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2 **Mechanical ventilation affects the microecology of the rat respiratory tract**

3 Mechanical ventilation and respiratory microecology

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13 **Abstract**

14 **Background** The most common 'second strike' in mechanically ventilated patients is a pulmonary
15 infection caused by the ease with which bacteria can invade and colonize the lungs due to mechanical
16 ventilation. At the same time, metastasis of lower airway microbiota may have significant implications
17 in the development of intubation mechanical ventilation lung inflammation. Thus, we establish a rat
18 model of tracheal intubation with mechanical ventilation and explore the effects of mechanical
19 ventilation on lung injury and microbiological changes in rats.

20 **Methods** Sprague-Dawley rats were randomized into control, Spontaneously Breathing (1, 3, 6 hours),
21 Mechanical ventilation(1, 3, 6 hours) groups. Lung wet to dry weight ratio (W/D weight ratio) and Lung
22 histopathological injury score were evaluated.16SrDNA sequencing was performed to explore
23 respiratory flora changes.

24 **Results** Bacterial diversity was comparable between healthy and intubation mechanical ventilation
25 rats, with time relation. Ordination analyses revealed that samples clustered more dispersing by
26 tracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation. Finally, predicted metagenomes suggested a
27 substantial increase in biofilm formation phenotype during early tracheal intubation and mechanical
28 ventilation.

29 **Conclusion** Collectively, these results establish a link between the duration of mechanical ventilation
30 and alterations to the respiratory tract microecology. In future studies, we hope to discover the
31 effectiveness of new immunomodulatory or probiotic bacteria to prevent airway diseases associated
32 with ventilator therapy.

34 **Keywords:** Mechanical ventilation, lung injury, Respiratory tract, Microecology, Floraimbalance

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37 **1. Introduction**

38 Ventilator mechanical ventilation is widely used to manage general anesthesia during surgery,
39 respiratory maintenance in intensive care, and perioperative treatment of critically ill patients. However,
40 mechanical ventilation can also lead to lung injury or exacerbate existing lung injury, known as
41 ventilator-induced lung injury (VILI)^{1,2}. Also, lung inflammation can occur during ventilator therapy.
42 Current studies have found that mechanical ventilation induces upregulation of cytokine expression in
43 a pro-inflammatory state to the body. Thus, patients are more susceptible to "second strikes"
44 (prolonged mechanical ventilation, aspiration, shock, sepsis, pulmonary infections)³. The most
45 common "second strike" in mechanically ventilated patients is pulmonary infections. The effects of the
46 body's immune system from the own comorbidities and malnutrition in patients receiving mechanical
47 ventilation under anesthesia⁶ can also increase the morbidity and mortality of respiratory infections⁴.
48 Respiratory microecology is one of the critical factors in the function of the respiratory tract. Studies
49 over the past few years have demonstrated that the lower respiratory tract is not "sterile" and that, in
50 healthy conditions, the lung microbiota is less dense but harbors a remarkable diversity of interacting
51 microbiota. The ribosomal DNA of Actinobacteria, Aspergillus, Bacteroides, and Bacteroides is present
52 in the lungs of healthy individuals⁵⁻⁸. The "steady state" of the lung microbiome during health may be
53 a process of continuous influx and continuous elimination of unfavorable growth conditions. Studies
54 have confirmed that the balance between immigration and elimination during pulmonary disease is
55 disturbed. The pulmonary microbiota is altered, with bacteria exhibiting competitive dominance⁹,
56 resulting in an imbalance in the host immune system^{7,10-12}.

57 The imbalance of respiratory flora may lead to local or even systemic bacterial infections, and the
58 microecological regulatory mechanisms are complex. Identification of microbial colonization by
59 alveolar lavage collected primarily from critically ill patients is currently used clinically to guide
60 anti-infection protocols, while few studies have been reported on the relationship between lung injury
61 and inflammatory response to mechanical ventilation and changes in respiratory flora. Therefore, this
62 study investigated the relationship between lung injury and microbiological changes in rats with
63 tracheal intubation mechanical ventilation and contributed to the study of flora regulation of the
64 respiratory tract in lung injury and inflammation.

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67 **2. Materials and Methods**

68 To investigate the relationship between lung injury from mechanical ventilation and changes in
69 respiratory flora, we assessed the inflammatory response and microbial changes in the rat airways by
70 pathophysiology and 16SrDNA sequencing.

71 **2.2 Animals**

72 Male Sprague - Dawley rats (weighing between 230-330g and aged 8-9 wk) were housed at the
73 Southern Hospital Experimental Centre of Southern Medical University, under the same temperature
74 and humidity environment, and received the same food and water. Animal care and experimental
75 protocols were guidelines by the National Science Council of the Republic of China(NSC1997). The
76 animal studies were reviewed and approved by the Ethical Committee on Animal Experimentation of
77 Nanfang Hospital, Southern Medical University , Guangzhou, China (NFYY-2021-0245) .

78 Twenty-eight male SD rats were randomly divided into seven groups (n=4): control group (group C),
79 tracheal intubation with spontaneous breathing for one hour (group SV1), tracheal intubation with
80 spontaneous breathing for three hours (group SV3), tracheal intubation with spontaneous breathing for
81 six hours (group SV6), tracheal intubation with mechanical ventilation for one hour (group MV1),
82 tracheal intubation with mechanical ventilation for three hours (group MV3), tracheal intubation with
83 mechanical ventilation for six hours (group MV6) (MV6 group). After weighing, we anesthetized the
84 rats with 2% pentobarbital sodium (60 mg/kg) by intraperitoneal injection. We placed our homemade
85 tracheal into the trachea and connected a small animal ventilator (SuperV1.0, HYB, China) for

86 mechanical ventilation. A room temperature of 26-28°C was maintained throughout the procedure. The
87 control group was directly executed after tracheal intubation, while the SV group was intubated and left
88 to breathe independently. The MV group was mechanically ventilated at 1, 3, and 6 hours, respectively.
89 Mechanical ventilation parameters: tidal volume (VT) 7 ml/kg, PEEP = 0 mmHg, respiratory rate 80
90 breaths/min (adjusted according to respiration during anaesthesia), inhalation-expiration ratio (I: E) =
91 1:2, inhaled gas was air (oxygen concentration 21%).

