranes [15].

101

All eukaryotes and prokaryotes exhibiting sialic acid produces sialidases but with different substrate specificities. The cleavage of sialic acid from a substrate is specific to each different sialidase. It is relied upon three important specialization that allow the eukaryotes to control their sialoglycoconjugates turnover. They are (i) kind of kitosidic linkage, (ii) the nature of penultimate sugar residues and (iii) the type of neuraminic acid derivation [21]. But in the case of prokaryotes, the above factors does not correlates with the phylogenetic relationship [1].

108 2. Oral sialidase

109 In prokaryotes, over 70 different micro-organisms has been reported with sialidase activity [21]. 110 When bacterial sialidases comes in contact with mammalian host, they become commensals or 111 pathogenic [17]. During the protein secretion process, the secretory proteins which are bacterial 112 sialidases containing single peptides are cleaved [2]. The optimum pH for the monomeric bacterial 113 sialidases is between 5 – 7 and their molecular weight ranges from 40 – 150 KDa [17,19,20,22]. Oral 114 bacteria that expresses sialidases degrades sialoglycoprotein substrates. They use sialic acid as sugars 115 to improve its growth [23]. Oral viridans Streptococci inclusive of Streptococcus oralis, S.intermedine, 116 S.pneumoniae and S. mitis strains produces sialidases [24,25]. In case of Streptococcus strains, sialic 117 acid (Neu5Ac) is mostly used as a source for carbon [25]. Most notable red complex organism 118 Tannerella forsythia exihibit sialidase dependent growth in biofilm and also produces inhibitors that 119 might be used as adjuncts in periodontal therapy [26]. Sialidases play a pivotal role in the virulence 120 and pathogenesis of the bacteria owing to their microenvironment rich in mucin and other 121 sialoglycoprotein rich environment such as the saliva. Certain bacteria has gene machinery that are 122 involved in metabolism of sialic acid however, some other bacteria do resort to alternative pathway 123 of sialic acid metabolism.

124 3. Porphyromonas gingivalis sialidase

Porphyromonas gingivalis is a non-motile, asaccharolytic, Gram – negative anaerobes that plays a vital role in chronic periodontitis [27]. This bacterium mostly depends upon the energy produced by the aminioacids fermentation to survive in periodontal pockets [28]. It is proved from studies that *P. gingivalis* is associated with certain major systemic diseases such as cardiovascular disease, preterm birth and diabetes [29].

130

131 According to Wilson Aruni et al, 2011 [30], it was identified that three sialidases related genes in 132 P. gingivalis has shown a specific pattern of clustering with other associated genes from the bacteria. 133 Enzymes such as sialidase and sialoglycoprotease are the key factor to satisfy the asaccharolytic 134 requirements of *P. gingivalis* by breaking down the glycoprotein conjugate, role of these enzyme in 135 sialic acid metabolism and its involvement in protein stability inclusive of gingipains. Hence it is 136 believed that the absence or presence of silaic acid modulates the important proteins that are involved 137 in both pathogenicity and metabolic of an organisms. It also implied that synergy between sialidases 138 and sialoglycoproteases are required by *P. gingivalis* to colonize the periodontal pockets [30].

139

Parker, D., et al. 2009 [31], Roy, S., et al 2010 [16] and Soong, G., et al. 2006 [32] studies have proved that several bacteria including *Tannerella forsythia* exhibit biofilm production. But in case of *P. gingivalis*, the invasion rates were significantly higher than the wild type compared to the mutant. Hence, the role of sialidases and sialoglycoproteases are unclear in *P. gingivalis*. While the role of sialidases in other oral pathogens are known, the role of *P. gingivalis*'s sialoglycosidases in virulence modulation and pathogenesis is yet to be explored [30].

4 of 11

146 4. Immune evasion and host sialic acid interaction in pathogenesis

Sialidases is one of many hydrolase which is related with the host bacterial invasion. The initial
step in sialo – glycol – conjugate degredation starts with the action of sialidases due to the non –
reducing terminal position of sialic acid residues in oligosaccharides [8].

150

151 Sialic acid metabolism by bacteria starts by secreting a large amount of sialidases with high 152 specific activity which is inducible [33,34]. This role is associated to both pathogenic and nutritional 153 roles performed by the bacterial sialidases [35]. Sialic acid permease is a specific transporter for sialic 154 acid which utilizes carbon source as an energy to transport sialic acid for degradation of cellular sialic 155 acid [36–39]. This degradation is attained by the action of sialidases on sialo – glycoprotein releasing 156 sialic acid (Neu5Ac) through the sialic acid permease leading to degradation of Neu5Ac to N – 157 acetylmannosamine (ManNAc) by an enzyme called acylneuraminate puruvate lyase. This enzyme 158 is induced by sialic acid and it is cell bound [1,38,40]. The end point N – acetylmannosamine 159 (ManNAc) is apparently the central intermediate as it can be either used or broken down in the 160 biosynthesis of sialic acid [41]. The activity of sialidases is closely associated with the essential needs 161 for the metabolism of an bacteria [5,36,37,42].

