

1 Dental calculus microbiome correlates with dietary intake

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21 **Summary**

22 The occurrence of dental calculus is widespread among pediatric and adult patients. It is  
23 originated by oral bacterial biofilm, but the microbial variability embedded within and whether  
24 it is influenced by host diet remain questioned.

25 We highlighted the presence of a significant microbiome variability, with clusters of patients  
26 characterized by specific bacterial taxonomic composition and functional capabilities, such  
27 as virulence factors. Moreover, the observed differences among groups of patients were  
28 strongly related to specific dietary intake.

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29 This evidence suggests that diet may influence the presence of pro-inflammatory  
30 microbiome adhered to the tooth surface, and that dental calculus microbiome may be tested  
31 to inspect oral health conditions.

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33 **Abstract**

34

35 **Background:** Dental calculus is the result of dental plaque mineralization, originating by  
36 tooth associated bacterial biofilm. Recent evidence revealed that the dental calculus  
37 microbiome has a more complex composition than previously considered, including an  
38 unstructured mix of both aerobes and anaerobes bacteria. Actually, we lack information  
39 about the influence of host lifestyle factors, such as diet and health on this highly biodiverse  
40 ecosystem. Here, we provide a pilot study investigating dental calculus microbial biodiversity  
41 and its relation with host diet.

42 **Methods:** We collected 40 dental calculus samples during routine dental inspection; DNA  
43 was extracted and analysed through 16S amplicon sequencing, while dietary information  
44 were retrieved through a questionnaire. Associations between diet and oral bacteria  
45 taxonomy and functional pathways were statistically tested.

46 **Results:** Overall, microbiome composition was dominated by 10 phyla and 39 bacterial  
47 genera, which were differently distributed among samples. Cluster analysis revealed four  
48 main groups based on the taxonomic profile, and two groups based on functional pathways.  
49 Each taxonomic cluster was dominated by different microbial biomarkers: *Streptococcus*,  
50 *Rothia*, *Tannerella*, *Lautropia* and *Fusobacterium*. Bacteria genera and pathways were also  
51 associated to specific dietary element, especially vegetable and fruit intake suggesting an  
52 overall effect of diet on dental calculus microbiome.

53 **Conclusions:** The present study demonstrate that it exists an inter-variability in the  
54 microbial composition of dental calculus among individuals of a rather homogenous  
55 population. Furthermore, the observed biodiversity and microbial functions can find an  
56 association to specific dietary habits, such as a high fiber diet or a protein rich diet.

57

## 58 Introduction

59

60 The interaction between humans and their microbiomes has become one of the main  
61 growing interests in human health in the last few decades(Ursell, Metcalf, Parfrey, & Knight,  
62 2012). The recent breakthrough in personalized medicine has made it possible to integrate  
63 additional data beyond host genetics or microbiome composition, such as human lifestyle  
64 data such as diet, drug use and sport activity(Flores-Pérez, de la Rosa Oliva, Argenes, &  
65 Meneses-Garcia, 2019; Malm, Jakobsson, & Isaksson, 2019). In particular, diet is known to  
66 be one of the main factors associated with microbiome compositional shifts, explaining 60%  
67 of such variations(Zhang et al., 2010). Oral tract microbiome is gaining attention as a new  
68 target of omics studies, as it can capture humans' dietary habits, immune responses, and  
69 environmental factors(Millen et al., 2022; Willis et al., 2022). Actually, the oral cavity  
70 represents one of the richest substrates for microorganisms to grow and establish complex  
71 microbial communities(Wade, 2013), directly affecting oral health state. Previous research  
72 comparing changes in microbial communities driven by diet (i.e., Mediterranean, vegan) has  
73 focused mainly on gut microbiota(Bailey & Holscher, 2018; Tomova et al., 2019). As a  
74 consequence, the influence of dietary regimen on the human oral microbiome remains  
75 largely elusive.

76 Recently, molecular anthropology and archaeology have greatly improved our knowledge  
77 regarding the evolution of human–microbe symbiosis during human history(Fellows Yates et  
78 al., 2021). The ability to retrieve conserved DNA from ancient samples has resulted from the  
79 analysis of tooth-associated dental calculus, a mineralized derivation of the commonly  
80 known dental plaque. Dental calculus has been demonstrated to be an extremely rich  
81 resource, harboring a variety of biological molecules including host and microbial DNA,  
82 proteins, and metabolic compounds(Radini & Nikita, 2022), which has allowed us to obtain  
83 important information regarding past populations life conditions. Recent evidence made  
84 possible to propose a new model of plaque microbiome formation revealing that there are no  
85 early and later colonizer as previously hypothesized(Li et al., 2004), but multiple bacterial  
86 species that are found concomitantly in polymicrobial aggregates harboring complex  
87 communities which forms the human plaque. Once bound to the teeth, this microbial  
88 consortia starts biofilm formation, which then engulfs the bacterial single static cells found in  
89 saliva(Simon-Soro et al., 2022). However, to date, we lack information regarding the  
90 microbial biodiversity harbored in the dental calculus, and regarding whether it presents a  
91 certain level of inter-individual variability or, conversely, a flattened microbial biodiversity.  
92 Moreover, we currently have no evidence to disclose whether lifestyle and health variables  
93 are able to shape its composition, as observed in microbiomes belonging to other body  
94 niches.

