1	Obesity influences composition of salivary and fecal microbiota and impacts the
2	interactions between bacterial taxa
3	Andrei Bombin ¹ , Jonathan D. Mosley ^{1,2} , Shun Yan ³ , Sergei Bombin ⁴ , and Jane F.
4	Ferguson ⁵ .
5	
6	¹ Division of Clinical Pharmacology, Department of Medicine, Vanderbilt University Medical
7	Center, Nashville TN.
8	² Department of Biomedical Informatics, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville TN
9	³ Department of Genetics, The University of Alabama, Birmingham AL.
10	⁴ Department of Biological Sciences, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa AL.
11	⁵ Division of Cardiovascular Medicine, Department of Medicine, Vanderbilt University Medical
12	Center, Nashville TN.
13	
14	Correspondence:
15	Jane F. Ferguson OR Andrei Bombin
16	2220 Pierce Ave, Preston Research Building 354
17	Nashville, TN 37232
18	
19	jane.f.ferguson@vumc.org

20	abombin93@gmail.com
20	abombin93@gmail.com

38 ABSTRACT

Obesity is an increasing global health concern and is associated with a broad range of 39 40 morbidities. The gut microbiota are increasingly recognized as important contributors to obesity 41 and cardiometabolic health. This study aimed to characterize oral and gut microbial communities, and evaluate host:microbiota interactions between clinical obesity classifications. 42 43 We performed 16S rDNA sequencing on fecal and salivary samples, global metabolomics profiling on plasma and stool samples, and dietary profiling in 135 healthy individuals. We 44 grouped individuals by obesity status, based on body mass index (BMI), including lean (BMI 18-45 24.9), overweight (BMI 25-29.9), or obese (BMI ≥30). We analyzed differences in microbiome 46 composition, community inter-relationships, and predicted microbial function by obesity status. 47 We found that salivary bacterial communities of lean and obese individuals were 48 compositionally and phylogenetically distinct. An increase in obesity status was positively 49 associated with strong correlations between bacterial taxa, particularly with bacterial groups 50 implicated in metabolic disorders including Fretibacterium, and Tannerella. Consumption of 51 sweeteners, especially xylitol, significantly influenced compositional and phylogenetic 52 diversities of salivary and fecal bacterial communities. In addition, obesity groups exhibited 53 54 differences in predicted bacterial metabolic activity, which was correlated with host's metabolite concentrations. Overall, obesity was associated with distinct changes in bacterial community 55 dynamics, particularly in saliva. Consideration of microbiome community structure, and 56 57 inclusion of salivary samples may improve our ability to understand pathways linking microbiota to obesity and cardiometabolic disease. 58

59 **IMPORTANCE**

Obesity is a worldwide epidemic that is associated with a wide range of health issues. 60 Microbiota were shown to influence metabolism and obesity development. Our study aimed to 61 evaluate the interactions between obesity, salivary and fecal microbiota, and metabolite 62 concentrations in healthy individuals. The oral bacterial community was more impacted by the 63 obesity status of the host than fecal microbiota. Consistently for oral and fecal microbiota, the 64 65 number of strong interactions between bacteria increased with the increase in the obesity status. Several predicted microbial metabolic pathways that were shown to be associated with metabolic 66 67 health were uniquely enriched between obesity groups. In addition, these metabolic pathways were correlated with plasma and stool metabolites. Our results suggest that oral microbiota might 68 better reflect the obesity status of the host than fecal microbiota, and that correlations between 69 microbial taxa are altered during obesity. 70

71

72 INTRODUCTION

Obesity is a growing worldwide epidemic and is linked to a range of health issues including hypertension, type 2 diabetes, asthma, coronary heart disease, Alzheimer's disease and cancer [1-5]. Known risk factors include imbalances between calorie intake and expenditure, genetics, stress, and disruptions in the endocrine system [1, 6]; however much remains unknown. Better characterization of mechanisms predisposing to obesity could enable novel prevention and treatment strategies.

The composition of an individual's microbiota is increasingly being recognized as a contributor
to obesity risk [7-9]. Microbiota can influence the host's metabolic phenotype both by directly
affecting energy and nutrient availability [10-14], and through modulation of signaling pathways

[15-22]. Previous studies suggested that the fecal symbiotic bacterial community of obese 82 individuals is less diverse than that of lean individuals [8, 23]. In addition, the abundance of 83 several bacterial taxa including Lactobacillus, Pervotella, Alistipes, Akkermansia, and others 84 vary with obesity status [7, 9]. Salivary microbiota of lean and obese individuals also differ in 85 diversity and composition [9, 24-27]. Abundance of several salivary bacterial taxa including 86 87 *Campylobacter*, Aggregatibacter, and Veillonella was reported to be positively associated with obesity [28-30]. Higher abundances of Bacteroidetes, Spirochaetes, and Firmicutes were 88 observed in lean individuals [9, 31, 32]. However, data are contradictory, even for rather 89 90 abundant bacteria taxa. For example, the abundance of intestinal Lactobacillus was reported to be both positively and negatively associated with obesity [7, 33-35]. These discrepancies may be 91 due in part to complex interactions between microbial community members, where metabolic 92 activity of individual bacterial taxa can vary based on the activity of other microbes in the 93 community [36-39]. Consideration of interactions between members of microbiota might be 94 essential to improve identification of bacterial mechanisms underlying obesity. 95 We hypothesized that the presence of obesity, in the absence of known disease, would 96 associate with differences in microbiome composition and function. We further hypothesized 97 98 that community structure and bacterial inter-relationships would differ by obesity status. We evaluated the differences in compositional and phylogenetic diversity of salivary and fecal 99 microbiota between obesity groups in a well-characterized sample of healthy individuals. We 100 101 examined interractions between bacterial taxa based on obesity status of the host, and showed that predicted bacterial metabolic activity varies between obesity groups and is correlated with 102

103 intestinal and circulating metabolite concentrations.

104 MATERIALS AND METHODS

105 **Study population.**

106	We analyzed data from the ABO Study (n=135) as described previously [40-42]. Briefly, healthy
107	non-pregnant and non-lactating women and men were recruited to a cross-sectional study.
108	Participants completed dietary profiling (validated 3-day food records, and DHQ II food
109	frequency questionnaires [FFQ]), and provided stool, saliva, and blood samples. Height and
110	weight were measured at the study visit. Individuals were classified based on body mass index
111	(BMI, weight (kg)/height (m)-squared), including lean (BMI 18-24.9; fecal samples n=76, saliva
112	samples n=49), overweight (BMI 25-29.9; fecal samples n=34, saliva samples n=19), or obese
113	(BMI \geq 30, fecal samples n=25, saliva samples n=16), to explore differences in composition and
114	function of microbiota by obesity. All participants provided written informed consent. The study
115	was approved by the Institutional Review Boards of the University of Pennsylvania and
116	Vanderbilt University.
117	Sample Profiling.

As we have previously described, 16S rDNA sequencing of the bacterial V4 fragment was
performed on Illumina MiSeq platform using 135 fecal and 85 saliva samples to identify
bacterial community composition [42]. Global metabolomics profiling of fecal and plasma
samples, from a subset of individuals (n=75) was performed at Metabolon (Metabolon Inc.,
Morrisville, NC, United States).

123 **Pre-analysis processing**.

<u>Sequences alignment and normalization.</u> Pre-analysis processing of 16SrRNA reads was
 performed with R v4.0.2 [43]. Demultiplexed sequences were filtered, forward and reverse reads
 were merged, and resulted sequences were assigned to amplicon sequence variants (ASVs), with

127	the default settings of DADA2 pipeline v1.18.0 [44]. Chimeric sequences were also removed
128	with the dada2 package v1.18.0 [44]. Sequence variants were assigned taxonomy with dada2
129	and SILVA v138.1 database [44, 45]. ASVs counts were normalized with cumulative sum
130	scaling method implemented in the metagenomeSeq v1.32.0 package [46]. In the salivary
131	samples, we identified 1,932 ASVs that belonged to 12 phyla, 19 classes, 44 orders, 70 families,
132	134 genera, and 229 bacterial species. In our fecal samples, we identified 5,000 ASVs that
133	belonged to 16 phyla, 26 classes, 55 orders, 86 families, 270 genera, and 338 bacterial species.
134	Alpha diversity. Normalized ASVs counts were used to calculate species richness,
135	Shannon, and Gini–Simpson alpha diversity indices with the vegan v2.5.7 package [47]. Beta
136	diversity. Bray-Curtis distances were calculated with vegan v2.5.7 [47]. Unrooted neighbor-
137	joining tree was computed with the ape package v5.5 [48]. The tree was optimized based on
138	generalized time-reversible model implemented in the phangorn v2.5.5 package [49, 50]. Lastly,
139	weighted and unweighted Unifrac distances between each sample were calculated with the
140	phyloseq v1.30.0 package [51].
141	Functional potential of the bacterial communities was predicted with PICRUSt2
142	according with the default pipeline [52]. Predictions were made for Enzyme Commission
143	numbers (EC), Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes orthologs (KO), and MetaCyc
144	pathways [52-55]. In accordance with PICRUSt2 authors' recommendations, the resulting data
145	were transformed with centered-log ratio transformation implemented in the ALDEx2 v1.24.0
146	package [56].

