# Polymicrobial detection and salivary metabolomics of children with early childhood caries (#109364)

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First submission

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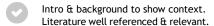
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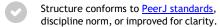
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# Polymicrobial detection and salivary metabolomics of children with early childhood caries

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Background: Early childhood caries (ECC) has been proposed to be associated with various microorganisms and metabolites. This study aims to compare the prevalence of specific microbial species and salivary metabolomics profile in children with and without ECC, and to explore the correlation between salivary metabolites and targeted microbes. Method: Five-ml of unstimulated saliva was collected from 32 ECC and 22 caries-free children. Clinical indexed were recorded and questionnaires regarding oral health and dietary habits were obtained from the guardians. Presence of 8 specific microbial species were examined using species-specific qPCR. Untargeted metabolomics was analysed to identify key differential metabolites and pathways. Correlations among clinical, microbial, and metabolomic data were further explored. Results: The prevalence of Scardovia wiggsiae (90.6%, p-value <0.001), Streptococcus mutans (43.8%, pvalue=0.006), Streptococcus sobrinus (62.5%, p-value<0.001), Ligilactobacillus salivarius (93.6%, p-value=0.01) and Candida albicans(56.3%, p-value < 0.001) were significantly higher in ECC group. Prevalence of ECC was higher in children with two targeted species present compared with children with one targeted species. Histidine metabolism and branched-chain amino acids degradation were activated in ECC group, while glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism, purine and pyrimidine metabolism were inhibited. Histidine and glutathione metabolism was activated with enrichment of targeted microbial species, while linoleic acid metabolism and biotin metabolism was inhibited. The duration of each toothbrushing was a significant risk factor for ECC experience. Conclusion: ECC is potentially associated with specific microorganisms. Co-detection of two targeted microbial species indicates higher possibility of caries. Oral habits and salivary metabolic activities vary between ECC and caries-free children. Selected microbes can well present the salivary metabolic status of ECC.

# Polymicrobial detection and salivary metabolomics ofchildren with early childhood caries

3 4 5 Ting Pan<sup>1</sup>, YuJia Ren<sup>1</sup>, JingYi Li<sup>1</sup>, Ying Liao<sup>1</sup>, XiangHui Xing<sup>1</sup> <sup>1</sup>Department of Pediatric Dentistry, Nanjing Stomatological Hospital, Affiliated Hospital of 6 Medical School, Research Institute of Stomatology, Nanjing University, Nanjing, China. 7 8 9 Corresponding Author: 10 XiangHui Xing1 No.30 Zhongyang Road, Xuanwu District, Nanjing, 210000, China 11 Email address: dr.xing@nju.edu.cn 12 13 14 Ying Liao<sup>1</sup>

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41 42 43

17 Abstract

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18	<b>Background:</b> Early childhood caries (ECC) has been proposed to be associated with various
19	microorganisms and metabolites. This study aims to compare the prevalence of specific
20	microbial species and salivary metabolomics profile in children with and without ECC, and to
21	explore the correlation between salivary metabolites and targeted microbes.
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24	obtained from the guardians. Presence of 8 specific microbial species were examined using
25	species-specific qPCR. Untargeted metabolomics was analysed to identify key differential
26	metabolites and pathways. Correlations among clinical, microbial, and metabolomic data were
27	further explored.
28	<b>Results:</b> The prevalence of <i>Scardovia wiggsiae</i> (90.6%, <i>P</i> <0.001), <i>Streptococcus mutans</i>
29	$(43.8\%, P=0.006), \textit{Streptococcus sobrinus} \ (62.5\%, P<0.001), \textit{Ligilactobacillus salivarius}$
30	(93.6%, P=0.01) and Candida albicans $(56.3%, P<0.001)$ were significantly higher in ECC
31	group. Prevalence of ECC was higher in children with two targeted species present compared
32	with children with one targeted species. Histidine metabolism and branched-chain amino acids
33	degradation were activated in ECC group, while glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism,
34	purine and pyrimidine metabolism were inhibited. Histidine and glutathione metabolism was
35	activated with enrichment of targeted microbial species, while linoleic acid metabolism and
36	biotin metabolism was inhibited. The duration of each toothbrushing was a significant risk facto
37	for ECC experience.

Conclusion: ECC is potentially associated with specific microorganisms. Co-detection of two

targeted microbial species indicates higher possibility of caries. Oral habits and salivary metabolic activities vary between ECC and caries-free children. Selected microbes can well

present the salivary metabolic status of ECC.

