

Salivary Microbiota Composition in Parkinson's Disease: A Pilot Study Using Nanopore Full-Length 16S rRNA Sequencing

*Parkinson's disease (PD) has been associated with microbial alterations along the gut-brain axis, and recent studies have extended this investigation to the oral cavity. Most oral microbiome studies in PD have employed short-read 16S sequencing, limiting taxonomic classification to the genus level. In this pilot study, we aimed to characterize the salivary microbiota of PD patients at species-level resolution using full-length 16S nanopore sequencing. Unstimulated saliva samples were collected from 19 PD patients and 19 controls. Full-length 16S rRNA amplicons were sequenced on the Oxford Nanopore platform and classified using the EMU algorithm against the Human Oral Microbiome Database. Alpha diversity was assessed using Chao1, Shannon, Fisher, and Inverse Simpson indices, and beta diversity using both Aitchison and Bray-Curtis distances with PERMANOVA, adjusting for age and sex as covariates. Differential abundance was evaluated using four methods (LEfSe, MaAsLin2, ANCOM-BC and ANOVA), retaining only consensus taxa. No significant differences in alpha diversity were observed between PD and control groups ($p > 0.05$). Beta diversity analysis revealed a significant compositional difference between groups after adjusting for age and sex (Aitchison: $R^2=0.041$, $p=0.037$; Bray-Curtis: $R^2=0.062$, $p=0.019$), while neither age nor sex showed a significant effect. Six species were consistently less abundant in PD patients: *Prevotella melaninogenica*, *Peptostreptococcus stomatis*, *Lachnoanaerobaculum gingivalis*, *Hoylesella nanceiensis*, *Corynebacterium durum*, and *Catonella morbi*. Two species, *Streptococcus mutans* and *Veillonella sp. HMT-917*, were more abundant in the PD group. These findings suggest a compositional shift in the salivary microbiota of PD patients, with full-length 16S nanopore sequencing enabling species-level resolution beyond short-read approaches. However, the small sample size and cross-sectional design limit interpretation. Moreover, because all PD patients were medicated and key oral microbiome-related confounders were not assessed, it remains unclear whether the observed changes reflect disease-related or confounding effects. Future longitudinal studies are needed to assess their potential as non-invasive biomarkers for PD.*

Keywords: *Parkinson's disease, oral-gut-brain axis, nanopore full-length 16S sequencing, salivary microbiota*

Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is the second most prevalent neurodegenerative disorder worldwide after Alzheimer's disease (Hou et al., 2021; Kalia and Lang, 2015), pathophysiologically defined by the progressive degeneration of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra pars compacta and the accumulation of intracytoplasmic α -synuclein aggregates (Lewy bodies) (Morris et al., 2024; Poewe et al., 2017). Although long classified primarily as a movement disorder, PD is now

1 recognized as a multisystem neurodegenerative process encompassing not only motor
2 deficits but also autonomic dysfunction, cognitive impairment, neuropsychiatric
3 symptoms, and gastrointestinal involvement (Bloem et al., 2021). This systemic
4 dimension is understood to unfold through a broad pathophysiological network
5 extending well beyond the central nervous system, including the peripheral nervous
6 system, immune system, and mucosal surfaces (Peng et al., 2022).

7 In this context, the microbiota-gut-brain axis has emerged as a growing area of
8 interest in the pathogenesis of PD. Dysbiosis of the gut microbiota has been proposed
9 to increase intestinal permeability, trigger systemic and neuroinflammation, and
10 potentially initiate α -synuclein misfolding in the enteric nervous system (Menozzi et
11 al., 2025; Tan et al., 2022). Within the framework of the Braak staging hypothesis, α -
12 synuclein pathology is thought to originate in the enteric nervous system and
13 propagate in a caudal-to-rostral direction to the central nervous system via the vagus
14 nerve, positioning gut microbiota as a key component in the early pathogenesis of PD
15 (Braak and Del Tredici, 2016).

16 The oral cavity, as the anatomical gateway to the gastrointestinal tract, harbors
17 more than 770 bacterial species and continuously seeds the gut microbiome through
18 daily swallowing (Berthouzoz et al., 2023). This anatomical continuity positions the
19 oral microbiota as a potential upstream determinant of gut dysbiosis. Oropharyngeal
20 manifestations frequently observed in PD, including dysphagia, hypersalivation, and
21 reduced masticatory efficiency, are considered disease-specific factors that may
22 directly alter oral microbiota composition (Arikan et al., 2023; Rei et al., 2024).