162

163Bacterial sialidases are considered to be virulence factors that aids in invasion and also spread164of the micro – organism into the host [22,40]. The silaidase have direct toxic effect to the host tissues165and other defensive metabolism [8].

166 167

168

Thus the general characteristics of sialidases and sialic acid metabolism in immune evasion and host – pathogenesis are as follows [8]

- Large amount of extracellular enzymes with high specific activity.
- Inducible activity at the site of infection.
- Specificity of substrate shown at the site of colonization.
- 172 **5. Siglecs**

173 Siglecs are sialic acid binding Immunoglobin (Ig) like lectins. They are the proteins that are 174 present on the cells of the immune system that helps in binding sialic acid [43,44]. Based on their 175 similarity in sequence, siglecs is divided into two subsets. Sialoadhesin (CD169; Siglec 1); CD22 176 (Siglec 2); Myelin – associated glycoprotein (MAG; Siglec 4) and Siglec 15 are distantly related by ~25 177 -30 % sequence identity. Whereas, CD33 (Siglec 3) is the main subset of siglec that is -50 - 99% 178 sequence identity, is progressing promptly among mammalian species [45,46]. Immunoreceptor 179 tyrosine – based inhibitory motifs (ITIMs) is one of the signaling motifs based on tyrosine that are 180 present in siglecs are involved in cell signaling and siglec endocytosis [47].

181

182 Several siglecs that interact with specific sialic acid modifications are expressed in human pathogens. 183 Mostly siglec – dependent recognition of human pathogen glycans leads to either advantage or 184 detriment of pathogen that can alter the immune responses [45]. Phagocytosis could feasibly be 185 inhibited by structural modifications of TLRs, PRRs and complement) lead to various immune 186 signaling events in neutrophils. This process establishes chronic periodontitis due to a transition from 187 microbial homeostasis to dysbiosis [92]. One of the immune mediators involved in such host 188 inhibitory signaling is Siglec-9. Siglec-9 interaction with sialophorin (CD43) a surface 189 sialoglycoprotein is selectively expressed on lympho-hemopoietic cells [93]. P. gingivalis 190 sialioglycoproteases expose sialic acid and modify sialoglycans on P. gingivalis virulence factors 191 causing the following effects: (i) the exposed sialic acid interacts with siglec-9 via the sialic acid 192 binding ligand (sialophorin-CD43), attenuating the host inflammatory signaling in neutrophils, and 193 (ii) the modified sialoglycans evade siglec- 1-mediated phagocytosis because of a change in

5 of 11

- 194 conformation, masking the sialic acid, and preventing siglec-1 interaction.
- 195

196 6. Sialic acid siglec interactions

197 Innate immunity is the first line of body defense that consists of cellular and humoral immune 198 components. Siglec acts as a negative regulator in immune cells by inhibiting the immensity of 199 immune responses [47-49]. Normally, human lack N- glycolylneuraminic acid (Neu5Gc) because of 200 the Cytidine monophosphate – N – acetylneuraminic acid (CMAH) gene mutation; which encodes for 201 the enzyme that is needed to convert Neu5Ac to Neu5Gc [50]. Siglec (sialic acid binding 202 Immunoglobin (Ig) like lectin) are greatly influenced by sialic acid as it binds to sialylated glycan. 203 The resulting glycolipids and glycoprotein have the prospective to function for siglecs and other 204 glycan – binding protein as counter receptors [51].

205 7. *P. gingivalis* sialoglycosidases

206 7.1. P. gingivalis and dysbiosis

207 P. gingivalis is an important keystone periodontal pathogen also implicated in systemic 208 infections [15,34]. This anaerobic bacteria interferes with host immunity, enabling the emergence of 209 dysbiotic communities [5,15]. P. gingivalis causes dysbiosis by subverting host defenses to its 210 advantage [1], but the mechanisms leading to dysbiosis are poorly understood. Polymorphonuclear 211 leukocytes (neutrophils) represent the primary cellular defense system in healthy oral tissues [19]. 212 Neutrophils are the most common leukocytes recruited to the periodontal pocket and are needed for 213 tissue homeostasis [35]. Recent studies indicate that neutrophils can assist the initiation and 214 progression of periodontitis when their function is subverted by periodontal bacteria [20]. Hence, 215 neutrophil-P. gingivalis interactions and subversion of innate immunity are key contributing factors 216 to the pathogenesis of periodontal disease.

217 7.2. Mechanisms of neutrophil subversion and gap

218 To date, most studies on P. gingivalis neutrophil subversion have focused on integrins and 219 complement mediated processes [1]. Both hypo- and hyper-recruitment of neutrophils can occur due 220 to deficiencies in the expression of β^2 integrin or their negative regulators, respectively; either 221 scenario causes unwarranted IL-17-dependent inflammatory bone loss. Moreover, microbial 222 hijacking of C5aR (CD88) signaling in neutrophils impairs neutrophil antimicrobial function while 223 promoting destructive inflammatory responses [20,35]. While neutrophil homeostasis plays an 224 important role in periodontitis, the role of sialic acid mediated mechanisms causing neutrophil 225 subversion has not been studied in *P. gingivalis*. A variety of important siglec (sialic acid recognizing 226 immunoglobulin-like receptor) interactions with bacterial, viral and protozoan pathogens are 227 beginning to be recognized. Recent research has shown that pathogenic group B Streptococci (GBS) 228 bind to these siglecs in a sialic acid-dependent fashion to downregulate leukocyte bactericidal 229 capacity [36].