#### 44 Introduction

45	Dental caries remains one of the most common chronic disease of the numan oral cavity and can
46	occur at any age. Children with deciduous teeth are more susceptible to caries because of the risk
47	factors including higher organic content of primary teeth, higher frequency of sugary intake, and
48	relatively poor maintenance of personal oral hygiene. Children under 6 years of age who have
49	one or more caries (cavities or non-cavities), missing (due to caries), or filled surfaces in any
50	deciduous tooth are referred to as early childhood caries (ECC) (Deng, Zhang & Zou, 2020).
51	ECC is a multifactorial disease influenced by several factors, including diet, oral hygiene
52	practices, the oral microbiome, and genetic predispositions(de Jesus et al., 2022). Socioeconomic
53	factors such as place of residence and mode of delivery have also been associated with ECC
54	experiences (Khan et al., 2024). The results of the third National Dental Epidemiologic Survey in
55	China showed that the caries prevalence among 3-year-olds and 5-year-olds reached 34.5% and
56	71.9%, respectively(DU et al., 2018). The etiology of caries has confirmed that microorganisms
57	play an important role in the initiation and progression of caries. Examination of supragingival
58	plaques from preschool-age children revealed that Streptococcus mutans, Selenomonas
59	sputigena, Pseudomonas salivae, and Lactobacillus wadei were significantly associated with
60	ECC(Cho et al., 2023). A large number of previous studies have focused on a classical
61	cariogenic bacterium, Streptococcus mutans (S. mutans) (Krzyściak et al., 2014). However, it has
62	been found that <i>S. mutans</i> cannot be isolated from some children with ECC(Tanner et al., 2011).
63	Moreover, topical application of fluoride, a commonly accepted caries-preventive agent, is less
64	effective in preventing caries in children, especially children with high caries risks (Manchanda
65	et al., 2023). With the development of microbiology and the diversification of detection methods
66	for oral microorganisms, a variety of other bacteria have been found to be potentially correlated
67	with ECC, including but not limited to Scardovia wiggsiae (S. wiggsiae), Streptococcus
68	$salivarius \ (S.\ salivarius), Streptococcus\ sobrinus \ (S.\ sobrinus), Streptococcus\ parasanguinis \ (S.\ sobrinus$
69	$paras anguinis), Ligilac tobac illus \ salivarius \ (L.\ salivarius), Veillonella\ parvula\ (V.\ parvula)\ and$
70	Candida albicans (C. albicans) (Tanner et al., 2011; Xiao et al., 2018; Zhang, Chu & Yu, 2022).
71	However, there have been no reports of prevalence of these novel caries-associated
72	microorganisms in the Chinese ECC community (Xiao et al., 2019).
73	More and more researchers have come to realize the importance of taking host-microbe
74	interaction into consideration when exploring oral infectious diseases (Lamont, Koo &
75	$Hajishengallis, 2018). \ Metabolites in saliva, which is the key environment where or al bacteria / \\$
76	fungi meet host cells, have been analyzed in several studies on adult caries. Several biomarkers,
77	including salivary mucins, glycoproteins (sCD14), interleukins (IL-2RA, 4,-13), urease, carbonic
78	anhydrase VI, and urea, has been associated with adult caries (Antonelli et al., 2024). A previous
79	study on carbohydrate metabolites of adolescents with caries found significantly different
80	clustering of organic acids in caries-active subjects (Havsed et al., 2021). Histamine, L-histidine
81	and succinate emerges are considered to be the major salivary metabolites associated with caries
82	status, reflecting significant alterations in metabolic pathways in caries-active children In
83	addition, salivary metabolites were significantly altered in children with dental caries studied,

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including amino acid metabolism, pyrimidine metabolism, purine metabolism (Li et al., 2023a). 84 85 The application and development of untargeted metabolomic technologies, represented by Liquid 86 Chromatograph Mass Spectrometer (LC-MS), allows for detection of metabolites involved in 87 carbohydrate metabolism, amino acid metabolism, lipid metabolism and many other metabolic 88 pathways. A metabolomic study on children with ECC would benefit our understanding of this disease and help identify potential biomarkers for diagnostic and risk prediction purposes. 89 90 Thus, the aim of the present study was to explore the prevalence of several targeted microbial 91 species in ECC children in Nanjing District of China and identify metabolites and metabolomic 92 pathways potentially associated with ECC. The hypothesis was that novel microbial species 93 other than S. mutans would be more prevalent in saliva of ECC children compared to caries-free 94 children. Salivary metabolic activities as well as behavioural risk factors were also hypothesized 95 to differ in ECC and caries-free children.

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#### **Materials & Methods**

#### Study population and Sample collection

Subjects were selected from patients who came to the department of pediatric dentistry, Nanjing 100 Stomatological Hospital (Ethical approval: NJSH-2023NL-020-1). A total of 32 children with 101 102 ECC and 22 caries-free (CF) children were included in this study. All the study participants were 103 required to provide informed consent from the parent or guardian of the children. Inclusion 104 criteria for this study: 1) Aged 6 years or below; 2) No systemic disease; 3) No antibiotics were 105 used for 3 months; 4) Consent of the parent or guardian to the child's clinical examination and 106 microbiological sampling. Exclusion criteria: 1) Above 6 years old; 2) children who had 107 systemic diseases; 3) Antibiotics were used in the past 3 month; 4) Any parent or guardian declined to participate. Two examiners with at least 5-year experience in department of pediatric 108 109 dentistry performed dental examinations and dmft (decay, missing, filling teeth) index were 110 recorded. Subjects were then divided into the CF group (dmft = 0) and ECC group (dmft = 13.16 > 3.39). 111 All participants were provided with a sterile saliva collection tube, and were instructed to spit 5

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114 to laboratory. Saliva was centrifuged at 4°C for 10 min and the pellets and supernatant were separately stored at -80 °C. The pellets were used for DNA extraction, while the supernatant was 115 used for untargeted metabolomic analysis. 116 Meanwhile, the questionnaires were completed by the parents or guardians. The questionnaire 117 from one child in the caries-free group was excluded in later statistical analysis due to poor 119 quality. General and oral status-associated information was collected: (1) General information of

mL whole unstimulated saliva. Collected saliva were immediately placed on ice and transferred

the children; (2) mother-related factors: a) mode of delivery; b) feeding patterns within 6 months

