

Inflammation-type dysbiosis of the oral microbiome associates with the duration of COVID-19 symptoms and long-COVID

John P. Haran, ... , Beth A. McCormick, Vanni Bucci

JCI Insight. 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1172/jci.insight.152346>.

Research In-Press Preview COVID-19 Inflammation

The severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) caused the pandemic Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) and now many face the burden of prolonged symptoms—long-lasting COVID-19 symptoms or “long-COVID”. Long-COVID is thought to be linked to immune dysregulation due to harmful inflammation, with the exact causes being unknown. Given the role of the microbiome in mediating inflammation, we aimed to examine the relationship between the oral microbiome and the duration of long-COVID symptoms. Tongue swabs were collected from patients presenting with symptoms concerning for COVID-19. Confirmed infections were followed until resolution of all symptoms. Bacterial composition was determined by metagenomic sequencing. We used random forest modeling to identify microbiota and clinical covariates that associated with long-COVID symptoms. Of the patients followed, 63% (17/27) developed ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 and 37% (10/27) went on to long-COVID. Patients with prolonged symptoms had significantly higher abundances of microbiota that induce inflammation, such as members of the genera *Prevotella* and *Veillonella*. Of note are species that produce lipopolysaccharides and the similarity of long-COVID patients’ oral microbiome to those of patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. All together, we our findings suggest an association with the oral microbiome and long-COVID revealing the possibility that dysfunction of the oral microbiome may contribute to this draining disease.

Find the latest version:

<https://jci.me/152346/pdf>



Inflammation-Type Dysbiosis of the Oral Microbiome Associates with the Duration of COVID-19 symptoms and Long-COVID

Authors:

John P. Haran, MD, PhD^{1,2,3*§}, Evan Bradley MD, PhD^{1,3*}, Abigail L. Zeamer BS^{2,3}, Lindsey Cincotta BS¹, Marie-Claire Salive BA¹, Protiva Dutta BS¹, Shafik Mutaawe BS¹, Otuwe Anya BS¹, Mario Meza-Segura PhD², Ann Moormann PhD, MPH⁴, Doyle V. Ward PhD^{2,3}, Beth A. McCormick PhD^{2,3} and Vanni Bucci PhD^{2,3§}

Affiliations:

¹Department of Emergency Medicine, University of Massachusetts Medical School, 55 Lake Avenue North, Worcester, MA 01655

²Department of Microbiology and Physiological Systems, University of Massachusetts Medical School, 55 Lake Avenue North, Worcester, MA 01655

³Program in Microbiome Dynamics, University of Massachusetts Medical School, 55 Lake Avenue North, Worcester, MA 01655

⁴Department of Medicine, University of Massachusetts Medical School, 55 Lake Avenue North, Worcester, MA 01655

* These authors contributed equally to the manuscript and are joint first authors.

§ Joint senior authors.

Corresponding Author: John P. Haran, MD, Ph.D., 55 Lake Avenue North, Worcester, MA 01655;

Phone: 508-450-8688; email: john.haran@umassmed.edu; fax: 508-421-1490

Conflict of Interest Statement: The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

ABSTRACT

The severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) caused the pandemic Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) and now many face the burden of prolonged symptoms—long-lasting COVID-19 symptoms or “long-COVID”. Long-COVID is thought to be linked to immune dysregulation due to harmful inflammation, with the exact causes being unknown. Given the role of the microbiome in mediating inflammation, we aimed to examine the relationship between the oral microbiome and the duration of long-COVID symptoms. Tongue swabs were collected from patients presenting with symptoms concerning for COVID-19. Confirmed infections were followed until resolution of all symptoms. Bacterial composition was determined by metagenomic sequencing. We used random forest modeling to identify microbiota and clinical covariates that associated with long-COVID symptoms. Of the patients followed, 63% (17/27) developed ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 and 37% (10/27) went on to long-COVID. Patients with prolonged symptoms had significantly higher abundances of microbiota that induce inflammation, such as members of the genera *Prevotella* and *Veillonella*. Of note are species that produce lipopolysaccharides and the similarity of long-COVID patients’ oral microbiome to those of patients with chronic fatigue syndrome. All together, we our findings suggest an association with the oral microbiome and long-COVID revealing the possibility that dysfunction of the oral microbiome may contribute to this draining disease.

Key Words: Oral Microbiome, COVID-19, SARS-CoV-2, symptom duration.

24 INTRODUCTION

25 The oral cavity holds the second largest microbial community in the human body, after the gut, with over
26 1,000 species of commensal bacteria residing in the oral cavity (1). Dysbiosis or disrupted homeostasis
27 caused by an imbalance in the microflora in the oral cavity has been linked to many other systemic
28 inflammatory or infectious diseases (2). There is mounting evidence that links oral bacterial species to
29 systemic diseases including pneumonia (1, 3, 4). Bacteria in the oral cavity may promote respiratory
30 infections either directly via aspiration or indirectly by enzyme production that may hinder pathogen
31 clearance, promote lung colonization or alter respiratory epithelial immune responses (5).

32

33 The severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is responsible for the current
34 coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic. This pandemic began in early 2020 and has seen over
35 half a million deaths in the US alone (6). Building upon the body of evidence that the microbiome plays
36 a role in the regulation of innate and adaptive immunity to viral infections (7, 8) studies done early in the
37 pandemic have demonstrated a connection with an altered gut microbiome and the severity of COVID-19
38 disease (9, 10). Additionally, among COVID-19 patients there has been a large number of coinfection
39 cases with organisms that originate from the oral cavity (11). Recently, decreased oral microbiome
40 diversity and increased dysbiotic species abundances have been identified as predictive of COVID-19
41 disease (12). This has raised the possibility of using the oral microbiome to diagnose SARS-CoV-2
42 infection, however studies linking the observed dysbiotic oral microbiota to disease outcomes have been
43 lacking. Also lacking is evidence that this COVID-related microbiome, which occurs early in the disease
44 process, is predictive of key outcomes such as symptom duration.

45

46 Most hospitalized patients have persistent long-lasting symptoms that can take weeks to resolve (13) and
47 negatively impact health-related quality of life (14). Symptoms persisting greater than 4 weeks after an
48 acute infection are called ongoing symptomatic COVID-19, as characterized by The British National
49 Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) (15). Symptoms lasting even longer, 8-12 weeks or

greater (16) and characterized by symptoms of fatigue, headache, dyspnea, and anosmia (17, 18), are termed long-lasting COVID-19 symptoms (long-COVID). Long-COVID does not currently have a strict definition (19). At the 10-week mark after SARS-CoV-2 infection, more than 50% of long COVID patients suffer profound fatigue (20). Increasing age, body mass index, and female gender are known to associate with long-COVID (16). It is currently unknown why most people recover fully within two to three weeks and others experience symptoms for weeks or months longer (21). There is evidence, however, of persistently perturbed inflammatory pathways long after the acute SARS-CoV-2 infection has subsided (22).

Given the emerging associations between the human microbiome and SARS-CoV-2 infection and the unknown driver for COVID-19 patients suffering from long lasting symptoms, we sought to explore if oral microbiome dysbiosis associates with ongoing symptoms among post-hospitalized COVID-19 patients. Accordingly, we enrolled a cohort of SARS-CoV-2 PCR positive COVID-19 patients from one US Emergency Department, collecting oral swabs early in the disease course, and followed them for 4- and 10-week symptom resolution outcomes. We analyzed oral microbiome composition by shotgun metagenomic sequencing. Our findings uniquely describe how dysbiosis of the oral microbiome may play a pivotal role in lengthening symptom duration leading to the long-COVID syndrome.

RESULTS

Patient Population

From a prospective sampling of 164 patients presenting with COVID symptoms over a 9-month period, 84 (51.2%) tested positive by PCR for SARS-CoV-2. Of these patients 27 were successfully contacted for follow-up at both 4 and 10 weeks (**Figure 1**). Average age was 62.6 (sd 12.5) with 70.4% men, 66.7% white, 7.4% African American and 25.9% Hispanic. Among the cohort for high-risk medical comorbidities 16 (59.3%) had hypertension, 8 (29.6%) diabetes, and 5 (18.5%) chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Neither of these medical comorbidities nor the patients' Charlson Comorbidity Index

76 (CCI) scores differed by symptom duration outcome (**Table 1**). None of these patients lived in the same
77 household. All these patients were admitted to the hospital with 4 (14.8%) admitted to the ICU. The
78 average hospital length of stay was 8.3 (sd 7.7) days with 85.2% requiring oxygen and 25.9% getting
79 advanced oxygen delivery by high flow or positive airway pressure. Two patients were intubated with an
80 endotracheal tube.

81

82 **Symptom Duration**

83 The average length of symptom duration was 45.8 days (sd 30.4) with 14 patients (51.9%) experiencing
84 continuation of symptoms after 4 weeks from disease onset, and 10 patients (37.0%) experiencing
85 symptoms longer than 10 weeks. The symptoms that lasted the longest were respiratory in nature (81.5%
86 cough or short of breath) followed by fatigue (55.6%), gastrointestinal symptoms (14.8%), confusion or
87 “brain fog” (22.2%) and ageusia or anosmia (14.8%). Brain fog is a symptom more recently linked to
88 long-COVID characterized by lack of clear memory or ability to focus (23, 24). There were no significant
89 differences in demographics, medical history, or hospital treatments among the 2 outcomes categories
90 (**Table 1**). However, among patients with symptoms lasting longer than 10 weeks, fatigue and brain fog
91 were the most prominent symptoms that lasted the longest duration.

