

A preliminary study of the salivary microbiota in young male subjects under acute high-altitude exposure

Qian Zhou^{Equal first author, 1, 2}, Yuhui Chen^{Equal first author, 2}, Guozhu Liu³, Pengyan Qiao², ChuHua Tang^{Corresp. 1, 2}

¹ The fifth Clinical Medical College of Anhui Medical University, PLA 306 Clinical College of Anhui Medical University, Beijing, China, Beijing, China

² Department of Stomatology, PLA Strategic Support Force Medical Center, Beijing, China, Beijing, China

³ The Hospital of 32183 Unit, Baicheng, Jilin, China, Baicheng, Jilin, China

Corresponding Author: ChuHua Tang

Email address: tch306@126.com

Background. The microbial community structure in saliva differs in residents at different altitudes. However, the impact of acute exposure to high altitude on the oral microbiota is unclear. This study explored the impact of acute altitude exposure on the salivary microbiome to establish a foundation for the prevention of oral diseases.

Methods. Unstimulated whole saliva samples were collected from 12 male subjects at the following three time points: one day before entering high altitude (an altitude of 350 metres, pre-altitude group), seven days after arrival at high altitude (an altitude of 4500 metres, altitude group) and seven days after returning to low altitude (an altitude of 350 metres, post-altitude group). Thus, a total of 36 saliva samples were obtained. 16S rRNA V3-V4 region amplicon sequencing was used to analyze the diversity and structure of the salivary microbial communities, and network analysis was employed to investigate the relationships among salivary microorganisms. The function of these microorganisms was predicted with a Phylogenetic Investigation of Communities by Reconstruction of Unobserved States (PICRUSt) analysis.

Results. In total, there were 756 Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs), and we identified 541, 613, and 615 OTUs in the pre-altitude, altitude, and post-altitude group. Acute altitude exposure decreased the diversity of the salivary microbiome. Prior to acute altitude exposure, the microbiome mainly consisted of Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Fusobacteria, and Actinobacteria. After altitude exposure, the relative abundance of *Streptococcus* and *Veillonella* increased, and the relative abundance of *Prevotella*, *Porphyromonas*, and *Alloprevotella* decreased. The relationship among the salivary microorganisms was affected by acute altitude exposure. The relative abundance of carbohydrate metabolism gene functions was upregulated, while that of coenzyme and vitamin metabolism gene functions was downregulated.

Conclusion. Rapid high altitude exposure decreased the biodiversity of the salivary microbiome, changing the community structure, symbiotic relationships among species, and abundance of functional genes. This suggests that the stress of acute altitude exposure influenced the stability of the salivary microbiome.

Keywords Acute altitude exposure, Saliva, 16S rRNA, Microbiota, Diversity

1 A Preliminary Study of the Salivary Microbiota in 2 Young Male Subjects under Acute High-Altitude 3 Exposure

4 Qian Zhou^{1,2*}, Yuhui Chen^{2*}, Guozhu Liu³, Pengyan Qiao², Chuhua Tang^{1,2}

5 ¹The fifth Clinical Medical College of Anhui Medical University, PLA 306 Clinical College of
6 Anhui Medical University, Beijing, China

7 ²Department of Stomatology, PLA Strategic Support Force Medical Center, Beijing, China

8 ³The Hospital of 32183 Unit, Baicheng, Jilin, China

9 Equal first author: Qian Zhou^{1,2*}, Yuhui Chen^{2*}

10 Corresponding Author: Chuhua Tang^{1,2}

11 Olympic Village street, Beijing, 100101, China

12 Email address: tch306@126.com

13 Abstract

14 **Background.** The microbial community structure in saliva differs in residents at different
15 altitudes. However, the impact of acute exposure to high altitude on the oral microbiota is
16 unclear. This study explored the impact of acute altitude exposure on the salivary microbiome to
17 establish a foundation for the prevention of oral diseases.

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19 following three time points: one day before entering high altitude (an altitude of 350 meters, pre-
20 altitude group), seven days after arrival at high altitude (an altitude of 4500 meters, altitude
21 group) and seven days after returning to low altitude (an altitude of 350 meters, post-altitude
22 group). Thus, a total of 36 saliva samples were obtained. 16S rRNA V3-V4 region amplicon
23 sequencing was used to analyze the diversity and structure of the salivary microbial
24 communities, and network analysis was employed to investigate the relationships among salivary
25 microorganisms. The function of these microorganisms was predicted with a Phylogenetic
26 Investigation of Communities by Reconstruction of Unobserved States (PICRUST) analysis.

27 **Results.** In total, there were 756 Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs), and we identified 541,
28 613, and 615 OTUs in the pre-altitude, altitude, and post-altitude group. Acute altitude exposure
29 decreased the diversity of the salivary microbiome. Prior to acute altitude exposure, the
30 microbiome mainly consisted of Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Fusobacteria, and
31 Actinobacteria. After altitude exposure, the relative abundance of *Streptococcus* and *Veillonella*
32 increased, and the relative abundance of *Prevotella*, *Porphyromonas*, and *Alloprevotella*
33 decreased. The relationship among the salivary microorganisms was affected by acute altitude
34 exposure. The relative abundance of carbohydrate metabolism gene functions was upregulated,
35 while that of coenzyme and vitamin metabolism gene functions was downregulated.

36 **Conclusion.** Rapid high altitude exposure decreased the biodiversity of the salivary microbiome,
37 changing the community structure, symbiotic relationships among species, and abundance of
38 functional genes. This suggests that the stress of acute altitude exposure influenced the stability
39 of the salivary microbiome.