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122 123 124 125	brush teeth; b) whether brush teeth everyday; c) frequency of brushing everyday; d) duration of each brushing; e) use of fluoride toothpaste; (4) dietary habits: a) frequency of sugary drinks or food; b) frequency of eating / drinking before bedtime.
126	DNA extraction and qPCR
127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 136	Genomic DNA from the saliva was extracted by DNA extraction kits (TIAamp Bacteria DNA Kit, TIANGEN, China). DNA concentration and purity was examined using Nano-Drop spectrophotometer using A260/A280. The specific primers used for qPCR are detailed in Table 1. Universal 16s rDNA was used as positive control. A 100µL reaction protocol was set up for this qPCR screening which consisted of 5 µL ChamQ Universal SYBR qPCR Master Mix (Vazyme, Nanjing, China), 0.5 µL forward and reverse primers and 4 µL template DNA. Processing was performed using pre-denaturation at 95# for 15 min, followed by 50 cycles denaturation (95# for 15 s and 60# for 30s). The last step was melting curve analysis at 95# for 15 s, 65# for 60s and 95# for 15 s.
137	Untargeted metabolomics
138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145	LC-MS analysis was used to perform untargeted metabolomics on supernatant of saliva which was collected from ECC and CF children. Two mobile phase condition was used to improve the metabolite coverage, including both positive ion mode and negative ion mode. Detection and identification of metabolites were performed using MS-dial (ver.5.1.230912) by searching against online database (MoNA, GNPS, HMDB and MS-dial database) and in-house database. Untargeted metabolomic analysis was performed at Cosmos Wisdom company (Hangzhou, China).
146	Statistical analysis
147	Clinical data Analysis
148 149 150 151 152 153	Children with missing data were excluded from the analysis. The normality of the data was tested through the Shapiro-Wilk test. Nonparametric test was used for continuous data of skew distribution. Demographic variables were summarized and descriptive statistics were reported. The Chi-square test or Fisher's exact test was used to compare the categorical variables and the detection of bacteria between two groups. Only the variables that showed significant relation to dental caries experience were studied by multiple logistic regression analysis. All conclusions

were drawn considering the level of significance of 5%. Data analysis was performed using Statistical Package for Social Science version 29.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

of birth; c) whether mother has caries experience; (3) oral health habits: a) age of starting to

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#### **Bioinformatics Analysis**

158 R software package was employed to test for significant differences between two groups of samples. T-test, Variable Importance in Projection (VIP) obtained from the Orthogonal partial 159 160 least squares-discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA) model (biological replicates  $\geq$  3) and the P/FDR (biological replicates ≥ 2) or fold change (FC) values from univariate were used together to 161 162 screen differential metabolites between two groups. Generally, variables meeting both criteria of P < 0.05 and VIP > 1.0 were considered as differential metabolites. The Fisher's exact test was 164 used to find out whether the differentially expressed metabolites had significant enrichment 165 trends in specific functional types. The differential metabolites identified in the previous step 166 were then subjected to Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genome (KEGG) pathway. Metabolite 167 Set Enrichment Analysis (MSEA) was performed based on all identified metabolites and KEGG pathway databases using the R package corto (version 1.2.4). Based on the MSEA enrichment 168 results, we screened for significantly enriched pathways and differential metabolites in the 169 170 pathways by setting a p value threshold (P < 0.05) and mapped the metabolic regulatory network 171 using the R package graph (version 2.1.0). Spearman's correlation analysis as well as KEGG pathway enrichment analysis was performed to analyze the correlation between delta Cq 172 173 (Cq<sub>species</sub>-Cq<sub>universal 16s</sub>) of targeted species and metabolites to screen for significantly up-regulated 174 and down-regulated metabolites associated with the targeted microbes.

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#### 76 Results

#### 177 General and clinical characterization

- 178 A total of 53 children were included in the study. General and clinical informational data of the
- 179 subjects are shown in the Table 2. Age and gender were not statistically different between the CF
- 180 and ECC groups.

#### 181 Questionnaire results

- Notably, age of starting to brush teeth, whether brush teeth everyday, frequency of brushing,
- 183 duration of each brushing, use of fluoride toothpaste and frequency of sugary drinks or food were
- 184 significantly different in CF and ECC groups (Table 3).
- 185 The significant variables were included in the multiple logistic regression model. The
- 186 multicollinearity was first determined by testing the tolerance and the variance inflation factor
- 187 (VIF) (Table 4). Factors with tolerance greater than 0.1 or VIP less than 10 were further
- 188 examined in the multiple logistic regression analysis. As shown in Table 5, the duration of each
- 189 brushing was a significant risk factor associated with ECC experience. Brushing teeth for more
- 190 than 3 minutes can significantly reduce the risk of caries.

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#### Detection and co-detection of specific microbial species

- 193 The detection rate of specific microbial species was shown in the Table 6. The prevalence of S.
- 194 wiggsiae (P < 0.001), S. mutans (P = 0.006), S. sobrinus (P < 0.001), L. salivarius (P = 0.01) and
- 195 *C. albicans* (P < 0.001) were significantly higher in the ECC group when compared to CF.
- 196 Positive detection of S. wiggsiae, S. mutans, S. sobrinus, L. salivarius and C. albicans and of their
- 197 combinations in saliva samples from CF and ECC children is shown in Figure 1. All children
- 198 with presence of the combination of C. albicans and S. mutans or C. albicans and S. sobrinus
- 199 had ECC. Prevalence of ECC was higher in children with two targeted species present compared
- 200 to that in children with only one targeted species present.