95 In this study, we analyzed the microbiome composition of modern dental calculus in order to  
96 define (i) the level of inter-individual variability and (ii) the role of the diet in driving its  
97 structure. To this end, taxonomic diversity and microbial community functional profiles were

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98 investigated by applying 16S amplicon sequencing methodology to 40 omnivorous female  
99 and male subjects, ranging from 20 to 77 years of age, following a Western lifestyle. This  
100 work can be considered a pilot study testing how the dental calculus microbiome could be  
101 exploited to obtain relevant clinical information on diet effects and patient health status.  
102

## 103 104 **Materials and methods**

### 105 106 **Sample collection and surveys**

107  
108 This study was approved by the human subjects ethics board of the Hospital of Padova  
109 (Italy), with Prot. N°AOP2258, and was conducted in accordance with the Helsinki  
110 Declaration of 1975, as revised in 2013. Dental calculus samples were collected at the Unit  
111 of Dentistry of the Hospital of Padova (Italy) during routine inspections. Patients were  
112 informed about the study aims and provided their informed consent. A questionnaire was  
113 submitted to each patient, requesting anthropometric, lifestyle, health status, and dietary  
114 information. Regarding the clinic procedure to collect the calculus, one expert operator used  
115 a standard 5/6 stainless steel periodontal curesttes with an octagonal handle (Hu-Friedy,  
116 Chicago, IL, USA). We report below the inclusion criteria applied for samples collection: (1)  
117 For all patients we collected samples always from the same location and type, which were  
118 the supragingival mineralized plaque of lower anterior teeth. These criteria were applied both  
119 for the highest presence of mineralized plaque on lower anterior teeth, and to minimize  
120 possible bias related to the oral geography (Fagernäs et al., 2022; Mark Welch, Rossetti,  
121 Rieken, Dewhirst, & Borisy, 2016). (2) Only patients who did not present any sign of current  
122 gingival inflammation, bleeding, and caries were selected. (3) All participants were evaluated  
123 during the scheduled periodontal maintenance (~ every 6 months) to assure a similar time of  
124 dental calculus formation. (4) Finally, before collecting the mineralized plaque, the patients  
125 underwent 30 seconds of mouth washing (especially in the sampling area) by using a  
126 solution of 50% water and chlorhexidine (0.2%, Meridol, Colgate Palmolive company) in  
127 order to remove bacteria adhered on calculus surface.

128 A published dietary survey was applied in order to collect specific data about subject diet  
129 and adherence to the Mediterranean diet (Sofi, Macchi, Abbate, Gensini, & Casini, 2014).  
130 Samples were collected in 1.5ml Eppendorf tubes and directly transferred to the  
131 biomolecular laboratory at the Department of Comparative Biomedicine and Food Science of  
132 the University of Padova (Italy).

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## 134 DNA extraction, sequencing and taxonomic analysis

135

136 Genomic DNA was extracted using a Qiagen PowerSoil kit, following the manufacturer's  
137 instructions (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). PowerSoil kit was recommended by the Human  
138 Microbiome Project (HMP) for DNA extraction in microbiome studies (Aagaard et al., 2013;  
139 Hagan et al., 2020). This kit ensures a mechanical, chemical and enzymatic cell lysis which  
140 is needed to break the mineralized matrix of dental calculus and assure a highest DNA yield.  
141 Taq Platinum HiFi (ThermoFisher, USA) was used for 16S amplicon sequencing on the V3–  
142 V4 regions (Takahashi, Tomita, Nishioka, Hisada, & Nishijima, 2014) using MiSeq System  
143 (Illumina, Inc., USA). Raw reads were deposited in the BioProject database under accession  
144 number PRJNA828039.

145 The produced sequences were analyzed according to Callahan et al. 2016 (Callahan,  
146 Sankaran, Fukuyama, McMurdie, & Holmes, 2016). Paired-end sequenced reads were  
147 filtered on the basis of their quality using the package *dada2* (v. 1.14.1) on R version 3.6.3,  
148 and then organized using Amplicon Sequencing Variants (ASV) classification approach.  
149 Taxonomy was assigned until genus level using SILVA 16S Database (NR98 version 138.1).