92 **2.3 Experiments**

93 **2.3.1 Rat lung injury assay**

94 **2.3.1.1 Lung tissue W/D**

95 To investigate the effect of the duration of mechanical ventilation on the edema of lung tissue, we
96 calculated the wet to dry weight ratio (W/D) value of lung tissue. The tissue was weighed on an
97 electronic balance and recorded as wet weight. The tissue was then baked in an oven at 80°C and
98 weighed to a constant weight, and recorded as dry weight, and the lung tissue was baked for ≥ 48 h.

99 **2.3.1.2 Histopathological examination of the lung**

100 To observe the pathological damage of lung tissue at different ventilation duration, we performed
101 HE-stained light microscopy of lung tissue. The anterior lobe of the right lung of rats was fixed in 4%
102 paraformaldehyde solution. After paraffin embedding, sectioning, and HE staining, the lung was placed
103 under a light microscope to observe the histopathological changes. Five high magnification views were
104 randomly selected to observe the lung tissue morphology, and the pictures were taken and saved.

105 Scores included lung tissue congestion, septal edema, erythrocyte infiltration, alveolar cavity
106 destruction, capillary destruction, and other pathological changes, and the mean values were taken
107 after scoring^{13,14}.

108 **2.2.4 Detection of respiratory flora in rats**

109 **Specimen collection**

110 The trachea and left lung of 28 SD rats were removed, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored in a
111 -80°C refrigerator to sequence the 16SrDNA colonies.

112 **PCR amplification**

113 The 16S rDNA target region of the ribosomal RNA gene were amplified by PCR (95 °C for 5 min,
114 followed by 30 cycles at 95 °C for 1 min, 60 °C for 1 min, and 72 °C for 1 min and a final extension at
115 72 °C for 7 min) using primers listed in the table¹⁵. PCR reactions were performed in triplicate 50 µL
116 mixture containing 10 µL of 5 × Q5@ Reaction Buffer, 10 µL of 5 × Q5@ High GC Enhancer, 1.5 µL of
117 2.5 mM dNTPs, 1.5 µL of each primer (10 µM), 0.2 µL of Q5@ High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase, and 50
118 ng of template DNA. Related PCR reagents were from New England Biolabs, USA.

119 **DNA sequencing and analysis**

120 Illumina Novaseq 6000 sequencing Amplicons were extracted from 2% agarose gels and purified
121 using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union City, CA, U.S.) according to the
122 manufacturer's instructions and quantified using ABI StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Life
123 Technologies , Foster City, USA). Purified amplicons were pooled in equimolar and paired-end
124 sequenced (PE250) on an Illumina platform according to the standard protocols. The raw reads were
125 deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database (Accession Number: SRP*****).

126 **2.2.5 Statistical Methods**

127 For the ratio of Lung tissue W/D and lung injury score, One-way ANOVA test was completed. For
128 Observe species index and Simpson index, comparisons were performed by the Turkey HSD test. The
129 significant difference of Beta diversity was tested with Adonis non-parametric test. The Turkey HSD
130 test compared the relative abundance of respiratory microbiota between groups. P-values less than
131 0.05 were considered statistically significant. One-way ANOVA test was performed by SPSS software,
132 version 25.0 (IBM Corp, New York, NY, USA). The Adonis non-parametric test was performed, and the
133 Turkey HSD test was performed by the OmicShare tools, a free online platform for data analysis
134 (<http://www.omicshare.com/tools>).

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137 **3.Results**

138 **Comparison of lung tissue W/D values between groups**

139 The W/D values of lung tissue in the SV and MV groups were significantly higher after three hours. ($P <$
140 0.05) (Table 1).

141 **Pathological changes in lung tissue**

142 The alveolar structure of group C was normal, with a small number of inflammatory cells infiltrating
143 the lung. Six hours into the SV group, there was significant hemorrhage, widening of the alveolar
144 septum, lymphocytic infiltration, and massive destruction of the alveolar structure. Three hours into the
145 MV group, diffuse intra-pulmonary hemorrhage was seen. Six hours into ventilation, massive diffuse
146 hemorrhage was seen, widening of the alveolar septum, more exudate in the alveolar cavity,
147 destruction of the tissue structure, fusion of the alveoli and solid lung tissue. The degree of lung tissue
148 damage in the SV and MV groups increased with time (Figure 1).

149 **Analysis of respiratory microbiological changes**

150 **Analysis of the composition of the respiratory flora**

151 Dominant species largely determine the ecological and functional structure of the microbial community
152 and understand the community's species composition. We analyzed the bacterial composition using
153 16S rDNA gene sequencing. After filtering and screening at uniform depth, a total of 24 phyla and 244

154 genera were identified in the entire sample. To investigate the phylum and genus that accounted for
155 most sequences, we selected species ranked top10 in abundance mean among all samples to show in
156 detail. Others refer to other known species in the figure, and unclassified refer to unknown species ^{16,17}.
157 The dominant phyla of rats were Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria,
158 Actinobacteria. In healthy rats, the dominant genus was Lactobacillus. In mechanically ventilated rats,
159 the dominant genus was Acinetobacter at the beginning. The proportion of the dominant genus
160 Acinetobacter decreased, and that of Prevotella_9 increased as the duration of ventilation increased.
161 The predominant genus in the respiratory tract of the rats was also Acinetobacter at the early stage of
162 tracheal intubation, while the proportion of Streptococcus gradually increased with time (Figure 2a.
163 Figure 2b). To further investigate the main flora specific to each group, we applied LEFse to analyze
164 the differences in flora between the seven rat groups ¹⁸. As shown in the figure(Figure 2c), only the
165 normal rats and the 6hours group showed the main differential flora, Parvibacter for 6 hours of
166 autonomic breathing, Megamonas for 6hours of mechanical ventilation, and normal rats
167 Acinetobacter_radioresistens.