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#### Metabolomic results

- 203 In the present study, a total of 442 metabolites were detected by untargeted metabolomics.
- 204 Differential metabolites between ECC group and CF group are shown in Figure 2. A total of 132
- 205 differential metabolites were identified, including 97 up-regulated metabolites and 35 down-
- 206 regulated metabolites. The top 10 up/down-regulated differential metabolites are shown in Table
- 207 7 and Table 8 respectively.
- 208 KEGG enrichment analysis and MSEA were performed to determine functional pathways and
- 209 metabolite sets with major differences between two groups. Figure 3 showed results from KEGG
- 210 enrichment analysis. Nitrogen metabolism was mostly enriched. D-amino acid metabolism and
- 211 pyrimidine metabolism contains the most numbers of differential metabolites. MSEA revealed
- 212 that 8 metabolite sets were significantly different between ECC and CF groups (Fig. 4),
- 213 including caffeine metabolism, glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism, citrate cycle (TCA
- 214 cycle), pyrimidine metabolism, histidine metabolism, valine, leucine and isoleucine degradation,
- 215 pyruvate metabolism and purine metabolism.
- 216 Based on the MSEA enrichment results, we screened the pathways with P < 0.05 and the
- 217 different metabolites in the pathway to construct the metabolic regulatory network (Fig. 5).
- 218 Histidine metabolism and valine, leucine and isoleucine degradation were activated in the ECC
- 219 group. Conversely, glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism, purine metabolism and pyrimidine
- 220 metabolism were inhibited in saliva of children with ECC.

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#### Correlation between microorganisms and metabolomics

- 223 Based on the results of the correlation analysis between the Cq (Cq<sub>species</sub>-Cq<sub>universal 16s</sub>) values of
- 224 the targeted specific microbial species and the metabolites, we screened the metabolites with
- 225 significant correlation with the microbial species content and performed KEGG pathway
- 226 analysis. Histidine metabolism and glutathione metabolism was activated with enrichment of

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targeted microbial species, while linoleic acid metabolism and biotin metabolism was inhibited(Fig. 6).

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#### Discussion

231 Results from this current study about the detection of multiple acid-producing microorganisms 232 are consistent with the polymicrobial etiology of dental caries suggested by a number of researchers (Simón-Soro & Mira, 2015; Lamont, Koo & Hajishengallis, 2018; Shao et al., 2023). 233 234 The dominant species in early childhood caries seems to differ from that in adolescent and adult 235 caries. While the detection of Scardovia wiggsiae has been reported in children with ECC from 236 different populations (Tanner et al., 2011; Simón-Soro & Mira, 2015; Chandna et al., 2018; 237 Lamont, Koo & Hajishengallis, 2018; McDaniel et al., 2021; Tantikalchan & Mitrakul, 2022; 238 Shao et al., 2023), the extremely high prevalence of this species in Chinese ECC children 239 (90.6%, Table 6) is firstly reported and suggests that it may play a role in population-specific 240 caries etiology. Notably, Scardovis wiggsiae has been found to be more tolerant to fluoride inhibition when compared to S. mutans (Kameda et al., 2020), indicating a poorer effect of 241 242 fluoride prevention on dental caries with Scardovia wiggsiae being dominant in oral cavity. 243 While there is no water fluoridation in China, high concentrations of fluoride in groundwater 244 have been reported in different regions of China (Cao et al., 2022; Huang et al., 2023). It can be 245 hypothesized that the predominance of Scardovia wiggsiae could be a result of natural selection. 246 This predominance could also partly explain the relatively compromised protective effect of 247 topical fluoride, which is regularly applied to pre-school children in most areas of China. 248 Except for Scardovia wiggsiae, other microbial species including S. mutans, Streptococcus 249 sobrinus, Ligilactobacillus salivarius and Candida albicans were also found to be more 250 prevalent in children with ECC. Among them, S. mutans and S. sobrinus has been long studied as 251 main pathogens of dental caries and have synergistic effect (Rupf et al., 2006; Li, Wyllie & 252 Jensen, 2021). High prevalence of Candida albicans in ECC has also been reported in numerous 253 studies (De Carvalho et al., 2006; Xiao et al., 2018; Sridhar et al., 2020). The co-existence could 254 greatly promote metabolic activities and biofilm formation of Candida and bacteria through 255 direct interaction and indirect signal molecules, thus facilitating caries progression (Xiao et al., 256 2018). In our study, we also noticed a notably higher prevalence of caries when two targeted 257 species were detected in salivary samples, indicating synergistic interactions between different microbes (Fig. 1). Future studies could explore the potential physical / chemical / metabolic 258 interactions and synergies between these targeted species as this may provide deeper insights 259 260 into their role in caries development. The high detection rate of Ligilactobacillus salivarius in 261 children with ECC was somewhat surprising as this species has long been regarded as a probiotic 262 which can inhibit biofilm formation of S. mutans and Candida albicans (Krzyściak et al., 2017; 263 Wasfi et al., 2018). Caries incidence and prevalence was reported to be decreased after a short-264 term intervention with Ligilactobacillus salivarius probiotic (Staszczyk et al., 2022). However, 265 controversial results were also reported by other researchers, who found higher level of