150 Analysis of microbial variability was performed using the *microbiome* (v 1.8.0) and *phyloseq*  
151 (v 1.30.0) packages. Alpha-diversity difference among clusters was assessed through  
152 ANOVA test. Finally, Kruskal–Wallis test and LDA effect size with LEfSe (Segata et al., 2011)  
153 were computed to determine significant difference at genus level among clusters.

154 The association between diet type and microbiome composition was checked through a  
155 redundancy analysis (RDA). A permutation analysis was computed to assess the  
156 significance of dietary variables through the *vegan* (v. 2.4-2) package in R. Finally, a  
157 Spearman test was performed to determine which and to what extent each genus-level  
158 taxon correlated with Mediterranean scores.

159 Additional information is reported in Supplementary Materials.

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161

## 162 Functional analysis

163

164 To assess each sample's gene content, Picrust2 software (Douglas et al., 2020) was applied  
165 to the pre-filtered ASV sequences. Gene families and relative abundances were computed  
166 using the KEGG Ontology database (Kanehisa, Sato, Kawashima, Furumichi, & Tanabe,  
167 2016), enabling the collapse of these functions to the pathway levels 2 and 3 (L2, L3) based  
168 on the KEGG mapping tree. Hierarchical clustering was computed and compared to the

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169 taxonomy-based clusters using *dendextend* package v1.15.2, with the aim to understand  
170 which taxonomic clusters fell into diverse functional groups and to derive the relations  
171 between microbiome activity, microbial composition, and sample dietary information.

172 Additional information is reported in Supplementary Materials.

173

## 174 Results

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### 176 Patient metadata reveal a diverse range of food consumption

177

178 Our dataset was composed of 40 samples comprising 13 male and 27 female participants of  
179 varying ages, ranging from 20 to 77 years old, with an overall mean of 48.1 (male mean age  
180 = 47.69, female mean age = 48.34) and a median of 50. The age distributions of males and  
181 females were similar to ensure that every age range and sex was well represented (Figure  
182 1A). The majority of patients (39 out of 40) were Italians, mainly from Northern Italian regions  
183 (37 out of 40, corresponding to 92.5%), with 2 of them originating from South Italy (Sicily),  
184 while the remaining participant was Spanish (Table 1).

185 Anthropometric information was used to obtain the body mass index (Table 1). The mean for  
186 the overall values of BMI was 23.85, which falls in the normal weight score range according  
187 to the World Health Organization (WHO) Europe standard (<https://www.euro.who.int/en/>).  
188 Specifically, the mean BMI of males was 25.63, which is considered slightly above the pre-  
189 obesity threshold of 25, while for females, the average BMI was 22.95, corresponding to a  
190 normal weight. Within the dataset, only two males (ID2 and ID31) showed obesity conditions,  
191 surpassing the value of 30 in the BMI index scale, and also recognizing their obesity in the  
192 survey (Table 1 and Figure 1B). There were also two cases of underweight (ID27 and ID32),  
193 both in females, presenting a BMI score lower than 19 (Table 1 and Figure 1B). Despite  
194 these specific cases, no significant difference was detected in sex distribution within the  
195 binned age groups and BMI (chi-squared test  $p > 0.05$ ).

196 Data regarding dietary habits showed a very homogenous profile, considering that 39 out of 40  
197 individuals were omnivores, but still presented a diverse range of food preferences and daily  
198 consumption (Supplementary Table 1). For this purpose, the Mediterranean score  
199 assignment strategy was used to define the level of each individual's closeness to the  
200 Mediterranean diet, showing different diet styles (Supplementary Figure 1).

201

202

## 203 Dental calculus microbiome composition and diversity

204

205 A total of 39 samples were selected for the microbiome composition analysis. One sample  
206 (ID40) was discarded because of a poor read count, probably due to the low quantity of  
207 extracted DNA (Supplementary Table 2). Focusing on the relative abundance of each taxon,  
208 we found 10 phyla, among which Firmicutes was found to be dominant in ~75% of the  
209 samples, followed by Actinobacteria, Bacteroidetes, and Proteobacteria (Figure 2A).  
210 Specifically, dental calculus microbiome was populated by a total of 39 genera, mainly  
211 represented by *Streptococcus*, *Tannerella*, *Fusobacterium*, *Freticobacterium*,  
212 *Porphyromonas*, *Bacteroidetes oral taxon sp.*, and *Prevotella* (Figure 2B). The core  
213 microbiota comprised 11 taxa, including *Streptococcus*, *Rothia*, *Fusobacterium*,  
214 *Campylobacter*, *Tannerella*, *Treponema*, *Porphyromonas*, and *Actinomyces*, among others  
215 (Supplementary Figure 2). In particular, *Streptococcus* showed the highest prevalence in our  
216 dataset. Furthermore, the core microbiota showed the presence of all three taxa comprising  
217 the red complex, a group of bacteria formed by *Treponema*, *Tannerella*, and  
218 *Porphyromonas*. At the same time, the accessory microbiome comprised bacteria commonly  
219 found in the oral cavity, such as *Freticobacterium*, *Abiotrophia*, and *Aggregatibacter*.

