

1 **The relationship between gut and nasopharyngeal microbiome composition can**
2 **predict the severity of COVID-19.**

3 Benita Martín-Castaño^{1,2,#}, Patricia Díez-Echave^{2,3,#}, Jorge García-García^{3,*}, Laura
4 Hidalgo-García^{2,3}, Antonio Jesús Ruiz-Malagon^{2,3}, José Alberto Molina-Tijeras^{2,3},
5 María Jesús Rodríguez-Sojo^{2,3}, Anaïs Redruello-Romero², Margarita Martínez-
6 Zaldívar^{2,4}, Emilio Mota⁴, Fernando Cobo⁵, Xando Díaz-Villamarin², Emilio
7 Fernández-Varón^{2,3}, Marta Álvarez-Estevez^{2,6,7}, Federico García^{2,6,7}, Concepción
8 Morales-García⁸, Silvia Merlos⁸, Paula García-Flores⁸, Manuel Colmenero-Ruiz^{2,9},
9 Andrés Ruiz-Sancho^{2,10}, María Nuñez^{2,11,12}, María Elena Rodríguez-Cabezas^{2,3}, Ángel
10 Carazo^{2,6}, Javier Martín¹³, Rocío Morón^{2,11,*}, Alba Rodríguez-Nogales^{2,3,‡}, Julio
11 Galvez^{2,3,14,‡}.

12 ¹ Centro de Salud Las Gabias, Distrito Granada-Metropolitano, 18110-Granada, Spain.

13 ² Instituto de Investigación Biosanitaria de Granada (ibs.GRANADA), 18012-Granada,
14 Spain.

15 ³ Department of Pharmacology, Center for Biomedical Research (CIBM), University of
16 Granada, 18071-Granada, Spain.

17 ⁴ Centro de Salud “Salvador Caballero”, Distrito Granada-Metropolitano, 18012-
18 Granada, Spain.

19 ⁵ Servicio Microbiología, Hospital Universitario Virgen de las Nieves, 18014-Granada,
20 Spain.

21 ⁶ Servicio Microbiología, Hospital Universitario Clínico San Cecilio, 18016-Granada,
22 Spain.

23 ⁷ CIBER de Enfermedades Infecciosas (CIBER-Infec), Instituto de Salud Carlos III,
24 28029- Madrid, Spain.

25 ⁸ Respiratory Medicine Department, Hospital Universitario Virgen de las Nieves,
26 18014- Granada, Spain.

27 ⁹ Servicio de Medicina Intensiva, Hospital Universitario Clínico San Cecilio, 18016-
28 Granada, Spain.

29 ¹⁰ Servicio de Enfermedades Infecciosas, Hospital Universitario Clínico San Cecilio,
30 18016- Granada, Spain.

31 ¹¹ Servicio Farmacia Hospitalaria, Hospital Universitario Clínico San Cecilio, 18016-
32 Granada, Spain.

33 ¹² CIBER de Epidemiología y Salud Pública (CIBER-ESP), Instituto de Salud Carlos
34 III, 28029- Madrid, Spain.

35 ¹³ Department of Cell Biology and Immunology, Institute of Parasitology and
36 Biomedicine López-Neyra, CSIC, 18016-Granada, Spain.

37 ¹⁴ CIBER de Enfermedades Hepáticas y Digestivas (CIBER-EHD), Instituto de Salud
38 Carlos III, 28029- Madrid, Spain.

39 # Both authors contributed equally to this manuscript.

40 * Correspondence: jgarcia.51@ugr.es (J. G.-G.); rmoronr@gmail.com (R.R.-M).

41 ‡ Both authors contributed equally to this work.