92

93 **Oral Microbiome Composition Predicts Ongoing Symptomatic COVID-19**

94 We set out to explore the associations of oral microbiome composition with the symptoms of ongoing
95 symptomatic COVID-19 disease. To do this we profiled the oral microbiome of subjects with acute
96 COVID-19 infection using shotgun metagenomic sequencing (See Methods). Microbial species
97 abundances were determined by running Metaphlan3 (25). We estimated microbiome alpha diversity by
98 calculating Shannon diversity index (26). We started by applying unsupervised learning methods, such as
99 Principle Coordinate analysis (PCoA) and t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE) and, as
100 expected, found that interindividual variability overwhelmingly accounted for the majority of the
101 information in the data (Figure S1). PERMANOVA analysis on samples classified according to COVID-

102 19 symptoms duration was not statistically significant (p-value <0.05). We then applied random-forest
103 classification (RFC) (27, 28) to identify microbiome and clinical features associated with ongoing disease.
104 Feature selection was performed using the Boruta algorithm on five-fold cross-validated data and then
105 running RFC using the union of the Boruta selected features on the same five-fold cross-validated data to
106 estimate model performance (29). We compared classification accuracy for different models that were
107 trained (i) only on demographics + clinical data, (ii) only on microbiome species abundances, (iii) only
108 on Shannon Diversity, (iv) on demographics + clinical data + Shannon Diversity, (v) on demographics +
109 clinical data + microbiome species + Shannon Diversity and, (vi) on clinical data + microbiome species +
110 Shannon Diversity (Figure 2A). Each model was run starting from 10 different random seeds to calculate
111 appropriate performance statistics. The mean F1 score, the harmonic mean of precision and recall, was
112 used to select the top performing model for a given outcome. The best model—clinical data + microbiome
113 species + Shannon Diversity—performed with a mean F1 score of 0.751 (**Figure 2A**).

114

115 Specific microbial members had the greatest contribution to correctly classifying samples. We detected
116 both bacterial and eukaryotic organisms in the oral microbiome analysis with only bacteria demonstrating
117 associations with the outcomes. We examined the 19 bacterial species whose abundances were associated
118 with ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 disease and two clinical covariates based on their median RFC-
119 estimated permutated importance score over the 10 RFC pipeline iterations (**Figure 2B, C**). The model
120 finds both viral load and Shannon Diversity to be of moderate importance, while specific microbiome
121 members contributed most to correct sample prediction. In particular, two of the three top predictors
122 (*Veillonella dispar* and *Veillonella infantium*) as well as 2 other species associated with ongoing
123 symptomatic COVID-19 disease belong the genus *Veillonella*. Members of this genus are gram-negative
124 anaerobic coccus that can cause infection in humans(30). Specifically, *V. infantium* has been found in the
125 bronchoalveolar lavage fluid of the COVID-19 patients suggesting it is a significant co-infectious agent
126 (31). Other pathobionts (organisms that can co-exist or cause disease under certain circumstances) such
127 as *Solobacterium moorei* (32, 33), *Streptococcus infantis*(34), and *Rothia dentocariosa* (35) were in higher

128 abundances in ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 disease patients. Interestingly, *S. infantis* has been found
129 to be enriched in fecal samples from COVID-19 patients(9) and *R. dentocariosa* was predictive of SARS-
130 CoV-2 presence in hospital rooms (36).

131

132 In addition to being implicated in co-infection, the *Veillonella* species are also known to produce a large
133 amount of lipopolysaccharides (LPS) (37). Another pattern from this data that emerges is the higher
134 abundances of other LPS-producing species are predictive of ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 disease.
135 Five members of the *Prevotella* genus are positively associated with ongoing symptomatic disease in our
136 analysis. *Prevotella* exhibits increased inflammatory properties (38) and has been thought to be a clinically
137 important pathobiont involved in promoting chronic inflammation (39, 40). Other pro-inflammatory
138 species such as *Leptotrichia wadei* (12) also are in higher abundances in patients with a longer symptom
139 duration.

140

141 **Dysbiotic Inflammatory Type Oral Microbiome Associates with the Development of Long-COVID-** 142 **19 Syndrome**

143 We repeated our machine learning-based analysis described above to predict long-COVID outcome from
144 microbial abundance and clinical covariates. RFC was not able to capture any signal in the data for models
145 that lacked microbiome information (i.e. i, iii, and iv in **Figure 2A**). The top performing RFC for long-
146 COVID was the one trained on data on clinical data + microbiome species, resulting in an F1 score on
147 0.615 (**Figure 3A**). From the modeling we identified 29 different bacterial species whose abundances
148 were associated with long-COVID (**Figure 3B**). Similar to ongoing symptomatic COVID, multiple
149 *Veillonella* species were associated with long-COVID. Several of the top predicting species (4 out of 29)
150 belong to the genus *Actinomyces*. *Actinomyces* cause actinomycosis, a rare infectious disease in which
151 bacteria can spread to the respiratory tract causing inflammation (41). As with ongoing symptomatic
152 COVID-19, multiple *Prevotella* species (38) are associated with long-COVID. *Prevotella* species are
153 overrepresented in COVID-19 patients and are thought to produce proteins that can promote SARS-CoV-

2 infection and increase clinical severity of COVID-19 disease (42). Additional species known to cause infections such as *Streptococcus anginosus* group bacteria that have been reported to be particularly important in the pathogenesis of respiratory infections (43) and *Gemella sanguinis*, which has been shown to cause bloodstream infections in COVID-19 patients (44) were also found to be associated with long-COVID.

159

160 **Inflammatory Metabolic Pathways Associate with Ongoing Symptomatic and Long-COVID Disease** 161 **States**

162 Building upon the taxonomy analysis, we explored the metabolic pathways and their association with
163 ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID disease states using HUMAnN3(45). For each outcome we again
164 performed RFC analysis and compared classification accuracy for different trained models: (i)
165 demographics + clinical data + relative pathway abundances and (ii) only relative pathway abundances.
166 For both ongoing symptomatic COVID and long-COVID, the top performing model was (ii), producing
167 an F1 score of 0.814 and 0.689, respectively (**Figure 4A, 5A**). We identified >40 metabolic gene pathways
168 whose abundances were associated with both ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID-19 disease (**Figure**
169 **4B, 5B**). The top 15 predictors indicate a striking pro-inflammatory pattern.

170

171 For ongoing symptomatic COVID, there are 5 pathways involved in the biosynthesis of branched amino
172 acids that are reduced in patients with longer symptoms (**Figure 4B, C**). These include the superpathway
173 of L-isoleucine I (MetaCyc PWY-3001), L-isoleucine biosynthesis III (PWY-5103), superpathway of
174 branched amino acids (BRANCHED-CHAIN-AA-SYN-PWY), L-valine (VALSYN-PWY), and L-
175 isoleucine (ILEUSYN-PWY) biosynthesis pathways(46) (**Figure 4C**). Branched amino acid have been
176 shown to act as anti-inflammatory agents (47, 48) with orally administered L-isoleucine and L-leucine
177 exhibiting anti-inflammatory activities (49). Four out of 15 of the top pathways involve synthesis of
178 molecules with anti-inflammatory effects and are lower in ongoing symptomatic COVID patients. These
179 include the top predictor, Polyisoprenoid(50), whose biosynthesis has also been identified as significantly

180 decreased in inflammatory conditions such as Crohn's disease (51). Tetrapyrrole (52) and, farnesol (53)
181 also have anti-inflammatory effects. Conversely, three pathways for biosynthesis of pro-inflammatory
182 molecules are increased in ongoing symptomatic COVID patients: dTDP-L-rhamnose
183 (DTDPRHAMSYN-PWY)(54), pyrimidine (PWY-6545) (55) and purine (P164 PWY) (56)
184 deoxyribonucleotides. Finally, O-antigen building block biosynthesis (OANTIGEN-PWY), an important
185 step in the lipopolysaccharide (LPS) biosynthetic pathway (57), and the superpathway of phospholipid
186 biosynthesis (PHOSLIPSYN-PWY), important in LPS production (58, 59), are both higher among patients
187 with ongoing symptomatic COVID.

188

189 Similar patterns emerge with the long-COVID analysis with 6 predictors shared with those for ongoing
190 symptomatic COVID analysis. Pro-inflammatory molecule synthesis is higher among long-COVID
191 patients relative to those without as well as reduced branch-chain amino acid and anti-inflammatory
192 molecule biosynthesis (**Figure 5C**). Additional pro-inflammatory molecule biosynthesis are noted with
193 chorismite (PWY-6163) (60), colanic acid (COLANSYN-PWY) (61), and NAD biosynthesis (PWY-241)
194 (62) all being higher among the long-COVID patients.

195

196 **DISCUSSION**

197 Many patients recovering from SARS-CoV-2 infection have symptoms that last long after the acute
198 infection has run its course and our study highlights this same phenomenon. Over 1/3 of our cohort had
199 symptoms lasting longer than 10 weeks and thus enter the long-COVID disease stage. Fatigue and "brain
200 fog" were the longer lasting, most prominent symptoms among these patients. In an attempt to better
201 understand both ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID patients, we investigated potential clinical and
202 microbiome associations with these disorders. Our modeling identified: 1) microbial associations that are
203 known to promote inflammation via LPS production or other mechanisms, 2) reduction of anti-
204 inflammatory metabolic pathways, 3) pathobionts known to cause pulmonary infections, and 4)
205 microbiota previously shown to have associations with COVID-19. Thus, our work begins to shed light

206 on the hypothesis that the oral microbiome composition may influence the duration of COVID-19 disease
207 symptoms.

208

209 **Patients with longer COVID-19 symptoms have dysbiotic, inflammatory-type oral microbiome**

210 The oral microbiome has been shown to closely associate with SARS-CoV-2 co-infections in the lungs
211 (11) and the oral-lung aspiration axis is a key factor leading to many respiratory infectious processes (63).

212 We hypothesized that the oral microbiome might associate with the duration of post-acute infection
213 symptoms presented in ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID disease states (64). Our findings extend

214 previous work demonstrating how specific member of the genera *Prevotella* and *Veillonella*, were
215 distinctive in the oral microbiota of COVID-19 patients (65). *Prevotella* species have been
216 overrepresented in COVID-19 patient populations (42) while both members of the *Prevotella* and
217 *Veillonella* genera have been found in the bronchoalveolar lavage fluid of the COVID-19 patients (31).

218 Members of the *Prevotella* genus are thought to produce proteins that can promote SARS-CoV2 infection
219 and increase clinical severity of COVID-19 (42) and have previously been tied to systemic diseases,
220 including low-grade systemic inflammation (38). The increased abundances of these two genera on the
221 tongue have also been associated with an increased risk of death due to pneumonia in older, frail patients
222 (66, 67). Finally, both genera induce inflammatory responses. *Veillonella* species have shown a strong
223 capacity to induce IL-6 (68) while *Prevotella* strains primarily activate toll-like receptor 2 and enhance
224 the expression of inflammatory cytokines, including IL-23 and IL-1 (69, 70). Other pro-inflammatory
225 microbiota were identified in our analysis that also associated with longer disease symptoms such as *L.*
226 *wadei* (12), *S. moorei* (71), and multiple *Actinomyces* species (41).