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41 **Introduction**

42 In recent years, the number of people travelling to high altitudes has increased due to the
43 availability of transportation and travel for work, sports events, and even earthquake relief
44 (Seccombe and Peters, 2014; Hodkinson, 2011). In some cases, travellers may experience acute
45 exposure to high altitudes, which occurs when individuals ascend to areas over 2,500 meters
46 above sea level within 24 hours. High-altitude environments have low atmospheric pressure, low
47 oxygen levels, large temperature differences, and strong ultraviolet radiation (Lackermair et al.,
48 2019; Torlasco et al., 2020; Swenson et al., 2020). Therefore, acute exposure to high-altitude
49 environments can have negative health consequences, such as increased blood pressure and
50 increased platelet aggregation, and may even result in acute high-altitude sickness (Revera et al.,
51 2017; Lackermair et al., 2019; Luks et al., 2017). Evidence has indicated that acute exposure to
52 high altitude may also induce oral diseases. For example, patients with no previous history of
53 toothache developed symptoms of acute pulpitis within 48 hours of flying to high-altitude
54 locations; this onset is thought to be related to high-altitude hypoxia, decreased atmospheric
55 pressure, and external stimulation of dental pulp after dental caries (Zhang et al., 2020).
56 Periodontitis, gingivitis, and oral ulcers are the most common oral diseases upon travel to high
57 altitudes (Li and Liu, 2018). Additionally, a rat model developed more serious periodontal
58 damage under simulated high-altitude hypoxic conditions (Xiao et al., 2012). Moreover, while
59 oral diseases can result in direct issues and symptoms, they also indirectly increase the risk of
60 systemic diseases such as myocardial infarction, infective endocarditis, and respiratory diseases
61 to a certain extent (Sampaio-Maia et al., 2016).

62 The aetiology of oral diseases induced by high-altitude environments is complex.
63 Microorganisms are the initiating factor of oral infection and thus are closely related to the
64 occurrence of disease (Arweiler Nicole B, 2016). In healthy individuals, the oral microbial
65 community maintains a dynamic balance, which provides protection against adverse external
66 stimulation. An imbalance in microorganisms or between microorganisms and the host increases
67 the risk of dental caries and periodontitis (Zhang et al., 2018). Among them, the microorganisms
68 in oral plaque biofilm are considered to be the pathogenic bacteria in the development of
69 periodontal disease. These pathogenic bacteria include the red complex bacteria (*Tannerella*
70 *forsythia*, *Treponema denticola* and *Porphyromonas gingivalis*), which drive the pathogenesis of
71 periodontal disease by regulating the recombination of microbiota and promoting inflammatory
72 response (Valm, 2019). In addition, Studies have found that oral microbiota has been associated
73 with the development of oral cancer and primary tumors beyond the head and neck (Mascitti et
74 al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018 Stasiewicz et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022). Epidemiological studies
75 have shown that periodontal disease is associated with an increased risk of esophageal, gastric,
76 pancreatic, and colorectal cancers (Michaud et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2018; Fan et al., 2018). This
77 may be related to dysbiosis of the oral microbiota leading to the development of chronic
78 inflammation, altered metabolic activity leading to increased production of toxic metabolites and

79 immune responses that promote tumorigenesis and tumor growth (Snider et al., 2016; Inaba et
80 al., 2014; Gainza-Cirauqui et al., 2013).

81 Altitude, atmospheric oxygen levels, temperature, psychological stress, disturbances in
82 circadian rhythms, and sleep deprivation all affect the composition, distribution, and metabolic
83 activity of oral microorganisms (Gao et al., 2018; Lamont et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021). The oral
84 cavity has multiple unique niches and a symbiotic bacterial ecosystem. The five major niches
85 include the saliva, tongue surface, oral mucosa, tooth surface, and subgingival plaque. Each
86 niche has a different microbial community (Consortium, 2012). Saliva contains more than 700
87 different microbial species, which makes saliva a potential pool of biomarkers (Wang et al.,
88 2022). In orthodontic patients, the diversity of the salivary microbiome was lower at high
89 altitudes; the relative abundance of *Streptococcus* in the salivary microbiome increased, while
90 the relative abundance of *Veillonella* decreased (AlShahrani et al., 2020). These studies suggest
91 that the salivary microbial community differs between high- and low-altitude residents, but
92 currently, no studies have investigated whether acute altitude exposure influences the
93 composition and functional metabolism of the salivary microbial community.

94 Therefore, the aim of this study was to examine changes in the composition and structure of
95 the salivary microbial community after acute high-altitude exposure and to explore the
96 correlation between bacteria and bacterial functions. The results of this study expand the current
97 understanding of the influence of high-altitude exposure on salivary microorganisms, providing a
98 theoretical foundation for the future development of preventive measures for acute high-altitude
99 oral diseases.

100

101 **Materials & Methods**

102 **Study Subjects**

103 The study protocol was approved by the ethics review board of PLA Strategic Support Force
104 Medical Center (No. K2021-10). We have obtained written informed consent from all study
105 participants. All of the procedures were performed in accordance with the Declaration of
106 Helsinki and relevant policies in China.

107 The subjects were recruited from a scientific research unit in a city in northern China. The
108 inclusion criteria for the subjects were as follows: (1) ethnic Han male, over 18 years old; (2)
109 long-term resident of the low-altitude plain; (3) no oral infectious diseases; (4) no systemic or
110 genetic disease; and (5) no history of smoking. The exclusion criteria were as follows: (1)
111 subjects who had travelled to high-altitude locations within the past six months; 2) subjects who
112 could not tolerate a high-altitude environment; (3) subjects who had received antibiotics,
113 hormones, or other drugs within the past 3 months; and (4) subjects who had received
114 periodontal treatment within the past 3 months. Finally, 12 healthy male subjects aged from 26 to
115 45 years (mean age 34.9 ± 7.0 years) were recruited in this study, and all subjects agreed to
116 participate.

117

118

119 **Sample collection**

120 This study examined the salivary microbiome of 12 subjects who were transferred from a plain
121 (at an altitude of 350 meters) to a plateau (at an altitude of 4500 meters) within a period of 12
122 hours. All subjects lived in a hotel and stayed at high altitude for 7 days. Their physical activity
123 was walking during their stay at the plateau. The intensity and duration of their physical activity
124 were similar. Over the course of the travel, unstimulated whole saliva samples were collected
125 from each subject at three different time points: one day before reaching the plateau (pre-altitude
126 group), the 7th day after entering the plateau (altitude group) and the 7th day after returning to
127 the plain (post-altitude group). Thus, a total of 36 saliva samples were obtained.