23 Emerging studies indicate significant alterations in the composition and function
24 of the oral microbiome in PD patients. Notable differences have been reported in
25 several bacterial genera, particularly *Prevotella*, *Veillonella*, and *Streptococcus*, with
26 these changes proposed to be associated with mucosal inflammation, peripheral
27 immune dysregulation, and neuroinflammatory processes. Oral microbiome profiles
28 in early-stage PD patients have been reported to exhibit distinguishing characteristics
29 from healthy individuals, potentially applicable to non-invasive biomarker
30 development strategies (Stagaman et al., 2024). However, the majority of existing
31 studies rely on short-read 16S rRNA sequencing, which typically constrains
32 taxonomic classification to the genus level (Arikan et al., 2023; Rei et al., 2024).
33 Species-level resolution is nonetheless critical for distinguishing phylogenetically
34 closely related taxa, pathogen identification, and biomarker specificity.

35 Full-length 16S rRNA sequencing, by enabling the simultaneous coverage of all
36 hypervariable regions (V1-V9) of the 16S rRNA gene in a single read, offers direct
37 species-level taxonomic resolution compared to short-read approaches (Aja-Macaya
38 et al., 2025). Nevertheless, studies systematically applying this approach to oral
39 microbiota research in PD remain highly limited. In this pilot study, we aimed to
40 characterize the salivary microbiota of PD patients at species-level resolution using
41 full-length 16S nanopore sequencing. Alpha and beta diversity analyses were
42 performed with statistical adjustment for age and sex covariates, and differential
43 abundance analysis was conducted using a multi-method approach retaining only taxa
44 showing consistent significance across methods.

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1 Methodology

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3 *Study Design and Participants*

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5 This study was designed as a cross-sectional pilot study. Nineteen PD patients
6 aged 40–80 years meeting the International Parkinson and Movement Disorder
7 Society (MDS) clinical diagnostic criteria, and 19 age- and sex-matched healthy
8 controls were included. The study was conducted in accordance with the principles of
9 the Declaration of Helsinki, and written informed consent was obtained from all
10 participants.

11

12 *Saliva Sample Collection and DNA Isolation*

13

14 Unstimulated saliva samples were collected according to a standard protocol and
15 stored at -80°C until DNA isolation. Following genomic DNA extraction, full-length
16 amplification covering all hypervariable regions (V1-V9) of the 16S rRNA gene was
17 performed and sequenced on the Oxford Nanopore platform.

18

19 *Bioinformatic and Statistical Analysis*

20

21 Taxonomic classification was performed using the EMU algorithm and the
22 Human Oral Microbiome Database (HOMD). Alpha diversity was assessed using
23 Chao1, Shannon, Fisher, and Inverse Simpson indices, while beta diversity was
24 evaluated using Aitchison and Bray-Curtis distance metrics. Compositional
25 differences between groups were tested using PERMANOVA with adjustment for age
26 and sex covariates. Differential abundance analysis was conducted using LEfSe,
27 MaAsLin2, ANCOM-BC, and ANOVA; only taxa showing consistent significance
28 across multiple methods were defined as the consensus threshold.

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30 Results

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32 *Demographic Characteristics*

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34 The PD group was significantly older than the control group (median age
35 62.0 vs. 51.0 years; $p=0.001$). No significant difference was observed in sex
36 distribution between groups ($p=0.737$) (Table 1).

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38 **Table 1.** *Demographic characteristics of Parkinson's disease patients and*
39 *healthy controls*

Variable	PD (n=19)	Control (n=19)	p value
Age, median (IQR)	62.0 (59.0–65.0)	51.0 (44.5–59.5)	0.001*
Sex, n (%)			0.737
Male	13 (68.4%)	10 (52.6%)	
Female	6 (31.6%)	9 (47.4%)	

40 *IQR: Interquartile range. *Mann-Whitney U test; †Chi-square test. $p<0.05$ considered statistically*
41 *significant.*