168 As expected, the two operations of tracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation resulted in
169 alterations in the respiratory microecology of rats. The main strains of normal adult BALF are
170 Actinobacteria, Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, and Firmicutes ⁵⁻⁸. The strains of rats in this study
171 cover the main human strains and are similar to humans. It has been demonstrated that
172 representatives of the genus Acinetobacter come from the lung microbiome of mechanically ventilated
173 patients with suspected pneumonia ¹⁹. In the present study, the elevated proportion of Acinetobacter
174 as the dominant species during the initial phase of mechanical ventilation with tracheal intubation may

175 have contributed to the gradual pathological damage of lung tissue. As the duration of ventilation
176 increased, the proportion of *Prevotella_9* gradually increased, and it was considered that the
177 subclinical lung inflammatory manifestations caused by mechanical ventilation created an environment
178 for *Prevotella_9* to be retained in the lungs^{20,21}. Two classes of probiotics, *Parvibacter* and
179 *Megamonas*, are often present in the intestinal tract of humans and animals, and the induction of
180 mechanical ventilation by tracheal intubation itself may be associated with changes in intestinal
181 microbial composition and diversity. There is now strong evidence that the gut microbiota can influence
182 the microbiology of the lung through direct inoculation of bacteria or the distribution of SCFAs^{22,23}.
183 Characterization of lower airway probiotic bacteria associated with lung injury from tracheal intubation
184 with mechanical ventilation may be necessary for in-depth exploration of methods to prevent such
185 injury.

186 Interestingly, although many taxa are shared between samples, the absence of pathogens (e.g.,
187 dominant genera) in one sample does not predict their absence in paired sample sequence data. For
188 example, samples V1-1 and V3-1, despite not detecting *Sediminibacterium* and *Curvibacter*, showed
189 trends consistent with other genus compared to controls. It is important to note that the dominant
190 genus in samples V1-2 was *Streptococcus* and the second-highest proportion was *Acinetobacter*.
191 These examples show that different pathogens can vary in different individuals of the same organism,
192 and therefore, 16S rDNA sequence data are not always representative of lower respiratory tract
193 infections. Lower airway Bacterial diversity varies in healthy and ventilator-assisted breathing rats.

194 **Alpha Diversity**

195 As mentioned above, in each sample, a few taxa dominate the majority of the sequences. Two alpha

196 diversity metrics, Observed species, and Simpson diversity were used to investigate this issue further
197 to measure species richness and homogeneity^{24,25}. The OTU was highest in the mechanically
198 ventilated 6hours group, indicating the highest abundance. However, the difference between the
199 control and autonomic breathing 6hours groups was not significant, and OUT abundance decreased at
200 1hour and 3hours in both ventilated and autonomic breathing groups (Figure 3a). Using the Simpson
201 diversity index, the abundance and homogeneity of the respiratory flora decreased in each
202 experimental group compared with the control group, but the differences were not significant (Figure
203 3b and Figure 3c). These data suggest that mechanical ventilation tracheal intubation alters the
204 abundance and homogeneity of lower airway microecology with time influenced.

205 **Beta Diversity**

206 Beta diversity of the respiratory microbiota was visualized using a ranking method. We were interested
207 in whether the bacterial community aggregates tightly due to tracheal intubation or mechanical
208 ventilation. Previous evidence suggests that three main factors determine the composition of the lower
209 respiratory microbiota, namely microbial migration, microbial elimination, and the relative replication
210 rate of its members.⁹ The oral and pulmonary have similar microbiomes community^{1,9,26}. A study has
211 investigated that the oral microbiome is part of the homeostatic processes regulating lung
212 inflammation²⁶. Mechanical ventilation operations with tracheal intubation may dysregulate
213 microecology by impairing lower airway defense mechanisms^{27,28}. We hypothesized that samples are
214 more intensively clustered by tracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation based on previous studies.
215 To confirm this hypothesis, we used unweighted Unifrac and weighted Unifrac, two
216 abundance-sensitive, phylogenetically relevant diversity metrics, to compare samples²⁹. The two

217 metrics were calculated to determine the pairwise phylogenetic distances between each sample, then
218 plotted using principal coordinate analysis (PCoA)³⁰. From the unweighted Unifrac, contrary to our
219 hypothesis, samples from the SV and MV groups did not cluster more closely with healthy rats
220 (PERMANOVA, $P=0.001$) (Figure 4a). The graph shows that the mechanically ventilated group
221 (PERMANOVA, $R^2=0.3737$, $P=0.002$) and the autonomously ventilated group (PERMANOVA
222 $R^2=0.4702$, $P=0.002$) both exhibited moderate phylogenetic differences (Figure 4b, Figure 4c).
223 Although experimental groups were better aggregated with healthy rats in terms of weighted Unifrac
224 (PERMANOVA, $P=0.122$), the autonomic breathing group exhibited more significant phylogenetic
225 differences than the mechanically ventilated group (PERMANOVA, $R^2=0.6939$, $P=0.001$) (Figure 4d,
226 Figure 4e, Figure 4f). These analyses suggest that the overall community structure of the rat lower
227 airway is influenced by tracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation.

228 **Predicted functional categories (功能预测分析)**

229 To gain insight into the function of the bacterial community, PICRUST2³¹ was implemented to infer
230 bacterial metagenomes based on 16S rDNA gene content. There were 33 unique KEGG pathways
231 among the inferred metagenomes and showed more remarkable similarities between normal rats and
232 each ventilated group (Figure 5). This shows that mechanical ventilation by tracheal intubation does
233 not significantly alter the functional capacity of the bacterial community in the lower respiratory tract of
234 rats. To further summarize the output of PICRUST, we utilized BugBase, a bioinformatics tool that
235 allows inference of community-wide phenotypes from predicted metagenomes³². BugBase found that
236 gene function associated with anaerobiosis was enriched in the lower airway samples and,
237 interestingly, gene function was reduced early in mechanical ventilation (CvsMV1 $P=0.013$). The