220

221

## 222 Taxonomic differences among samples are associated with different dietary habits

223

224 Intra-sample variability was compared across samples through principal coordinate analysis,  
225 showing that the microbial composition slightly changed across individuals. Four main  
226 clusters were identified through hierarchical clustering, based both on taxonomic differences  
227 and on differential abundances (Figure 3A) (C1 = 16 samples, C2 = 7 samples, C3 = 7  
228 samples, C4 = 9 samples). The analysis of alpha-diversity revealed a high degree of  
229 similarity and higher variability of C1 and C2 compared to C3 and C4, which were also  
230 similar in composition to each other (Supplementary Figure 3). The prevalence of  
231 *Fusobacterium*, *Tannerella*, *Rothia*, *Streptococcus*, and *Lautropia* spp. significantly varied  
232 across the clusters. These genera fell into five of the main phyla composing the oral  
233 microbiome (Firmicutes, Proteobacteria, Bacteroidetes, Fusobacteria, and Actinobacteria),  
234 accounting for most of the diversity of whole microbial communities. In particular,  
235 *Fusobacterium* and *Tannerella* were both significantly enriched in C4, while *Streptococcus*,  
236 *Rothia*, and *Lautropia* were respectively enriched in C1, C2, and C3 (Figure 3B and  
237 Supplementary Figure 4).

238 According to RDA, we found that dietary variables (type of food consumed) were  
239 significantly associated with the taxonomic composition of our dataset. Specifically, legumes,

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240 fruit, vegetables, and fish were associated with C1; cereals pointed to C3; milk, meat, and  
241 their derivatives had a stronger association with C4 (Figure 3C). Furthermore, groups related  
242 with higher consumption of fibers (vegetables, fruit) were also enriched with the  
243 *Streptococcus* genus, while C3 and C4, which were mainly associated with *Tannerella* and  
244 *Porphyromonas*, were characterized by diet rich in animal proteins (e.g., milk and meat) and  
245 higher cereal consumption.

246 Finally, we did not detect any relevant associations between the Mediterranean score (based  
247 on the overall food consumption) and the taxonomical and clustering data (Supplementary  
248 Figure 5). However, we checked for correlations between the Mediterranean score and each  
249 bacterial genus, and we found that Mediterranean values negatively correlated with  
250 *Corynebacterium* and *Conchiformibius*, while they positively correlated with *Eikenella*,  
251 *Prevotella*, and *Lentimicrobium* (Figure 3D).

252

### 253 **Functional analysis and microbiota pathways**

254

255 Cluster analysis obtained on the KEGG profile revealed potential associations between diet  
256 type and bacterial functions. We observed two functional clusters (FCs) according to gap  
257 statistics: FC1 was composed of 20 individuals, while FC2 included 19 individuals. Notably,  
258 FC1 was mostly composed of the taxonomy-based C1, while FC2 mainly included  
259 components belonging to C2, C3, and C4 (Figure 4A and B). The two functional clusters  
260 were differentially enriched by important pathways involved both in catabolic and anabolic  
261 processes, allowing a possible reconstruction of the different functions of microbes ascribed  
262 to the two groups. Specifically, glycan, carbohydrate, and nucleotide metabolism were  
263 enriched in FC1, while FC2 was mainly characterized by amino acid, lipid, and transport  
264 metabolism (Figure 4C). In addition, level 3 KEGG categories allowed us to gain further  
265 details on the differential enrichment of many pathways (Supplementary Figure 6). For  
266 instance, FC1 was enriched in starch and sucrose metabolism, as well as amino sugars,  
267 nucleotide sugars, galactose, fructose, and mannose metabolism, which may suggest a  
268 more carbohydrate- and fiber-oriented diet, while FC2 was mostly characterized by  
269 metabolism of amino acids such as histidine, alanine, aspartate, and glutamate, pointing to a  
270 high-protein diet, and further supporting the information retrieved from the taxonomic  
271 analysis.