227

228 Metabolic pathways associated with the production of pro-inflammatory molecules were increased in
229 abundance while pathways associated with production of anti-inflammatory molecules were decreased in
230 patients presenting ongoing and long-COVID symptoms. One of the top predictors and thus demonstrating
231 the strongest association in our data with both ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID disease was

polyisoprenoid biosynthesis. Polyisoprenoid expresses anti-inflammatory activity (50) and is significantly decreased in inflammatory conditions such as Crohn's disease (51). Among the top predictors in our analysis was reduced abundance of genes involved in the production of branched amino acids. Branched amino acids have long been shown to act as anti-inflammatory agents (47, 48). Evidence is accumulating to support the hypothesis that systemic chronic inflammation contributes to the symptomatic progression to long-COVID (22, 72). Given that changes in the microbiome composition can result in chronic inflammation and metabolic dysfunction (73), it is possible that the pro-inflammatory, microbiome profiles we observe here could play a pivotal role in this disease process.

240

Lipopolysaccharide-producing bacteria may promote inflammation and drive COVID-19 symptom duration

Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) is an outer-membrane component of gram-negative bacteria and can also be released in vesicles (74). Vesicle-associated LPS can have proinflammatory effects on host immune systems (75). Microbiome-derived LPS causes systemic inflammation (76, 77) and can even induce cognitive impairment and neuroinflammation (78, 79). Increases in lipopolysaccharide-producing bacteria, such as *Leptotrichia*, have been demonstrated in the oral cavity of COVID-19 patients and are thought to be involved in the inflammatory response (12). Our analysis reveals higher abundances of many LPS-producing bacteria in patients with longer lasting symptoms. For example, *Veillonella* species, known to produce large amounts of LPS (37), are present in increased abundances in our COVID-19 patients with longer lasting symptoms. Increases in species such as *V. dispar*, *V. infantium*, and *V. atypica* are top predictors of ongoing symptomatic COVID while *V. infantium* is found in higher abundances among long-COVID patients. Other LPS producing species such as *L. wadei* (12) and *M. micronuciformis* (80) are also found to be in increased abundances. Additionally, our metabolic pathway analysis revealed an association with important steps in LPS biosynthesis and ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID disease states. It is possible that LPS production may be a marker of other risk factors rather than a direct

257 causal contributor. This would be critical to investigate in future work, however this evidence points
258 towards the important association of inflammation and long symptom disease states.

259

260 **Myalgic encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome linking to long-term COVID-19 symptoms**
261 **through oral microbiome dysbiosis**

262 There has been a growing concern that COVID-19 patients with long-term sequelae resembling patients
263 with myalgic encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome (ME/CFS) (81). These two conditions share
264 some of the same symptoms, especially fatigue and cognitive impairment (17, 82). ME/CFS is a condition
265 characterized by chronic fatigue, lasting at least 6 months, that impairs one's ability to perform daily
266 activities and typically has additional impairments in memory and concentration (83). This syndrome is
267 also linked closely to chronic inflammation as the driver of these patients symptoms (84). The link to
268 long-term symptoms is not unique to COVID-19 disease as patients with both SARS-CoV1 and Middle
269 East respiratory syndrome have also suffered from long-term sequelae in the previous epidemics (85).

270

271 ME/CFS has been hypothesized to be linked to infectious agents and microbiome dysbiosis has
272 specifically been described in this syndrome either through the presence of pathobionts or microbial
273 species that promote chronic inflammation (86). The gut microbiome has been shown to have reduced
274 diversity and altered composition in ME/CFS patients (87) and viral-induced microbiome changes are also
275 thought to play a pivotal role (88). Clinical trials targeting the gut microbiome have shown promise in
276 treating ME/CFS (89). Interestingly, ME/CFS patients have been shown to have altered dysbiotic oral
277 microbiomes characterized by increased abundances in the genera *Leptotrichia*, *Prevotella*, and
278 *Fusobacterium* (90). Using whole genome sequencing, we have shown many species belonging to these
279 genera are increased abundance in both ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID patients. Specifically, top
280 predicting species *L. wadei*, *P. sp F0091*, *P. denticola*, *P. nigrescens*, *P. histicola*, and *P. oulorum* in the
281 ongoing symptomatic COVID group and *P. denticola*, *P. melaninogenica*, *P. jejuni*, *P. nigrescens* and *F.*
282 *nucleatum* in the long-COVID group were all present in higher abundances in patients suffering from

283 longer lasting symptoms. These finding add intriguing evidence of a possible link between ME/CFS and
284 COVID-19 patients suffering from longer lasting symptoms related to inflammation in the oral
285 microbiome.

286

287 **Strengths and Limitations**

288 This study has several notable strengths and limitations. This study is limited in the number of patients
289 enrolled and followed for symptom duration outcomes. A more robust cohort would allow deeper
290 investigation of preexisting medical conditions and medications which might shape the oral microbiome
291 composition. Larger cohorts would also include a more diverse patient set involving those treated as
292 outpatients and more intensive care unit admissions. Generalization of our findings would need to be
293 performed in a more diverse patient population. This limitation is balanced by our application of whole
294 genome sequencing, which provide greater resolution than 16S rRNA gene sequencing used in many of
295 the previous microbiome investigations (91). We also applied random forest classification which enable
296 us to include both clinical and microbiome data in our modeling (27, 28). This modeling approach has
297 significant advantages compared to traditional classification techniques, as it is agnostic to model structure
298 (e.g. non-parametric regression), it does not need to meet common assumptions underlying classical
299 regression techniques, and is able to intrinsically perform permuted ranked feature selection (29). We
300 also have the advantage of collecting samples at the time of diagnosis before medical treatments that may
301 alter the microbiome composition.

302

303 **Conclusions**

304 In conclusion, the oral microbiome of patients with prolonged symptoms falling under the ongoing
305 symptomatic or long-COVID disease states demonstrates a dysbiotic pattern with increased pathobionts,
306 increases in inflammation-inducing and LPS-producing microbiota, and reduction of metabolic pathways
307 known to have anti-inflammatory properties. This work needs further validation however it supports the
308 tenet that the microbiome may play a role in prolonging symptom duration among COVID-19 through

309 promotion of inflammation. The microbiome may therefore hold the key to better understanding the post
310 infection prolonged syndromes now facing patients after they recover from acute infection and provide a
311 way to predict and subsequently act upon and prevent the development of long-COVID.

312

313 **MATERIALS and METHODS**

314 **Study Setting and Population**

315 This prospective cohort consists of patients presenting to one Emergency Department located in central
316 Massachusetts from April 2020 through February 2021. We enrolled patients who presented with
317 symptoms consistent with a COVID-19 infection but analyzed only those with a positive SARS-CoV-2
318 PCR whom we could contact for follow-up. We defined symptoms of COVID-19 based off of the Centers
319 for Disease Control and Prevention guidelines (92).

320

321 **Data Collection**

322 We collected baseline factors that included demographics, medical history, and presenting disease
323 duration and symptomatology. Comorbidity was assessed at baseline using the Charlson Comorbidity
324 Index (CCI), a widely used instrument designed to measure the burden of medical diseases and predict
325 mortality (93). Patients were then followed through their hospital course for treatment types and length of
326 stay. After discharge from the hospital subsequent healthcare visits were recorded through the medical
327 record. Patients were contacted by phone after 4 weeks of total symptoms after discharge and then again,
328 a second time, if they were experiencing ongoing symptoms, after 10 weeks. Patients were categorized as
329 symptoms >4 weeks and symptoms >10 weeks for analysis. Patients were also queried as to the type of
330 symptoms that lasted the longest. Patients were excluded from follow-up if they died, were unable to
331 communicate in English, had severe dementia, were in hospice or withdrew themselves from the study.

332

333 **Sample Collection and Processing**

Oropharyngeal samples were collected using OMNIgene•ORAL collection kits (OMR-120, DNAGENOTek). Briefly, the posterior oropharynx was swabbed for 30 seconds and then the swab was inserted into a tube with a DNA/RNA stabilization buffer. Samples were heated to 65-70 °C for one hour to inactivate SARS-CoV-2 virus (94) and stored frozen. Nucleic acids were extracted by first thawing samples and then treating with 5ul Proteinase K (P8107S, New England Biolabs) for 2 hours at 50C. DNA and RNA was then extracted using ZymoBIOMICS DNA/RNA Miniprep Kits (R2002, Zymo Research) as per manufacture protocol.

341

342 **Sequence Processing and Analysis**

Metagenomic DNA sequencing libraries were constructed using the Nextera XT DNA Library Prep Kit (FC-131-1096, Illumina) and sequenced on a NextSeq500 Sequencing System as 2 x 150 nucleotide paired-end reads. Shotgun metagenomic reads were first trimmed and quality filtered to remove sequencing adapters and host contamination using Trimmomatic (95) and Bowtie2 (96), respectively, as part of the KneadData pipeline (<https://bitbucket.org/biobakery/kneaddata>). As in our previous work (28, 97), metagenomic data was profiled for microbial taxonomic abundances and microbial metabolic pathways using Metaphlan3 (98) and HUMAnN3 (45), respectively. The total number of microbial and contaminant reads recovered as presented in Supplemental Table 1.

351

352 **SARS-CoV-2 viral load quantification**

PCR was performed using the ViiA 7 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) and the GoTaq® Probe 1-Step RT-qPCR System (Promega, A6120). The primer-probe set N1 (2019-nCoV_N1-F: 5'-GAC CCC AAA ATC AGC GAA AT-3'; 2019-nCoV_N1-R: 5'-TCT GGT TAC TGC CAG TTG AAT CTG-3'; 2019-nCoV_N1-P: 5'-FAM-ACC CCG CAT TAC GTT TGG ACC-BHQ1-3') designed by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention were obtained from Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT, 10006713) and used at concentrations of 500 nM and 125 nM, respectively (99). 5 µl of eluted RNA were used to prepare 20 µl PCR reactions. Cycling conditions were as indicated by the Centers for Disease Control and

Prevention: 45°C for 15 min, 95°C for 2 min, followed by 45 cycles of 95°C for 3 s and 55°C for 30 s (99). Cycle threshold (Ct) values were converted into viral RNA copies based on a standard curve prepared from 4-fold serial dilutions of known quantities (1.0×10^6 to 2.44×10^2 viral copies) of a SARS-CoV-2_N positive control plasmid (IDT, 10006625). The lower limit threshold for positive detection in our study was 244 viral copies per reaction. Viral load was calculated as number of genome copies per milliliter of transport media to resuspend tongue swabs. The assay was run in triplicate for each sample and three non-template wells were included as negative controls.