238 important genus attributed changed, with Proteobacteria being the dominant genus for 1hour of
239 mechanical ventilation, and this dominance tended to decrease with time (Figure 6A). Biofilm
240 formation and Gram-negative phenotypes were bacterial genus phenotypes frequently associated with
241 respiratory pathogenicity. Our study suggested that biofilm formation phenotypes were substantially
242 elevated during early tracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation, with Proteobacteria being the
243 predominant cause of this phenotype. Moreover, Gram-negative phenotypes have no significant
244 differences between groups, but phenotypes were more diverse in samples from 6hours of mechanical
245 ventilation. Biofilm-forming bacteria were observed in the predicted metagenomes of each group. With
246 the increasing understanding of the microbiota, we recognize interactions between the microbiota and
247 the immune system of the airway epithelium. For example, asthma and allergy¹¹ vary with the
248 occurrence of airway infections. Studies have confirmed that microinhalation, external pressure, etc.,
249 favor the establishment of microbial biofilms. Biofilms have significant antimicrobial tolerance, evading
250 host immune system attack and persisting in the host³³. In the present study, biofilm-associated gene
251 phenotypes were enhanced in rats undergoing mechanical ventilation with tracheal intubation,
252 indicating enhanced biogenesis, consistent with previous studies³⁴. Overall, these data suggest that
253 the initial phase of mechanical ventilation by tracheal intubation disrupts the ecotone. Anaerobic
254 phenotypic function decreased, and other phenotypes associated with bacterial pathogenicities also
255 were influenced. However, it is also difficult to explain whether the reduced diversity of the
256 microbiome is a causative factor for disease or whether diversity is simply a response to disease
257 inflammation.

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267 4. Discussion

268 With the continuous medical advances, tracheal intubation mechanical ventilation has been widely
269 used in managing general anesthesia during surgery, intensive care units, and emergency
270 resuscitation of critically ill patients. However, mechanical ventilation is also a "double-edged sword,"
271 which may lead to lung injury or aggravate existing lung injury^{35,36}. Volume injury due to lung
272 hyperinflation and shear injury due to repeated opening and closing of the terminal airway play an
273 essential role in the pathogenesis of VILI³. On the other hand, respiratory inflammation may occur
274 during ventilatory therapy. As an open cavity between the human body and the outside world, the
275 respiratory tract has a normal microbiota that is an integral part of the human body's natural defense.
276 Respiratory microbiota provides a biological barrier against the invasion of foreign bodies or
277 pathogenic bacteria through mechanisms such as spatial occupancy, healthy competition, and
278 secretion of antibacterial or bactericidal substances³⁷⁻⁴⁰. As one of the most frequently contacted parts
279 of the human body, the respiratory micro-ecosystem is essential in maintaining human health and is
280 also most vulnerable to damage. In recent years, the lower respiratory tract microbiota has been
281 extensively studied and reported to be similar to that of the oropharynx^{1,2,41}. However, studies
282 exploring the relationship between mechanical ventilation and lower airway microecology have mainly
283 explored at the level of ventilator-associated pneumonia (VAP)⁴²⁻⁴⁵. Changes in lower airway
284 microecology during the initial phase of mechanical ventilation have not been reported. To investigate
285 the in vivo response of tracheal intubation mechanical ventilation on lower respiratory microecology in
286 SD rats in this study, we obtained pathological findings of lung inflammation and injury and data on
287 bacterial community structure.

288 In the present study, we observed that three hours after the administration of mechanical ventilation
289 with tracheal intubation, hemorrhagic spots appeared in the lung tissue, widening of the alveolar
290 septum, large amounts of exudate in the alveolar cavity, and altered alveolar structural damage, which
291 aggravated with time. Correspondingly, the highest percentage of Proteobacteria was present in the
292 experimental and control groups. At the onset of mechanical ventilation, the percentage of
293 Proteobacteria in the lower airways increased more than twofold compared to controls. At the same
294 time, the number of Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes decreased about fourfold. When six hours of
295 mechanical ventilation had elapsed, Actinobacteria was more than four times that of the control group.
296 These results suggest that mechanical ventilation with tracheal intubation alters the structure of the
297 microecology while inducing lung tissue damage. However, how bacterial changes and tissue damage
298 interact and require further study. We observed a significant amount of Acinetobacter within three
299 hours of mechanical ventilation; therefore, Acinetobacter may be one of the factors involved in
300 mediating the proinflammatory phase of lung tissue injury. It has been demonstrated that
301 Acinetobacter may be the predominant bacteria in the lung microbiota of mechanically ventilated
302 patients with pneumonia¹⁹. The excessive growth of this pathogen may promote airway injury and
303 exacerbate microecological dysregulation. Lactobacillus and Streptococcus gradually increase with
304 prolonged ventilation. Lactobacillus and Streptococcus act as probiotic strains. On the one hand,
305 altering the composition of the host-microbiome dysregulate the microecology. On the other hand, they
306 act indirectly through the standard mucosal immune system (CMIS)⁴⁶. These probiotic strains may
307 play a positive role in alleviating respiratory impairment and the corresponding microecological
308 imbalance. In the mechanically ventilated 6-hour group, the main differential bacteria genus

309 Prevotella_9 likewise belongs to probiotic bacteria and is often present in the intestine. Current studies
310 have confirmed the existence of an intestinal-pulmonary microbiome axis in the organism⁴⁷. AS the
311 metabolically active bacteria, Bacteroides and Firmicutes produce SCFA. We know that the gut
312 microbiota can influence the microbiology of the lung through the distribution of SCFAs. SCFAs play a
313 key role in maintaining mucosal immunity in the gut and lung tissues as a bridge between the
314 microbiota and the immune system.^{22,23}. Our findings may be relevant to understanding the
315 mechanisms between tracheal intubation mechanical ventilation and lung tissue injury. Mechanical
316 ventilation by tracheal intubation leads to an inflammatory response characterized by impaired airway
317 defense mechanisms and alters in the microenvironment structure of the lower airways. In the future,
318 we will further investigate probiotics to assess the prognostic relevance of microbial imbalance and the
319 effectiveness of specific therapeutic interventions.

320 We analyzed lower airway microorganisms' alpha and beta diversity. We found that both tracheal
321 intubation and mechanical ventilation cause changes in the microbial composition of the lower airways.
322 At the beginning of tracheal intubation mechanical ventilation, bacterial species diversity decreased,
323 indicating that intubation ventilation impaired the ecological niche balance in the lower airways of rats
324 and disturbed bacterial diversity. Six hours after ventilation, bacterial diversity was elevated, and
325 species composition remained different from healthy rats, considering that it may be related to
326 pathogen overgrowth and stimulation of the host immune system that promotes disease
327 development⁴⁸. It is noteworthy that the experimental and control groups differed in bacterial species
328 abundance but were more homogeneous. As seen in this study, the samples from the experimental
329 and control groups were not well aggregated, suggesting that the overall community structure of the

330 rat lower airway is influenced by tracheal intubation and mechanical ventilation. However, the sample
331 size of the groups in this experiment was small, and there were subject differences between
332 individuals^{37,39,49}. The sample size needs to be increased in subsequent experiments to explore the
333 relationship between the two further.