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266 Ligilactobacillus salivarius in adolescents with dental caries (Shimada et al., 2015). One explanation for this controversy may due to the genomic diversity of this species and the variety 267 268 of strains existed in nature (Neville & O'Toole, 2010; Raftis et al., 2011). More and more 269 researchers have come to realize that virulence of caries-associated bacteria could be strain-270 specific (Tanner et al., 2018; Al-Hebshi et al., 2019). A previous study identified two significantly different groups of Ligilactobacillus salivarius based on randomly amplified 271 polymorphic DNA fingerprinting (Švec, Kukletová & Sedláček, 2010), implicating potentially 272 273 different metabolic phenotypes. Strain-based study is required to further unveil the cariogenic 274 strains of Ligilactobacillus salivarius identified in our current study. 275 Metabolomic analysis revealed 132 differential metabolites in two groups of children, indicating 276 significantly different salivary status due to microbial activity and host conditions. Amino acid 277 metabolism, especially histidine metabolism, was found to be activated in ECC group (Fig. 5), 278 which is consistent with a previous metabolomic study in children with mixed-dentition (Li et 279 al., 2023c). Interestingly, when analyzing metabolomic data based on enrichment of the targeted 280 microbial species, activation of histidine metabolism was also noticed in samples with enriched 281 targeted species (Fig. 6), indicating that microbes selected in the current study can well represent 282 the metabolic status of the ECC oral microcosm. Histidine is an essential amino acid in human 283 body and plays a central role in metabolism of histidine-containing proteins (Moro et al., 2020). 284 Previous studies have emphasized the significance of salivary histidine-rich proteins, represented 285 by histatin 5, which are important components of the non-specific immune system in oral cavity 286 (Jurczak et al., 2015; Munther, 2020). Antimicrobial peptides derived from histatin 5 have been 287 proved to impose killing effect on oral pathogens, including candida and streptococci (Stewart et 288 al., 2023; Skog et al., 2023). Besides, histatin 5 can inhibit the aggregation of S. mutans with 289 other microbiota and thus biofilm formation (Huo et al., 2011; Krzyściak et al., 2015). In this 290 current study, we detected activated histidine metabolism and higher levels of histamine in ECC 291 group, which is a hydrolytic product of histidine. This result could be associated with lower 292 histatin 5 levels in children with ECC found in other studies (Jurczak et al., 2015; Munther, 293 2020). Based on the current result, supplement of histidine, especially histatin 5, should be 294 suggested for children with ECC to improve the host defense against cariogenic microorganisms. 295 This study also addresses distinct activities of purine and pyrimidine metabolism in children with 296 ECC, correlating with several previous reports which suggested use of purine and pyrimidine-297 related metabolites as caries biomarkers (He et al., 2018; Li et al., 2023c). The role of purine and 298 pyrimidine metabolism in caries etiology is still unknown as it has not been found until recent 299 years due to advances in sequencing and metabolomic technologies. Purine and pyrimidine 300 metabolism has been associated with biological interconversion of DNA, RNA, lipids and 301 carbohydrates (Garavito, Narváez-Ortiz & Zimmermann, 2015). Pathogens could manipulate 302 pyridine metabolism in host cells to generate an optimal host cellular environment for them to 303 proliferate(Garavito, Narváez-Ortiz & Zimmermann, 2015). Interestingly, a recent study also 304 reported decreased purine and pyrimidine synthesis in a periodontitis microbial model and the 305 decrease has been hypothesized to be associated with the environmental oxygen gradient caused

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by bacteria itself (Yamaguchi-Kuroda et al., 2023). The recurrent discovery of purine and 306 pyrimidine metabolism change in oral infectious diseases is worth deeper explorations. The inhibition of glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism in children with ECC is novel in this study. Glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism is well conserved in the entire biosphere and 310 serves as important bypass of the citric acid cycle (TCA) (Dolan & Welch, 2018). The central metabolite, glyoxylate, is closely associated with glyoxylate shunt which is involved in oxidative stress, antibiotic stress and host infection in various pathogenic microorganisms (Xu et al., 2022). Also, the use of glyoxylate metabolism indicates the ability of the microorganisms to take advantage of carbon sources such as acetate, fatty acids, or ketogenic amino acids (Dolan & 315 Welch, 2018). Inhibition of glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism may lead to compromised 316 growth and metabolic potential and competitiveness of the microorganisms in the host environment. Studies about glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism in oral microbes are still 318 rare, suggesting future efforts to understand its role in pathogenesis of caries, especially in ECC. 319 The current study also included behavioral risk factors of ECC. Factors including age of starting 320 to brush teeth, frequency of brushing, duration of brushing, use of fluoride toothpaste and frequency of sugary intake significantly varied between ECC and CF group, emphasizing the 322 importance of introducing oral health knowledge and habits to parents(SUN, ZHANG & ZHOU, 323 2017; Manchanda et al., 2023). Among the studied factors, longer toothbrushing time showed 324 protective effect against caries (Table 5). Very limited number of studies looked into 325 toothbrushing time in children. This issue may reflect the fact that while parents have been told 326 to brush teeth for their children, more specific toothbrushing techniques have not been taught. A previous study on oral health knowledge, attitudes and behavior of parents of preschool children found that parents have different habits and opinions about how to help their children brush their teeth (Naidu & Nunn, 2020). In order to enhance the caries preventive effect, more community toothbrushing programs should be addressed to teach parents or guardians to correctly supervise toothbrushing.