Statistical and Computational Analysis

To determine similarity in oral microbiome samples among the COVID-19 patients and to associate microbiome features to duration of symptom outcomes, we started by performing traditional unsupervised correspondence analysis (Principal Coordinate Analysis and t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding). As most of the signal from the unsupervised analysis was accounted by inter-individual variability, we then decided to run supervised machine learning models. We built a random forest classification (RFC) pipeline to predict either ongoing symptomatic COVID or long-COVID from a given data subset. One sample failed the sequencing run and thus 26 samples were included in our modeling. The first step of our pipeline used the feature selection algorithm Boruta on five-fold cross-validated data to estimate model performance (29). The permuted variable importance from each RFC was also calculated. Each model was run starting from ten different random seeds to calculate performance metrics. F1 score, the harmonic mean of precision and accuracy, was used to select the top performing model for each outcome.

Study Approval

This prospective cohort study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Massachusetts Medical School. Written informed consent was received from all study participants prior to inclusion in the study.

386

387 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

388 JPH, BAM, AM, and EB conceived and led the study. JPH, EB, CT supervised the conduct of the study
389 and data collection. LC, MMS, SM, CT, and PD managed the clinical data, including quality control. LC
390 and MMS handled the sample collection and storage. DW managed sample extraction and sequencing and
391 performed metagenomic profiling. AZ and VB provided statistical advice on study design and analyzed
392 the data. JPH and EB wrote the manuscript with input from all authors. JPH composed the first draft of
393 the majority of the manuscript and was responsible for incorporation of all authors edits. Accordingly,
394 JPH was assigned the first author slot.

395

396 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

397 We would like to thank the UMass Memorial Medical Center Emergency Department Staff, especially the
398 nursing and resident physicians for making it possible to collect biological samples from COVID-19
399 patients with acute and sometimes severe symptoms within in the Emergency Department. Thank you to
400 the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board at the University of Massachusetts Medical School and
401 especially A. Blodgett for their guidance in helping to design and implement the human subject protocol
402 early in the pandemic. Thank you to The Society for Academic Emergency Medicine as well as the Dean
403 of University of Massachusetts Medical School and the many donors who through their financial support
404 made this work possible. We would also like to thank the NIH for funding that provided salary support
405 for this work (1RF1AG067483-01).

406

407 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

408 Data relating to the metagenomic sequencing that support the findings of this study have been uploaded
409 to the NCBI BioProject (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/>) and are available for download via the
410 accession number PRJNA735193 under the title Oral Microbiome associated with Coronavirus disease
411 2019 (COVID-19).

412 **BIBLIOGRAPHY**

- 413 1. Dewhirst FE, Chen T, Izard J, Paster BJ, Tanner AC, Yu WH, et al. The human oral microbiome.
414 *J Bacteriol.* 2010;192(19):5002-17.
- 415 2. Willis JR, and Gabaldón T. The Human Oral Microbiome in Health and Disease: From
416 Sequences to Ecosystems. *Microorganisms.* 2020;8(2).
- 417 3. Seymour GJ, Ford PJ, Cullinan MP, Leishman S, and Yamazaki K. Relationship between
418 periodontal infections and systemic disease. *Clin Microbiol Infect.* 2007;13 Suppl 4:3-10.
- 419 4. Awano S, Ansai T, Takata Y, Soh I, Akifusa S, Hamasaki T, et al. Oral health and mortality risk
420 from pneumonia in the elderly. *J Dent Res.* 2008;87(4):334-9.
- 421 5. Scannapieco FA. Role of oral bacteria in respiratory infection. *J Periodontol.* 1999;70(7):793-
422 802.
- 423 6. CDC COVID Data Tracker. <https://covid.cdc.gov/covid-data-tracker/#datatracker-home>.
424 *CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL AND PREVENTION (CDC)*. Accessed 3/24/21.
- 425 7. Trompette A, Gollwitzer ES, Pattaroni C, Lopez-Mejia IC, Riva E, Pernot J, et al. Dietary Fiber
426 Confers Protection against Flu by Shaping Ly6c(-) Patrolling Monocyte Hematopoiesis and
427 CD8(+) T Cell Metabolism. *Immunity.* 2018;48(5):992-1005.e8.
- 428 8. Belkaid Y, and Harrison OJ. Homeostatic Immunity and the Microbiota. *Immunity.*
429 2017;46(4):562-76.
- 430 9. Zuo T, Liu Q, Zhang F, Lui GC, Tso EY, Yeoh YK, et al. Depicting SARS-CoV-2 faecal viral
431 activity in association with gut microbiota composition in patients with COVID-19. *Gut.*
432 2021;70(2):276-84.
- 433 10. Yeoh YK, Zuo T, Lui GC, Zhang F, Liu Q, Li AY, et al. Gut microbiota composition reflects
434 disease severity and dysfunctional immune responses in patients with COVID-19. *Gut.*
435 2021;70(4):698-706.
- 436 11. Bao L, Zhang C, Dong J, Zhao L, Li Y, and Sun J. Oral Microbiome and SARS-CoV-2: Beware
437 of Lung Co-infection. *Frontiers in microbiology.* 2020;11:1840.

- 438 12. Ren Z, Wang H, Cui G, Lu H, Wang L, Luo H, et al. Alterations in the human oral and gut
439 microbiomes and lipidomics in COVID-19. *Gut*. 2021.
- 440 13. Tenforde MW, Kim SS, Lindsell CJ, Billig Rose E, Shapiro NI, Files DC, et al. Symptom
441 Duration and Risk Factors for Delayed Return to Usual Health Among Outpatients with COVID-
442 19 in a Multistate Health Care Systems Network - United States, March-June 2020. *MMWR*
443 *Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2020;69(30):993-8.
- 444 14. Garrigues E, Janvier P, Kherabi Y, Le Bot A, Hamon A, Gouze H, et al. Post-discharge
445 persistent symptoms and health-related quality of life after hospitalization for COVID-19. *J*
446 *Infect*. 2020;81(6):e4-e6.
- 447 15. Context | COVID-19 rapid guideline: managing the long-term effects of COVID-19. *National*
448 *Institute for Health and Care Excellence*. Accessed 4/3/21.
- 449 16. Sudre CH, Murray B, Varsavsky T, Graham MS, Penfold RS, Bowyer RC, et al. Attributes and
450 predictors of long COVID. *Nature medicine*. 2021;27(4):626-31.
- 451 17. Marshall M. The lasting misery of coronavirus long-haulers. *Nature*. 2020;585(7825):339-41.
- 452 18. Baig AM. Chronic COVID syndrome: Need for an appropriate medical terminology for long-
453 COVID and COVID long-haulers. *J Med Virol*. 2021;93(5):2555-6.
- 454 19. Brodin P. Immune determinants of COVID-19 disease presentation and severity. *Nature*
455 *medicine*. 2021;27(1):28-33.
- 456 20. Townsend L, Dyer AH, Jones K, Dunne J, Mooney A, Gaffney F, et al. Persistent fatigue
457 following SARS-CoV-2 infection is common and independent of severity of initial infection.
458 *PloS one*. 2020;15(11):e0240784.
- 459 21. Greenhalgh T, Knight M, A'Court C, Buxton M, and Husain L. Management of post-acute covid-
460 19 in primary care. *Bmj*. 2020;370:m3026.
- 461 22. Doykov I, Hällqvist J, Gilmour KC, Grandjean L, Mills K, and Heywood WE. 'The long tail of
462 Covid-19' - The detection of a prolonged inflammatory response after a SARS-CoV-2 infection
463 in asymptomatic and mildly affected patients. *F1000Res*. 2020;9:1349.

- 464 23. Koralnik IJ, and Tyler KL. COVID-19: A Global Threat to the Nervous System. *Annals of*
465 *neurology*. 2020;88(1):1-11.
- 466 24. Stefano GB. Historical Insight into Infections and Disorders Associated with Neurological and
467 Psychiatric Sequelae Similar to Long COVID. *Med Sci Monit*. 2021;27:e931447.
- 468 25. Beghini F, McIver LJ, Blanco-Míguez A, Dubois L, Asnicar F, Maharjan S, et al. Integrating
469 taxonomic, functional, and strain-level profiling of diverse microbial communities with
470 bioBakery 3. *Elife*. 2021;10.
- 471 26. DeJong TM. A Comparison of Three Diversity Indices Based on Their Components of Richness
472 and Evenness. *Oikos*. 1975;26(2):222-7.
- 473 27. Hajjem A, Bellavance F, and Larocque D. Mixed-effects random forest for clustered data.
474 *Journal of Statistical Computation and Simulation*. 2014;84(6):1313-28.
- 475 28. Haran JP, Bhattarai SK, Foley SE, Dutta P, Ward DV, Bucci V, et al. Alzheimer's Disease
476 Microbiome Is Associated with Dysregulation of the Anti-Inflammatory P-Glycoprotein
477 Pathway. *mBio*. 2019;10(3).
- 478 29. Wipperman MF, Bhattarai SK, Vorkas CK, Maringati VS, Taur Y, Mathurin L, et al.
479 Gastrointestinal microbiota composition predicts peripheral inflammatory state during treatment
480 of human tuberculosis. *Nature communications*. 2021;12(1):1141.
- 481 30. Cobo F, Pérez-Carrasco V, García-Salcedo JA, and Navarro-Marí JM. Bacteremia caused by
482 *Veillonella dispar* in an oncological patient. *Anaerobe*. 2020;66:102285.
- 483 31. Wu F, Zhao S, Yu B, Chen YM, Wang W, Song ZG, et al. A new coronavirus associated with
484 human respiratory disease in China. *Nature*. 2020;579(7798):265-9.
- 485 32. Liu WJ, Xiao M, Yi J, Li Y, Kudinha T, and Xu YC. First case report of bacteremia caused by
486 *Solobacterium moorei* in China, and literature review. *BMC infectious diseases*. 2019;19(1):730.
- 487 33. Pedersen RM, Holt HM, and Justesen US. *Solobacterium moorei* bacteremia: identification,
488 antimicrobial susceptibility, and clinical characteristics. *Journal of clinical microbiology*.
489 2011;49(7):2766-8.