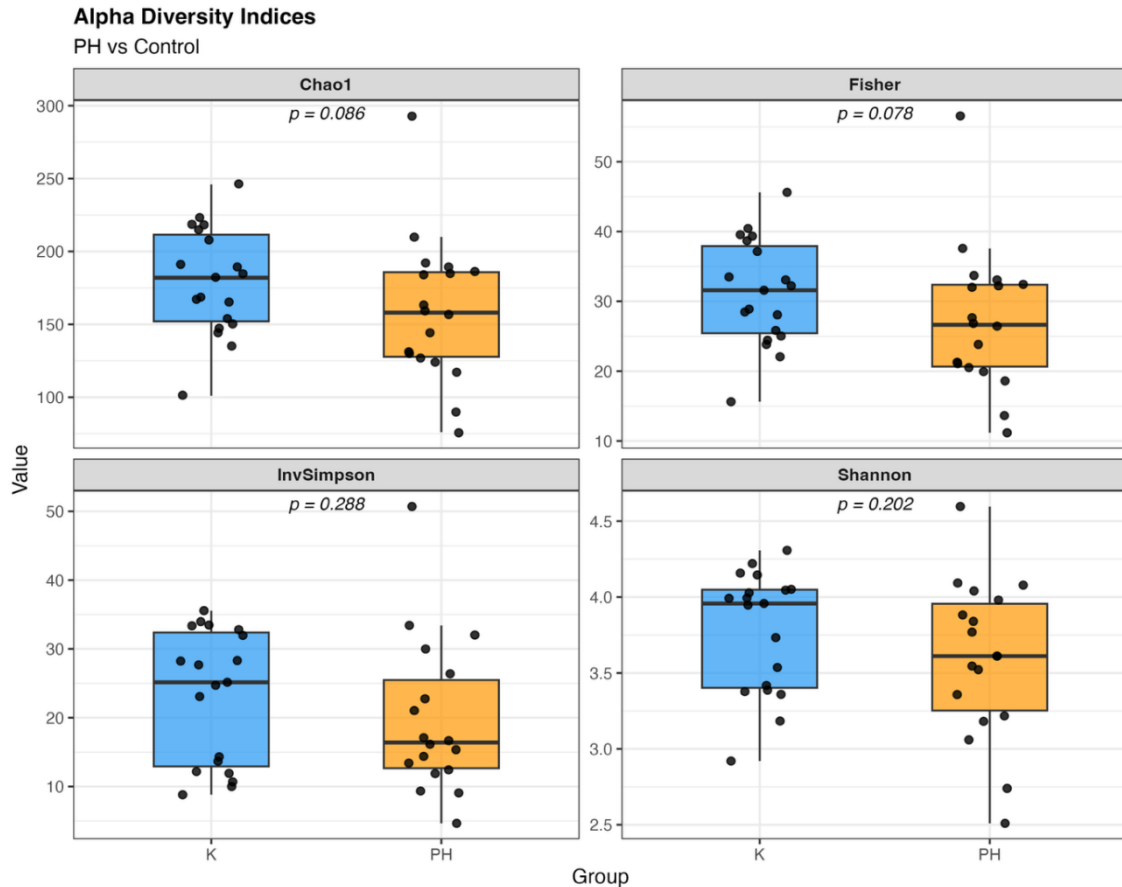
42

1 *Alpha Diversity*

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3 Alpha diversity analysis using Chao1, Fisher, Shannon, and Inverse Simpson
 4 indices revealed no statistically significant difference between the PD and control
 5 groups ($p=0.086$, $p=0.078$, $p=0.202$, and $p=0.288$, respectively). Similar species
 6 richness and evenness values were obtained in both groups (Figure 1).
 7

8 **Figure 1.** Alpha diversity indices (Chao1, Fisher, Shannon, and Inverse Simpson)
 9 comparing Parkinson's disease (PH) and control (K) groups



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11 Boxes represent interquartile range, horizontal lines indicate median values, and dots represent
 12 individual data points. No statistically significant difference was observed between groups for
 13 any index (Chao1: $p=0.086$; Fisher: $p=0.078$; Shannon: $p=0.202$; Inverse Simpson: $p=0.288$).
 14 Source: Created by authors.