#### Conclusions

In conclusion, this current study found high prevalence of microbial species other than classical S. mutans in ECC children. Co-detection of two targeted microbial species may indicate higher possibility of caries in children. Oral habits and salivary metabolic activities vary between ECC and caries-free children. Selected microbes can well present the metabolic status of ECC oral microcosm. Metabolomic pathways such as histidine metabolism, purine and pyrimidine metabolism and glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism reflect host-microbe interaction in ECC status. Key metabolites may be further identified to predict caries risks in children.

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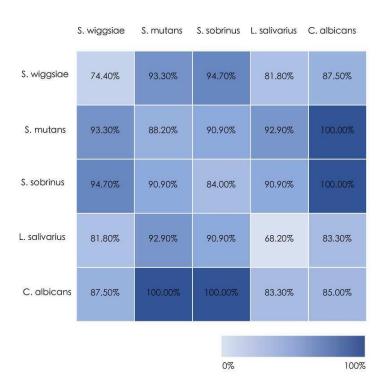
Zhang JS, Chu C-H, Yu OY. 2022. Oral Microbiome and Dental Caries Development. *Dentistry Journal* 10:184. DOI: 10.3390/dj10100184.

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# Figure 1

Heatmap of co-detection of each species.

Prevalence of s-ECC in children detected with both microbial species is shown.

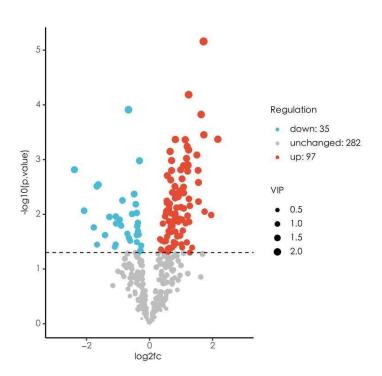


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# Figure 2

Volcano plot of difference analysis

Blue indicates significantly down-regulated differential metabolites, and red indicated significantly up-regulated differential metabolites, purple-gray indicates metabolites with no significant difference.

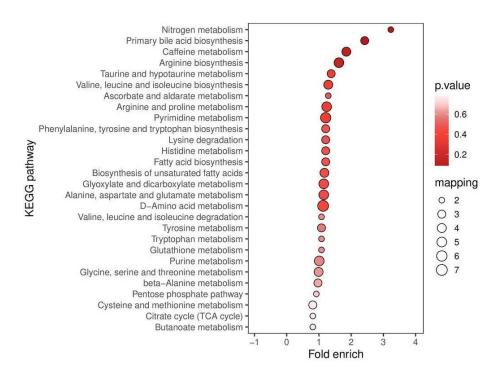


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# Figure 3

KEGG enrichment of ECC vs CF

The results of the top 20 most significantly enriched categories are given in the plot, with the KEGG pathway in the longitudinal axis, the horizontal axis is the Log2-transformed value of the Fold enrichment. Fold enrich is the ratio of GeneRatio to Background Ratio in the corresponding pathway, and a larger value indicates a greater degree of enrichment. The circle colour indicates the p-value of enrichment significance, and the circle size indicates the number of different metabolites in the pathway.

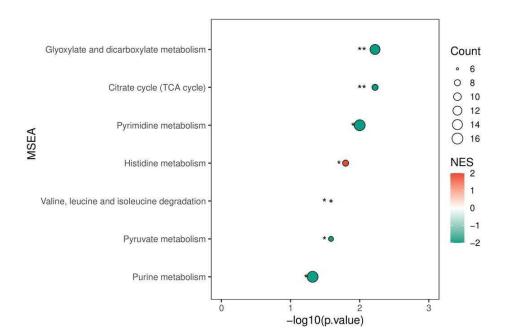


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# Figure 4

MSEA results of ECC vs CF

Normalized Enrichment Score (NES) was used to measure the enrichment of the metabolite set in the pathway. NES values range from -1 to 1, where greater than 0 indicates that the metabolite set is enriched and less than 0 indicates that the metabolite set is suppressed. Circle size indicates the number of different metabolites in each metabolite set.



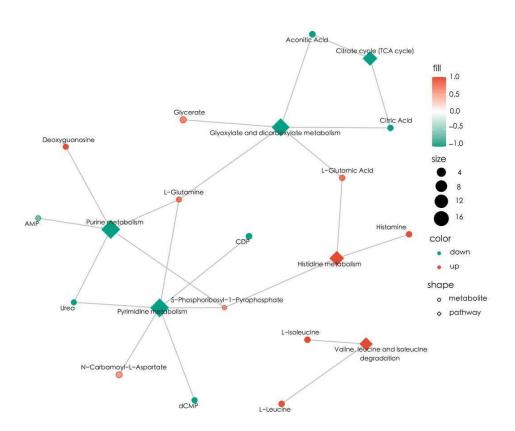
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# Figure 5

Differential metabolite regulatory network

Circles represent differential metabolites, where red indicates up-regulation, green indicates down-regulation, and size indicates VIP values. Diamonds indicate pathways, where red indicates activation and green indicates inhibition, size indicates the number of metabolites detected in the pathway; wiring indicates that metabolites are involved in the pathway process. Connection represents the process in which metabolites participate in this pathway.