- 490 34. Bek-Thomsen M, Tettelin H, Hance I, Nelson KE, and Kilian M. Population diversity and
491 dynamics of *Streptococcus mitis*, *Streptococcus oralis*, and *Streptococcus infantis* in the upper
492 respiratory tracts of adults, determined by a nonculture strategy. *Infection and immunity*.
493 2008;76(5):1889-96.
- 494 35. Sadhu A, Loewenstein R, and Klotz SA. *Rothia dentocariosa* endocarditis complicated by
495 multiple cerebellar hemorrhages. *Diagn Microbiol Infect Dis*. 2005;53(3):239-40.
- 496 36. Marotz C, Belda-Ferre P, Ali F, Das P, Huang S, Cantrell K, et al. Microbial context predicts
497 SARS-CoV-2 prevalence in patients and the hospital built environment. *medRxiv*.
498 2020:2020.11.19.20234229.
- 499 37. Delwiche EA, Pestka JJ, and Tortorello ML. The veillonellae: gram-negative cocci with a unique
500 physiology. *Annual review of microbiology*. 1985;39:175-93.
- 501 38. Larsen JM. The immune response to *Prevotella* bacteria in chronic inflammatory disease.
502 *Immunology*. 2017;151(4):363-74.
- 503 39. Bellocchi C, and Volkmann ER. Update on the Gastrointestinal Microbiome in Systemic
504 Sclerosis. *Current rheumatology reports*. 2018;20(8):49.
- 505 40. Kim D, and Kim WU. Editorial: Can *Prevotella copri* Be a Causative Pathobiont in Rheumatoid
506 Arthritis? *Arthritis Rheumatol*. 2016;68(11):2565-7.
- 507 41. Valour F, Sénéchal A, Dupieux C, Karsenty J, Lustig S, Breton P, et al. Actinomycosis: etiology,
508 clinical features, diagnosis, treatment, and management. *Infection and drug resistance*.
509 2014;7:183-97.
- 510 42. Khan AA, and Khan Z. COVID-2019-associated overexpressed *Prevotella* proteins mediated
511 host-pathogen interactions and their role in coronavirus outbreak. *Bioinformatics*.
512 2020;36(13):4065-9.
- 513 43. Noguchi S, Yatera K, Kawanami T, Yamasaki K, Naito K, Akata K, et al. The clinical features
514 of respiratory infections caused by the *Streptococcus anginosus* group. *BMC pulmonary*
515 *medicine*. 2015;15:133.

- 516 44. Bonazzetti C, Morena V, Giacomelli A, Oreni L, Casalini G, Galimberti LR, et al. Unexpectedly
517 High Frequency of Enterococcal Bloodstream Infections in Coronavirus Disease 2019 Patients
518 Admitted to an Italian ICU: An Observational Study. *Crit Care Med.* 2021;49(1):e31-e40.
- 519 45. Franzosa EA, McIver LJ, Rahnavard G, Thompson LR, Schirmer M, Weingart G, et al. Species-
520 level functional profiling of metagenomes and metatranscriptomes. *Nature methods.*
521 2018;15(11):962-8.
- 522 46. Caspi R, Billington R, Keseler IM, Kothari A, Krummenacker M, Midford PE, et al. The
523 MetaCyc database of metabolic pathways and enzymes - a 2019 update. *Nucleic acids research.*
524 2020;48(D1):D445-D53.
- 525 47. Lee JH, Park E, Jin HJ, Lee Y, Choi SJ, Lee GW, et al. Anti-inflammatory and anti-genotoxic
526 activity of branched chain amino acids (BCAA) in lipopolysaccharide (LPS) stimulated RAW
527 264.7 macrophages. *Food Sci Biotechnol.* 2017;26(5):1371-7.
- 528 48. Da Silva MS, Bigo C, Barbier O, and Rudkowska I. Whey protein hydrolysate and branched-
529 chain amino acids downregulate inflammation-related genes in vascular endothelial cells. *Nutr*
530 *Res.* 2017;38:43-51.
- 531 49. Saxena RN, Pendse VK, and Khanna NK. Anti-inflammatory and analgesic properties of four
532 amino-acids. *Indian J Physiol Pharmacol.* 1984;28(4):299-305.
- 533 50. Pronin AV, Danilov LL, Narovlyansky AN, and Sanin AV. Plant polyisoprenoids and control of
534 cholesterol level. *Arch Immunol Ther Exp (Warsz).* 2014;62(1):31-9.
- 535 51. Klaassen MAY, Imhann F, Collij V, Fu J, Wijmenga C, Zhernakova A, et al. Anti-inflammatory
536 Gut Microbial Pathways Are Decreased During Crohn's Disease Exacerbations. *J Crohns Colitis.*
537 2019;13(11):1439-49.
- 538 52. Jelić D, Tatić I, Trzun M, Hrvačić B, Brajša K, Verbanac D, et al. Porphyrins as new endogenous
539 anti-inflammatory agents. *Eur J Pharmacol.* 2012;691(1-3):251-60.

- 540 53. Ku CM, and Lin JY. Anti-inflammatory effects of 27 selected terpenoid compounds tested
541 through modulating Th1/Th2 cytokine secretion profiles using murine primary splenocytes. *Food*
542 *Chem.* 2013;141(2):1104-13.
- 543 54. van der Beek SL, Zorzoli A, Çanak E, Chapman RN, Lucas K, Meyer BH, et al. Streptococcal
544 dTDP-L-rhamnose biosynthesis enzymes: functional characterization and lead compound
545 identification. *Mol Microbiol.* 2019;111(4):951-64.
- 546 55. Dimitrova P, Skapenko A, Herrmann ML, Schleyerbach R, Kalden JR, and Schulze-Koops H.
547 Restriction of de novo pyrimidine biosynthesis inhibits Th1 cell activation and promotes Th2 cell
548 differentiation. *Journal of immunology.* 2002;169(6):3392-9.
- 549 56. Barnes VM, Teles R, Trivedi HM, Devizio W, Xu T, Mitchell MW, et al. Acceleration of purine
550 degradation by periodontal diseases. *J Dent Res.* 2009;88(9):851-5.
- 551 57. Han W, Wu B, Li L, Zhao G, Woodward R, Pettit N, et al. Defining function of
552 lipopolysaccharide O-antigen ligase WaaL using chemoenzymatically synthesized substrates.
553 *The Journal of biological chemistry.* 2012;287(8):5357-65.
- 554 58. Rothfield L, and Pearlman M. The role of cell envelope phospholipid in the enzymatic synthesis
555 of bacterial lipopolysaccharide. Structural requirements of the phospholipid molecule. *The*
556 *Journal of biological chemistry.* 1966;241(6):1386-92.
- 557 59. Emiola A, Andrews SS, Heller C, and George J. Crosstalk between the lipopolysaccharide and
558 phospholipid pathways during outer membrane biogenesis in Escherichia coli. *Proceedings of*
559 *the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America.* 2016;113(11):3108-13.
- 560 60. Rodrigues-Vendramini FAV, Marschalk C, Toplak M, Macheroux P, Bonfim-Mendonça PS,
561 Svidzinski TIE, et al. Promising New Antifungal Treatment Targeting Chorismate Synthase from
562 *Paracoccidioides brasiliensis.* *Antimicrobial agents and chemotherapy.* 2019;63(1).
- 563 61. Hanna A, Berg M, Stout V, and Razatos A. Role of capsular colanic acid in adhesion of
564 uropathogenic Escherichia coli. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2003;69(8):4474-81.

- 565 62. Gerner RR, Klepsch V, Macheiner S, Arnhard K, Adolph TE, Grander C, et al. NAD metabolism
566 fuels human and mouse intestinal inflammation. *Gut*. 2018;67(10):1813-23.
- 567 63. Mammen MJ, Scannapieco FA, and Sethi S. Oral-lung microbiome interactions in lung diseases.
568 *Periodontol 2000*. 2020;83(1):234-41.
- 569 64. Dani M, Dirksen A, Taraborrelli P, Torocastro M, Panagopoulos D, Sutton R, et al. Autonomic
570 dysfunction in 'long COVID': rationale, physiology and management strategies. *Clin Med*
571 *(Lond)*. 2021;21(1):e63-e7.
- 572 65. Iebba V, Zanutta N, Campisciano G, Zerbato V, Di Bella S, Cason C, et al. Profiling of oral
573 microbiota and cytokines in COVID-19 patients. *bioRxiv*. 2020:2020.12.13.422589.
- 574 66. Asakawa M, Takeshita T, Furuta M, Kageyama S, Takeuchi K, Hata J, et al. Tongue Microbiota
575 and Oral Health Status in Community-Dwelling Elderly Adults. *mSphere*. 2018;3(4).
- 576 67. Kageyama S, Takeshita T, Furuta M, Tomioka M, Asakawa M, Suma S, et al. Relationships of
577 Variations in the Tongue Microbiota and Pneumonia Mortality in Nursing Home Residents. *J*
578 *Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2018;73(8):1097-102.
- 579 68. van den Bogert B, Meijerink M, Zoetendal EG, Wells JM, and Kleerebezem M.
580 Immunomodulatory properties of Streptococcus and Veillonella isolates from the human small
581 intestine microbiota. *PloS one*. 2014;9(12):e114277.
- 582 69. Segal LN, Clemente JC, Tsay JC, Koralov SB, Keller BC, Wu BG, et al. Enrichment of the lung
583 microbiome with oral taxa is associated with lung inflammation of a Th17 phenotype. *Nat*
584 *Microbiol*. 2016;1:16031.
- 585 70. Segal LN, Alekseyenko AV, Clemente JC, Kulkarni R, Wu B, Gao Z, et al. Enrichment of lung
586 microbiome with supraglottic taxa is associated with increased pulmonary inflammation.
587 *Microbiome*. 2013;1(1):19.
- 588 71. Hiranmayi KV, Sirisha K, Ramoji Rao MV, and Sudhakar P. Novel Pathogens in Periodontal
589 Microbiology. *J Pharm Bioallied Sci*. 2017;9(3):155-63.