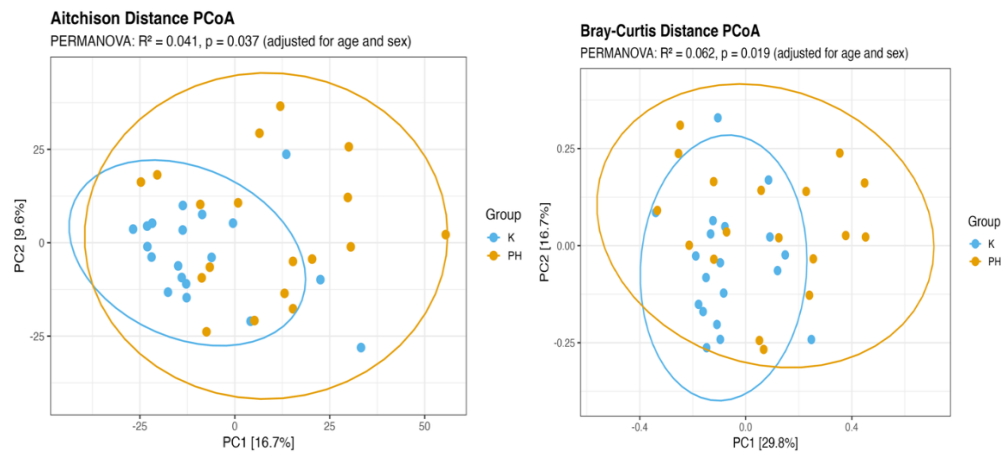
15

16 *Beta Diversity*

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18 PERMANOVA analysis, after adjusting for age and sex covariates, revealed
 19 a statistically significant compositional difference between the PD and control
 20 groups. Aitchison distance-based analysis identified a significant separation
 21 explaining 4.1% of intergroup variance ($R^2=0.041$, $p=0.037$). Bray-Curtis
 22 distance-based analysis yielded 6.2% explained variance ($R^2=0.062$, $p=0.019$).
 23 Neither age nor sex covariates showed an independent significant effect on
 24 microbiota composition (Figure 2).

1 **Figure 2.** Beta diversity analysis using Aitchison Distance PCoA and Bray-
 2 Curtis Distance PCoA

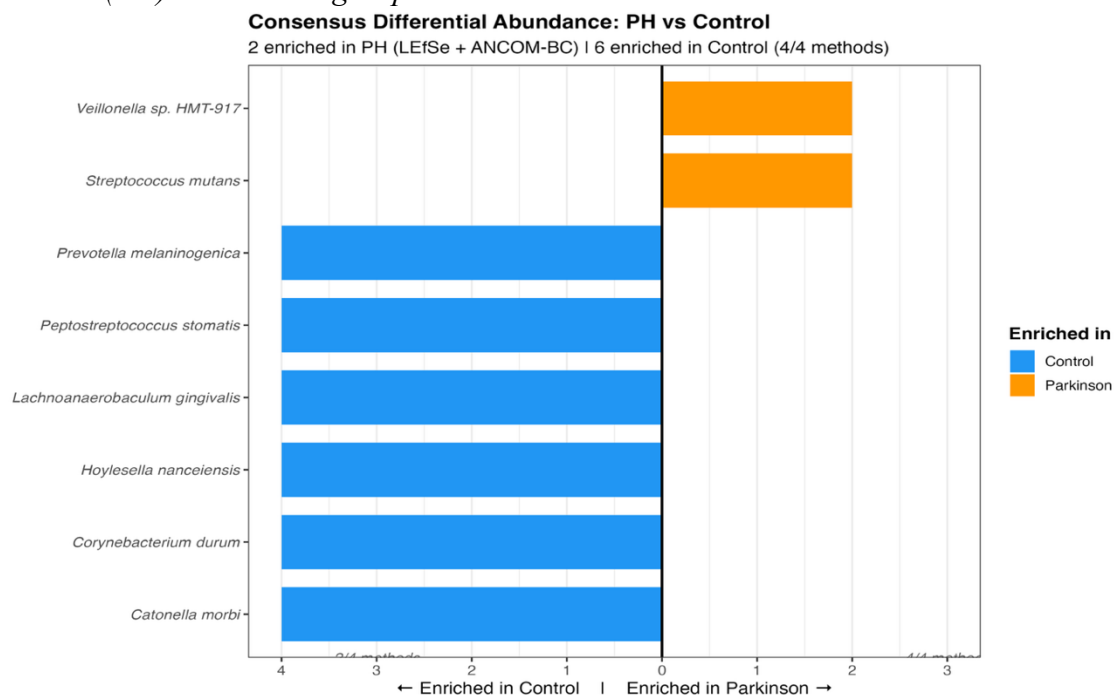


3
 4 Ellipses represent 95% confidence intervals for each group. (Aitchison: $R^2=0.041$, $p=0.037$;
 5 Bray-Curtis: $R^2=0.062$, $p=0.019$).
 6 Source: Created by authors.