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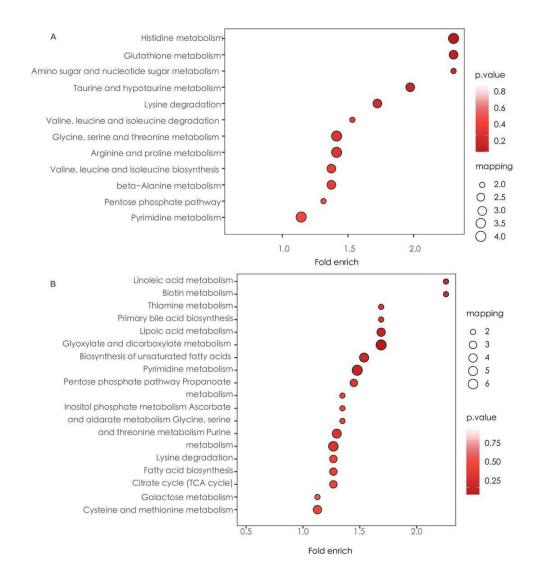


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# Figure 6

KEGG enrichment based on enrichment of targeted microbial species.

A. up-regulated metabolic pathways with enrichment of targeted microbial species, B. dowm-regulated metabolic pathways with enrichment of targeted microbial species.



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Table 1(on next page)

Primers used in this study

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#### 1 Table.1 Primers used in this study

Species		Primer sequence
Universal 16s	F	GGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAAT
	R	GGGACTACCAGGGTATCTAAT
Scardovia wiggsiae	F	GTGGACTTTATGAATAAGC
	R	CTACCGTTAAGCAGTAAG
Streptococcus mutans	F	AGTCGTGTTGGTTCAACGGA
	R	TAAACCGGGAGCTTGATCGG
Streptococcus salivarius	F	CTGCTCTTGTGACAGCCCAT
	R	ACGGGAAGCTGATCTTTCGTA
Streptococcus sobrinus	F	GACCTGTCAGCCGAAGAACGC
	R	CCGCAGAGAAGTATCCCGC
Streptococcus parasanguinis	F	AACAATGCGATYCCAGTATCRAG
	R	CTACGACATTAAAGGTACCDCGG
Lactobacillus salivarius	F	CGAAACTTTCTTACACCGAATGC
	R	GTCCATTGTGGAAGATTCCC
Veillonella parvula	F	GAACGTTTGTTGCGTGCTATTTTTGGT
	R	TCGTCGCCATTTTCACGGGTAA
Candida albicans	F	CACCAACTCGACCAGTAGGC
	R	CGGGTGGTCTATATTGAGAT

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Table 2(on next page)

General and clinical characterization

 $^{a}P$  of the Chi-square test for independence  $^{b}$  t-test was adopted to evaluate the association between the age with the caries status. CF, caries-free; ECC, early childhood caries; dmft, decayed-missing-filled deciduous teeth.

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1	Table	and	characterization			
			CF (n=21)	ECC (n=32)		
		Gender				
		Female	11 (52.4%)	13 (40.6%)	$\chi^2 = 0.707$ , d.f.=1	
		Male	10 (47.6%)	19 (59.4)	$p=0.4^{a}$	
		$Mean\ Age \pm SD$	454.005	4.40.0.70	0.750h	
		(years)	4.74±0.85	4.49±0.78	p=0.753b	
		dmft	0	13 16+3 39		

<sup>2</sup> a of the Chi-square test for independence

5

<sup>3</sup> bt-test was adopted to evaluate the association between the age with the caries status.

 $<sup>4 \</sup>quad \text{ CF, caries-free; ECC, early childhood caries; dmft, decayed-missing-filled deciduous teeth.} \\$ 

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Table 3(on next page)

Results from the questionnaires

<sup>a</sup> Mann-Whitney U test. CF, caries-free; ECC, early childhood caries.

Factors	CF (n=21)	ECC (n=32)	
Mode of delivery			χ <sup>2</sup> =0.167, d.f.=1
spontaneous labor	13(61.9%)	18(56.3%)	p=0.683
caesarean section	8(38.1%)	14(43.8%)	
Birth weight (kg)	3.35(2.85ÿ3.6)	3.45(3.17ÿ3.68)	Z=-0.938, p=0.348
Feeding patterns within 6 months of birth			$\chi^2 = 4.085$ , d.f.=3
formula feeding only	0(0%)	5(15.6%)	p=0.239
formula feeding mainly	0(0%)	0(0%)	
formula and breast feeding equal	7(33.3%)	8(25.0%)	
breast feeding mainly	1(4.8%)	3(9.4%)	
breast feeding only	13(61.9%)	16(50%)	
Whether the mother has caries experience			χ <sup>2</sup> =3.382, d.f.=2
No	7(33.3%)	7(21.9%)	p=0.184
Yes, treated	9(42.9%)	15(46.9%)	
Yes, untreated	3(14.3%)	10(31.3%)	
Age of starting to brush teeth	,		χ <sup>2</sup> =4.85, d.f.=1
fl years old	13(61.9%)	10(31.3%)	p=0.028
>1 years old	8(38.1%)	22(68.8%)	P
Brushing teeth everyday	,	(********	χ <sup>2</sup> =10.48, d.f.=1
yes	19(90.5%)	15(46.9%)	p=0.01
no	2(9.5%)	17(53.1%)	-
Frequency of brushing			$\chi^2=7.62$ , d.f.=1
1 times/day	5(23.8%)	20(62.5%)	p=0.006
g 2 times/day	16(76.2%)	12(37.5%)	
Duration of each brushing			χ <sup>2</sup> =4.68, d.f.=1
< 3 minutes	13(61.9%)	28(87.5%)	p=0.045
g 3 minutes	12(38.1%)	4(12.5%)	
Use of fluoride toothpaste			$\chi^2=5.11$ , d.f.=1
Yes	19(90.5%)	20(62.5%)	p=0.024
No	2(9.5%)	12(37.5%)	
Frequency of sugary drinks or food			$\chi^2$ =7.63, d.f.=2
f 1 times/week	5(23.8%)	4(12.5%)	p=0.022
2-4 times/week	11(52.4%)	8(25.0%)	
g 1 times/day	5(23.8%)	20(62.5%)	
Intake of foods before bedtime (after brushing)			$\chi^2=3.75$ , d.f.=2
f 1 times/week	16(76.2%)	16(50%)	p=0.141
2-4 times/week	4(19.0%)	10(31.3%)	
g 1 times/day	1(4.8%)	6(18.8%)	