147 Statistical Analysis.

Statistical analysis and data visualization was done with R v3.6.1 [43]. Beta diversity 148 distances between obesity groups were compared with pairwise permutational multivariate 149 analysis of variance, based on the vegan package v2.5.7 [47]. The difference in alpha diversity 150 measurements was evaluated with Wilcoxon signed-rank test, implemented in the rstatix v0.7.0 151 package [57]. In order to evaluate if the obesity groups can be classified based on abundance of 152 153 bacterial taxa and inferred functional abundances (based on EC, KO, and MetaCyc classification), we used linear discriminant analysis, implemented in in the MASS package v7.3-154 51.4 [58]. In addition, we repeated linear discriminant analysis using only the 15 most abundant 155 156 bacterial taxa, in order to evaluate if the dominant bacterial taxa were sufficient for discrimination of the communities, with the obesity status. The results were visualized by 157 plotting the first and second linear discriminants, with the gpplot2 v3.2.1 and the gppubr v0.4.0 158 159 packages [59, 60]. The difference in abundances of bacterial taxa and predicted ECs, KOs, and MetaCyc pathways, between obesity groups was evaluated with a pairwise t-test function, 160 implemented in R v3.6.1 [43]. The correlations between abundances of bacterial taxa were 161 calculated with Spearman's rank correlation test, included in the Hmisc v4.5.0 package [61]. 162 Resulted correlation matrices were used to construct network plots, using the corrr v0.4.3 163 164 package [62]. In addition, the absolute values of correlation coefficients were compared between obesity groups with a pairwise Wilcoxon signed-rank test, implemented in the rstatix v.7.0 165 166 package [57]. The influence of 133 recently consumed (from 3-day food records) and 185 167 habitually consumed (from FFQ) nutrients on beta diversity distances was evaluated with permutational multivariate analysis of variance using a quadratic model [47]. The quadratic 168 169 model was used as most living organisms, including bacteria have an optimal range of 170 environmental conditions rather than a linear relationship [63-65].

171	For enrichment analysis, we calculated the mean abundance of each KEGG ortholog for
172	obesity groups and used them as input for MicrobiomeAnalyst (2021-07-01) shotgun data
173	profiling tool, with the default settings [66]. False discovery rate (FDR) P-values were adjusted
174	using the Benjamini–Hochberg correction, implemented in rstatix v0.7.0 package [57]. We note
175	that usage of any particular FDR threshold is ambiguous and often varies between microbiome
176	studies; weaker correlations that fail to hold up to p adjustment methods often have biological
177	relevance. Premature rejection of associations falling below conservative p-value thresholds may
178	lead to loss of biologically meaningful data. [67-72]. For this reason, statistical results below
179	0.05 p-value threshold were considered to be significant. However, taking into account the
180	difference in opinions and for the readers' convenience, we report both unadjusted and FDR-
181	adjusted p-values in supplementary data.
182	
183	RESULTS
184	Lean, overweight and obese individuals can be separated into distinct groups based
185	on their oral and intestinal microbiota.
186	Evaluating beta diversity distances, we observed that salivary microbiota communities of
187	obese and lean individuals were significantly different as measured with Bray-Curtis and
188	Weighted Unifrac distances (Supplement Table 1). Based on linear discriminant analysis (non-
189	overlapping confidence ellipses), obesity classes were separated by the abundances of bacterial
190	ASVs (Fig. 1A). Obesity groups were also clearly characterized based on abundance of
191	microbial species, genera, families, and orders but weaker based on classes and phyla
192	(Supplement Figure 1).

193	In fecal samples, we did not observe a significant difference in beta diversity distances
194	between any of the obesity groups (Supplement Table 1). However, based on a linear
195	discriminant analysis, obesity groups could be classified based on abundance of bacterial ASVs
196	(Fig. 1B). Obesity groups were also clearly characterized based on abundance of bacterial
197	species, genera, families, and orders but weaker at class and phylum ranks (Supplemental
198	Figure 2). We did not observe any significant differences in alpha diversity indices between
199	obesity groups in saliva or feces (Supplement Table 2).

200 Obesity status influences the abundance of individual bacterial taxa

In saliva, we observed that abundances of Campylobacterota, Firmicutes, and 201 Spirochaetota were significantly different between obesity groups at the phylum rank. Obesity 202 203 groups were significantly different in the abundances of 5 bacterial classes, 10 orders, 17 families, 33 genera, 52 species, and 409 individual ASVs (Supplement Table 3A). Across all 204 205 taxonomic ranks, obese and lean individuals had the highest number of taxa that were 206 significantly different in their abundances (Supplement Table 3A). We evaluated which of the 15 most abundant bacteria taxa were the most influential for defining each of the obesity groups 207 with a linear discriminant analysis. At the genera taxonomic rank, Campylobacter, Veillonella, 208 Aggregatibacter, and Prevotella defined the obese group (Fig. 2). Although lean and overweight 209 groups were not distinct from each other, Actinomyces and Haemophilus were characteristic for 210 211 overweight group (Fig. 2). Overall, we note that the 15 most abundant bacteria taxa contribute only modestly to discrimination of obesity groups (Supplemental Fig. 3). 212

<u>In feces</u>, at the phylum rank, only abundance of Fusobacteriota was significantly different
 between overweight and lean groups. Obesity groups were significantly different in the
 abundances of 2 bacterial classes, 8 orders, 10 families, 35 genera, 45 species, and 690 individual

	available under aCC-BY-NC 4.0 International license.
6	ASVs (Supplement Table 3B). The highest number of significant differences between groups

varied with taxonomic rank but was always between lean and one of the overweight/obese
groups. Linear discriminant analysis indicated that at the genus taxonomic rank *Agathobacter*and *Parabacteroides* were influential in discriminating obese from lean groups (Fig. 2).
Although lean and overweight groups were not clearly separated, lean group was primarily
characterized by *Blautia* and *Ruminococcus* (Fig. 2). Similar to what we observed in salivary
samples, the most abundant fecal bacteria taxa were not the most influential variables for
discriminating samples based on obesity status (Supplemental Figure 4).

225

216

The number of strong correlations between bacterial taxa vary by obesity status.

226 We hypothesized that microbial community inter-relationships, as evidenced by correlations between taxa, would differ by obesity status. We assessed the number of strong 227 228 correlations ($\geq |0.7|$) between abundances of microbial taxa in saliva and stool samples by 229 obesity group and found evidence for increasing inter-dependence in the setting of obesity (Fig 3). Among microbiota genera in saliva, there were 67 strong correlations in the obese group, 32 230 in the overweight, and only 5 strong correlations in the lean group. The absolute means of 231 correlation coefficients were significantly different between all groups, and this observed pattern 232 remained across all taxonomic ranks (Supplement Table 4). We observed a similar pattern in 233 234 fecal samples, with 52 strong correlations between microbiota genera in the obese group, 20 in 235 the overweight group, and only 8 in the lean group. The absolute values of the correlation 236 coefficients, for abundances of the bacterial taxa were significantly different between all obesity 237 groups. Obese individuals had more strong correlations between bacterial taxa than lean

individuals across all phylogenetic ranks except phylum, at which no group had strong interbacterial correlations. (Supplement Table 4).

240 Nutritional Factors Influencing Bacterial Communities.

We examined the relationships between dietary variables and the overall bacterial 241 community, to identify influential nutrients from recent (3-day food records) and habitual (food 242 frequency questionnaire) consumption. We applied Bray-Curtis, weighted Unifrac, and 243 unweighted Unifrac distances, and assessed both linear and quadratic relationships. For recently-244 245 consumed nutrient, xylitol and pectins had significant linear relationships across all 3 methods, while inositol, glucose and omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids approached significance for 246 quadratic relationships across all 3 methods (Supplement Table 5). For habitually-consumed 247 248 nutrients, no nutrients displayed consistent linear relationships across all methods, while for quadratic relationships, sorbitol and pinitol, as well as dairy cheese and yogurt were consistently 249 associated (Supplement Table 6). In the fecal bacterial community, recently-consumed pectins, 250 251 folate, and fiber had consistent significant linear relationships, while oxalic acid, formononetin, biochanin A, and the ratio of polyunsaturated to saturated fat had consistent quadratic 252 relationships (Supplement Table 5). For habitually-consumed foods, there were consistent 253 linear relationships with cheese and vegetables, in addition to vegetable-derived nutrients (beta 254 carotene, oxalic acid, Vitamin K). Significant quadratic relationships were observed for grains 255 256 and processed meats, in addition to xylitol, caffeine, sodium and potassium (Supplement Table 6). 257

Analysis of inferred metabolic pathways reveals enrichment in 2-oxocarboxylic acid metabolism in lean individuals in oral and intestinal microbiota