128 All participants were required to fill in a unified oral health questionnaire before and after
129 entering the plateau. In addition, in order to minimize the impact of other interference factors on
130 saliva samples, the following requirements were made for the subjects during the study: (1) the
131 diet of each subject was uniformly provided by the study organization. (2) Before the start of the
132 study, a professional stomatologist taught all subjects about the brushing method (pasteurization
133 brushing method), and tried to ensure that the brushing method and time were the same. (3) Use
134 a uniform toothbrush and toothpaste. Samples were collected from 9 a.m. to 11 a.m., which is
135 consistent with previous studies (Gill et al., 2016). During collection of the samples, the subjects
136 first rinsed their mouth with deionized water and then were instructed to sit quietly for 10
137 minutes. Then, a disposable sterile saliva collection tube was placed on the oral mucosa of the
138 subject's lower lip, allowing saliva to naturally flow into the collector. After approximately 2 ml
139 of saliva had been collected, preservation solution was added to the collection tube, and the
140 sample was stored in a -20°C refrigerator, and then transferred to plain areas through cold chain
141 transport (liquid nitrogen) to be stored at -20°C for further study (Gill et al., 2016).

142

143 **Bacterial DNA extraction and PCR**

144 Total genomic DNA from the samples was extracted using the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide
145 (CTAB) method (Kachiprath et al., 2018). DNA concentration and purity were assessed on 1%
146 agarose gels (Beijing, China). Then, the DNA concentration was diluted to 1 ng/μL with sterile
147 water. Specific barcode primers were used to amplify the DNA in the 16S V3-V4 sequencing
148 region with high-efficiency, high-fidelity enzymes (Phusion® High-Fidelity PCR Master Mix,
149 New England Biolabs). All PCR products were run on 2% agarose gels for detection, and the
150 PCR products were purified with a Qiagen Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Germany).

151

152 **DNA library preparation and Sequencing**

153 Sequencing libraries were generated using the TruSeq® DNA PCR-Free Sample Preparation Kit
154 (Illumina, USA) following the manufacturer's recommendations; index codes were also added
155 (Yang et al., 2019). FLASH (V1.2.7 <http://ccb.jhu.edu/software/FLASH/>) was used to splice
156 reads from each sample to obtain raw tags, which were rigorously filtered to obtain high-quality
157 tags (Magoc and Salzberg, 2011) using the QIIME

158 (V1.9.1 http://qiime.org/scripts/split_libraries_fastq.html) operation procedure (the default
159 quality threshold was ≤ 19) (Bokulich et al., 2013). The resulting library was sequenced on an
160 Illumina NovaSeq platform, and 250 bp paired-end reads were generated.

161

162 **Data analysis**

163 All effective tags were clustered into operational taxonomic units (OTUs) by using UPARSE
164 software (V7.0.1001 <http://drive5.com/uparse/>, 97% identity) (Sevinsky et al., 2010). Through
165 OTU annotation analysis, taxonomic information and the community composition were obtained
166 (Haas et al., 2011; Edgar, 2013). A Venn diagram was used to define the shared and unique
167 microbiome at the species level by OTU clustering. Alpha and Beta diversity was analysed to
168 investigate differences in microbial community structure among groups (Simons et al., 2019).
169 Additionally, principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was performed to obtain principal
170 coordinates and visualize complex, multidimensional data (Wang et al., 2020). Analysis of
171 similarity (ANOSIM) was used to determine differences in community structure among groups
172 and to compare the differences within and between groups (Yang et al., 2019). Network analysis
173 was used to determine the relationships among dominant genera by calculating the correlation
174 coefficient (Niquil et al., 2020). Based on the abundance of bacteria, PICRUSt analysis was used
175 for functional prediction of microbial communities in the saliva samples (Douglas et al., 2018).

176

177 **Statistical analysis**

178 To evaluate the differences in Alpha diversity, taxa at levels, metabolism, and Beta diversity, the
179 normality test was first examined by the Shapiro-Wilk test, and *P* values were reported. The
180 Alpha diversity, taxa at levels, metabolism, and Beta diversity were evaluated by using Student's
181 *t*-tests if $P < 0.05$, else were evaluated by using non-parametric (Wilcoxon) tests. as in previous
182 studies. *P* values < 0.05 were considered significant. Alpha diversity, taxa at levels, and
183 metabolism were evaluated using Student's *t*-tests. Beta diversity was evaluated using non-
184 parametric (Wilcoxon) tests for significance test. The statistical analysis was performed in SPSS
185 24.0.

186

187 **Results**

188 **Basic information of study subjects**

189 After entering the plateau, 3 subjects showed symptoms of gingival swelling and pain, and 2
190 patients showed symptoms of oral ulcer. None of the 12 subjects showed positive signs after
191 returning to the plain (Table S1).

192

193 **Global sequencing data**

194 In total, 3,138,051 raw sequences were generated from the 36 saliva samples, with an average of
195 87,168 raw sequences per sample (Table S2). Quality filtering was used to acquire 2,298,989
196 effective sequences, with an average of 63,861 sequences per sample. The shortest sequence

197 length of the effective tags was 418 bp, the longest sequence length was 425 bp, and the average
198 sequence length was 422 bp (Table 1).

199 Clustering of all effective sequences was based on a threshold of 97% identity. These
200 sequences were then annotated against the Silva138 database to determine species taxonomy. In
201 total, there were 756 OTUs, of which 653 could be annotated with the database. The number of
202 annotated OTUs at the phylum level was 625, and that at the genus level was 520.

203 In the Venn diagram, we identified 541, 613, and 615 OTUs in the pre-altitude, altitude, and
204 post-altitude groups, respectively. These groups shared a total of 466 OTUs. A total of 26, 83,
205 and 80 unique OTUs were found in the pre-altitude, altitude, and post-altitude groups,
206 respectively (Fig.1A).