334 There may be a relationship between mechanical ventilation status and airway immune function.
335 Previous studies have shown that lower respiratory microbes are essential in the immune system's
336 maturation, education, and function. Especially, the regulation of the inflammatory response in
337 respiratory diseases such as asthma⁵⁰, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)⁵¹, cystic
338 fibrosis⁵², and respiratory infections⁵³ plays a key role. Ecological dysregulation leads to overgrowth
339 of pathogenic bacteria, loss of symbiotic microbial diversity, and, ultimately, an inflammatory response
340 in the host, leading to disease^{54 55}. In the present study, after stimulation by mechanical ventilation
341 with tracheal intubation, the microecological balance in the lower airways was disturbed, the loss of
342 symbiotic microbial diversity, the immune system was affected, and inflammatory pathological changes
343 began to develop in the lung tissue. The inflammatory cascade response and pro-inflammatory
344 cytokines are hyperactivated with prolonged mechanical ventilation. Eventually, lung tissue increased
345 damage. In BugBase functional analysis, we found biofilm formation gene-function phenotypes
346 elevated abundance compared to the control group. It may be associated with damage to airway
347 epithelial cells and disruption of defense mechanisms due to stimulation by tracheal intubation
348 mechanical ventilation maneuvers. Biofilms have significant antimicrobial tolerance and can persist in
349 the host and evade the host immune system^{33,56}. We know that specialized respiratory epithelial cells
350 are necessary to maintain immune homeostasis in the lower airway tract. As the first line of defense

351 against potentially harmful environmental stimuli, respiratory epithelial cells are involved in maintaining
352 immune homeostasis. Thus, epithelial cell dysfunction may influence the development of many
353 airways and pulmonary inflammatory diseases^{57,58}. In addition, it has been demonstrated that NF- κ B,
354 TINCR, and PGLYRP4 (rs3006458) are involved in airway immune mechanisms^{59,60}. In future studies,
355 we hope to investigate further the relationship between the mechanical ventilation status of tracheal
356 intubation alone and epithelial cell alterations. We will make predictions of relevant metabolic
357 pathways by metatranscriptomic metabolomic and proteomic studies.

358 In conclusion, our findings may be relevant to understanding the altered immune system mechanisms
359 between tracheal intubation mechanical ventilation and lung tissue injury. Such operations as tracheal
360 intubation ventilator-assisted ventilation lead to lung injury and inflammatory responses characterized
361 by changes in the microbial community of the lower airways that become temporally correlated. The
362 present study provides new ideas for functional studies on the role of pulmonary commensals in
363 airway morphogenesis development, epithelial homeostasis, and the immune system. Particularly, it
364 allows a more systematic study of bacteria's colonization and growth characteristics on pulmonary
365 epithelial cells, their impact on lung infection and inflammation. Future studies hope to discover the
366 effectiveness of new immunomodulatory or probiotic bacteria to prevent airway diseases associated
367 with intraoperative or postoperative short-term intubation.

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516 **Figure legend**

517 **Figure 1.** Effect of mechanical ventilation on lung tissues injury from rats. (a) Rats were executed
518 directly after tracheal intubation under anesthesia. (b-d) Rats were kept under anesthesia after
519 tracheal intubation with spontaneous breathing for 1, 3, and 6 h. (e-g). Rats were mechanically
520 ventilated for 1, 3, and 6 h after tracheal intubation. (h) Lung tissue injury score. Data are
521 representative of at least four different experiments. Results are mean \pm S, for four rats. * $p < 0.05$,
522 ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, compared with control animals or between mechanical ventilation six hours and
523 spontaneous breathing six hours.

524 **Figure 2.** Changes in the lower respiratory tract flora of rats during mechanical ventilation. (a) At the
525 phylum level, the main dominant phyla were Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Cyanobacteria,
526 and Actinobacteria. (b) At the genus level, the main dominant genera were Acinetobacter,
527 Lactobacillus, and Staphylococcus. Streptococcus. (c) LEFse analysis (LDA >2.0) was performed for
528 all groups, with corresponding differential strains for control, MV6, SV6, Acinetobacter_radioresistens
529 for control, Megamonas for MV6, and Parvibacter for SV6. In summary, tracheal intubation mechanical
530 ventilation caused changes in the lower respiratory tract flora ratio in rats.

531 **Figure 3.** Alpha diversity of rat lower respiratory tract flora. (a) The observed species index decreased
532 in the first 3 hours of mechanical ventilation and gradually increased as ventilation was prolonged. (b)
533 Simpson index was not statistically different among groups, and the homogeneity of species was more
534 consistent among groups. (c) Alpha diversity dilution curves leveled off in all groups, indicating a
535 sufficient amount of data in each group.

536 **Figure 4.** Beta diversity of rat lower respiratory tract flora. (a-c) In unweighted Unifrac analysis,
537 tracheal intubation mechanical ventilation made the rat's lower respiratory flora more fragmented. (d-f)
538 In the weighted Unifrac analysis of all groups, tracheal intubation mechanical ventilation did not make
539 the rat respiratory flora more dispersed. However, in comparing normal rats with the spontaneously
540 breathing group, a more significant dispersion of the rat lower respiratory flora occurred.

541 **Figure 5.** PICRUSt2 analysis of rat lower respiratory tract flora. Thirty-three unique KEGG pathways
542 among the inferred metagenomes. It is showed more remarkable similarities between normal rats and
543 each ventilated group.

544 **Figure 6.** Bugbase analysis of rat lower respiratory tract flora. (a) With the associated representative
545 genera changes, anaerobic activity is diminished at the beginning of mechanical ventilation by tracheal
546 intubation. (b) Forms_Biofilm is enhanced at the beginning of mechanical ventilation by tracheal
547 intubation, and the associated representative genera are altered. (c) Gram_Negative formation did not
548 vary much between groups, slightly increased at the beginning of the experiment, and the proportion
549 slightly decreased with the prolongation of the experiment.