590 72. Inciardi RM, Solomon SD, Ridker PM, and Metra M. Coronavirus 2019 Disease (COVID-19),
591 Systemic Inflammation, and Cardiovascular Disease. *J Am Heart Assoc.* 2020;9(16):e017756.

592 73. Sommer F, and Bäckhed F. The gut microbiota--masters of host development and physiology.
593 *Nature reviews Microbiology.* 2013;11(4):227-38.

594 74. Farhana A, and Khan YS. *StatPearls*. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing
595 Copyright © 2021, StatPearls Publishing LLC.; 2021.

596 75. Bonnington KE, and Kuehn MJ. Protein selection and export via outer membrane vesicles.
597 *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 2014;1843(8):1612-9.

598 76. Noailles A, Maneu V, Campello L, Lax P, and Cuenca N. Systemic inflammation induced by
599 lipopolysaccharide aggravates inherited retinal dystrophy. *Cell Death Dis.* 2018;9(3):350.

600 77. Salguero MV, Al-Obaide MAI, Singh R, Siepmann T, and Vasylyeva TL. Dysbiosis of Gram-
601 negative gut microbiota and the associated serum lipopolysaccharide exacerbates inflammation
602 in type 2 diabetic patients with chronic kidney disease. *Exp Ther Med.* 2019;18(5):3461-9.

603 78. Zhao J, Bi W, Xiao S, Lan X, Cheng X, Zhang J, et al. Neuroinflammation induced by
604 lipopolysaccharide causes cognitive impairment in mice. *Scientific reports.* 2019;9(1):5790.

605 79. Lee JW, Lee YK, Yuk DY, Choi DY, Ban SB, Oh KW, et al. Neuro-inflammation induced by
606 lipopolysaccharide causes cognitive impairment through enhancement of beta-amyloid
607 generation. *J Neuroinflammation.* 2008;5:37.

608 80. Shetty SA, Marathe NP, Lanjekar V, Ranade D, and Shouche YS. Comparative genome analysis
609 of *Megasphaera* sp. reveals niche specialization and its potential role in the human gut. *PloS one.*
610 2013;8(11):e79353.

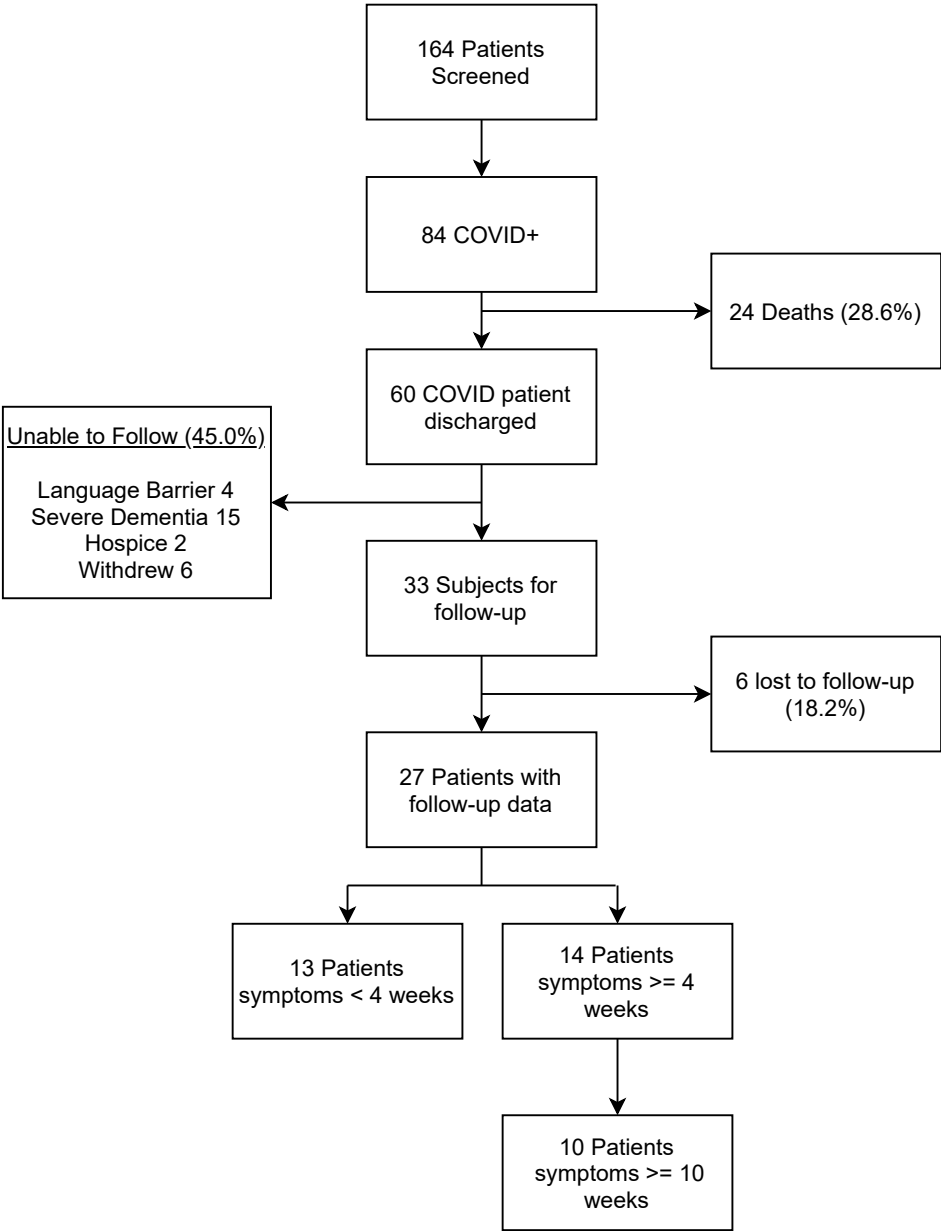
611 81. Wostyn P. COVID-19 and chronic fatigue syndrome: Is the worst yet to come? *Med Hypotheses.*
612 2021;146:110469.

613 82. Long COVID: let patients help define long-lasting COVID symptoms. *Nature.*
614 2020;586(7828):170.

- 615 83. Yancey JR, and Thomas SM. Chronic fatigue syndrome: diagnosis and treatment. *Am Fam*
616 *Physician*. 2012;86(8):741-6.
- 617 84. Komaroff AL. Inflammation correlates with symptoms in chronic fatigue syndrome. *Proceedings*
618 *of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*. 2017;114(34):8914-6.
- 619 85. O'Sullivan O. Long-term sequelae following previous coronavirus epidemics. *Clin Med (Lond)*.
620 2021;21(1):e68-e70.
- 621 86. Proal A, and Marshall T. Myalgic Encephalomyelitis/Chronic Fatigue Syndrome in the Era of
622 the Human Microbiome: Persistent Pathogens Drive Chronic Symptoms by Interfering With
623 Host Metabolism, Gene Expression, and Immunity. *Frontiers in pediatrics*. 2018;6:373.
- 624 87. Giloteaux L, Goodrich JK, Walters WA, Levine SM, Ley RE, and Hanson MR. Reduced
625 diversity and altered composition of the gut microbiome in individuals with myalgic
626 encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome. *Microbiome*. 2016;4(1):30.
- 627 88. Newberry F, Hsieh SY, Wileman T, and Carding SR. Does the microbiome and virome
628 contribute to myalgic encephalomyelitis/chronic fatigue syndrome? *Clin Sci (Lond)*.
629 2018;132(5):523-42.
- 630 89. Rao AV, Bested AC, Beaulne TM, Katzman MA, Iorio C, Berardi JM, et al. A randomized,
631 double-blind, placebo-controlled pilot study of a probiotic in emotional symptoms of chronic
632 fatigue syndrome. *Gut pathogens*. 2009;1(1):6.
- 633 90. Wang T, Yu L, Xu C, Pan K, Mo M, Duan M, et al. Chronic fatigue syndrome patients have
634 alterations in their oral microbiome composition and function. *PloS one*. 2018;13(9):e0203503.
- 635 91. Ranjan R, Rani A, Metwally A, McGee HS, and Perkins DL. Analysis of the microbiome:
636 Advantages of whole genome shotgun versus 16S amplicon sequencing. *Biochemical and*
637 *biophysical research communications*. 2016;469(4):967-77.
- 638 92. <https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/symptoms-testing/symptoms.html>. Symptoms of
639 COVID-19. *CENTERS FOR DISEASE CONTROL AND PREVENTION (CDC)*. Updated
640 2/22/2021.

- 641 93. Austin SR, Wong YN, Uzzo RG, Beck JR, and Eggleston BL. Why Summary Comorbidity
642 Measures Such As the Charlson Comorbidity Index and Elixhauser Score Work. *Med Care*.
643 2015;53(9):e65-72.
- 644 94. Rabenau HF, Cinatl J, Morgenstern B, Bauer G, Preiser W, and Doerr HW. Stability and
645 inactivation of SARS coronavirus. *Med Microbiol Immunol*. 2005;194(1-2):1-6.
- 646 95. Bolger AM, Lohse M, and Usadel B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence
647 data. *Bioinformatics*. 2014;30(15):2114-20.
- 648 96. Langmead B, and Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat Methods*.
649 2012;9(4):1-3.
- 650 97. Haran JP, Bucci V, Dutta P, Ward D, and McCormick B. The nursing home elder microbiome
651 stability and associations with age, frailty, nutrition, and physical location. *Journal of medical*
652 *microbiology*. 2018;67(1):40-51.
- 653 98. Beghini F, McIver LJ, Blanco-Míguez A, Dubois L, Asnicar F, Maharjan S, et al. Integrating
654 taxonomic, functional, and strain-level profiling of diverse microbial communities with
655 bioBakery 3. *bioRxiv*. 2020:2020.11.19.388223.
- 656 99. CDC's Diagnostic Test for COVID-19 Only and Supplies.
657 <https://www.cdc.gov/coronavirus/2019-ncov/lab/virus-requests.html> CENTERS FOR DISEASE
658 CONTROL AND PREVENTION (CDC) Accessed 01/20/21.
- 659
- 660