230 7.3. Sialic acid interactions in virulence and immune interactions

Though earlier studies on many human commensal bacteria focused on the role of sialic acid as a growth factor or carbon source, its unique role in virulence and immune subversion is yet to be explored. *P. gingivalis* relies on interactions with the host sialoglycoproteins to mediate several virulence and pathogenesis factors, including adhesion, internalization and manipulation of innate and adaptive immunity [37]. Because the breakdown of sialoglycoproteins/sialoglycans exposes terminal sialic acid. The mechanism of immune regulation through sialic acid interactions in *P. gingivalis* has not been explored.

238

6 of 11

239 7.4. P. gingivalis sialoglycoproteases

240 A number of bacterial proteases have been associated with virulence; sialoglycoproteases are 241 unique and ubiquitous in the bacterial kingdom, and have been studied in the context of virulence to 242 some extent. However, they have not been studied for their role in immune modulation. The 243 periodontal pocket is a rich source of sialoglycoproteins, which are found in saliva and gingival 244 crevicular fluid [38]. The enzyme "sialoglycoproteases" expose sialic acid by breaking down 245 sialoglycoproteins [24–29]. Among the red complex bacteria, only the *P. gingivalis* genome codes for 246 two sialoglycoprotease genes. The role of oral bacterial sialoglycoproteases in host – pathogen 247 interactions has not been explored. Among the few other groups that study sialic acid function, we 248 are the only group to study *P. gingivalis* sialoglycoproteases and have the lead in this area.

249 7.5. Sialic acid specific interactions in neutrophils

250 Phagocytosis could feasibly be inhibited by structural modifications of TLRs, PRRs and 251 complement) lead to various immune signaling events in neutrophils. This process establishes 252 chronic infection due to a transition from microbial homeostasis to dysbiosis [52]. One of the immune 253 mediators involved in such host inhibitory signaling is Siglec-9. Siglec-9 interaction with sialophorin 254 (CD43) a surface sialoglycoprotein which is selectively expressed on lympho-hemopoietic cells [53]. 255 One of our study hypothesize that P. gingivalis sialoglycorptoeases both expose sialic acid and modify 256 sialoglycans on *P. gingivalis* virulence factors causing the following effects: (i) the exposed sialic acid 257 interacts with siglec-9 via the sialic acid binding ligand (sialophorin- CD43), attenuating the host 258 inflammatory signaling in neutrophils, and (ii) the modified sialoglycans evade siglec- 1-mediated 259 phagocytosis because of a change in conformation, masking the sialic acid, and preventing siglec-1 260 interaction.

261 7.6. P. gingivalis sialoglycoproteases in virulence modulation

262 Most interactions between bacterial pathogens and their hosts are influenced by the pattern of 263 expressed glycans and glycan-binding receptors (lectins/adhesins/agglutinins) [36]. Several 264 medically important bacterial pathogens display sialic acid on their surface as an anti-recognition 265 molecule; this allows bacteria to masquerade as "self" and thereby elude or subvert host immune 266 responses. Exploring the mechanisms by which sialylated pathogens exploit host receptor systems to 267 modulate virulence is novel and new. We have identified unique sialoglycans on the surface of P. 268 gingivalis wild type (W83) cell surface that were missing in PG-Sgps isogenic mutants. Capsular 269 polysaccharides of pathogenic bacteria such as Group B Streptococci display sialoglycan structures 270 that both resemble vertebrate glycoproteins and can bind to siglecs on leukocytes [39]. Our 271 preliminary data showed that *P. gingivalis* exhibits similar sialoglycan structure, with sialic acid 272 linkages [31]. Also, certain siglecs such as siglec-9 on neutrophils bind to host α 2,3 linked sialic acid, 273 causing inhibitory signals. We have shown that *P. gingivalis* interacts with α 2,3- and α 2,6-linked sialic 274 acid moieties in human cells. The capsular glycan of P. gingivalis can elicit the inflammatory cytokines 275 MIP-2, RANTES and MCP-1 in murine macrophages. This suggests that the interactions in both 276 neutrophil adhesion and host inhibitory signaling, which are two key mechanisms utilized by the 277 bacteria.

278 8. Sialidase as therapeutic target

In human genome, four sialidases homologs such as NEU 1, NEU 2, NEU 3 and NEU 4 are
identified. All these enzymes have different substrate specificities [54,55]. Some of the examples of
sialidases as therapeutic targets are given below,

282

Sialidase activity on cancer cells shows that all the four types of sialidase homologs behave in different manners in carcinogenogenis [56]. Out of these four, NEU 1, NEU 2, NEU 4 shows a down regulation with suppression of metastasis and tumor progression [57,58], while NEU 3 shows a

7 of 11

tendency of up – regulation [58]. Further pathological studies of NEU 3 will help to know its
application in control of cancer cells [54].