272

### 273 **Discussion**

274

275 The present study shows that the microbiome embedded in the dental calculus falls within  
276 the known variability for the oral microbiota. Indeed, the taxonomic composition comprised  
277 10 out of the 13 phyla commonly belonging to the oral microbiome signature(Dewhirst et al.,  
278 2010) as well as a conspicuous number of representative genera (39). Among these, it is  
279 interesting to observe the concomitant presence of typical commensals, mainly associated  
280 with a healthy core microbiota (e.g., *Streptococcus*, *Fusobacterium*, *Rothia*, and  
281 *Actinomyces*) and of taxa associated with a higher risk of developing periodontal diseases,  
282 such as *Treponema*, *Tannarella*, and *Porphyromonas*, being flagged as microorganisms of  
283 the red complex(Socransky, Haffajee, Cugini, Smith, & Kent, 1998). Intriguingly, all these  
284 pathogens were found to be highly represented across our samples, making them relevant  
285 members of the overall core dental calculus microbiome. The first aim of this study was to  
286 investigate the level of inter-variability in the microbial composition of dental calculus among  
287 individuals of a rather homogeneous population. The identification of four taxonomy-based  
288 clusters was indicative of a diverse microbiota profile among samples. The second element  
289 we wished to address in this study was whether the observed inter-variability had any  
290 association with specific dietary habits. Indeed, we found that a diet rich in viscous fibers,  
291 such as those in fruit, vegetables, and legumes, was significantly associated with C1, which  
292 was mainly represented by the *Streptococcus* genus. These specific types of fiber constitute  
293 part of the healthy Mediterranean diet, and are characterized by a low saturated fatty acid  
294 content, low glycemic indices(Jenkins et al., 1981), and a high concentration of  
295 polyunsaturated fatty acids such as omega-3 (PUFA). Furthermore, their composition  
296 includes vegetal proteins and a wide range of functional metabolites able to reduce the  
297 postprandial increase in blood glucose and to reduce LDL cholesterol(Brown, Rosner,  
298 Willett, & Sacks, 1999; Jenkins et al., 1978). The high presence of *Streptococcus* among the  
299 subjects belonging to the enriched vegetable and legume consumption group (i.e., C1),  
300 might be associated with the ability of different *Streptococcus* species to express amylase-  
301 binding proteins, which would bind to host salivary  $\alpha$ -amylases and thus exploit dietary  
302 starch for their nutrition(Haase et al., 2017). It has been widely demonstrated that a high-  
303 fiber diet benefits the proliferation of many species of microorganisms, resulting in high  
304 microbial diversity(Makki, Deehan, Walter, & Bäckhed, 2018). Conversely, high consumption  
305 of meats, cured meats, and dairy products, which are considered signatures of a Western-  
306 based diet, is associated with higher caloric content, increased amino acid intake, and a  
307 reduction in microbial biodiversity(Statovci, Aguilera, MacSharry, & Melgar, 2017). In this  
308 study, such nutrients were mostly associated with C4 and, to a lesser extent, with C3, which  
309 were characterized by reduced biodiversity and a moderate association with some  
310 opportunistic pathogens, such as *Fusobacterium*, *Porphyromonas*, and *Treponema*(Han,  
311 2015; Tan et al., 2014). Remarkably, the microbiota diversity of C1 and C2 was significantly  
312 higher compared to that of C3 and C4. These data seem to fit the cited association model of  
313 higher fiber intake with increased microbiota richness and higher meat consumption with  
314 decreased biodiversity(Wastyk et al., 2021). As for C2, this category can be considered an  
315 admixture of the characteristics of C1 and the other groups, as it does not show signs of  
316 strong associations with a particular diet.

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317 Interestingly, the functional analysis showed a significant association of FC1 with  
318 carbohydrate metabolism, terpenoid metabolism, and glycan pathways; thus, it is in  
319 accordance with the collected dietary information. Conversely, FC2 was characterized by  
320 enriched amino acid metabolism, energy-related pathways, and lipid metabolism. Such  
321 characteristics reflect and partially corroborate the statements made for the taxonomy-based  
322 clusters. Indeed, considering that FC1 mainly overlaps with C1, these data support the  
323 effects observed on the taxonomic level by diet: the higher carbohydrate, glycan, and  
324 terpenoid metabolism could be explained by the association with a vegetable- and fruit-rich  
325 diet, which characterized ~65% of FC1. In particular, fibers and glycans, highly present in a  
326 vegetable-based diet, are considered to play an important role in shaping oral microbiota  
327 metabolism (Koropatkin, Cameron, & Martens, 2012), producing an increase in all the  
328 carbohydrate processing pathways, such as fructose, galactose, and mannose metabolism,  
329 all of which were enriched in FC1. However, FC2, showing a heterogeneous sample  
330 composition comprising ~55% of both C3 and C4, reflected amino acid and fatty acid  
331 pathway enrichment. By way of a deeper assessment, regarding L3-associated pathways, it  
332 was possible to observe an enrichment in FC2 of several pro-inflammatory pathways.  
333 Indeed, a number of virulence factors, such as bacterial motility proteins, cell motility and  
334 secretion, and bacterial chemotaxis (Josenhans & Suerbaum, 2002), were increased within  
335 this group, along with antibiotic biosynthesis (i.e., Novobiocin), xenobiotics  
336 metabolism (Johnson, Patterson, Idle, & Gonzalez, 2012), and glutathione  
337 metabolism (Smirnova & Oktyabrsky, 2005), which help in adaptation to stress. Other signals  
338 of possible dietary connection with the dental calculus microbiome composition came from  
339 the correlation of the value of adherence to the Mediterranean diet with some of the genera  
340 found in our cohort. Particularly, we suggested that *Prevotella*, *Eikenella*, and  
341 *Lentimicrobium* seem to be positively associated with greater adherence to a Mediterranean  
342 diet. This result is in accordance with what has already been observed in other studies in the  
343 positive selection exerted by high-fiber and -vegetable diets on *Prevotella* spp. and  
344 *Eikenella* (Hansen et al., 2018; Kovatcheva-Datchary et al., 2015).