661 **Figure 1: Study Enrollment Flow Chart**



662
663

Table 1: Demographics, hospital treatments, and symptoms by outcome category				
Patient Characteristic ^a	Early Symptom Resolution (n=13)	Ongoing Symptomatic COVID-19 (n=4)	Long-COVID (n=10)	p-Value
Demographics and Medical				
Age (mean [SD]) (yr)	62.3 (14.3)	63.8 (13.5)	62.5 (10.9)	0.98
Male	11 (84.6)	3 (75.0)	5 (50.0)	0.19
White	9 (69.2)	2 (50.0)	7 (70.0)	0.75
African American	1 (7.7)	1 (25.0)	0 (0.0)	0.27
Hispanic	3 (23.1)	2 (25.0)	3 (30.0)	0.93
Smoker	4 (30.8)	2 (50.0)	3 (30.0)	0.75
CCI (mean [SD])	4.1 (3.1)	1.75 (1.5)	3.2 (2.2)	0.31
Hypertension	9 (69.2)	1 (25.0)	6 (60.0)	0.29
Diabetes	6 (46.2)	0 (0.0)	2 (20.0)	0.15
Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease	1 (7.7)	1 (25.0)	3 (30.0)	0.37
BMI (mean [SD])	30.2 (6.4)	39.3 (5.3)	31.5 (4.8)	0.77
ICU Admission	2 (15.4)	1 (25.0)	1 (10.0)	0.77
Remdesivir	5 (38.5)	4 (100.0)	6 (60.0)	0.09
Clinical Trial	4 (30.8)	1 (25.0)	1 (10.0)	0.49
Longest Lasting Symptoms				
Fatigue	6 (46.2)	1 (25.0)	8 (80.0)	0.11
Respiratory	10 (76.9)	3 (75.0)	9 (90.0)	0.68

GI Symptoms	3 (23.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)	0.45
Fever	2 (15.4)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0.31
Ageusia / Anosmia	3 (23.1)	0 (0.0)	1 (10.0)	0.45
Confusion / “Brain fog”	0 (0.0)	1 (25.0)	5 (50.0)	0.017
Duration of Symptoms Days (mean [SD])	18.8 (11.5)	47.8 (5.4)	80.1 (10.7)	<0.001
<p>^aData are presented as the number (%), unless otherwise specified.</p> <p>CCI, Charlson Comorbidity Index; BMI, body mass index; ICU, intensive care unit; Advanced O2, if patients received oxygen beyond nasal canula (i.e. high flow, continuous positive airway pressure); Clinical Trial, if patient received therapy as part of a clinical trial; GI, gastrointestinal.</p> <p>χ^2 test was used to compare categoric variables and analysis of variance for continuous variables</p>				

665
666
667
668
669
670
671
672
673
674
675
676
677
678
679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687

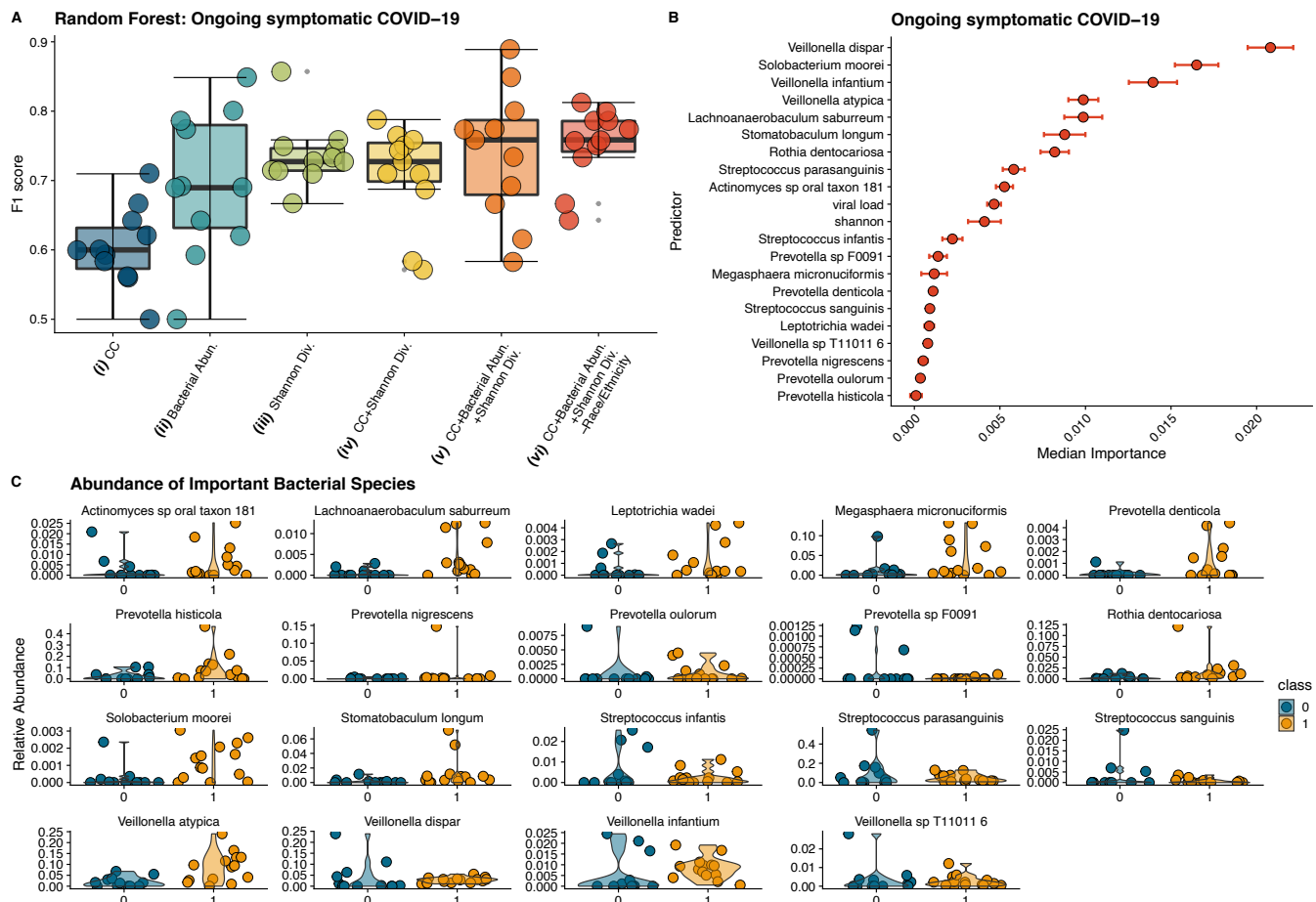


Figure 2: Bacterial abundances predict ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 disease. Random forest classification modeling to identify predictors of ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 disease using six different combinations of data modalities. A) F1-scores for the different RFC models trained on different sets of covariates. Boxplot represents the median and interquartile range. B) Ranking of forest predictors based on median permutated variable importance for the top performing model. C) Relative abundances for each bacteria found to be important in predicting ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 disease from the top performing random forest classification model (vi). Violin plots showing the distribution of relative abundance for microbes in each patient with symptoms <4 weeks and >= 4 weeks. 0 indicates No, 1 indicate Yes ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 disease. CC, clinical covariates; Abn., abundances; Div., diversity.

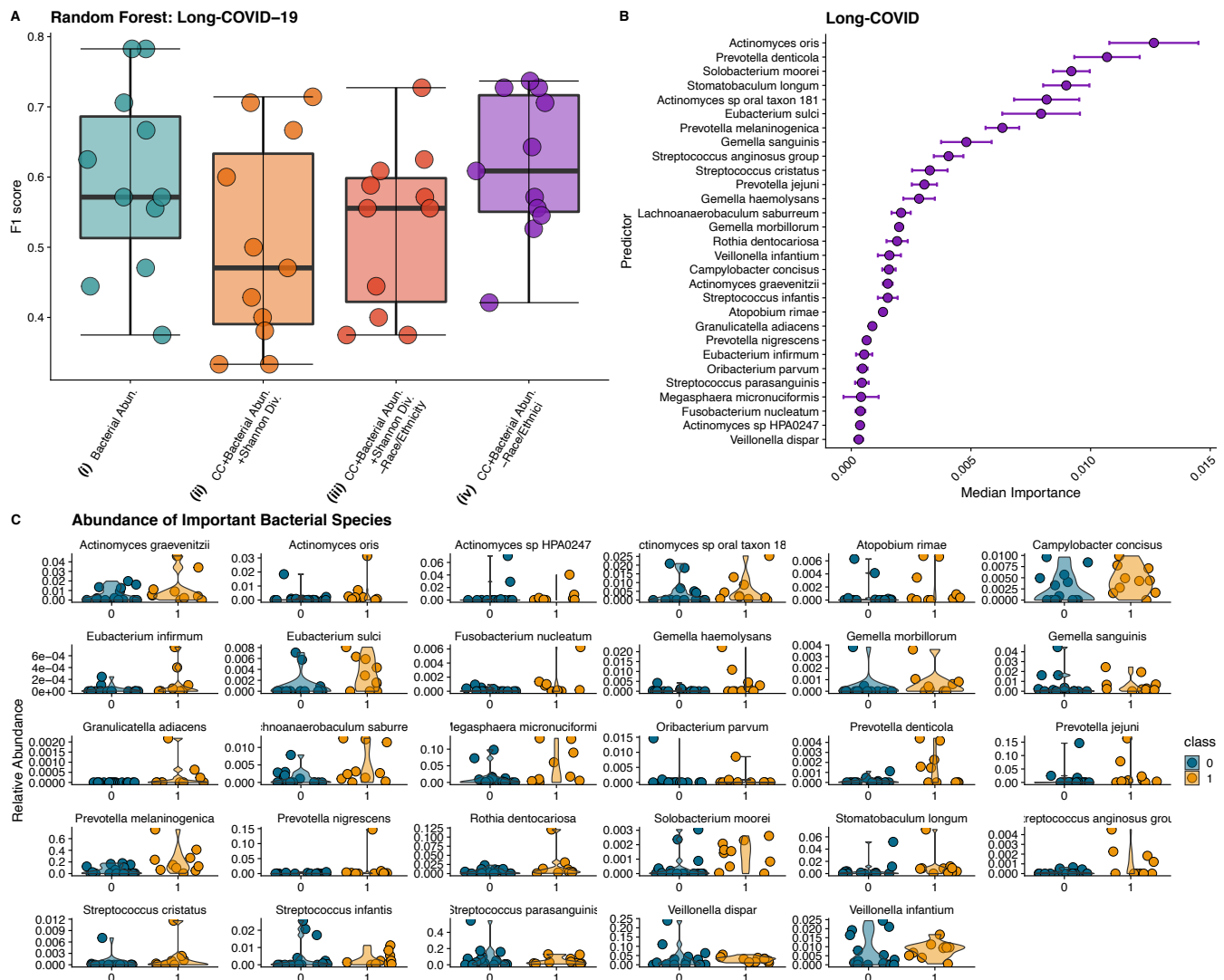


Figure 3: Bacterial abundances can predict long-COVID-19 disease. Random forest classification modeling to predict long-COVID-19 disease. A) F1 scores for all subsets of trainable RFC models. B) Ranking of top 29 predictors associated with long-COVID based on median permuted variable importance from the top performing model (iv). C) Relative abundances for each bacteria identified by model (iv) as important for predicting long-COVID-19 disease are presented as violin plots. Long-COVID (orange plots). CC, clinical covariates; Abn., abundances; Div., diversity.