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551

552 **Table**

553 Table 1. Effect of mechanical ventilation on lung wet to dry weight ratio (W/D) from rats (n=4, $\bar{X}\pm SD$)

554

	Control	Mechanical Ventilation			Spontaneously Breathing		
		1h	3h	6h	1h	3h	6h
W/	5.579±0.39	5.958±0.56	6.839±1.04	11.618±1.63*	5.873±0.28	6.895±0.16	8.561±1.34
D	3	9 [#]	7 [#]	#	1 [#]	3 [#]	8*

555

556 Data are means and(sd) for control, Mechanical Ventilation(1, 3, 6 h) and Spontaneously Breathing (1,

557 3, 6 h) rats.

558 Value are mean ± SD.

559 *p<0.05 vs control . #p<0.05 vs mechanical ventilaition 6

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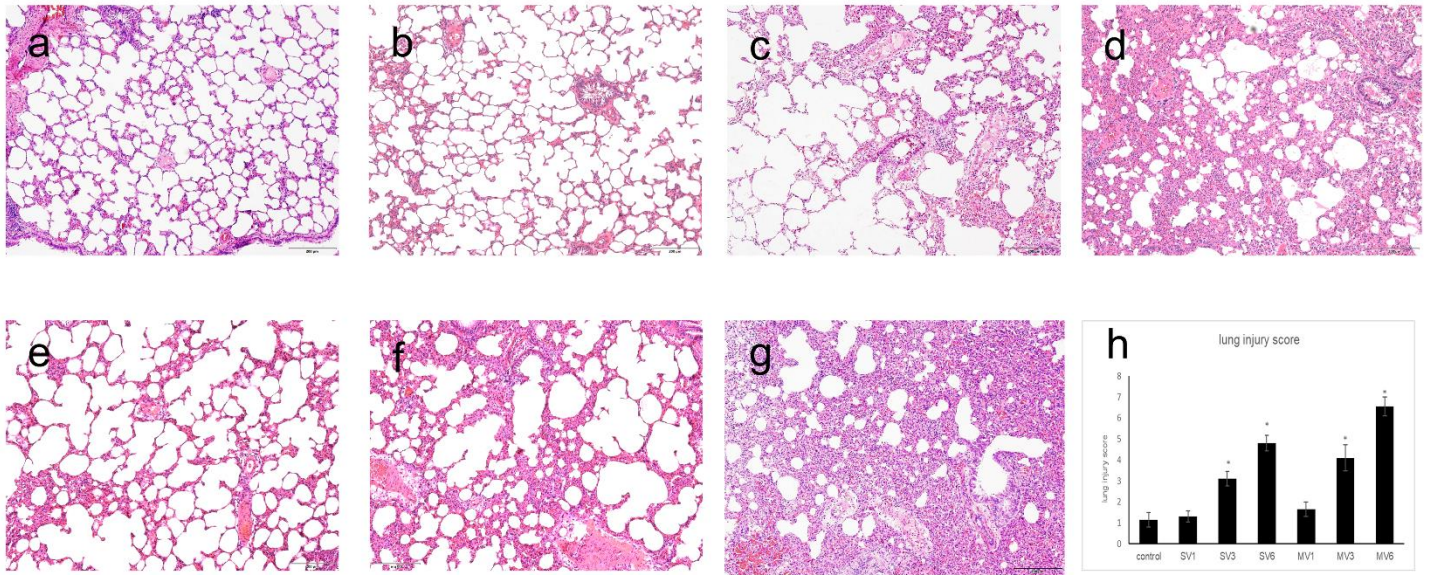
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568 bio information analysis of Gene Denovo Biotechnology Co., Ltd (Guangzhou, China).