288

Epilepsy is seizure disorder that causes abnormal or excessive activity of brain cell. This neurological disorder is characterized by unprovoked, recurrent seizures. It can be fatal if untreated [59,60]. There are many reasons for epilepsy being difficult to be treated. One of the ways to treat the anomalous neuronal disorder is by altering the activation of sodium channel through the negative surface charged residues of cellular membrane from sialic acid. This method of modulating negative surface charge of sialic acid can be a therapeutic target to treat epilepsy [61,62].

295

Influenza is viral infection affecting 5% of adults and 20% of children worldwide every year [63].
It is caused in the respiratory system affecting brain, kidney, heart, lung, liver and muscles [64].
DAS181 is a novel sialidases fusion protein which is used as a therapeutic target for Influenza [65].
DAS181 inactivates the receptors of the host cell that are identified by the viruses, by cleaving the sialic acid from the host cell surfaces through making the host more repellent to the viruses [66,67].
Zanamivir and Oseltamivir are the competitive sialidase inhibitors thereby reducing its severity and duration of the illness [68].

303

Pneumonia is caused by *Streptococcus pneumoniae* that is causes sepsis, meningitis after influenza infection [69]. Similar to Influenza virus, *S. pneumoniae* possess sialidase activity [70]. Biofilm is important for the pneumonococcal colonization. Nan A and Nan B (the gene that encodes enzymes in sialic acid pathways) expressions is up – regulated in biofilm formation in pneumonia and also the mutants shows a reduced ability to form biofilm thereby reducing the development and severity of pneumonia [31,71,72].

310

Periodontitis is a chronic oral inflammatory disease that initially causes infection in the tooth pockets eventually leading to tooth loss [27]. Two major pathogens that causes periodontitis are *Porphyromonas gingivalis* and *Tannerella forsythia* [73]. *P. gingivalis* and *T. Forsythia* possess neuraminidase activity that inhibits the biofilm formation but yet the pathological role of the sialic acid enzyme is yet to be discovered [74,75].

316

Apart from the above disease, sialidase is used as a therapeutic agent in *Bacterial vaginosis* [76–
78]. Cystic fibrosis [79–81], Chagas disease [82,83] and in other bacterial and viral disease. Therefore,
sialidases are at an infancy level to be used as therapeutic target.

320 9. Conclusion

Bacterial sialidases and their sialoglycan targets contribute to host-microbe interactions at the mucosal surface. Such mechanisms play a pivotal role in both the oral and gut microbiome where there is rich mucin environment and profuse sialoglycoproteins in the saliva and in the gut mucus respectively. An imbalance in the proportion of gut commensals able to modulate mucosal sialic acid levels or a change in host mucin sialylation is often associated with enteric infection or intestinal inflammation. Maintaining a balance in the ability of commensals to produce and/or consume sialic acid in the mucosal compartment is therefore essential to oral and or gut homoeostasis.

Further investigations of bacterial sialidases should clarify the type of sialylated structures that are accessible to the bacteria and the specificity of sialidases towards sialic acids with different modifications and in different linkages. These include gaining structural insights into the diversity of sialic acid derivatives that can be produced and/or taken up by commensal and pathogenic bacteria. Thus, for therapeutic purposes, modulation of sialidase expression might be effectively achieved by appropriate use of specific inhibitors or pro/prebiotic approaches targeting specific bacterial strains. This approach will play a role in reverting dysbiotic infections.

8 of 11

Author Contributions: Preethi Sudhakara worked on the major contributions, typing, corrections, and revisions
 of the manuscript; Jyappan provided proof reading correction with partial section addition; and Aruni Wilson
 undertook overall writing of the manuscript revision and supervision.

Funding: This work was supported by Public Health Service Grant R03-DE026526 from the National Institute of
 Dental and Craniofacial Research (NIDCR) (to A.W) to Musculoskeletal disease center, Loma Linda Veterans
 Affairs, US Department of Veteran Affairs, CA, USA

342 Acknowledgments: This work was supported by Public Health Service Grant R03-DE026526 from the National

Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research (NIDCR) (to A.W) to Musculoskeletal disease center, Loma Linda
 Veterans Affairs, US Department of Veteran Affairs, CA, USA

345 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest. The funders had no role in the design of the

- 346 study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to
- 347 publish the results".