345 In conclusion, this pilot study shows that the dental calculus microbiome accounts for a very  
346 biodiverse environment and that it is specific of the oral cavity. Moreover, our results suggest  
347 that its composition and gene contents may be driven by specific dietary elements in the  
348 studied population. This is, to our knowledge, the first evidence of an association between  
349 the dental calculus microbiome and food consumption. However, further analyses are  
350 needed to corroborate this association. Specifically, our study is the first to consider dental  
351 calculus variability in relation with specific dietary information, thus we were not able to  
352 compare our results with external cohorts. Moreover, future analyses should consider the  
353 application of longitudinal protocols assessing the association between different dietary  
354 regimens (e.g., vegan or vegetarian) and calculus microbial composition across time and  
355 seasons, as well as focus on the influence of specific dietary macronutrients (e.g.,  
356 carbohydrates) on bacterial composition (Millen et al., 2022). Finally, the results presented  
357 here suggest the possibility for a future adoption of dental calculus microbiome as signature  
358 of individual nutrition, even on ancient populations.

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## Authors Contribution

366

G. I., performed the bioinformatics analysis and drafted and critically revised the manuscript. MEM and ES, contributed to results discussion and critically revised the manuscript. AdF, contributed to design the project, supervised sample and questionnaire collection, and critically revised the manuscript. AQ, conceived the study, performed DNA extraction, supervised the statistical analysis and critically revised the manuscript. All authors gave their final approval and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

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## Conflicts of interest

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The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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## Figure and Table caption

**Table 1.** Dataset information about sample age, sex, weight (kg), height (cm), body mass index (BMI), place of birth, and geographical location.

Sample-ID	Age	Sex	Weight (cm)	Height (cm)	BMI	Location
ID1	77	f	78	170	27	North Italy
ID2	67	m	95	170	33	North Italy
ID3	63	m	66	170	23	North Italy
ID15	39	m	83	182	25	North Italy
ID16	50	f	68	155	28	North Italy
ID17	39	f	67	173	22	North Italy
ID18	53	f	75	160	29	North Italy
ID19	50	m	75	174	25	North Italy
ID20	34	f	55	170	19	North Italy
ID21	44	f	53	163	20	North Italy
ID22	50	f	57	166	21	Spain
ID23	58	f	57	160	22	North Italy
ID24	34	f	59	166	21	North Italy
ID25	54	f	63	158	25	North Italy
ID26	21	m	80	175	26	North Italy
ID27	25	f	49	167	18	North Italy
ID28	29	f	55	160	21	North Italy
ID29	57	f	68	168	24	North Italy
ID30	45	f	67	161	26	North Italy
ID31	62	m	110	180	34	North Italy

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ID32	60	f	50	168	18	North Italy
ID33	63	m	65	173	22	North Italy
ID34	38	m	87	187	25	North Italy
ID35	39	f	72	162	27	North Italy
ID36	50	m	85	185	25	North Italy
ID37	56	f	58	160	23	North Italy
ID38	62	f	48	150	21	North Italy
ID39	20	m	62	180	19	North Italy
ID40	29	f	56	175	18	North Italy
ID41	62	f	62	164	23	North Italy
ID42	46	f	58	160	23	North Italy
ID43	54	f	70	160	27	North Italy
ID44	70	m	80	168	28	North Italy
ID45	45	f	60	168	21	North Italy
ID46	63	m	63	170	22	North Italy
ID47	54	f	65	172	22	North Italy
ID48	40	m	80	170	28	South Italy
ID49	28	f	57	170	20	South Italy
ID50	50	f	58	158	23	North Italy
ID51	37	m	70	178	22	North Italy
ID52	52	f	59	157	24	North Italy

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**Figure 1. A.** Pie charts showing the dataset composition in terms of age and sex variables. Age was binned using 10-year ranges. **B.** Body mass index distribution. Dashed lines indicate BMI ranges according to WHO Europe: the green line indicates the lower limit for a normal-weight BMI, while the orange line represents the upper limit of the same; the red line indicates the limit between overweight and concrete obesity.