260	We hypothesized that functional activity of microbiota, as predicted using PICRUSt2,
261	would differ by obesity status. We assessed differences in inferred function between obesity
262	groups, and found that obesity served as a good classifier for enzyme counts (ECs), KEGG
263	orthologs (KOs), and MetaCyc pathways abundances in saliva (Fig. 4). There were 969
264	significant differences in ECs, 3,915 in KOs and, 177 significant differences in the abundance of
265	MetaCyc pathways across all groups (Supplement Table 7). In all cases, lean and obese
266	individuals had the highest number of differences. 2-oxocarboxylic acid metabolism, terpenoid-
267	quinone biosynthesis, and D-glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism KEGG pathways were
268	enriched in lean individuals but not in obese group (Supplement Table 8). The obese group was
269	uniquely enriched in fluorobenzoate, sulfur, and several amino acid metabolic pathways.
270	Similarly, obesity groups could be characterized based on abundance of MetaCyc
271	pathways, KOs, and ECs in fecal samples (Fig. 4). We observed 128 significant differences
272	between the obesity groups in ECs, 391 in KOs, and 19 in MetaCyc pathways (Supplement
273	Table 7), spread across lean, overweight and obese groups. The lean group was uniquely
274	enriched in 2-oxocarboxylic acid metabolism, D-glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism, and
275	pentose and glucuronate interconversions, when compared with obese group. The obese group
276	was enriched in C5-branched dibasic acid, lipoic acid, and one-carbon KEGG metabolic
277	pathways (Supplement Table 8).

278

Abundance of inferred bacterial metabolic enzymes/pathways influences host's
metabolites' concentrations.

281	We were interested in whether predicted functional activity would associate with
282	measured metabolic activity, as assessed by metabolomic profiling of plasma and stool. We
283	observed high numbers of correlations with predicted saliva microbial activity across all 3
284	databases (EC: 78,635 with plasma, 82,722 with stool; KO: 249,473 plasma, 263,616 stool;
285	MetaCyc: 15,633 plasma, 17,915 stool). The highest number of correlations was observed with
286	valerate and isoeugenol sulfate in plasma samples and with inosine in stool samples
287	(Supplement Table 9). We similarly observed high numbers of correlations between predicted
288	stool microbial activity and metabolites (EC: 92,852 with plasma, 109,830 with stool; KO:
289	299,557 plasma, 332,789 stool; MetaCyc: 18,179 plasma, 17,728 stool). The highest number of
290	correlations was observed with 1-palmitoyl-GPE and CMPF in plasma samples and steviol in
291	stool samples (Supplement Table 9).

292 DISCUSSION

Obesity has been linked to alterations in microbiota, however the relative importance of 293 294 gut and oral microbiota is unclear. We aimed to identify microbial signatures of obesity using both stool and salivary samples in healthy individuals classified as normal weight, overweight or 295 obese based on their BMI. We observed that obesity status was associated with differences in 296 bacterial community composition and shifts in inter-microbial relations that were especially 297 evident in the salivary bacterial community. Although salivary and fecal microbiota were largely 298 impacted by different nutrients, dietary sweeteners were associated with both composition and 299 phylogenetic diversity of both the oral and gut bacterial communities. In addition, samples from 300 obese and lean individuals were enriched in several unique metabolic pathways, inferred activity 301 302 of which was correlated with plasma and stool metabolite concentrations.

- 303
- Obesity influences microbial community composition, especially in saliva.

304	In agreement with published research, we observed that oral bacterial community
305	composition was distinct between lean and obese individuals [24-27]. In our work, we also
306	observed that the difference in salivary bacterial composition between obese and lean individuals
307	extends to phylogenetic diversity measurements. Consistent with previous research, we also
308	observed some differences in gut bacterial communities between obese and lean groups, however
309	in our work the differences were not supported by Bray-Curtis or weighted Unifrac distances
310	[73, 74]. Our results suggest that at the level of the whole community, salivary microbiota
311	composition better reflects the difference in obesity status than fecal microbiota.
312	With the analysis restricted to the dominant bacterial taxa, we observed a strong influence
313	of Campylobacter, Aggregatibacter, Veillonella, and Prevotella on characterizing the obese
314	group in salivary samples. Interestingly, all of these bacterial genera have been shown to be
315	correlated not only with obesity but also with oral diseases, especially periodontitis [28-30, 75-
316	77]. Considering the whole bacterial community (abundance >20 reads), we observed that some
317	of the bacteria taxa with lower abundance had a stronger effect on differentiation of the obese
318	group than dominant bacteria, including Shuttleworthia at the genus rank and Mycoplasmataceae
319	at the family rank that were also significantly more abundant in the obese group. Previous studies
320	identified a correlation between Mycoplasmataceae and obesity [78, 79]. Although to the best of
321	our knowledge, no previous works associated Shuttleworthia with obesity in humans, it was
322	associated with obesity and elevated weight in model organisms [80-82]. In addition, similar to
323	what we observed with the dominant bacteria taxa, Shuttleworthia and Mycoplasmataceae are
324	associated with periodontitis [83, 84].

325 In the fecal samples, the dominant bacterial genera that characterized the obese group 326 were *Agathobacter* and *Parabacteroides*. *Agathobacter* and *Parabacteroides* were shown to be

associated with metabolic disorders in humans and a murine model [85-88]. Similar to what we 327 observed in the saliva samples, several less abundant bacterial taxa that were previously 328 associated with obesity, including *Mitsuokella* and *Neisseria*, at the genus rank and 329 Fusobacteriaceae and Gemellaceae, at the family rank, produced more impact on separation of 330 obese and lean categories than dominant bacterial taxa [73, 89-92]. Proportionally to all 331 332 identified taxa, more organisms were significantly different in abundance between lean and obese groups in saliva samples, when compared with fecal samples, which might suggest that 333 sampling oral microbiota may be more informative in identifying microbial biomarkers of 334 335 obesity. Given the relative ease of collection of saliva as compared with stool, this could facilitate increased accessibility for research into the microbial contributors to obesity and 336 cardiometabolic disease; however this remains to be confirmed in independent studies. 337

Number of strong correlations between bacterial taxa increases with the obesity
status.

In saliva samples, bacterial taxa exhibited the highest inter-microbial connectivity (strong 340 correlations ≥ 0.7) in obese individuals. In the obese group, the highest connectivity was 341 observed for Fretibacterium (eight connections), F0058 (seven connections), Mycoplasma 342 (seven connections), and *Tannerella* (seven connections). Several of these genera, including 343 Fretibacterium, F0058, and Tannerella were shown to be correlated with metabolic disorders 344 345 [31, 93-96]. In addition, all of the most connected bacterial taxa were associated with periodontitis [83, 94, 97, 98]. In the lean group, the most connected bacteria exhibited less strong 346 connections than in obese group and were Atopobium (three connections), Megasphaera (two 347 348 connections), and *Prevotella* 7 (two connections). Abundance of *Atopobium* was shown to be reduced in obese individuals [99]. Previous research indicated that the abundance of 349

Megasphaera might increase after anti-obesity treatments [100, 101]. *Prevotella* was shown to be associated with plant rich diet and increase in abundance after antidiabetic treatment, however the genus is very diverse [102-104].

353 In the fecal samples, the most connected bacterial genera identified in obese group were Christensenellaceae R7 group (eight connections) and Ruminococcaceae UCG-005 (five 354 355 connections). Christensenellaceae R7 and Ruminococcaceae UCG-005 were shown to be associated with plasma lipoproteins and triglycerides [105]. Ruminococcaceae UCG-005 was 356 357 also shown to be positively correlated with body weight and weight gain in a swine model [106, 358 107]. In addition, several bacterial taxa previously implicated in metabolic disorders, including Actinomyces, Ruminiclostridium, and Lachnospiraceae exhibited strong inter-bacterial 359 correlations in the obese but not in the lean group [74, 108-110]. The most connected genus in 360 lean individuals was Ruminococcaceae NK4A214 (three connections). Previous research 361 identified a negative correlation between Ruminococcaceae NK4A214 and high fat diet and 362 363 hypertension [111, 112]. However, Christensenellaceae R-7 group and Ruminococcaceae UCG-005 were also among few genera (total three) that had more than one strong correlation in lean 364 individuals. 365

The impact of the higher degree of microbial interconnectivity observed in obese individuals is unclear but may represent a shift from relative independence of bacterial taxa to a state more reliant on mutualistic relationships. Obesity is often associated with several physiological and environmental conditions that have the potential to act as stressors for the microbial community, including micronutrient deficiency, increased levels of reactive oxygen species, and increase in c-reactive protein concentrations and inflammatory response in the host [113-116]. In accordance with the stress gradient hypothesis, several studies demonstrated that

373	presence of environmental stressors often increases positive facilitation between microbial taxa
374	in the community [117-120]. In addition, it was demonstrated that nutritional stress could
375	increase the number of connections, in a co-occurrence network of the microbiota members
376	[121]. In agreement with these observations, we found that in the obese individuals, almost all
377	of the strong inter-microbial correlations were positive.

378 Sweeteners and other nutrients influence compositional and phylogenetic diversity 379 of salivary and fecal bacterial communities.