1 Figure

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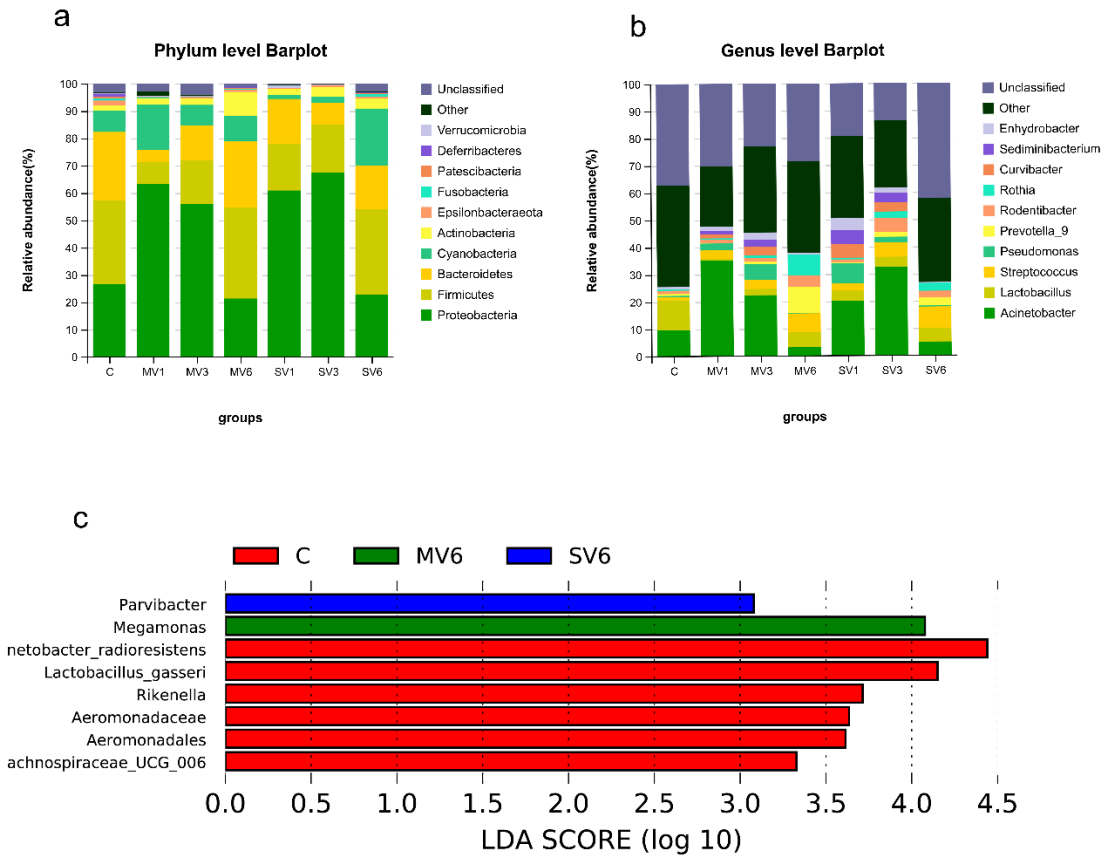
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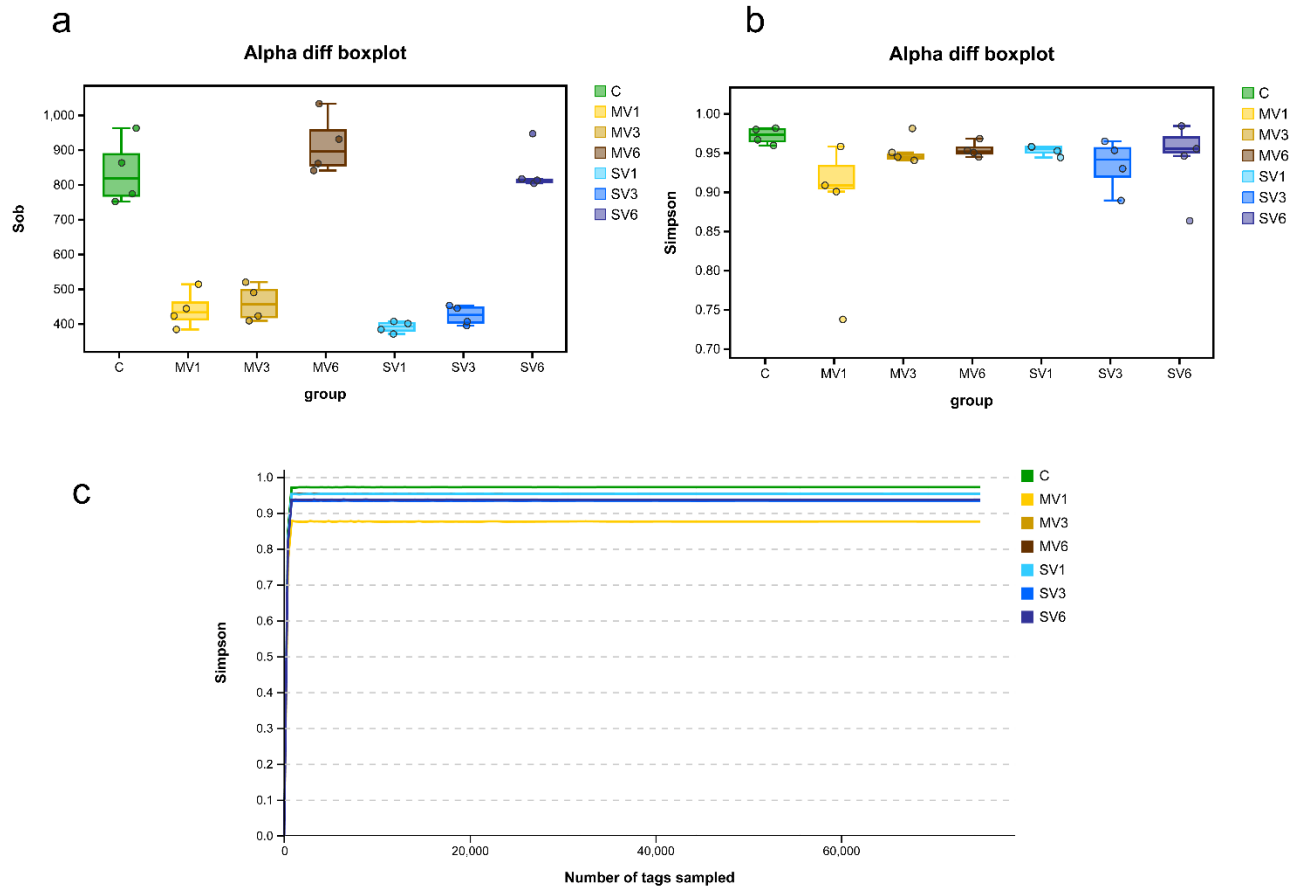
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 22 rats.

23 Figure3



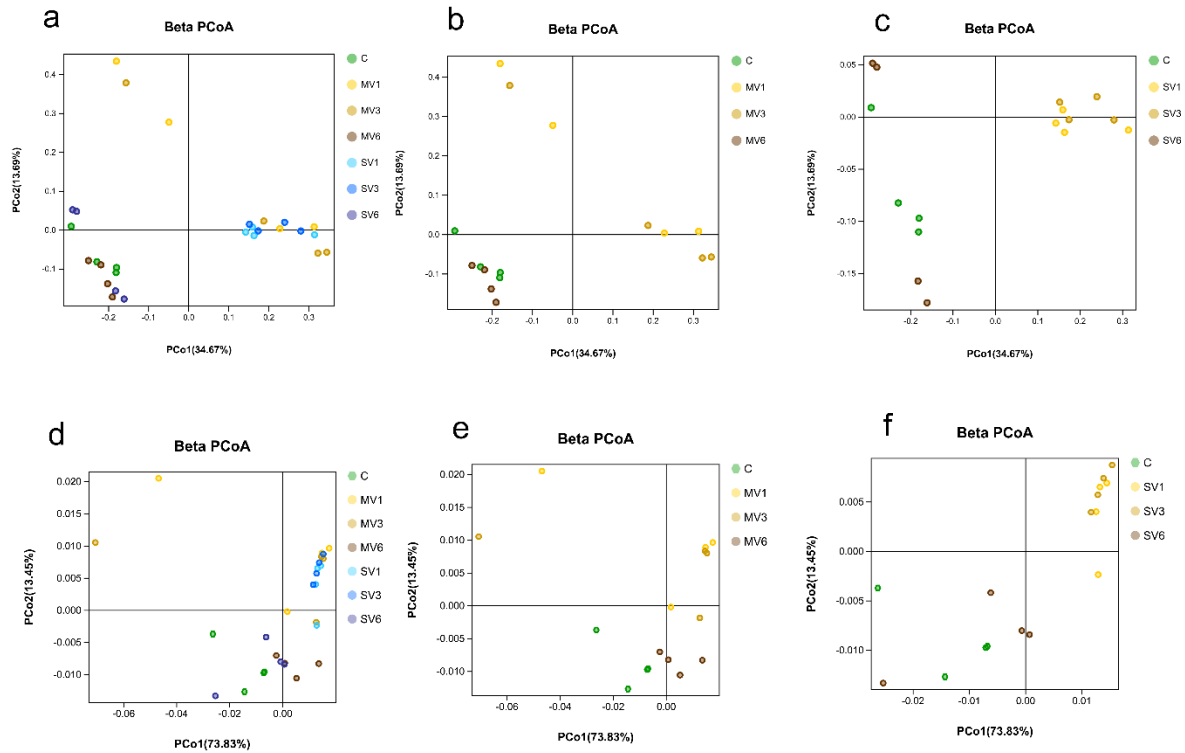
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32 **Figure 4**