348 References

- 349
- Muller, H. Neuraminidases of Bacteria and Protozoa and their pathogenic role. *Behring Inst. Mitt.* 1974, 55, 34–56.
- Ursell, L.K.; Metcalf, J.L.; Parfrey, L.W.; Knight, R. Defining the Human Microbiome. *Nutr. Rev.* 2012, 70, S38–S44.
- Vanterpool, E.; Roy, F.; Zhan, W.; Sheets, S.M.; Sangberg, L.; Fletcher, H.M. VimA is part of the maturation pathway for the major gingipains of *Porphyromonas gingivalis* W83. *Microbiology* 2006, 152, 3383–3389.
- 356 4. Powell, L.D.; Varki, A.P. Sialidases. Curr. Protoc. Mol. Biol. 2001, Chapter 17, Unit17.12.
- 5. Vimr, E.R. Microbial sialidases: does bigger always mean better? *Trends Microbiol.* **1994**, *2*, 271–277.
- Castaneda-Roldan, E.I.; Avelino-Flores, F.; Dall'Agnol, M.; Freer, E.; Cedillo, L.; Dornand, J.; Giron, J.A.
 Adherence of Brucella to human epithelial cells and macrophages is mediated by sialic acid residues. *Cell. Microbiol.* 2004, *6*, 435–445.
- 361 7. Copley, R.R.; Russell, R.B.; Ponting, C.P. Sialidase-like Asp-boxes: sequence-similar structures within
 362 different protein folds. *Protein Sci.* 2001, 10, 285–292.
- 363 8. Corfield, T. Bacterial sialidases roles in pathogenicity and nutrition. *Glycobiology* **1992**, *2*, 509–521.
- 364 9. Wang, Q.; Chang, B.J.; Riley, T. V *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae*. *Vet. Microbiol.* **2010**, *140*, 405–417.
- 365 10. Iijima, R.; Takahashi, H.; Namme, R.; Ikegami, S.; Yamazaki, M. Novel biological function of sialic acid (N-acetylneuraminic acid) as a hydrogen peroxide scavenger. *FEBS Lett.* 2004, *561*, 163–166.
- Horton, R.M.; Cai, Z.L.; Ho, S.N.; Pease, L.R. Gene splicing by overlap extension: tailor-made genes using
 the polymerase chain reaction. *Biotechniques* 1990, *8*, 528–535.
- 369 12. Saito, M.; Fronda, C.L.; Yu, R.K. Sialidase activity in nuclear membranes of rat brain. J. Neurochem. 1996, 66, 2205–2208.
- 371 13. Dewhirst, F.E.; Chen, T.; Izard, J.; Paster, B.J.; Tanner, A.C.R.; Yu, W.H.; Lakshmanan, A.; Wade, W.G. The
 372 human oral microbiome. *J. Bacteriol.* 2010, *192*, 5002–17.
- 373 14. Plumbridge, J.; Vimr, E. Convergent pathways for utilization of the amino sugars N-acetylglucosamine, N374 acetylmannosamine, and N-acetylneuraminic acid by Escherichia coli. *J. Bacteriol.* 1999, 181, 47–54.
- Angata, T.; Varki, A. Chemical diversity in the sialic acids and related alpha-keto acids: an evolutionary
 perspective. *Chem. Rev.* 2002, 102, 439–469.
- Roy, S.; Douglas, C.W.I.; Stafford, G.P. A novel sialic acid utilization and uptake system in the periodontal
 pathogen *Tannerella forsythia*. J. Bacteriol. 2010, 192, 2285–2293.
- 379 17. Kim, S.; Oh, D.B.; Kang, H.A.; Kwon, O. Features and applications of bacterial sialidases. *Appl. Microbiol.*380 *Biotechnol.* 2011, *91*, 1–15.
- 381 18. Schauer, R. Sialic acids as regulators of molecular and cellular interactions. 2009.
- Rosenberg, A. and Schengrund, C.L. Sialidases. In Rosenberg, A and Schengrund, C.L. (eds). In *Biological Roles of Sialic Acids*; Plenum Press, New York, 1976; pp. 295–359.
- 20. Corfield, A.P.; Veh, R.W.; Wember, M.; Michalski, J.C.; Schauer, R. The release of N-acetyl- and Nglycolloyl-neuraminic acid from soluble complex carbohydrates and erythrocytes by bacterial, viral and
 mammalian sialidases. *Biochem. J.* 1981, 197, 293–299.

9 of 11

387	21.	Roggentin, P.; Schauer, R.; Hoyer, L.L.; Vimr, E.R. The sialidase superfamily and its spread by horizontal
388		gene transfer. <i>Mol. Microbiol.</i> 1993 , <i>9</i> , 915–921.
380	22	Confield A.P. Michalski, I.C. and S.P. The substrate specificity of sielidases from microaganisms and