380 We observed that recently and habitually consumed nutrients influenced bacterial communities. For salivary samples, recently consumed nutrients influenced bacterial community 381 more than habitually consumed nutrients, for both compositional and phylogenetic beta diversity 382 383 distances. Sugars and sugar alcohols, especially xylitol, mannitol, sorbitol, and pectin were especially influential factors impacting the bacterial community, based on compositional and 384 385 phylogenetic diversity measurements. Interestingly, all of the listed compounds with the exception of pectin are used as sweeteners [122, 123]. Although the effect of sweeteners on gut 386 microbiota was extensively shown in humans and animal models, the studies on oral bacteria 387 community are limited [124, 125]. To the best of our knowledge, this work is the first report on 388 the correlation between dietary sweeteners and phylogenetic diversity of the human's salivary 389 bacterial community. 390

Fecal microbiota community was consistently more influenced by habitual nutrient consumption than recently consumed nutrients, which might suggest a more stable microbial community. Similar to the saliva samples, consumption of xylitol and pectin influenced compositional and phylogenetic diversity of fecal microbiota. Consumption of sweeteners, including xylitol was reported to influence intestinal bacterial community composition [124].

Pectin consumption was also shown to be correlated with compositional changes in the intestinal 396 microbiota [126, 127]. In our study, compositional and phylogenetic measurements of the fecal 397 microbiota were also consistently influenced by consumption of vegetables and plant-derived 398 compounds including fiber, oxalic acid, formononetin, and daidzein. Consumption of fiber, 399 formononetin, and daidzein was show to have microbiota-mediated beneficial effects on host's 400 401 metabolic health [128, 129] In addition, habitual consumption of cholesterol and fatty acids also produced a significant effect on compositional and phylogenetic diversity distances of the fecal 402 403 microbiota in our study.

404 Bacterial communities of obesity groups are associated with enrichment in predicted 405 metabolic pathways, which are correlated with host's metabolite concentrations.

In both saliva and fecal samples, microbiota of the lean individuals were enriched in 2-406 oxocarboxylic acid metabolism and D-glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism, based on 407 408 functional prediction. 2-Oxocarboxylic acid metabolism is involved in ornithine and lysine biosynthesis, supplementation of which were shown to have a potential for improving metabolic 409 health [130-132]. D-Glutamine concentrations were shown to be decreased in obese individuals 410 and glutamine supplementation may alleviate obesity symptoms [133, 134]. Metabolic pathways 411 enriched in the microbiota of obese individuals included one-carbon metabolism, which was 412 previously shown to contribute to the development of obesity[135]. In addition, steatosis was 413 414 shown to be associated with one carbon metabolism's gene expression [136]. Enrichment in other pathways such as lipoic acid metabolism and degradation of valine, leucine, and isoleucine 415 might be a response to increase in oxidative stress and branched-chain amino acids 416 417 concentrations, often associated with obesity [137-139].

418	Multiple host's metabolites were significantly correlated with abundance of KOs
419	involved in enriched pathways. For example, the abundance of KOs, predicted in salivary
420	samples and involved in 2-oxocarboxylic acid metabolism influenced the concentration of 435
421	plasma and 326 stool metabolites. Alpha-ketobutyrate was shown to be a biomarker of insulin
422	resistance and glucose intolerance and in our study exhibited a negative correlation with more
423	than half of the 2-oxocarboxylic acid metabolism pathway's KOs, predicted from saliva samples
424	[140, 141]. In addition, KOs involved in 2-oxocarboxylic acid metabolism were correlated with
425	adenosine and steviol in stool samples, both of which were shown to be beneficial for patients
426	with metabolic disorders [142, 143].
427	Our study had considerable strengths, including availability of salivary and fecal
427 428	Our study had considerable strengths, including availability of salivary and fecal microbial profiling, in addition to metabolic phenotyping, in a robust sample size. There were
428	microbial profiling, in addition to metabolic phenotyping, in a robust sample size. There were
428 429	microbial profiling, in addition to metabolic phenotyping, in a robust sample size. There were also some limitations inherent in all microbiome projects that are based on 16S rRNA
428 429 430	microbial profiling, in addition to metabolic phenotyping, in a robust sample size. There were also some limitations inherent in all microbiome projects that are based on 16S rRNA sequencing. Namely, the necessity of choosing a specific segment of the gene, sequence filtering
428 429 430 431	microbial profiling, in addition to metabolic phenotyping, in a robust sample size. There were also some limitations inherent in all microbiome projects that are based on 16S rRNA sequencing. Namely, the necessity of choosing a specific segment of the gene, sequence filtering methods, reference database for taxonomic identification, and even normalization methods are
428 429 430 431 432	microbial profiling, in addition to metabolic phenotyping, in a robust sample size. There were also some limitations inherent in all microbiome projects that are based on 16S rRNA sequencing. Namely, the necessity of choosing a specific segment of the gene, sequence filtering methods, reference database for taxonomic identification, and even normalization methods are all know to cause a degree of bias between studies. In addition, results presented in this study are

436 CONCLUSIONS

In this study we identified differences in salivary and fecal symbiotic bacterial
communities based on obesity status, in a population of otherwise healthy individuals. Our
results suggest that inter-correlations between bacterial taxa are altered in the setting of obesity
and suggest distinct differences in community dynamics at increasing levels of obesity.

441	Consideration of microbial community correlation structure might be more informative than
442	measurement of relative abundances of bacteria taxa or diversity measurements alone. In
443	addition, across multiple comparisons, salivary microbiota provided a more distinct pattern of
444	differentiation between obese and lean individuals, than fecal microbiota. Previous studies have
445	primarily focused on analysis of gut microbiota in obesity, however our data suggest that
446	sampling oral microbiota might be a better choice in search of the bacterial biomarkers
447	associated with obesity.
448	
449	Acknowledgements

450 This work was supported by funding from NIH R01 HL142856, and the Layton Family451 Fund.

452 **REFERENCES**

- 453 1. Seganfredo, F., et al., *Weight-loss interventions and gut microbiota changes in overweight and* 454 *obese patients: a systematic review.* Obesity Reviews, 2017.
- Wahba, I.M. and R.H. Mak, *Obesity and obesity-initiated metabolic syndrome: mechanistic links to chronic kidney disease.* Clinical Journal of the American Society of Nephrology, 2007. 2(3): p.
 550-562.
- 458 3. Thompson, W.G., et al. *Treatment of obesity*. in *Mayo Clinic Proceedings*. 2007. Elsevier.
- 4. Avgerinos, K.I., et al., *Obesity and cancer risk: Emerging biological mechanisms and perspectives*.
 2019. **92**: p. 121-135.
- 461 5. Alford, S., et al., *Obesity as a risk factor for Alzheimer's disease: weighing the evidence.* 2018.
 462 **19**(2): p. 269-280.
- 463 6. Han, T.S. and M.E. Lean, A clinical perspective of obesity, metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular
 464 disease. JRSM cardiovascular disease, 2016. 5: p. 2048004016633371.
- 465 7. Crovesy, L., D. Masterson, and E.L.J.E.j.o.c.n. Rosado, *Profile of the gut microbiota of adults with*466 *obesity: a systematic review.* 2020. 74(9): p. 1251-1262.
- 467 8. Stanislawski, M.A., et al., *Gut microbiota phenotypes of obesity*. 2019. **5**(1): p. 1-9.
- Benahmed, A.G., et al., Association between the gut and oral microbiome with obesity. 2021. 70:
 p. 102248.
- 470 10. El Kaoutari, A., et al., *The abundance and variety of carbohydrate-active enzymes in the human*471 *gut microbiota*. 2013. **11**(7): p. 497-504.
- Turnbaugh, P.J., et al., *An obesity-associated gut microbiome with increased capacity for energy harvest.* nature, 2006. 444(7122): p. 1027-131.
- 474 12. Jumbo-Lucioni, P., et al., Systems genetics analysis of body weight and energy metabolism traits
 475 in Drosophila melanogaster. BMC genomics, 2010. 11(1): p. 297.
- 476 13. Shortt, C., et al., Systematic review of the effects of the intestinal microbiota on selected
 477 nutrients and non-nutrients. 2018. 57(1): p. 25-49.
- 478 14. LeBlanc, J.G., et al., *Bacteria as vitamin suppliers to their host: a gut microbiota perspective.*479 2013. 24(2): p. 160-168.
- 480 15. Overby, H.B. and J.F.J.C.H.R. Ferguson, *Gut microbiota-derived short-chain fatty acids facilitate*481 *microbiota: host cross talk and modulate obesity and hypertension.* 2021. 23(2): p. 1-10.
- 482 16. Mohammadkhah, A.I., et al., *Development of the gut microbiome in children, and lifetime*483 *implications for obesity and cardiometabolic disease*. 2018. 5(12): p. 160.
- 48417.Kimura, I., et al., The gut microbiota suppresses insulin-mediated fat accumulation via the short-485chain fatty acid receptor GPR43. Nature communications, 2013. **4**: p. 1829.
- Tilg, H. and A.R. Moschen, *Gut Microbiome, Obesity, and Metabolic Syndrome*. Metabolic
 Syndrome: A Comprehensive Textbook, 2016: p. 447-459.
- 488 19. Bindels, L.B., E.M. Dewulf, and N.M.J.T.i.p.s. Delzenne, *GPR43/FFA2: physiopathological*489 *relevance and therapeutic prospects.* 2013. **34**(4): p. 226-232.
- 20. Davison, J.M., et al., *Microbiota regulate intestinal epithelial gene expression by suppressing the*491 *transcription factor Hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 alpha*. Genome Research, 2017: p. gr.
 492 220111.116.
- 493 21. Ye, J., et al., *Influences of the gut microbiota on DNA methylation and histone modification*.
 494 2017. 62(5): p. 1155-1164.
- 49522.Fellows, R., et al., Microbiota derived short chain fatty acids promote histone crotonylation in the496colon through histone deacetylases. 2018. **9**(1): p. 1-15.
- 497 23. Tilg, H., A.R. Moschen, and A.J.G. Kaser, *Obesity and the microbiota*. 2009. **136**(5): p. 1476-1483.