42 **ABSTRACT**

43 **Background:** Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory illness caused by
44 severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) that displays great
45 variability in clinical phenotype. Many factors have been described to be correlated with
46 its severity but no specific determinants of infection outcome have been identified yet,
47 maybe due the complex pathogenic mechanisms. The microbiota could play a key role
48 in the infection and in the progression and outcome of the disease. Hence, SARS-CoV-2
49 infection has been associated with nasopharyngeal and gut dysbiosis and higher
50 abundance of opportunistic pathogens. **Methods:** To identify new prognostic markers
51 for the disease, a multicenter prospective observational cohort study was carried out in
52 COVID-19 patients that were divided in three cohorts according to their
53 symptomatology: mild (n=24), moderate (n=51) and severe/critical (n=31). Faecal and
54 nasopharyngeal samples were taken and the microbiota was analysed. **Results:**
55 Microbiota composition could be associated with the severity of the symptoms and the
56 linear discriminant analysis identified the genera *Mycoplasma* and *Prevotella* as severity
57 biomarkers in nasopharyngeal samples, and *Allistipes*, *Enterococcus* and *Escherichia* in
58 faecal samples. Moreover, *M. salivarium* was defined as a unique microorganism in
59 COVID-19 patients' nasopharyngeal microbiota while *P. bivia* and *P. timonensis* were
60 defined in faecal microbiota. A connection between faecal and nasopharyngeal
61 microbiota in COVID-19 patients was also identified as a strong positive correlation
62 between *P. timonensis* (faeces) towards *P. dentalis* and *M. salivarium* (nasopharyngeal)
63 was found in critically ill patients. **Conclusions:** This ratio could be used as a novel
64 prognostic biomarker for severe COVID-19 patients.

65 **Keywords:** COVID-19; Gut microbiota; Nasopharyngeal microbiota; SARS-CoV-2;
66 Severity.

67

68

69

70

71

72 INTRODUCTION

73 Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a respiratory illness caused by severe acute
74 respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). The data reported in November
75 2023 revealed that almost 700 million people have been infected with the virus [1].
76 Even though the majority of COVID-19 cases are mild, disease has been also shown to
77 cause long-term effects on human health. Therefore, a remarkable feature of SARS-
78 CoV-2 infection is the great variability in clinical phenotype among infected people.
79 Many factors can correlate with COVID-19 disease severity, including age, gender,
80 body mass index, previous comorbidities, immune responses, and genetics [4-6], but,
81 unfortunately, the determinants of infection outcome and the pathogenic mechanisms
82 are not completely understood yet [3].

83

84 SARS-CoV-2 primarily infects the respiratory tract by binding to angiotensin-
85 converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptor [7], and a growing body of evidence suggests
86 that it can also infect other organs since viral particles and nucleic acids have been
87 found in various biological samples, like sputum, bronchoalveolar lavage fluid, faeces,
88 blood, and urine [8-10]. Thus, ACE2 has been detected by single-cell RNA sequencing
89 in various organs and tissues, like the gastrointestinal tract, where they are highly
90 expressed [11], suggesting a substantial involvement of the gastrointestinal tract in the
91 pathogenesis of the disease, including the ability of SARS-CoV-2 to infect and replicate
92 in intestinal enterocytes [12], increased expression of the viral entry receptor (ACE2
93 receptor) and several membrane-bound serine proteases (such as transmembrane
94 protease serine 2 (TMPRSS2) and TMPRSS4) in intestinal epithelial cells [13].

95

96 Moreover, SARS-CoV-2 infection has been extensively reported to induce dysbiosis the
97 in the respiratory tract and the colon [17-20], characterized by increased presence of
98 opportunistic pathogens, including *Staphylococcus*, *Corynebacterium* and *Acinetobacter*
99 bacteria [14, 15], which can raise the risk of secondary infections, morbidity and
100 mortality [16]. Thus, it is evident that there is a relevant connection between the
101 microbiome from the respiratory and gastrointestinal tracts and the development and
102 progression of this disease, and also the recovery processes [14, 20]. However, there is
103 limited understanding of its precise association with the establishment of different

104 symptomatic profiles in this condition, and to date, few studies have focused on the
105 relationships between the severity of COVID-19 and the microbiome composition of the
106 nasopharyngeal and intestinal tracts contemplated simultaneously.