 $<sup>\</sup>frac{g \ 1 \ times/day}{a \ Mann-Whitney \ U \ test.}$ 

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3 CF, caries-free; ECC, early childhood caries.

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Table 4(on next page)

Independent variable multicollinearity analysis

VIF, variance inflation factor

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Table In	anal	
Age of starting to brush teeth	0.793	1.261
Brushing teeth everyday	0.669	1.495
Frequency of brushing	0.951	1.051
Duration of each brushing	0.811	1.234
Use of fluoride toothpaste	0.926	1.079
Frequency of sugary drinks or food	0.725	1.379

2 variance inflation factor

3

4

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Table 5(on next page)

Significant factors in the multiple logistic regression analysis

 $^*$  P <0.05; adjust OR, adjust odds ratio; 95% CI, 95% Confidence Interval; The bolded values indicate variables which were used as references in the logistic regression analysis.

able	in the	lo	re	anal			
Factors					Adjusted OR	95% C	
						Lower	upper
Age of starting to bru	sh teeth						
f1 years old							
>1 years old		1.061		0.229	2.891	0.531	16.275
Brushing teeth everyd	ay						
No							
Yes		-1.202		0.361	0.301	0.023	3.954
Frequency of brushing	g						
1 times/ day							
g 2 times/ day		-1.464		0.262	0.231	0.018	2.983
Duration of each brus	hing						
< 3 minute							
g 3 minutes		-2.109		0.029	0.121	0.018	0.808
Use of fluoride toothp	aste						
No							
yes		-0.428		0.731	0.652	0.057	7.459
Frequency of sugary of	drinks or food						
f 1 times/ week							
2-4 times/ week		-0.742		0.484	0.476	0.60	3.807
g 1 times/ day		1.777		0.118	5.912	0.637	54.916

as references in the logistic regression analysis.

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Table 6(on next page)

Detection rates of specific microbial species

CF, caries-free; ECC, early childhood caries; d.f., degrees of freedom.

	CF		ECC		
		Negative		Negative	
Scardovia wiggsiae	11 (50%)	11 (50%)	29 (90.6%)	3 (9.4%)	$\chi^2=11.20$ , d.f.=1 p 0.001
Streptococcus mutans	2 (9.1%)	20 (90.9%)	14 (43.8%)	18 (56.3%)	$\chi^2$ =7.51, d.f.=1 p=0.006
Streptococcus salivarius	22 (100%)		32(100%)		
Streptococcus sobrinus	3 (13.6%)	19 (86.4%)	20 (62.5%)	12 (38.7%)	$\chi^2=12.73$ , d.f.=1 $p<0.001$
Streptococcus parasanguinis	20 (90.9%)	2 (9.1%)	29 (90.6%)	3 (9.4%)	p=0.68
Lactobacillus salivarius	14 (63.6%)	8 (36.4%)	30 (93.6%)	2 (6.3%)	p=0.01
Veillonella parvula	22 (100%)		32 (100%)		
Candida albicans	2 (9.1%)	20 (90.9%)	18 (56.3%)	14 (43.8%)	χ <sup>2</sup> =12.43, d.f.=1 p<0.001

<sup>2</sup> CF, caries-free; ECC, early childhood caries; d.f., degrees of freedom.

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Table 7(on next page)

Detailed information about top 10 up-regulated differential metabolites

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able	in	abo	to	di	
Metabolite r	name		Category	log2fc	p value
Caffeine				3.044292208	0.000556028
				2.165787879	0.000425488
				1.954194805	0.010277702
Arachidonic	Arachidonic Acid (C20			1.746463203	0.00891573
				1.721707792	0.000352883
Cysteine sul	finic Acid		Amino Acid	1.711880952	6.93E-06
1,3-Dipheny	lguanidine			1.63612987	0.000150028
			Amino Acid	1.551612554	0.005857378
			Amino Acid	1.550902597	0.002619783
				1.538647186	0.001575715

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Table 8(on next page)

Detailed information about top 10 down-regulated differential metabolites

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Γable in	abo to do	di	
Metabolite name	Category	log2fc	p value
Naringenin	Unclassified	-2.384415584	0.001528992
Citric Acid	Carbohydrate	-2.077140693	0.008597062
Citraconic acid	Unclassified	-1.771183983	0.01735429
CD	Nucleotide	-1.67147619	0.003060071
Fructoselysine		-1.66630303	0.035772992
Aconitic Acid	Carbohydrate	-1.626422078	0.002868763
		-1.412974026	0.023986494
dCM	Nucleotide	-1.274822511	0.011138418
4-Methylcatechol		-1.104229437	0.03931109
7-Methylguanosine	Nucleotide	-1.073872294	0.035467538

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