207

208 **Bacterial diversity analysis**

209 The species accumulation curves tended towards saturation, indicating that the amount of sample
210 was sufficient (Fig.1B). The ACE and Chao1 richness indexes were higher in the post-altitude
211 group than in the pre-altitude and altitude groups, but there were no significant differences
212 among the groups. The Shannon and inverse Simpson diversity indexes were significantly lower
213 in the altitude group than in the pre-altitude and post-altitude groups. Simpson's evenness index
214 was higher in the pre-altitude group than in the altitude group, indicating that the bacterial
215 community distribution in the salivary samples was very uneven. In addition, Good's coverage
216 index was 99.9% for each group, indicating that the sequencing depth was sufficient to detect the
217 bacterial diversity of the saliva samples (Table 2).

218 Based on the weighted UniFrac distances, the PCoA of beta diversity showed that the samples
219 formed well-separated clusters corresponding to the three groups, suggesting that the oral
220 microbiota community structure differed among the three groups (Fig.1C). The ANOSIM based
221 on the Bray–Curtis distances of the salivary microbiota structure revealed significant differences
222 between the pre-altitude and altitude groups (Fig.1D), altitude and post-altitude groups (Fig.1E),
223 and pre-altitude and post-altitude groups (Fig.1F). Thus, differences in oral microbiota
224 community structure between each group were observed.

225

226 **Bacterial abundance and distribution**

227 The predominant bacteria were largely consistent among the three groups, but differences in
228 relative abundances were observed. The ten predominant phyla included Proteobacteria,
229 Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Fusobacteria, Actinobacteria, Spirochaetes, Tenericutes, unidentified
230 Bacteria, Cyanobacteria, and Synergistetes (Fig. 2A). Among the predominant phyla with a mean
231 relative abundance > 1% in each group, the relative abundance of Firmicutes was significantly
232 higher and that of Bacteroidetes was significantly lower in the altitude group than in the pre-
233 altitude group, and the relative abundance of Actinobacteria was significantly higher and that of
234 Bacteroidetes was significantly lower in the post-altitude group than in the pre-altitude group.
235 Compared to that in the altitude group, the relative abundance of Firmicutes was significantly
236 lower in the post-altitude group (Fig. 2B, C and D).

237 The ten predominant genera included *Streptococcus*, *Neisseria*, *Haemophilus*, *unidentified*
238 *Prevotellaceae*, *unidentified Rhizobiaceae*, *Citrobacter*, *Veillonella*, *Fusobacterium*,
239 *Leptotrichia*, and *Prevotella* (Fig.2E). Among the predominant genera with a mean relative
240 abundance > 1% in each group, significantly higher relative abundances of *Streptococcus* and
241 *Veillonella* were observed in the altitude group than in the pre-altitude group, whereas
242 significantly lower relative abundances of *unidentified Prevotellaceae*, *Prevotella*,
243 *Porphyromonas* and *Alloprevotella* were observed in the altitude group than in the pre-altitude
244 group. Additionally, compared to those in the pre-altitude group, significantly lower relative
245 abundances of *Haemophilus*, *unidentified Prevotellaceae*, and *Porphyromonas* were observed in
246 the post-altitude group. Compared to those in the altitude group, the relative abundances of
247 *Streptococcus*, *Haemophilus* and *Veillonella* were significantly lower in the post-altitude group,
248 while the relative abundance of *unidentified Rhizobiaceae* was significantly higher in the post-
249 altitude group (Fig. 2F, G and H). These genera changed in more than half of the subjects.
250 In addition, we found that three subjects developed gingival swelling and pain symptoms and
251 two subjects developed oral ulcer symptoms after entering the plateau. However, no significant
252 difference was found between the positive and asymptomatic subjects in the changes of oral
253 dominant bacteria (Fig. S1).

254

255 **Network analysis**

256 Network analysis was used to explore the bacterial co-occurrence patterns and provide insight
257 into interactions among the salivary microbiota. There were 736 edges and 91 nodes in the pre-
258 altitude group, 601 edges and 89 nodes in the altitude group. The pre-altitude group had an
259 average path length (APL) of 3.363, a network diameter (ND) of 9 and a graph density (GD) of
260 0.074. The structural properties of the pre-altitude group network differed from those of the
261 altitude group network (Table S3).

262 The network diagram for the 100 predominant bacteria at the genus level were shown in pre-
263 altitude and altitude groups (Fig. S2, Fig. S3). There was a higher relative abundance of
264 *Streptococcus* in the pre-altitude group and altitude group. The *Streptococcus* were strongly
265 correlated with *Veillonella*, *Prevotella* and *Fusobacterium* in the pre-plateau group, respectively.
266 However, The *Streptococcus* were strongly correlated with *Neisseria* and *Haemophilus* in the
267 altitude group, respectively.

268

269 **PICRUSt function predictions**

270 PICRUSt analysis was performed to predict the potential functions of the salivary microbiota.
271 The ten predominant gene functional pathways were predicted in Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes
272 and Genomes (KEGG) level 1, the most abundant of the gene functional pathways was
273 metabolism (Fig. 3A). The ten predominant gene functional pathways predicted in KEGG level 2
274 (Fig. 3B).

275 The pre-altitude and altitude groups had different KEGG profiles in hierarchy level 3. Ten
276 pathways were significantly different between the pre-altitude group and the altitude group.

277 Notably, the relative abundance of the carbohydrate metabolism gene functions was upregulated
278 in the altitude group, and the metabolism gene functions of cofactors and vitamin was
279 downregulated in the altitude group (Fig. 3C). These results indicate that the gene function of the
280 salivary microbiota changed upon acute altitude exposure.

281

282 Discussion

283 Rapidly ascending to a high altitude has been shown to have negative effects on health and may
284 contribute to the development of oral diseases. However, while the salivary microbiome of
285 residents at high altitudes is known to differ from that of residents at low altitudes, the effects of
286 acute altitude exposure on the salivary microbiome remain unclear. This study showed that acute
287 altitude exposure decreased the diversity of the salivary microbiome and influenced the
288 relationships among salivary microorganisms. The function of the microbiome was also altered
289 by high-altitude exposure: genes involved in carbohydrate metabolism were upregulated, while
290 genes involved in coenzyme and vitamin metabolism were downregulated. These results provide
291 insight into the development of oral diseases at high altitudes.