- 22. Corfield.A.P., Michalski, J.C. and S.R. The substrate specificity of sialidases from microoganisms and
 mammals. In *Perspectives in Inherited Metabolic Diseases.*; In Tettamanti, G., Durand, P. and Di Donato, S.
 (eds, Eds.; Vol. 4, Edi Ermes, Milan, 1981; pp. 3–70.
- 23. Lewis, A.L.; Lewis, W.G. Host sialoglycans and bacterial sialidases: A mucosal perspective. *Cell. Microbiol.* 2012, 14, 1174–1182.
- Beighton, D.; Whiley, R.A. Sialidase activity of the *"Streptococcus milleri* group" and other viridans group
 streptococci. J. Clin. Microbiol. 1990, 28, 1431–1433.
- 396 25. Byers, H.L.; Homer, K.A.; Beighton, D. Utilization of sialic acid by viridans streptococci. J. Dent. Res. 1996,
 397 75, 1564–1571.
- Roy, S.; Honma, K.; Douglas, C.W.I.; Sharma, A.; Stafford, G.P.; Stafford, G.P. Role of sialidase in
 glycoprotein utilization by *Tannerella forsythia* Printed in Great Britain. 2011, 3195–3202.
- 400 27. How, K.Y; Song, K.P; Chan, K.G. *Porphyromonas gingivalis*: An Overview of Periodontopathic Pathogen
 401 below the Gum Line. *Front. Microbiol.* 2016, *7*, 53.
- 402 28. Bostanci, N.; Belibasakis, G.N. *Porphyromonas gingivalis*: an invasive and evasive opportunistic oral
 403 pathogen. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* 2012, 333, 1–9.
- Sudhakara, P.; Gupta, A.; Bhardwaj, A.; Wilson, A. Oral Dysbiotic Communities and Their Implications in
 Systemic Diseases. *Dent. J.* 2018, *6*, 10.
- 40630.Aruni, W.; Vanterpool, E.; Osbourne, D.; Roy, F.; Muthiah, A.; Dou, Y.; Fletcher, H.M. Sialidase and
sialoglycoproteases can modulate virulence in *Porphyromonas gingivalis*. *Infect. Immun.* 2011, 79, 2779–2791.
- 408 31. Parker, D.; Soong, G.; Planet, P.; Brower, J.; Ratner, A.J.; Prince, A. The NanA neuraminidase of *Streptococcus* 409 *pneumoniae* is involved in biofilm formation. *Infect. Immun.* 2009, *77*, 3722–3730.
- Soong, G.; Muir, A.; Gomez, M.I.; Waks, J.; Reddy, B.; Planet, P.; Singh, P.K.; Kanetko, Y.; Wolfgang, M.C.;
 Hsiao, Y.S.; et al. Bacterial neuraminidase facilitates mucosal infection by participating in biofilm
 production. J. Clin. Invest. 2006, 116, 2297–2305.
- 413 33. Pardoe, G.I. The inducible neuraminidases of pathogenic microorganisms. *Behring Inst. Mitt* 1974, 55, 103–
 414 122.
- 415 34. Uchida.Y., T.T. and S.T. Production of microbial neuraminidases induced by colominic acid. *Biochim.*416 *Biophys. Acta* 1974, 350, 425–431.
- 417 35. Hoskins, L.C.; Agustines, M.; McKee, W.B.; Boulding, E.T.; Kriaris, M.; Niedermeyer, G. Mucin degradation
 418 in human colon ecosystems. Isolation and properties of fecal strains that degrade ABH- blood group
 419 antigens and oligosaccharides from mucin glycoproteins. *J. Clin. Invest.* 1985, *75*, 944–953.
- 420 36. Vimr, E.R.; Troy, F.A. Identification of an inducible catabolic system for sialic acids (nan) in *Escherichia coli*.
 421 *J. Bacteriol.* 1985, 164, 845–853.
- 422 37. Vimr, E.R.; Troy, F.A. Regulation of sialic acid metabolism in *Escherichia coli*: Role of N-acylneuraminate
 423 pyruvate-lyase. *J. Bacteriol.* 1985, 164, 854–860.
- 38. Nees, S. and Schauer, R. Induction of neuraminidase from *Clostridium perfringens* and the co-operation of
 this enzyme with acylneuraminate pyruvate lyase. *Behring Inst. Mitt.* 1974, 55, 68–78.
- 426 39. Rodriguez-Aparicio, L.B.; Reglero, A.; Luengo, J.M. Uptake of A'-acetylneuraminic acid by *Escherichia coli*427 K-235. Biochemical characterization of the transport system. *Biochem. J.* 1987, 246, 287–294.
- 428 40. Müller, H.E. Neuraminidase Activity in *Streptococcus sanguis* and in the Viridans Group, and Occurrence
- 429 of Acylneuraminate Lyase in Viridans Organisms Isolated from Patients with Septicemia. *Infect. Immun.*430 1974, 9, 323–328.
- 431 41. Corfield, A.P.; Schauer, R. Metabolism of Sialic Acids. In *Sialic Acids: Chemistry, Metabolism, and Function*;
 432 Cell Biology Monographs, Vol. 10, Springer, Wien, 1982; pp. 195–261 ISBN 978-3-7091-8680-0.
- 433 42. Aisaka, K.; Uwajima, T. Cloning and constitutive expression of the N-acetylneuraminate lyase gene of
 434 *Escherichia coli. Appl. Environ. Microbiol.* 1986, 51, 562–565.
- 435 43. Powell, L.D.; Varki, A. I-type lectins. J. Biol. Chem. 1995, 270, 14243–14246.
- 436 44. Varki, A.; Angata, T. Siglecs The major subfamily of I-type lectins. *Glycobiology* 2006, 16, 1R–27R.
- 437 45. Crocker, P.R.; Paulson, J.C.; Varki, A. Siglecs and their roles in the immune system. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* 2007,
 438 7, 255–66.