498	24.	Si, J., et al., Oral microbiota: microbial biomarkers of metabolic syndrome independent of host
499		genetic factors. 2017. 7 : p. 516.
500	25.	Araujo, D.S., et al., Salivary Microbiological and Gingival Health Status Evaluation of Adolescents
501	-	With Overweight and Obesity: A Cluster Analysis. 2020. 8 : p. 429.
502	26.	de Andrade, P.A.M., et al., Shifts in the bacterial community of saliva give insights on the
	20.	
503	~ 7	relationship between obesity and oral microbiota in adolescents. 2020. 202 (5): p. 1085-1095.
504	27.	Raju, S.C., et al., <i>Gender-specific associations between saliva microbiota and body size</i> . 2019. 10 :
505		p. 767.
506	28.	Schacher, B., et al., Aggregatibacter actinomycetemcomitans as indicator for aggressive
507		periodontitis by two analysing strategies. 2007. 34 (7): p. 566-573.
508	29.	Balakrishnan, B., et al., Ethnic variability associating gut and oral microbiome with obesity in
509		<i>children.</i> 2021. 13 (1): p. 1-15.
510	30.	Szafrański, S.P., et al., Functional biomarkers for chronic periodontitis and insights into the roles
511		of Prevotella nigrescens and Fusobacterium nucleatum; a metatranscriptome analysis. 2015.
512		1 (1): p. 1-13.
513	31.	Janem, W.F., et al., Salivary inflammatory markers and microbiome in normoglycemic lean and
	51.	
514	22	obese children compared to obese children with type 2 diabetes. 2017. 12 (3): p. e0172647.
515	32.	Sohail, M.U., et al., Profiling the oral microbiome and plasma biochemistry of obese
516		hyperglycemic subjects in Qatar. 2019. 7 (12): p. 645.
517	33.	Azad, M., et al., <i>Probiotic species in the modulation of gut microbiota: an overview</i> . 2018. 2018 .
518	34.	Khalili, L., et al., The effects of lactobacillus casei on glycemic response, serum sirtuin1 and
519		fetuin-a levels in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a randomized controlled trial. 2019.
520		23 (1): p. 68.
521	35.	Million, M., et al., Comparative meta-analysis of the effect of Lactobacillus species on weight
522		gain in humans and animals. 2012. 53 (2): p. 100-108.
523	36.	Thommes, M., et al., <i>Designing metabolic division of labor in microbial communities</i> . 2019. 4 (2):
524	50.	p. e00263-18.
525	37.	Estrela, S., J.J. Morris, and B.J.E.m. Kerr, <i>Private benefits and metabolic conflicts shape the</i>
526	57.	
	20	emergence of microbial interdependencies. 2016. 18 (5): p. 1415-1427.
527	38.	Zomorrodi, A.R. and D.J.N.c. Segrè, <i>Genome-driven evolutionary game theory helps understand</i>
528		the rise of metabolic interdependencies in microbial communities. 2017. 8 (1): p. 1-12.
529	39.	Morris, J.J.J.T.i.G., Black Queen evolution: the role of leakiness in structuring microbial
530		<i>communities.</i> 2015. 31 (8): p. 475-482.
531	40.	Bagheri, M., et al., A metabolome and microbiome wide association study of healthy eating
532		index points to the mechanisms linking dietary pattern and metabolic status. 2021: p. 1-15.
533	41.	Ferguson, L.V., et al., Seasonal shifts in the insect gut microbiome are concurrent with changes in
534		cold tolerance and immunity. Functional Ecology, 2018. 32 (10): p. 2357-2368.
535	42.	Tang, ZZ., et al., Multi-omic analysis of the microbiome and metabolome in healthy subjects
536		reveals microbiome-dependent relationships between diet and metabolites. 2019. 10 : p. 454.
537	43.	Team, R.C. and R.J.U.h.w.Rp.o. DC, A language and environment for statistical computing.
	45.	
538		Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2012. 2019.
539	44.	Callahan, B.J., et al., DADA2: high-resolution sample inference from Illumina amplicon data.
540		2016. 13 (7): p. 581-583.
541	45.	Quast, C., et al., The SILVA ribosomal RNA gene database project: improved data processing and
542		<i>web-based tools.</i> 2012. 41 (D1): p. D590-D596.
543	46.	Paulson, J.N., et al., Differential abundance analysis for microbial marker-gene surveys. 2013.
544		10 (12): p. 1200-1202.

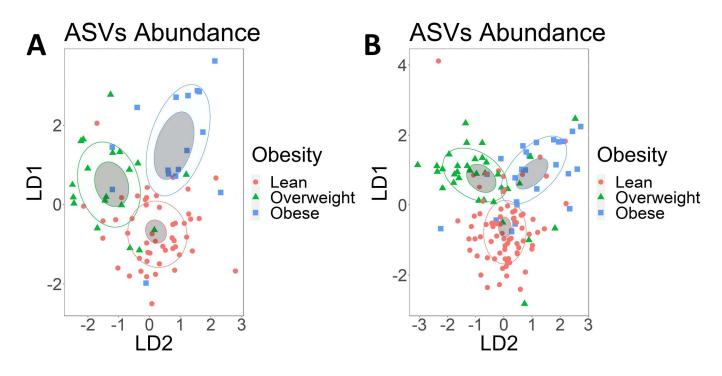
- 4-	47	
545	47.	Oksanen, J., et al., vegan: community ecology package. R package version 1.15-4. R Foundation
546	40	for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. 2009.
547 548	48.	Paradis, E., J. Claude, and K.J.B. Strimmer, <i>APE: analyses of phylogenetics and evolution in R language.</i> 2004. 20 (2): p. 289-290.
549	49.	Schliep, K.P., Estimating phylogenetic trees with phangorn. 2019.
550	49. 50.	Schliep, K.P.J.B., <i>phangorn: phylogenetic analysis in R.</i> 2011. 27 (4): p. 592-593.
551	50. 51.	McMurdie, P.J. and S.J.P.o. Holmes, <i>phyloseq: an R package for reproducible interactive analysis</i>
552	51.	and graphics of microbiome census data. 2013. 8(4): p. e61217.
553	52.	Douglas, G.M., et al., <i>PICRUSt2 for prediction of metagenome functions</i> . 2020. 38 (6): p. 685-688.
554	53.	Kanehisa, M. and S.J.N.a.r. Goto, <i>KEGG: kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes.</i> 2000. 28 (1):
555		p. 27-30.
556	54.	Karp, P.D., et al., <i>The metacyc database.</i> 2002. 30 (1): p. 59-61.
557	55.	Bairoch, A.J.N.a.r., The ENZYME database in 2000. 2000. 28(1): p. 304-305.
558	56.	Gloor, G.J.A.m.m., ALDEx2: ANOVA-Like Differential Expression tool for compositional data.
559		2015. 20 : p. 1-11.
560	57.	Kassambara, A.J.F.h.m.m.c.w.p.r.i.h., Pipe-Friendly Framework for Basic Statistical Tests [R
561		Package Rstatix Version 0.7. 0]. 2021.
562	58.	Venables, W. and B. Ripley, Random and mixed effects, in Modern applied statistics with S. 2002,
563		Springer. p. 271-300.
564	59.	Kassambara, A. and M.A. Kassambara, Package 'ggpubr'. 2020.
565	60.	Wickham, H., ggplot2: elegant graphics for data analysis. 2016: springer.
566	61.	Harrell Jr, F.E. and M.F.E.J.C. Harrell Jr, Package 'hmisc'. 2019. 2019: p. 235-6.
567	62.	Kuhn, M., S. Jackson, and J.J.R.P.v. Cimentada, corrr: Correlations in R. 2020. 2.
568	63.	Kindt, R. and R. Coe, Tree diversity analysis: a manual and software for common statistical
569		methods for ecological and biodiversity studies. 2005: World Agroforestry Centre.
570	64.	Bombin, A., L.K.J.E. Reed, and evolution, <i>The changing biodiversity of Alabama Drosophila:</i>
571		<i>important impacts of seasonal variation, urbanization, and invasive species.</i> 2016. 6 (19): p.
572	65	
573	65.	Leboffe, M.J. and B.E. Pierce, <i>Microbiology: laboratory theory and application</i> . 2012: Morton
574	66	Publishing Company.
575 576	66.	Dhariwal, A., et al., <i>MicrobiomeAnalyst: a web-based tool for comprehensive statistical, visual and meta-analysis of microbiome data.</i> 2017. 45 (W1): p. W180-W188.
570	67.	Wu, H., V. Tremaroli, and F. Bäckhed, <i>Linking microbiota to human diseases: a systems biology</i>
578	07.	perspective. Trends in Endocrinology & Metabolism, 2015. 26 (12): p. 758-770.
579	68.	Bruce-Keller, A.J., et al., Obese-type gut microbiota induce neurobehavioral changes in the
580	00.	absence of obesity. 2015. 77 (7): p. 607-615.
581	69.	Jehrke, L., et al., The impact of genome variation and diet on the metabolic phenotype and
582		microbiome composition of Drosophila melanogaster. Scientific reports, 2018. 8(1): p. 1-15.
583	70.	Pawitan, Y., et al., False discovery rate, sensitivity and sample size for microarray studies. 2005.
584		21 (13): p. 3017-3024.
585	71.	Bombin, A., et al., Influence of Lab Adapted Natural Diet and Microbiota on Life History and
586		Metabolic Phenotype of Drosophila melanogaster. 2020. 8 (12): p. 1972.
587	72.	Althouse, A.D. and P. Soman, Understanding the true significance of a P value. 2017, Springer.
588	73.	Palmas, V., et al., Gut microbiota markers associated with obesity and overweight in Italian
589		<i>adults.</i> 2021. 11 (1): p. 1-14.
590	74.	Del Chierico, F., et al., Gut microbiota markers in obese adolescent and adult patients: age-
591		dependent differential patterns. 2018. 9 : p. 1210.