292 The relationship between the salivary microbiome and oral and systemic health has been
293 widely studied (Duran-Pinedo, 2021; Sampaio-Maia et al., 2016). Previous studies have found
294 that participants experienced symptoms of oral discomfort, such as spontaneous gingival
295 bleeding and tooth pain, within seven days of travelling to a high-altitude location (Li and Liu.,
296 2018). Therefore, we selected three time points for saliva collection: one day before travelling to
297 a high altitude, seven days after arriving at a high altitude, and seven days after returning to a
298 low altitude. This allowed us to analyze and compare the microbiomes at these three time points.
299 Saliva sample collection is non-invasive, has a simple sampling process, and is low cost.

300 The diversity of the oral microbial community can reflect oral health. A previous study
301 reported that the alpha diversity of the salivary microbial community in patients with dental
302 caries was lower than that in healthy people (Belstrom et al., 2017). In our study, the alpha
303 diversity of the salivary microbial community was lower in the altitude group than in the pre-
304 altitude and post-altitude groups, which suggests that the prevalence of oral diseases may
305 increase after high-altitude exposure. In addition, Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2021) reported that
306 compared with a Tibetan population living in high-altitude areas, the alpha diversity of the
307 salivary microbial community in a population living at ultrahigh altitudes decreased and that
308 there was a significant negative correlation between altitude and the alpha diversity of the
309 salivary community. AlShahrani et al. (AlShahrani et al., 2020) found lower diversity of oral
310 microbes in orthodontic patients at high altitudes than in orthodontic patients at low altitudes;
311 patients at high altitudes were more susceptible to periodontitis. Moreover, exposure to hypoxia
312 has been shown to reduce the secretory function of salivary glands, resulting in the destruction of
313 periodontal tissue (Terrizzi et al., 2018). We speculate that the alpha diversity of the salivary
314 microbiome changes after high-altitude exposure because the colonization of oral bacteria is
315 affected by the oxygen concentration.

316 In this study, anaerobic bacteria were dominant in the saliva of the altitude group and inhibited
317 the colonization of aerobic bacteria. This may have led to the observed decrease in the alpha
318 diversity of the salivary microbiome. Our results also showed that the beta diversity of the
319 salivary microbial community changed after high-altitude exposure. Previous studies have found
320 a positive correlation between the beta diversity of the salivary microbial community and
321 altitude, and the beta diversity may thus be affected by altitude (Bhushan et al., 2019). Overall,
322 these results indicate that acute altitude exposure affected the alpha and beta diversity of the
323 salivary microbial community.

324 Changes in salivary symbiotic bacteria and increases in pathogenic bacteria may lead to the
325 development of oral diseases (AlShahrani et al., 2020). Some studies have found that the relative
326 abundance of Firmicutes decreased and that of Bacteroides increased with increased altitude in
327 long-term Tibetan residents at different altitudes (Liu, et al. 2021). Bhushan et al. (Bhushan et
328 al., 2019) found that the relative abundance of Firmicutes decreased and that of Bacteroides
329 increased 25 days after subjects entered the Antarctic. However, in this study, Firmicutes
330 increased significantly and Bacteroides decreased significantly after entering the plateau. Our
331 study also found that the relative abundances of *Streptococcus* and *Veillonella* increased after
332 arrival at high altitude. These results are similar to those of another study that found that the
333 relative abundances of *Streptococcus* appeared to increase after arrival at high altitude (Zhao et
334 al., 2022). These two genera are thought to be involved in the formation of oral plaque, which is
335 implicated in the occurrence and development of dental caries and periodontal disease (Marsh
336 and Zaura, 2017). However, Liu et al. (Liu et al., 2021) reported a decreased relative abundance
337 of *Streptococcus* with altitude, and AlShahrani et al. (AlShahrani et al., 2020) found higher
338 levels of *Streptococcus* and lower levels of *Veillonella* in orthodontic patients at high altitudes
339 than in those at low altitudes. In this study, the relative abundances of *Prevotella*,
340 *Porphyromonas*, and *Alloprevotella* decreased after arrival at high altitude. A previous study also
341 showed that the relative abundance of *Prevotella* was higher at high altitudes (Xiao et al., 2012).
342 There are no reports on the effect of altitude on *Alloprevotella* and *Porphyromonas* in the oral
343 cavity. However, one study reported that the relative abundance of *Alloprevotella* in the stomach
344 of cattle increased with increasing altitude (Fan et al., 2020). The above studies all suggest that
345 high-altitude environments affect the abundance of common dominant bacteria, but some of the
346 results are inconsistent with those of this study. These differences may be related to differences
347 among studies in the time spent at high altitude.

348 Although this study did not find significant differences in the microbiota between subjects
349 with swelling and aching of gum (or oral ulcer) and asymptomatic subjects. However, it clearly
350 demonstrated the bacterial community and its symbiosis pattern in the saliva of the subjects
351 under acute high-altitude exposure. As this was an observational study, we cannot be certain
352 whether the change in bacteria was directly affected by the differences in the environment or the
353 interactions among microorganisms. Therefore, we believe that acute altitude exposure affects
354 oral microbial homeostasis to a certain extent. This finding is helpful to understand the potential

355 impact of acute high-altitude exposure on human oral health, but the specific mechanism needs
356 to be further studied.

357 Oral symbiotic microbes are important for maintaining oral health. The mechanism by which
358 symbiotes promote oral health is through resistance to colonization by pathogens, in which the
359 symbiotes outperform disease-causing species in the colonization matrix and thus have little
360 chance of integration by exogenous pathogens (Chalmers et al., 2008; Thurnheer and
361 Belibasakis, 2018). It has been reported that *Streptococcus* and *Actinomyces* isolated from the
362 oral environment of healthy people can inhibit the growth of *Porphyromonas gingivalis* (Sedghi
363 et al., 2021). In our study, the correlation between *Streptococcus* and *Haemophilus*, *Veillonella*,
364 and *Prevotella* changed after rapid high-altitude exposure. Therefore, this study found changes in
365 the symbiotic relationship suggesting that oral health barriers are being broken.