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 8 *Differential Abundance Analysis*

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 10 Using a multi-method consensus approach, eight bacterial species with
 11 differential relative abundance between groups were identified. Six species enriched
 12 in the control group were consistently significant across all four methods (LEfSe,
 13 MaAsLin2, ANCOM-BC, and ANOVA): *Prevotella melaninogenica*,
 14 *Peptostreptococcus stomatis*, *Lachnoanaerobaculum gingivalis*, *Hoylesella*
 15 *nanceiensis*, *Corynebacterium durum*, and *Catonella morbi*. Two species
 16 enriched in the PD group showed consistent significance in two of four methods
 17 (LEfSe and ANCOM-BC): *Streptococcus mutans* and *Veillonella* sp. HMT-917
 18 (Figure 3).
 19

1 **Figure 3.** Consensus differential abundance analysis comparing Parkinson's
 2 disease (PH) and control groups



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 4 Source: Created by authors.

5 6 7 Discussion

8
 9 In this pilot study, the salivary microbiota of PD patients was characterized
 10 at species-level resolution using full-length 16S nanopore sequencing. No
 11 significant difference in alpha diversity was detected between groups across any
 12 of the indices assessed. Beta diversity analysis, however, revealed significant
 13 compositional differences between groups using both Aitchison and Bray-Curtis
 14 metrics after adjusting for age and sex covariates, suggesting that PD is
 15 associated with a systemic process affecting salivary microbiota composition, a
 16 finding consistent with previous studies (Arkan et al., 2023; Rei et al., 2024).

17 Among the species detected at reduced relative abundance in PD patients,
 18 *Prevotella melaninogenica* is particularly noteworthy. This anaerobic
 19 commensal is known to colonize the oral mucosa from early life and is
 20 considered a core member of the healthy oral microbiome (Könönen and Gursoy,
 21 2022). Its relative reduction in the PD group is consistent with a disruption of
 22 commensal oral anaerobic balance during the disease process. Similarly, other
 23 species enriched in the control group — including *Peptostreptococcus stomatis*,
 24 *Catonella morbi*, *Corynebacterium durum*, *Lachnoanaerobaculum gingivalis*,
 25 and *Hoylella nanceiensis* — are recognized members of the oral microbiome,
 26 although their functional roles remain to be fully elucidated. Notably, a
 27 significant reduction of *Hoylella nanceiensis* in PD patients compared to
 28 healthy controls has been previously reported, further supporting the

1 compositional shift observed in the present study (Zapała et al., 2022).
2 Collectively, the enrichment of these taxa in the control group indicates a
3 reorganization of oral microbiota composition in PD. Regarding species
4 enriched in the PD group, increased relative abundance of *Streptococcus mutans*
5 in PD patients has been previously reported (Fleury et al., 2021), suggesting the
6 presence of oral dysbiosis and local inflammation that may be linked to disease
7 pathogenesis. *Veillonella* sp. HMT-917 was also found to be more abundant in
8 PD patients; however, its potential role in disease pathogenesis remains to be
9 elucidated.

10 The main limitations of this study include its small sample size, cross-
11 sectional design, and the fact that all PD patients were medicated. The inability
12 to systematically assess important confounders such as oral hygiene, diet, and
13 dental disease status makes it difficult to determine whether the observed
14 changes are related to the disease, medication use, or other factors.

17 Conclusions

19 This pilot study demonstrates compositional differences at the species level
20 in the salivary microbiota of PD patients using full-length 16S nanopore
21 sequencing. The observed beta diversity differences and differential abundance
22 findings point to a potential role of oral microbiota in the systemic
23 pathophysiology of PD. However, the small sample size, cross-sectional design,
24 and unassessed confounders limit the interpretation of findings. Larger,
25 longitudinal studies with systematic control of confounders are needed to clarify
26 whether the observed microbiota changes are related to disease, medication, or
27 other factors, and to determine whether salivary microbiota can serve as non-
28 invasive biomarkers for PD.

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