592	75.	Durbán, A., et al., Effect of dietary carbohydrate restriction on an obesity-related prevotella-
593		dominated human fecal microbiota. 2013. 2 (235722).
594	76.	Mashima, I., et al., The distribution and frequency of oral Veillonella spp. associated with chronic
595		<i>periodontitis.</i> 2015. 4 (3): p. 150-160.
596	77.	Maciel, S.S., et al., Does obesity influence the subgingival microbiota composition in periodontal
597		<i>health and disease?</i> 2016. 43 (12): p. 1003-1012.
598	78.	Kim, Y.J., et al., The Gut/Lung Microbiome Axis in Obesity, Asthma, and Bariatric Surgery: A
599		<i>Literature Review.</i> 2021. 29 (4): p. 636-644.
600	79.	Huang, Y.J., et al., The airway microbiome in patients with severe asthma: associations with
601		disease features and severity. 2015. 136 (4): p. 874-884.
602	80.	Lee, KC., D.Y. Kil, and W.J.J.J.o.M. Sul, Cecal microbiome divergence of broiler chickens by sex
603		and body weight. 2017. 55 (12): p. 939-945.
604	81.	Xie, G., et al., Distinctly altered gut microbiota in the progression of liver disease. 2016. 7(15): p.
605		19355.
606	82.	Henning, S.M., et al., Decaffeinated green and black tea polyphenols decrease weight gain and
607		alter microbiome populations and function in diet-induced obese mice. 2018. 57 (8): p. 2759-
608	~~	2769.
609	83.	Krishnan, K., T. Chen, and B.J.O.d. Paster, A practical guide to the oral microbiome and its
610		relation to health and disease. 2017. 23 (3): p. 276-286.
611	84.	Toyama, N., et al., Comprehensive Analysis of Risk Factors for Periodontitis Focusing on the
612	05	Saliva Microbiome and Polymorphism. 2021. 18 (12): p. 6430.
613	85.	Salah, M., et al., New insights on obesity and diabetes from gut microbiome alterations in
614	96	Egyptian adults. 2019. 23 (10): p. 477-485.
615 616	86.	Schroeder, B.O., et al., Obesity-associated microbiota contributes to mucus layer defects in
616 617	07	genetically obese mice. 2020. 295 (46): p. 15712-15726.
617 618	87.	Liu, JP., et al., <i>Effects of different diets on intestinal microbiota and nonalcoholic fatty liver</i>
618	88.	disease development. 2016. 22 (32): p. 7353. Del Chierico, F., et al., Gut microbiota profiling of pediatric nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and
620	00.	obese patients unveiled by an integrated meta-omics-based approach. 2017. 65 (2): p. 451-464.
621	89.	Peters, B.A., et al., A taxonomic signature of obesity in a large study of American adults. 2018.
622	05.	8 (1): p. 1-13.
623	90.	Uberos, J., et al., Overweight and obesity as risk factors for the asymptomatic carrier state of
624	50.	Neisseria meningitidis among a paediatric population. 2010. 29 (3): p. 333-334.
625	91.	Zhang, Q., et al., Comparison of gut microbiota between adults with autism spectrum disorder
626	51.	and obese adults. 2021. 9 : p. e10946.
627	92.	Moreno-Indias, I., et al., Insulin resistance is associated with specific gut microbiota in appendix
628	0 = 1	samples from morbidly obese patients. 2016. 8(12): p. 5672.
629	93.	Haffajee, A.D. and S.S.J.J.o.c.p. Socransky, <i>Relation of body mass index, periodontitis and</i>
630		Tannerella forsythia. 2009. 36 (2): p. 89-99.
631	94.	Silva-Boghossian, C.M., et al., Subgingival microbial profile of obese women with periodontal
632		disease. 2018. 89 (2): p. 186-194.
633	95.	Belstrøm, D.J.J.o.o.m., The salivary microbiota in health and disease. 2020. 12 (1): p. 1723975.
634	96.	Thomas, C., et al., Obesity Drives an Oral Microbiota Signature of Female Patients with
635		Periodontitis: A Pilot Study. 2021. 11(5): p. 745.
636	97.	Kwek, H., M. Wilson, and H.J.J.o.c.p. Newman, Mycoplasma in relation to gingivitis and
637		periodontitis. 1990. 17 (2): p. 119-122.
638	98.	Nóvoa, L., et al., The Subgingival Microbiome in Patients with Down Syndrome and Periodontitis.
639		2020. 9 (8): p. 2482.

640	00	Nardalli C. at al. Characterization of the duodonal mucocal microbioms in observability cubiosts
640 641	99.	Nardelli, C., et al., <i>Characterization of the duodenal mucosal microbiome in obese adult subjects</i> by 16S rRNA sequencing. 2020. 8 (4): p. 485.
641 642	100.	Kang, Y., et al., Konjaku flour reduces obesity in mice by modulating the composition of the gut
643	100.	microbiota. 2019. 43 (8): p. 1631-1643.
644 644	101.	Federico, A., et al., <i>Gastrointestinal hormones, intestinal microbiota and metabolic homeostasis</i>
645	101.	
645 646	102.	in obese patients: effect of bariatric surgery. 2016. 30 (3): p. 321-330.
646 647	102.	Jang, H.B., et al., <i>Association of dietary patterns with the fecal microbiota in Korean adolescents.</i> 2017. 3 (1): p. 1-11.
648	103.	Precup, G. and DC.J.B.J.o.N. Vodnar, <i>Gut Prevotella as a possible biomarker of diet and its</i>
649	105.	eubiotic versus dysbiotic roles: a comprehensive literature review. 2019. 122 (2): p. 131-140.
650	104.	Ding, Q., et al., Liupao tea extract alleviates diabetes mellitus and modulates gut microbiota in
651	104.	rats induced by streptozotocin and high-fat, high-sugar diet. 2019. 118 : p. 109262.
652	105.	
653	105.	Vojinovic, D., et al., <i>Relationship between gut microbiota and circulating metabolites in population-based cohorts</i> . 2019. 10 (1): p. 1-7.
654	106.	Tang, S., et al., Screening of microbes associated with swine growth and fat deposition traits
655	100.	across the intestinal tract. 2020. 11 : p. 2475.
656	107.	Gaukroger, C.H., et al., Changes in faecal microbiota profiles associated with performance and
657	107.	birthweight of piglets. 2020. 11 : p. 917.
658	108.	Zeng, H., et al., Colonic inflammation accompanies an increase of 6-catenin signaling and
659	108.	Lachnospiraceae/Streptococcaceae bacteria in the hind gut of high-fat diet-fed mice. 2016. 35 : p.
660		30-36.
661	109.	
662	109.	Liu, S., P. Qin, and J.J.M. Wang, <i>High-fat diet alters the intestinal microbiota in streptozotocin-</i>
663	110.	induced type 2 diabetic mice. 2019. 7 (6): p. 176.
664	110.	Lee, P.S., et al., <i>Garcinol reduces obesity in high-fat-diet-fed mice by modulating gut microbiota</i>
665	111.	composition. 2019. 63 (2): p. 1800390. Calderón-Pérez, L., et al., <i>Gut metagenomic and short chain fatty acids signature in</i>
666	111.	hypertension: A cross-sectional study. 2020. 10 (1): p. 1-16.
667	112.	Yang, M., et al., Beneficial Effects of Newly Isolated Akkermansia muciniphila Strains from the
668	112.	Human Gut on Obesity and Metabolic Dysregulation. 2020. 8 (9): p. 1413.
669	113.	McMurray, F., D.A. Patten, and M.E.J.O. Harper, <i>Reactive oxygen species and oxidative stress in</i>
670	115.	obesity—recent findings and empirical approaches. 2016. 24 (11): p. 2301-2310.
671	114.	Yanoff, L., et al., <i>Inflammation and iron deficiency in the hypoferremia of obesity</i> . 2007. 31 (9): p.
672	114.	1412-1419.
673	115.	Du Clos, T.W.J.A.o.m., <i>Function of C-reactive protein.</i> 2000. 32 (4): p. 274-278.
674	115. 116.	Via, M.J.I.S.R.N., The malnutrition of obesity: micronutrient deficiencies that promote diabetes.
675	110.	2012. 2012 .
676	117.	Hernandez, D.J., et al., Environmental stress destabilizes microbial networks. 2021. 15(6): p.
677	11/.	1722-1734.
678	118.	Li, H., et al., Shifting species interaction in soil microbial community and its influence on
679	110.	ecosystem functions modulating. 2013. 65 (3): p. 700-708.
680	119.	Hammarlund, S.P. and W.R.J.P.o.t.N.A.o.S. Harcombe, <i>Refining the stress gradient hypothesis in</i>
681	115.	a microbial community. 2019. 116 (32): p. 15760-15762.
682	120.	Lu, T., et al., Understanding the influence of glyphosate on the structure and function of
683	120.	freshwater microbial community in a microcosm. 2020. 260 : p. 114012.
684	121.	Ghosh, T.S., et al., Gut microbiomes of Indian children of varying nutritional status. 2014. 9 (4): p.
685		e95547.
686	122.	Chattopadhyay, S., et al., Artificial sweeteners–a review. 2014. 51 (4): p. 611-621.
687	123.	Pasha, I., et al., Effect of dietetic sweeteners on the quality of cookies. 2002. 4(2): p. 245-248.
507		