366 Microorganisms not only participate in the body's immune response but also affect metabolic
367 activity (Martin et al., 2010). Our data showed that the gene functional profile of the oral
368 microorganisms was significantly affected by acute altitude exposure. Genes involved in
369 carbohydrate metabolism were predicted to be upregulated, which may indicate that the oral
370 microflora had increased energetic demands in the high-altitude environment. In addition, genes
371 involved in the metabolism of cofactors and vitamins, including vitamin B6, were predicted to be
372 downregulated in the altitude group. Studies have shown that a high level of vitamin B6 can help
373 the human body eliminate reactive oxygen species, prevent oxidative stress damage, and adapt to
374 a harsh external environment (Hellmann and Mooney, 2010). Moreover, other studies have
375 shown that the vitamin B6 pathway is upregulated in the skin microbiota of high-altitude
376 populations (Li et al., 2019) and in the oral microflora of an ultrahigh-altitude population
377 compared with that of a high-altitude population (Liu et al., 2021). However, Monnoyer et al.
378 found that in the extreme environment of saturation diving, the abundance of aerobic metabolic
379 pathways in oral bacteria of divers increased relatively, while the anaerobic metabolic pathways
380 decreased, mainly including energy metabolism, oxidative stress, and adenosine cobalamin
381 synthesis (Monnoyer et al., 2021). This is mainly related to the survival and growth of bacteria in
382 an oxygen-containing environment. Our results also found that the expression of genes related to
383 vitamin metabolism was down-regulated after participants were rushed to high altitudes. So, we
384 speculate that acute altitude exposure may affect the relative abundance of gene functions related
385 to oral bacterial metabolic activity and may aggravate oxidative stress damage. These changes
386 may affect the oral health of the subjects. As our results are based only on the predicted functions
387 of the salivary microbiota, they do not represent the actual functions of the oral bacteria. In the
388 future, further analysis of the roles of these genes in the oral cavities of people exposed to high
389 altitudes is needed.

390 This study investigated the effects of acute high-altitude exposure, an environmental stressor, on
391 the salivary microbiome. Since our study was only preliminary, we plan to use larger sample
392 sizes, clinical indicators, and more accurate monitoring of subjects' physical activity in the
393 future. Furthermore, future work should explore the relationship between the oral microbiota and
394 oral health.

395 **Conclusions**

396 In conclusion, the diversity of the salivary microbiota decreased after acute high-altitude
397 exposure, with an increase in the relative abundance of *Streptococcus* and *Veillonella* and a
398 decrease in the relative abundance of *Prevotella*, *Porphyromonas*, and *Alloprevotella*. In
399 addition, the correlation between bacteria genera changed. Bacterial metabolic functions include
400 an increase in the relative abundance of carbohydrate metabolism gene functions and a decrease
401 in the relative abundance of coenzyme and vitamin metabolism gene functions. These results
402 advance our understanding of the salivary microbiota at high altitudes and its influence on oral
403 diseases. In the future, we will further explore the specific mechanism of the effect of acute
404 altitude exposure on the homeostasis of oral microorganisms.

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Figure 1

Comparisons of microbial community structure among three groups.

Venn diagram of OTU shared between the different groups (A). Species accumulation box diagram of saliva samples (B). Weighted UniFrac-PCoA of salivary microbiota from the three groups. PC1 explained 40.90% of the variation observed, and PC2 explained 23.98% of the variation (C). Analysis of similarity (ANOSIM) of community structure differences among groups. Ordinate shows the rank of the distance between samples. Between in the abscissa is the result Between two groups, and the other two are the results within their respective groups. The comparison between any two groups found that $R > 0, P < 0.05$, indicating that the difference between groups is greater than that within groups, the difference is statistically significant (Figure 1D: $P=0.03, R=0.1379$. Figure 1E: $P=0.002, R=0.2127$. Figure 1F: $P=0.004, R=0.2452$).

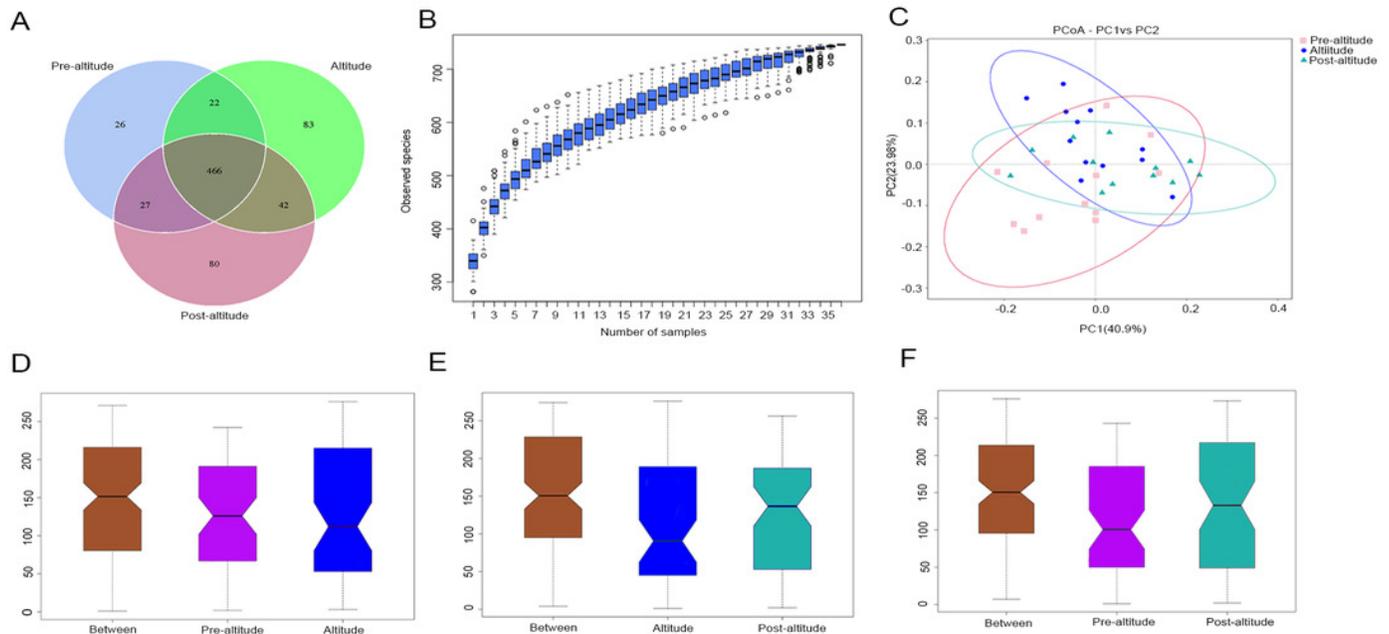


Figure 2

Bacterial Abundance and Distribution.