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ID17	39	f	67	173	22	North Italy
ID18	53	f	75	160	29	North Italy
ID19	50	m	75	174	25	North Italy
ID20	34	f	55	170	19	North Italy
ID21	44	f	53	163	20	North Italy
ID22	50	f	57	166	21	Spain
ID23	58	f	57	160	22	North Italy
ID24	34	f	59	166	21	North Italy
ID25	54	f	63	158	25	North Italy
ID26	21	m	80	175	26	North Italy
ID27	25	f	49	167	18	North Italy
ID28	29	f	55	160	21	North Italy
ID29	57	f	68	168	24	North Italy
ID30	45	f	67	161	26	North Italy
ID31	62	m	110	180	34	North Italy
ID32	60	f	50	168	18	North Italy
ID33	63	m	65	173	22	North Italy
ID34	38	m	87	187	25	North Italy
ID35	39	f	72	162	27	North Italy

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ID37	56	f	58	160	23	North Italy
ID38	62	f	48	150	21	North Italy
ID39	20	m	62	180	19	North Italy
ID40	29	f	56	175	18	North Italy
ID41	62	f	62	164	23	North Italy
ID42	46	f	58	160	23	North Italy
ID43	54	f	70	160	27	North Italy
ID44	70	m	80	168	28	North Italy
ID45	45	f	60	168	21	North Italy
ID46	63	m	63	170	22	North Italy
ID47	54	f	65	172	22	North Italy
ID48	40	m	80	170	28	South Italy
ID49	28	f	57	170	20	South Italy
ID50	50	f	58	158	23	North Italy
ID51	37	m	70	178	22	North Italy
ID52	52	f	59	157	24	North Italy

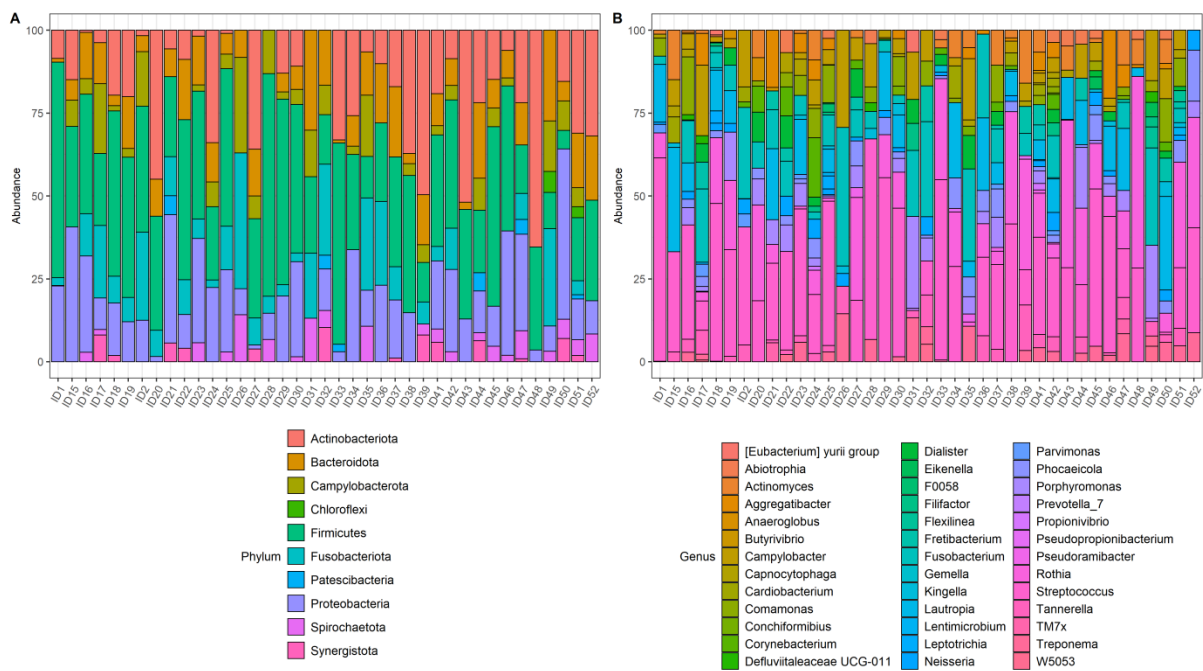
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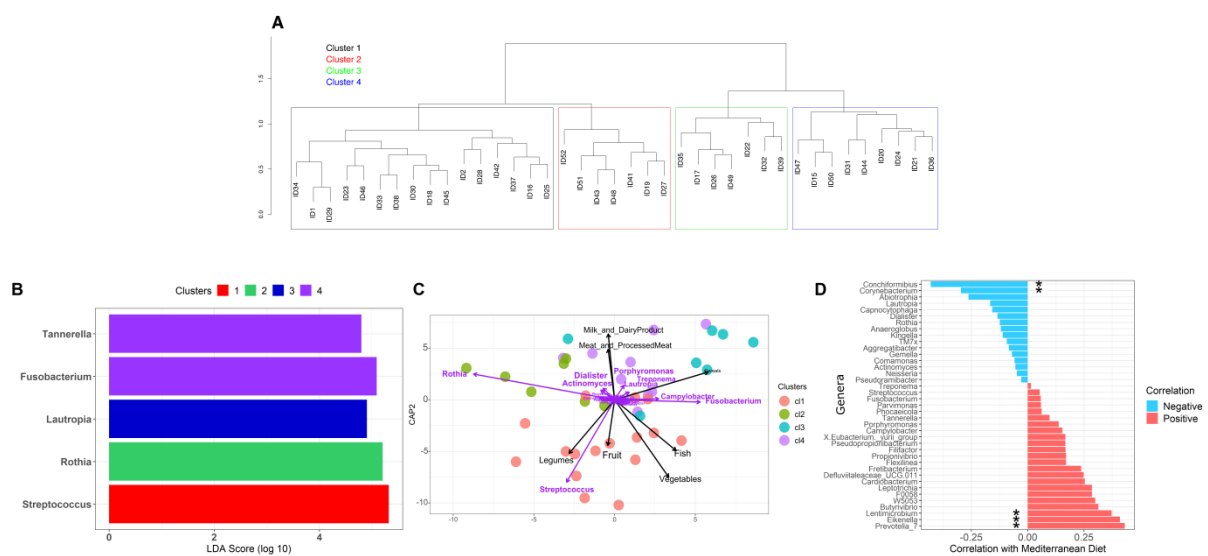
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**Figure 2.** Stacked barplots showing phylum (**A**) and genus (**B**) distribution.