COO	124	Culturin E. stal. East additions and mismakista 2020. 7(2), m 402
688	124.	Gultekin, F., et al., <i>Food additives and microbiota</i> . 2020. 7 (2): p. 192.
689 690	125.	Söderling, E. and K.J.A.O.S. Pienihäkkinen, <i>Effects of xylitol and erythritol consumption on mutans streptococci and the oral microbiota: a systematic review</i> . 2020. 78 (8): p. 599-608.
690 691	126.	Larsen, N., et al., Potential of pectins to beneficially modulate the gut microbiota depends on
692	120.	their structural properties. 2019. 10 : p. 223.
693	127.	Jiang, T., et al., Apple-derived pectin modulates gut microbiota, improves gut barrier function,
694	127.	and attenuates metabolic endotoxemia in rats with diet-induced obesity. 2016. 8(3): p. 126.
695	128.	Carrera-Quintanar, L., et al., <i>Phytochemicals that influence gut microbiota as prophylactics and</i>
696		for the treatment of obesity and inflammatory diseases. 2018. 2018 .
697	129.	Makki, K., et al., The impact of dietary fiber on gut microbiota in host health and disease. 2018.
698		23 (6): p. 705-715.
699	130.	Kanehisa, M.J.P.S., Toward understanding the origin and evolution of cellular organisms. 2019.
700		28 (11): p. 1947-1951.
701	131.	Park, J.A., et al., Anti-obesity effect of kimchi fermented with W eissella koreensis OK 1-6 as
702		starter in high-fat diet-induced obese C57 BL/6J mice. 2012. 113 (6): p. 1507-1516.
703	132.	Kalogeropoulou, D., et al., Lysine ingestion markedly attenuates the glucose response to ingested
704		glucose without a change in insulin response. 2009. 90 (2): p. 314-320.
705	133.	Ren, W., et al., Glutamine metabolism in macrophages: a novel target for obesity/type 2
706		<i>diabetes.</i> 2019. 10 (2): p. 321-330.
707	134.	Abboud, K.Y., et al., Oral glutamine supplementation reduces obesity, pro-inflammatory
708		markers, and improves insulin sensitivity in DIO wistar rats and reduces waist circumference in
709		overweight and obese humans. 2019. 11 (3): p. 536.
710	135.	Arnoriaga-Rodríguez, M., et al., Obesity-associated deficits in inhibitory control are phenocopied
711		to mice through gut microbiota changes in one-carbon and aromatic amino acids metabolic
712 713	136.	pathways. 2021. Christensen, K.E., et al., Steatosis in mice is associated with gender, folate intake, and expression
713	150.	of genes of one-carbon metabolism. 2010. 140 (10): p. 1736-1741.
715	137.	Furukawa, S., et al., Increased oxidative stress in obesity and its impact on metabolic syndrome.
716	137.	2017. 114 (12): p. 1752-1761.
717	138.	Rochette, L., et al., Direct and indirect antioxidant properties of α -lipoic acid and therapeutic
718		potential. 2013. 57 (1): p. 114-125.
719	139.	Allam-Ndoul, B., et al., Associations between branched chain amino acid levels, obesity and
720		cardiometabolic complications. 2015. 1 (5): p. 157-162.
721	140.	Syed Ikmal, S.I.Q., et al., Potential biomarkers of insulin resistance and atherosclerosis in type 2
722		diabetes mellitus patients with coronary artery disease. 2013. 2013.
723	141.	Gall, W.E., et al., α -Hydroxybutyrate is an early biomarker of insulin resistance and glucose
724		intolerance in a nondiabetic population. 2010. 5 (5): p. e10883.
725	142.	Pardo, F., et al., Molecular implications of adenosine in obesity. 2017. 55: p. 90-101.
726	143.	Panagiotou, C., et al., Effect of steviol, steviol glycosides and stevia extract on glucocorticoid
727		receptor signaling in normal and cancer blood cells. 2018. 460 : p. 189-199.
728		
729		
730		
731		

732 TABLES AND FIGURES



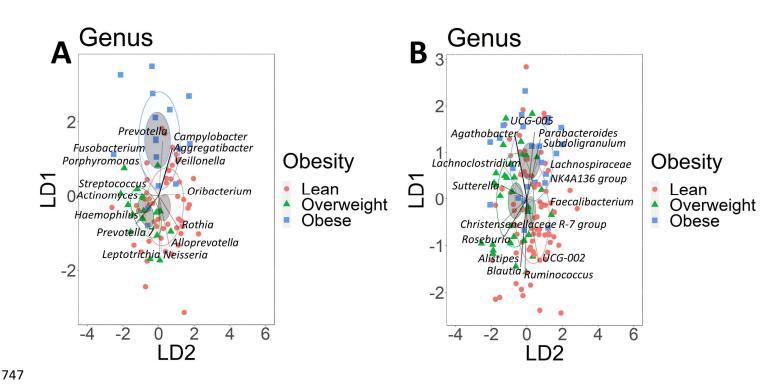
733

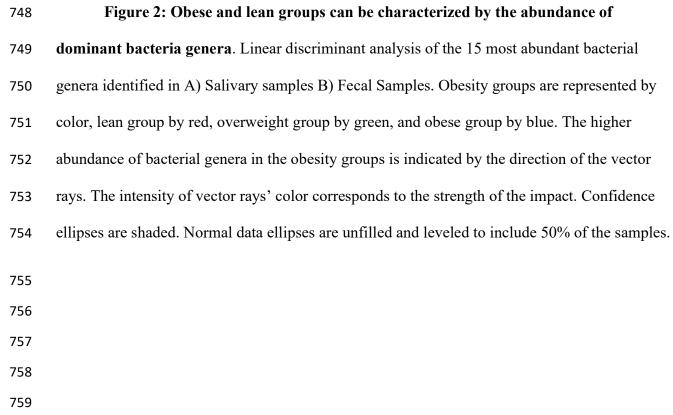
734

Figure 1: Obesity groups can be discriminated by the abundance of salivary or fecal

microbiota. Linear discriminant analysis of A) ASVs identified in salivary samples B) ASVs
identified in fecal samples. ASVs with abundance of less than 20 sequences were filtered out.
Obesity groups are represented by color, lean group by red, overweight group by green, and
obese group by blue. Confidence ellipses are shaded. Normal data ellipses are unfilled and
leveled to include 50% of the samples.