Distribution of the ten predominant bacteria at phylum level(A). The predominant phyla showing more than 1% of the mean relative abundance in the pre-altitude, altitude, and post-altitude groups are shown (B, C, D). Distribution of the ten predominant bacteria at genus level(E). The predominant genus showing more than 1% of the mean relative abundance in the pre-altitude, altitude, and post-altitude groups are shown (F, G, H). Statistically significant differences are marked with *P*-values.

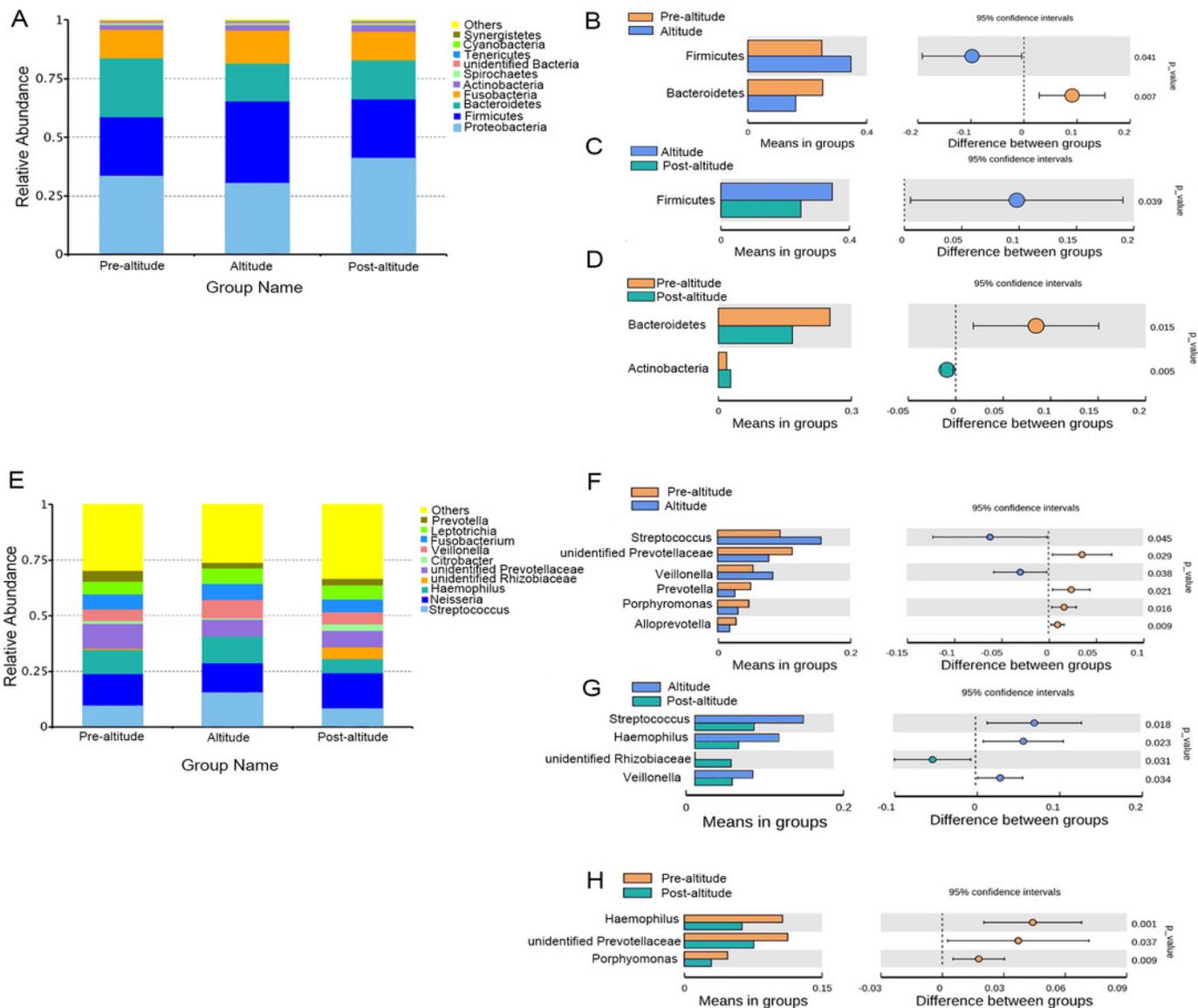


Figure 3

PICRUSt Function Predictions.

Distributions of the top ten predicted gene functions of the salivary microbiota in the three groups are shown. KEGG Pathways Level 1(A), KEGG Pathways Level 2(B). A comparison of predicted gene functions of salivary microbiota between the pre-altitude and altitude groups at KEGG Pathways level 3. Statistically significant P-values are shown in Figure(C).