10 of 11

420		
439	46.	Angata, T.; Margulies, E.H.; Green, E.D.; Varki, A. Large-scale sequencing of the CD33-related Siglec gene
440		cluster in five mammalian species reveals rapid evolution by multiple mechanisms. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.
441		<i>USA</i> 2004 , <i>101</i> , 13251–13256.
442	47.	Ravetch, J. V.; Lanier, L.L. Immune inhibitory receptors. Science (80). 2000, 290, 84-89.
443	48.	Campanero-Rhodes, M.A.; Childs, R.A.; Kiso, M.; Komba, S.; Le Narvor, C.; Warren, J.; Otto, D.; Crocker,
444		P.R.; Feizi, T. Carbohydrate microarrays reveal sulphation as a modulator of siglec binding. Biochem.
445		Biophys. Res. Commun. 2006, 344, 1141–1146.
446	49.	Rapoport, E.M.; Pazynina, G. V; Sablina, M.A.; Crocker, P.R.; Bovin, N. V Probing sialic acid binding Ig-
447		like lectins (siglecs) with sulfated oligosaccharides. <i>Biochem. Biokhimiiâ</i> 2006, 71, 496–504.
448	50.	Sonnenburg, I.L.; Altheide, T.K.; Varki, A. A uniquely human consequence of domain-specific functional
449		adaptation in a sialic acid-binding receptor. <i>Glucobiology</i> 2004 , <i>14</i> , 339–346
450	51	Crocker P.R. Feizi T. Carbohydrate recognition systems: functional triads in cell-cell interactions. <i>Curr</i>
451	01.	Onin Struct Riol 1996 6 679-691
452	52	DeGruttola AK: Low D: Mizoguchi A: Mizoguchi F Current Understanding of Dysbiosis in Disease in
453	52.	Human and Animal Models. Inflamm. Bound Dis 2016, 22, 1127, 1150
457 151	FO	Parametein N. Cantana, A. Dadama, Alan, C. CD42, a malagula suith multiple for stiens. Innovember 1000
454	53.	Kosenstein, Y.; Santana, A.; Pedraza-Alva, G. CD45, a molecule with multiple functions. <i>Immunol. Res.</i> 1999,
455	- 4	20, 89-99.
430	54.	Miyagi, I.; Wada, I.; Yamaguchi, K.; Hata, K.; Shiozaki, K. Plasma membrane-associated sialidase as a
457		crucial regulator of transmembrane signalling. J. Biochem. 2008, 144: 279-285.
458	55.	Achyuthan, K.E.; Achyuthan, A.M. Comparative enzymology, biochemistry and pathophysiology of
459		human exo- α -sialidases (neuraminidases). <i>Comp. Biochem. Physiol B Biochem. Mol. Biol.</i> 2001, 129: 29-64.
460	56.	Miyagi, T.; Wada, T.; Yamaguchi, K.; Hata, K. Sialidase and malignancy: A minireview. <i>Glycoconj. J.</i> 2003,
461		20: 189-198.
462	57.	Kato, T.; Wang, Y.; Yamaguchi, K.; Milner, C.M.; Shineha, R.; Satomi, S.; Miyagi, T. Overexpression of
463		lysosomal-type sialidase leads to suppression of metastasis associated with reversion of malignant
464		phenotype in murine B16 melanoma cells. Int. J. Cancer 2001, 92, 797-804.
465	58.	Yamanami, H.; Shiozaki, K.; Wada, T.; Yamaguchi, K.; Uemura, T.; Kakugawa, Y.; Hujiya, T.; Miyagi, T.
466		Down-regulation of sialidase NEU4 may contribute to invasive properties of human colon cancers. Cancer
467		Sci. 2007, 98, 299–307.
468	59.	Logroscino, G.; Hesdorffer, D.C.; Cascino, G.; Hauser, W.A. Status epilepticus without an underlying cause
469		and risk of death: A population-based study. Arch. Neurol. 2008, 65, 221–224.
470	60.	Holmes, G.L. Epilepsy in the developing brain: Lessons from the laboratory and clinic. <i>Epilepsia</i> 1997, 38:
471		12–30.
472	61	Messner, D.I.: Feller, D.I.: Scheuer, T.: Catterall, W.A. The sodium channel from rat brain: separation and
473	011	characterization of subunits. I BIOL CHEM 1985 , 260, 10567–10604
474	62	Isaeva F: Lushnikova I: Savrasova A: Skibo C: Holmes CI: Isaev D Effect of neuraminidase
475	02.	treatment on persistent enileptiform activity in the rat hippocampus <i>Pharmacol Rep</i> 2011 63 540-544
476	63	Turner D: Wailoo A: Nicholcon K: Cooper N: Sutton A: Abrams K Systematic review and economic
470 177	05.	degicien modelling for the presention and treatment of influenze A and P. Health Technol. Access (Body)
4//		decision modelling for the prevention and treatment of influenza A and B. <i>Heath Technol. Assess.</i> (<i>Kocko)</i> .
470	()	2003, 7: III-IV, XI-XIII, I-170.
4/9	64.	Nicholson, K.G.; Wood, J.M.; Zambon, M.; Turner, D.; Walloo, A.; Nicholson, K.; Cooper, N.; Sutton, A.;
480		Abrams, K.; Simonsen, L.; et al. Influenza. <i>Lancet</i> 2003 , 362, 1733–1745.
481	65.	Hedlund, M.; Aschenbrenner, L.M.; Jensen, K.; Larson, J.L.; Fang, F. Sialidase-Based Anti–Influenza Virus
482		Therapy Protects against Secondary Pneumococcal Infection. J. Infect. Dis. 2010, 201, 1007–1015.
483	66.	Jedrzejas, M.J. Pneumococcal Virulence Factors: Structure and Function. <i>Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.</i> 2001, 65,
484		187–207.
485	67.	Ah-Tye, C.; Schwartz, S.; Huberman, K.; Carlin, E.; Moscona, A. Virus-receptor interactions of human
486		parainfluenza viruses types 1, 2 and 3. Microb. Pathog. 1999, 27, 329–336.
487	68.	Nishikawa, T.; Shimizu, K.; Tanaka, T.; Kuroda, K.; Takayama, T.; Yamamoto, T.; Hanada, N.; Hamada, Y.
488		Bacterial neuraminidase rescues influenza virus replication from inhibition by a neuraminidase inhibitor.
489		<i>PLoS One</i> 2012 , 7, e45371.
490	69.	Engelich, G.; White, M.; Hartshorn, K.L. Neutrophil survival is markedly reduced by incubation with
491		influenza virus and <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> : role of respiratory burst. J Leukoc Biol 2001, 69, 50–56.