- 741
- 742
- 743
- 744
- 745





760

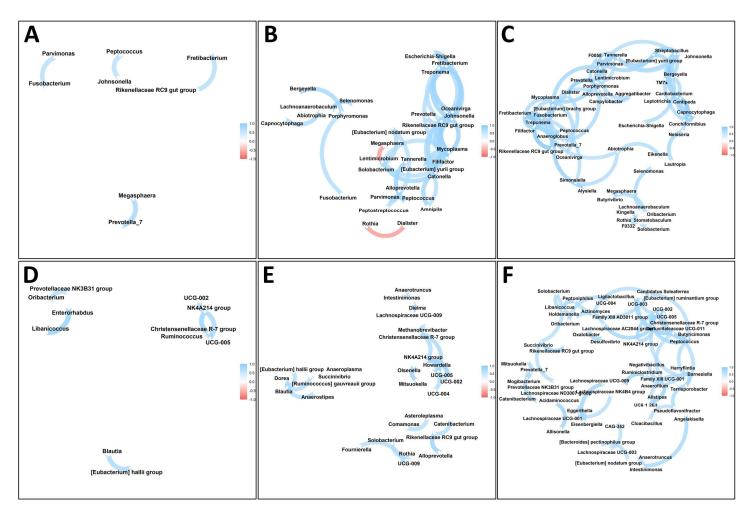


Figure 3: Number of strong connections between bacterial genera increases with the obesity status. Spearman's rank correlation network between A) Salivary bacterial genera of lean individuals; B) Salivary bacterial genera of overweight individuals; C) Salivary bacterial genera of obese individuals; D) Fecal bacterial genera of lean individuals; E) Fecal bacterial genera of overweight individuals; F) Fecal bacterial genera of obese individuals. For A-C included genera had minimum abundance of 30 sequences and for D-F minimum abundance of 20 sequences.

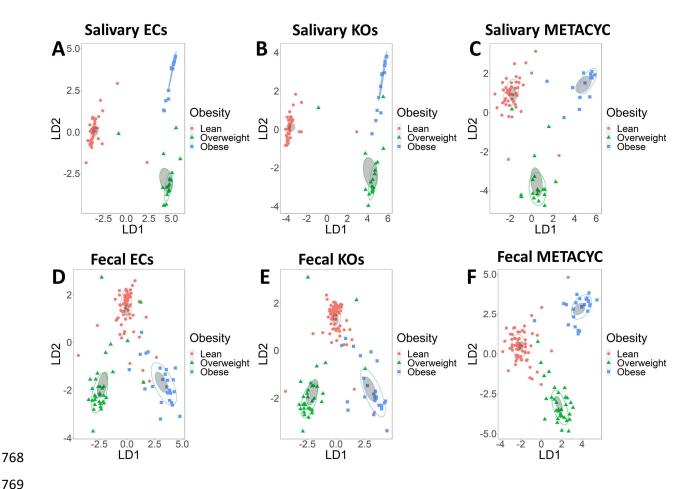




Figure 4: Obesity groups can be discriminated by metabolic potential predicted by 770 771 PICRUSt2. Linear discriminant analysis of relative abundances of A) ECs inferred from saliva 772 samples B) KOs inferred from saliva samples, C) MetaCyc pathways inferred from saliva samples, D) ECs inferred from fecal samples, E) KOs inferred from fecal samples, F) MetaCyc 773 774 pathways inferred from fecal samples. Obesity groups are represented by color, lean group by red, overweight group by green, and obese group by blue. Confidence ellipses are shaded. 775 Normal data ellipses are unfilled and leveled to include 50% of the samples. 776

- 777
- 778
- 779

780 Supplementary Figures' Legends

781 Supplement figure 1: Obesity groups could be characterized based on abundance of 782 salivary bacterial taxa, especially at lower taxonomic ranks. Linear discriminant analysis of 783 A) bacterial species, B) bacterial families, C) bacterial families, D) bacterial orders, E) bacterial classes F) bacterial phyla. Taxa with abundance of less than 20 sequences were filtered out. 784 785 Obesity groups are represented by color, lean group by red, overweight group by green, and obese group by blue. Confidence ellipses are shaded. Normal data ellipses are unfilled and 786 787 leveled to include 50% of the samples. Supplement figure 2: Obesity groups could be characterized based on abundance of fecal 788 bacterial taxa, especially at lower taxonomic ranks. Linear discriminant analysis of A) 789 790 bacterial species, B) bacterial genera, C) bacterial families, D) bacterial orders, E) bacterial classes F) bacterial phyla. Taxa with abundance of less than 20 sequences were filtered out. 791 792 Obesity groups are represented by color, lean group by red, overweight group by green, and 793 obese group by blue. Confidence ellipses are shaded. Normal data ellipses are unfilled and leveled to include 50% of the samples. 794

Supplement figure 3: Lean and obese groups can be characterized by the abundance of 795 dominant salivary bacterial taxa, across most taxonomic ranks. The results also indicate that 796 the most abundant bacteria taxa are not the most influential for characterization of obesity 797 798 groups. Linear discriminant analysis of 15 most abundant salivary bacterial A) Species, B) 799 Families, C) Orders, D) Classes. Obesity groups are represented by color, lean group by red, 800 overweight group by green, and obese group by blue. The intensity of vector rays' color 801 corresponds to the strength of the impact. Confidence ellipses are shaded. Normal data ellipses are unfilled and leveled to include 50% of the samples. 802

803	Supplement figure 4: Lean and obese groups can be characterized by the abundance of
804	dominant fecal bacterial taxa across most taxonomic ranks. The results also indicate that
805	most abundant bacteria taxa are not the most influential for characterization of obesity groups.
806	Linear discriminant analysis of 15 most abundant fecal bacteria A) Species, B) Families, C)
807	Orders, D) Classes. Obesity groups are represented by color, lean group by red, overweight
808	group by green, and obese group by blue. The intensity of vector rays' color corresponds to the
809	strength of the impact. Confidence ellipses are shaded. Normal data ellipses are unfilled and
810	leveled to include 50% of the samples.
811	Supplementary Tables' Legends
812	Supplement Table 1: Salivary but not fecal samples exhibited a significant difference in
813	compositional and phylogenetic distances between lean and obese groups. Pairwise
814	comparisons of Bray-Curtis, Weighted and Unweighted Unifrac distances between obesity
815	groups in salivary and fecal samples.
816	Supplement Table 2: Obesity groups did not exhibit a significant variation in alpha
817	diversity indices of salivary and fecal microbial communities. Pairwise comparisons of
818	Shannon and Gini-Simpson indices', as well as species richness values between obesity groups
819	in salivary and fecal samples.
820	Supplement Table 3: More salivary bacterial taxa exhibited a significant difference in their
821	abundances between obesity group than fecal bacterial taxa. Pairwise comparisons of
822	microbiota taxa abundances between obesity groups in A) salivary samples and B) fecal samples.
823	Supplement Table 4: The number of strong correlations between bacterial taxa in salivary
824	and fecal samples increased with the increase of the obesity status of the host. Pairwise

comparisons of absolute values for inter-bacterial correlation coefficients between obesitygroups.

827 Supplement Table 5: More of the recently consumed nutrients produce a significant effect

on compositional and phylogenetic diversity distances of salivary samples than on fecal

samples. The impact of changes in recently consumed nutrients on Bray-Curtis and Weighted

and Unwheighted Unifrac distances of salivary and fecal samples. Sq stands for quadratic effect

831 of the nutrient on beta diversity distances.

832 Supplement Table 6: More of the habitually consumed nutrients produce a significant

effect on compositional and phylogenetic diversity distances of fecal samples than on

salivary samples. The impact of changes in habitually consumed nutrients on Bray-Curtis and

835 Weighted and Unwheighted Unifrac distances of salivary and fecal samples. Sq stands for

836 quadratic effect of the nutrient on beta diversity distances.

837 Supplement Table 7: Predicted metabolic potential of bacterial community varies between

838 **obesity groups**. Pairwise comparisons of predicted bacterial enzymes, Kegg orthologs, and

839 MetaCyc abundances between obesity groups in A) salivary samples and B) fecal samples. ECs,

840 KOs, and MetaCyc pathways that were not significantly different (p > 0.05) between obesity

841 groups were excluded from the table.

842 Supplement table 8: Some of the predicted bacterial metabolic pathways are uniquely

843 enriched in obesity groups. Pairwise comparisons of uniquely enriched bacterial metabolic

pathways identified from salivary and fecal samples between obesity groups.

845 Supplement table 9: Predicted bacterial metabolic potential influences plasma and stool

846 metabolites concentrations. The effect of A) ECs identified from salivary samples on plasma

847 metabolites concentrations, B) ECs identified from salivary samples on stool metabolites concentrations, C) ECs identified from fecal samples on plasma metabolites concentrations, D) 848 ECs identified from fecal samples on stool metabolites concentrations, E) KOs identified from 849 850 salivary samples on plasma metabolites concentrations, F) KOs identified from salivary samples on stool metabolites concentrations, G) KOs identified from fecal samples on plasma metabolites 851 concentrations, H) KOs identified from fecal samples on stool metabolites concentrations, I) 852 MetaCyc pathways identified from salivary samples on plasma metabolites concentrations, J) 853 MetaCyc pathways identified from salivary samples on stool metabolites concentrations, K) 854 855 MetaCyc pathways identified from fecal samples on plasma metabolites concentrations, L) 856 MetaCyc pathways identified from fecal samples on stool metabolites concentrations.