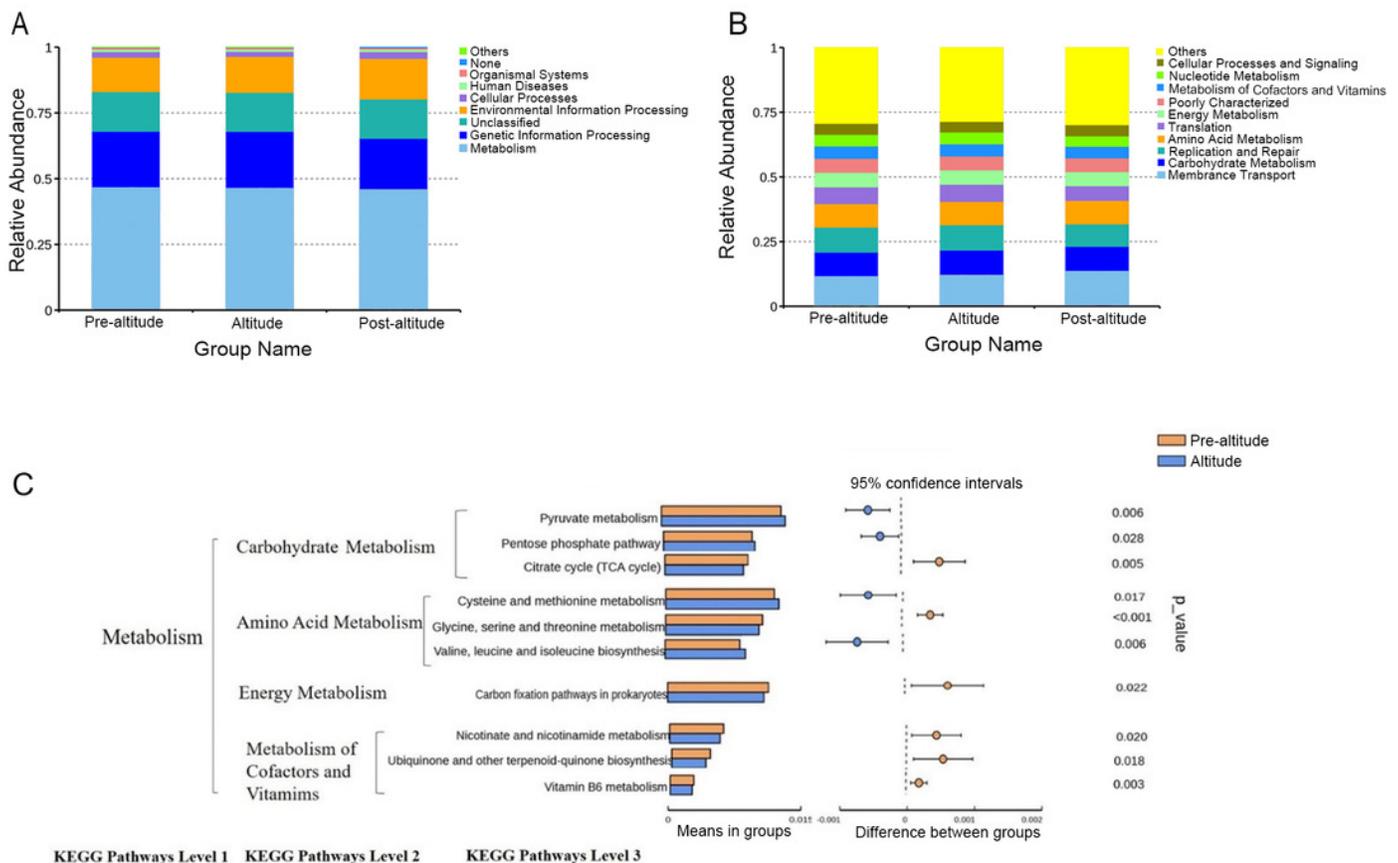


Table 1 (on next page)

The assembly results from the saliva samples.

(1) Raw PE indicates the first data read out by the sequencing platform; (2) Raw tags refers to the sequence after splicing primer fragments from the original data; (3) Clean tags is a sequence with high quality and appropriate length obtained by filtering raw tags; (4) Effective tags refers to the sequences in clean tags that do not have chimeras and can be used for in-depth analysis; (5) Effective % refers to the ratio of effective data to the original number of offline users %. (6) Min length refers to the minimum length of valid data; (7) Max length refers to the maximum length of valid data; (8) Average length refers to the average length of valid data.

1 **Table 1** The assembly results from the saliva samples.

Sample Number	Raw PE	Raw Tags	Clean Tags	Effective Tags	Effective (%)	Min length (bp)	Max length (bp)	Average Length (bp)
36	3138051	2944826	2802821	2298989	73.64%	418	425	422

2 (1) Raw PE indicates the first data read out by the sequencing platform; (2) Raw tags refers to the sequence
3 after splicing primer fragments from the original data; (3) Clean tags is a sequence with high quality and
4 appropriate length obtained by filtering raw tags; (4) Effective tags refers to the sequences in clean tags that do
5 not have chimeras and can be used for in-depth analysis; (5) Effective % refers to the ratio of effective data to
6 the original number of offline users %. (6) Min length refers to the minimum length of valid data; (7) Max
7 length refers to the maximum length of valid data; (8) Average length refers to the average length of valid data.

Table 2 (on next page)

Bacterial alpha diversity indices for saliva samples in each group.

^aShannon index between Altitude and Post-altitude group was statistically significant different ($P=0.024$). ^bShannon index between Pre-altitude and Altitude group was statistically significant different ($P=0.025$). ^cInverse Simpson index between Altitude and Post-altitude group was statistically significant different ($P=0.022$). ^dInverse Simpson index between Pre-altitude and Altitude group was statistically significant different ($P=0.007$). ^eSimpson even index between Pre-altitude and Altitude group was statistically significant different ($P=0.004$).

1 Table 2. Bacterial alpha diversity indices for saliva samples in each group

Group	Chao1		ACE		Shannon		Inverse Simpson		Simpson even		Good's coverage	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE
Pre-altitude	361.64	4.07	362.62	4.70	5.75 ^b	0.08	26.40 ^d	1.74	0.08 ^c	0	0.99	0
Altitude	359.44	11.03	363.40	11.59	5.42 ^{ab}	0.11	19.31 ^{cd}	1.56	0.06 ^c	0	0.99	0
Post-altitude	375.43	6.95	379.19	7.35	5.74 ^a	0.07	25.28 ^c	1.72	0.07	0	0.99	0

2 ^aShannon index between Altitude and Post-altitude group was statistically significant different ($P = 0.024$). ^bShannon
3 index between Pre-altitude and Altitude group was statistically significant different ($P=0.025$). ^cInverse Simpson index
4 between Altitude and Post-altitude group was statistically significant different ($P=0.022$). ^dInverse Simpson index
5 between Pre-altitude and Altitude group was statistically significant different ($P=0.007$). ^eSimpson even index
6 between Pre-altitude and Altitude group was statistically significant different ($P= 0.004$).

7