**Figure 3. A.** Hierarchical tree based on the Bray–Curtis distance matrix. Clusters were calculated by 500 bootstraps. **B.** Linear discriminant analysis (LfSe) results showing significant bacterial genera for each cluster. **C.** Redundancy analysis (RDA) triplot showing relationships between sample taxonomical distances coloured by cluster, genera relative abundances, and food metadata categorical variables. **D.** Spearman correlation between all genus-level taxa and the Mediterranean score.

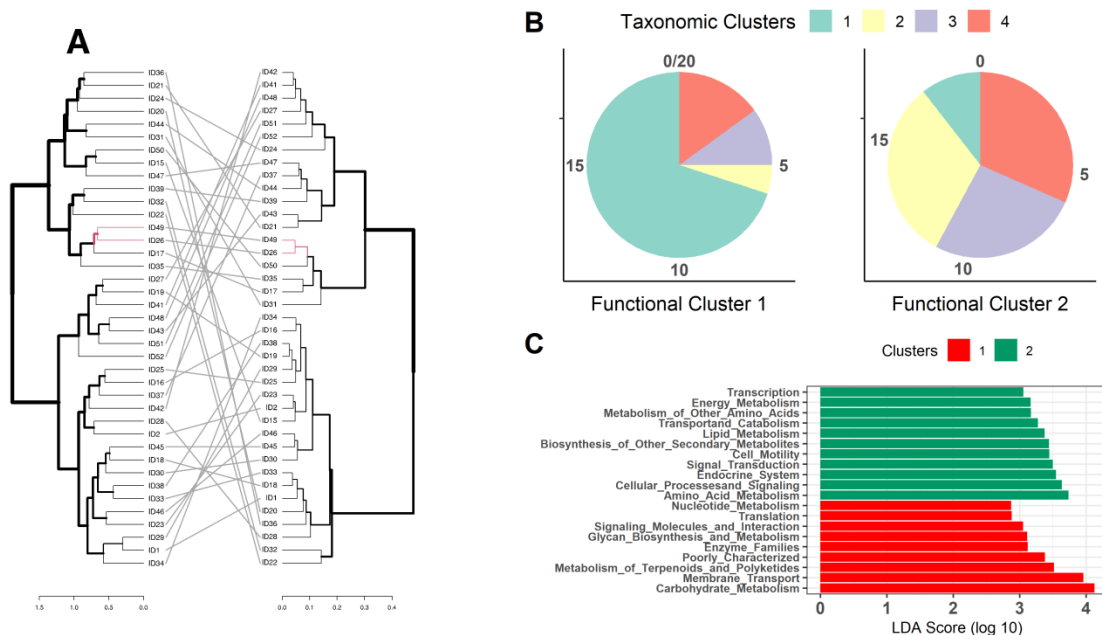


**Figure 4. A.** Comparison between taxonomy-based (on the left) and functional-based (on the right) dendrograms. **B.** Pie charts showing the distribution of each taxonomy-based

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547 clusters (C1–4) inside the two functional-based clusters (FC1,2). **C.** Linear discriminant  
 548 analysis using L2 KEGG ontology categories between the two functional clusters.



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