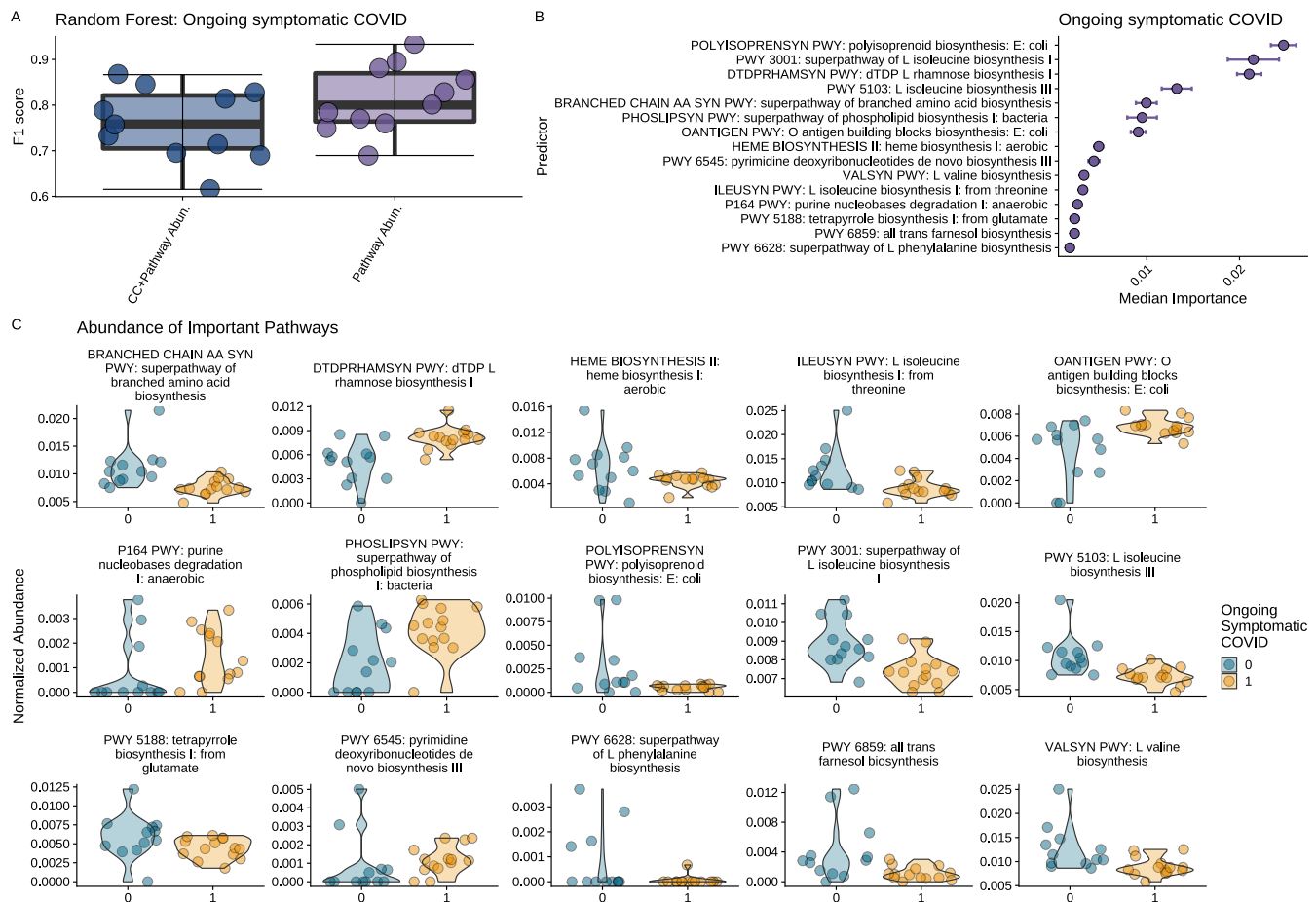


Figure 4: Bacterial metabolic pathways involving inflammation are significantly associated with ongoing symptomatic disease. Results from random forest classification modeling using to predict ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID-19 disease from HUMAnN3 pathway abundances. A) F1 scores for (i) demographics + clinical covariates + pathway abundances and, (ii) only on pathway abundances. B) Ranking of forest predictors based on median permutated variable importance from the top performing model, (ii) pathways only, for each outcome C) Relative pathway abundances for each pathway found to be important in predicting ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID-19 disease, respectively, by random forest classification modeling using (ii) only pathway abundances. We report violin plots showing the distribution of the relative abundance of pathways in patients with symptoms with <4 weeks (blue) and > 4 weeks (yellow) in 4C.

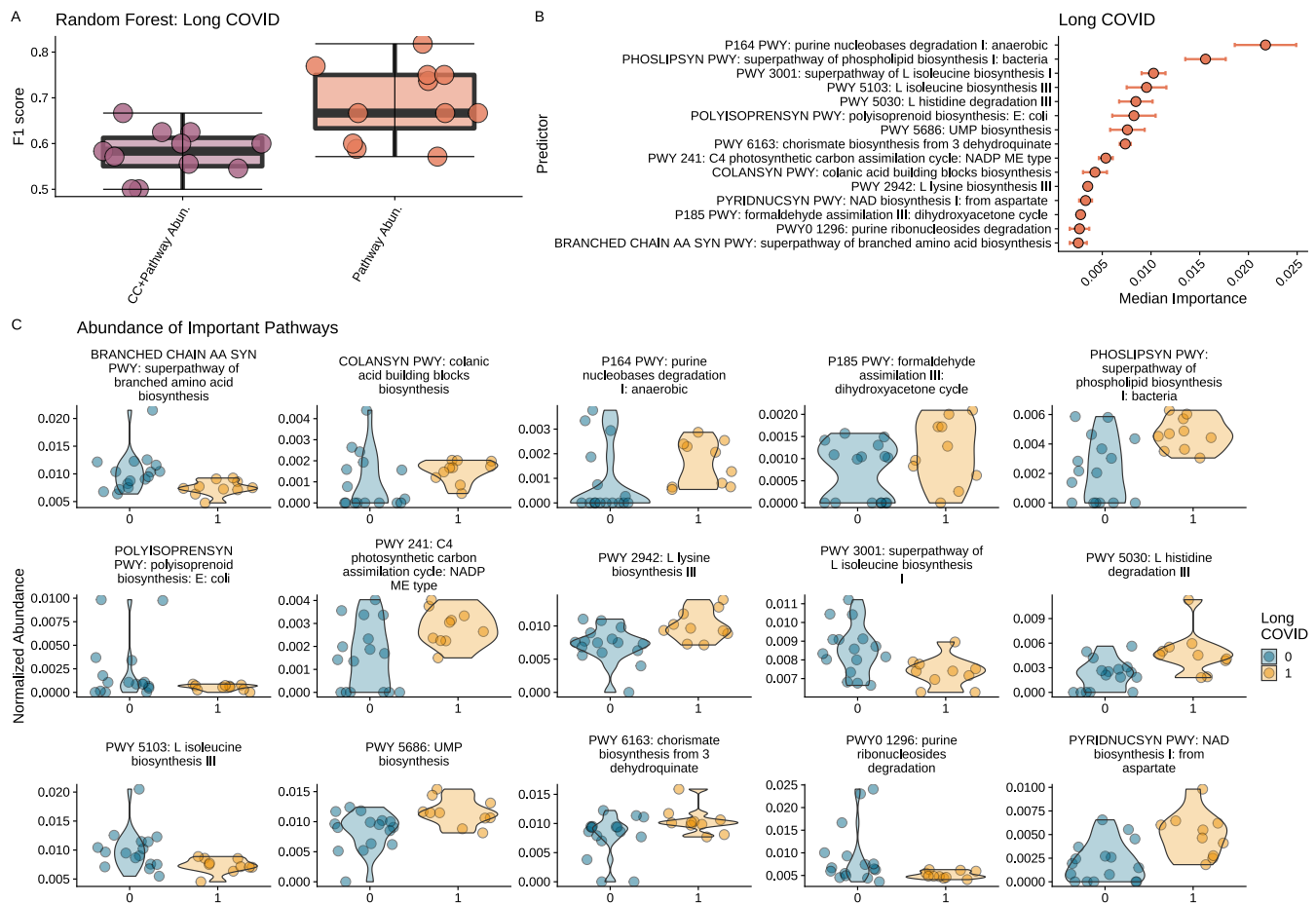


Figure 5: Bacterial metabolic pathways involving inflammation are significantly associated with long-COVID-19 disease. Results from random forest classification modeling using to predict ongoing symptomatic and long-COVID-19 disease from HUMAnN3 pathway abundances. A) F1 scores for (i) demographics + clinical covariates + pathway abundances and, (ii) only on pathway abundances. B) Ranking of forest predictors based on median permuted variable importance from the top performing model, (ii) pathways only, for each outcome C) Relative pathway abundances for each pathway found to be important in predicting long-COVID-19 disease, respectively, by random forest classification modeling using (ii) only pathway abundances. We report violin plots showing the distribution of the relative abundance of pathways in patients with symptoms with <10 weeks (blue) and ≥10 weeks (yellow) in 5C.