11 of 11

- 492 70. Simonsen L Influenza-related morbidity and mortality among children in developed and developing
 493 countries. In Proceedings of the In: Osterhaus ADME, Cox N, Hampson AW, eds. Options for the control
 494 of influenza IV.; Amsterdam: Elsevier, 2001; pp. 13–19.
- 495 71. Moscoso, M.; García, E.; López, R. Pneumococcal biofilms. Int. Microbiol. 2009, 12: 77-85.
- Trappetti, C.; Kadioglu, A.; Carter, M.; Hayre, J.; Iannelli, F.; Pozzi, G.; Andrew, P.W.; Oggioni, M.R. Sialic
 Acid: A Preventable Signal for Pneumococcal Biofilm Formation, Colonization, and Invasion of the Host. *I. Infect. Dis.* 2009, 199, 1497–1505.
- 499 73. Socransky, S.S.; Haffajee, A.D.; Cugini, M.A.; Smith, C.; Kent, R.L. Microbial complexes in subgingival plaque. *J. Clin. Periodontol.* 1998, 25, 134–144.
- 501 74. Moncla, B.J.; Braham, P.; Hillier, S.L. Sialidase (neuraminidase) activity among gram-negative anaerobic
 502 and capnophilic bacteria. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 1990, *28*, 422–425.
- 503 75. Derrien, M.; Van Passel, M.W.; Van de Bovenkamp, J.H.; Schipper, R.G.; de Vos, W.M.; Dekker, J. Mucin504 bacterial interactions in the human oral cavity and digestive tract. *Gut Microbes* 2010, *1*, 254–268.
- 505 76. Briselden, A.M.; Moncla, B.J.; Stevens, C.E.; Hillier, S.L. Sialidases (neuraminidases) in *Bacterial vaginosis*506 and bacterial vaginosis-associated microflora. *J. Clin. Microbiol.* 1992, 30, 663–666.
- 507 77. Perrier, C.; Sprenger, N.; Corthésy, B. Glycans on secretory component participate in innate protection against mucosal pathogens. *J. Biol. Chem.* 2006, *281*, 14280–14287.
- 509 78. Cauci, S.; Culhane, J.F.; Di Santolo, M.; McCollum, K. Among pregnant women with bacterial vaginosis,
 510 the hydrolytic enzymes sialidase and prolidase are positively associated with interleukin-1beta. *Am. J.*511 *Obstet. Gynecol.* 2008, 198, 132.e1-7.
- 512 79. Leprat, R.; Michel-Briand, Y. Extracellular neuraminidase production by a strain of *Pseudomonas* 513 *aeruginosa* isolated from cystic fibrosis. *ANN MICROBIOL* 1980, 131B, 209–222.
- Krivan, H.C.; Roberts, D.D.; Ginsburg, V. Many pulmonary pathogenic bacteria bind specifically to the
 carbohydrate sequence GalNAc beta 1-4Gal found in some glycolipids. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 1988,
 85, 6157–6161.
- 517 81. Lanotte, P.; Watt, S.; Mereghetti, L.; Dartiguelongue, N.; Rastegar-Lari, A.; Goudeau, A.; Quentin, R.
 518 Genetic features of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* isolates from cystic fibrosis patients compared with those of
 519 isolates from other origins. *J. Med. Microbiol.* 2004, *53*, 73–81.
- 82. Buscaglia, C.A.; Campo, V.A.; Frasch, A.C.C.; Di Noia, J.M. *Trypanosoma cruzi* surface mucins: hostdependent coat diversity. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* 2006, *4*, 229–236.
- 83. Pereira, M.E.; Loures, M.A.; Villalta, F.; Andrade, A.F. Lectin receptors as markers for *Trypanosoma cruzi*.
 Developmental stages and a study of the interaction of wheat germ agglutinin with sialic acid residues on
 epimastigote cells. J. Exp. Med. 1980, 152, 1375–1382.