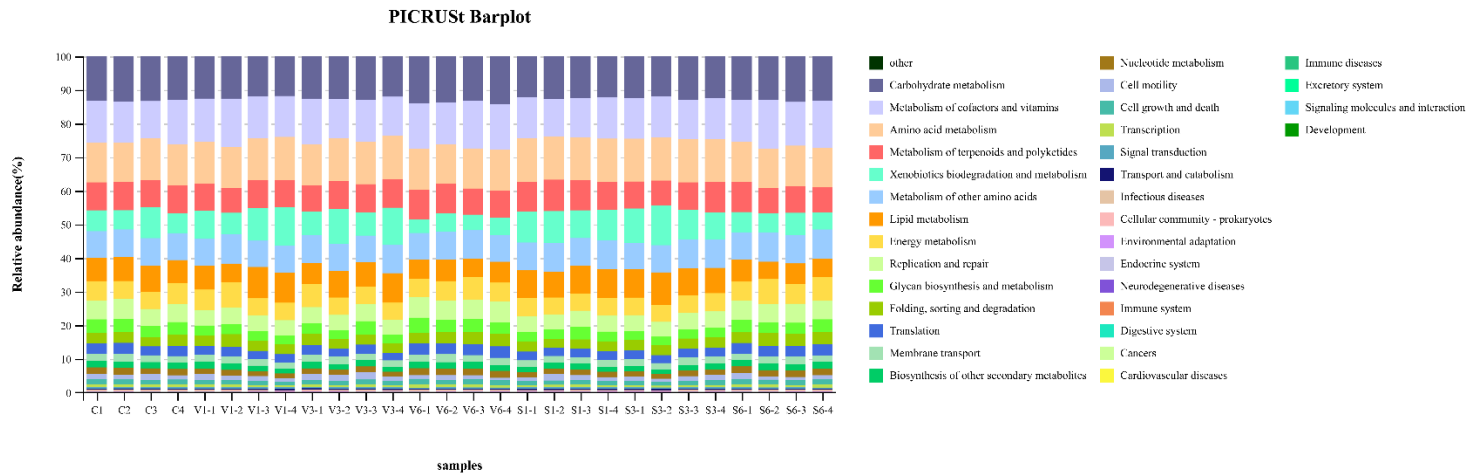
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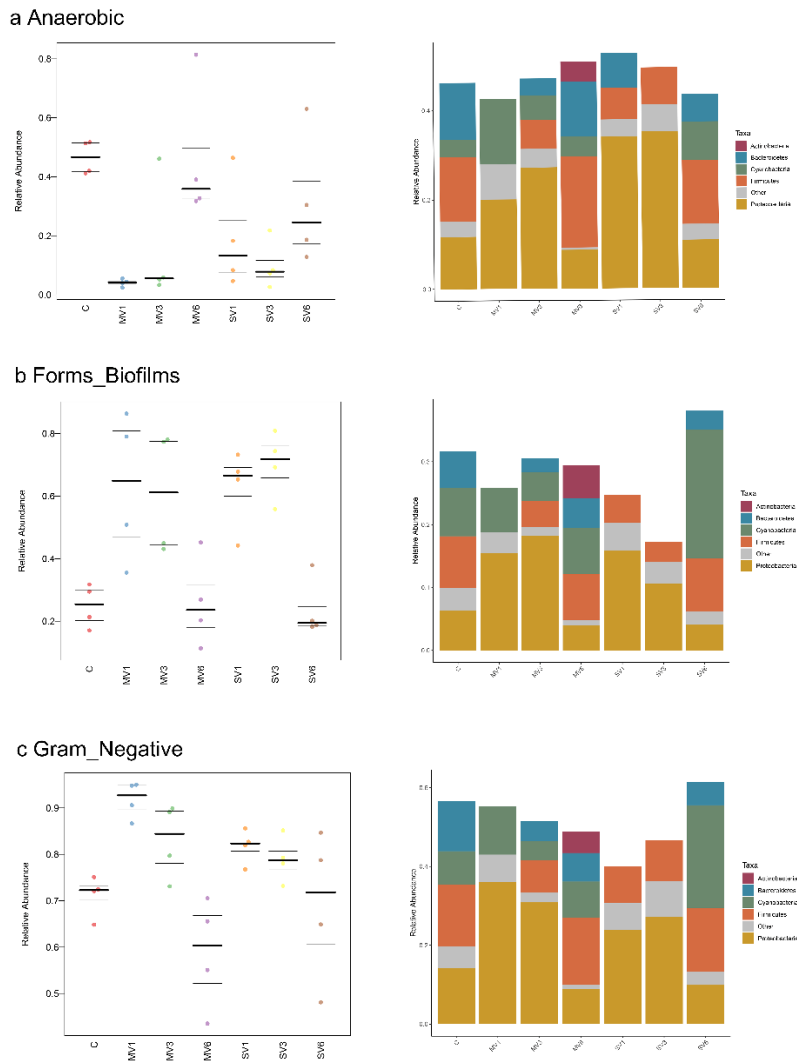
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