107 Considering that the emergence of mutations and variants has caused several additional
108 waves of infection and threatens to compromise the efficacy of existing vaccines and
109 anti-viral drugs [2], new therapeutic approaches and prognostic tools are necessary.
110 Therefore, the characterization of the nasopharyngeal and intestinal microbiome will
111 allow identifying predictive biomarkers for the diagnosis and prognosis of the disease,
112 as well as possible therapeutic targets in the management of SARS-CoV-2.

113

114

115 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

116 **Ethics approval.**

117 The study was conducted in accordance with the declaration of Helsinki and the
118 protocol approved by the Clinical Research Ethics Committee of Granada (CEIC) (ID
119 of the approval omicovid-19 1133-N-20). All patients provided written informed
120 consent before being included in the study. The samples were managed by the
121 ibs.GRANADA Biobank following the protocols approved by the Andalusian
122 Biomedical Research Ethics Coordinating Committee.

123 **Subject recruitment and sample collection**

124 A multicentre prospective observational cohort study was carried out between
125 September 2020 and July 2021. Patients with SARS-CoV-2 infection were recruited
126 from the University Hospital San Cecilio, the University Hospital Virgen de las Nieves,
127 and the Primary Care centres, Salvador Caballero and Las Gabias in Granada (Spain).
128 These patients were laboratory-confirmed SARS-CoV-2 positive by quantitative reverse
129 transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) performed on nasopharyngeal
130 swabs collected by healthcare practitioners. Patients were classified in three groups
131 based on severity profile following the described guidelines [21] mild cohort (n=24),
132 subjects with moderate symptomatology (n=51) and severe/critically ill patients (n=31).
133 Mild illness included individuals who have any of the various signs and symptoms of
134 COVID-19 (e.g., fever, cough, sore throat, malaise, headache, muscle pain, nausea,

135 vomiting, diarrhoea, loss of taste and smell) but do not have shortness of breath,
136 dyspnoea, or abnormal chest imaging. Moderate cases were those showing fever and
137 respiratory symptoms with radiological findings of pneumonia. Severe group was
138 composed of patients with any of the following criteria: respiratory distress (≥ 30
139 breaths/min), oxygen saturation $\leq 93\%$ at rest, arterial partial pressure of oxygen
140 (PaO_2)/fraction of inspired oxygen (FiO_2) ≤ 300 mmHg, respiratory failure and requiring
141 mechanical ventilation, shock, and with other organ failures that required intensive care.
142 Healthcare staff collected Nasopharyngeal swabs and stools samples from patients while
143 asymptomatic patients provided stools self-sampled at home. Stools and nasopharyngeal
144 swabs were collected in collection tubes containing preservative media
145 (OMNIGene®•GUT, DNAGENOTEK®, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada) and stored at -80°C
146 until processing.

147

148 **Microbial DNA extraction, library preparation and next generation sequencing**

149

150 For all faecal and nasopharyngeal samples, DNA was isolated according to the protocol
151 reported by *Rodríguez-Nogales et al.* [22] and using Qiagen Allprep PowerFecal DNA
152 kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). DNA was quantified using Qubit dsDNA HS assay kit
153 (Yeason Biotechnology, Shanghai, China) and total DNA was amplified by targeting
154 variable regions V4-V5 of the bacterial 16 S rRNA gene. Quality control of amplified
155 products was achieved by running a high-throughput Invitrogen 96-well-E-gel (Thermo
156 Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). PCR products from the same samples were
157 pooled in one plate and normalised with the high-throughput Invitrogen SequalPrep 96-
158 well Plate kit. Then, the samples were pooled into a library prior to sequencing. Lastly,
159 Next-Generation Sequencing (NGS) techniques were performed using an Illumina
160 MiSeq machine.

161

162 **Bioinformatic tools and statistical analysis**

163

164 Bioinformatic analysis of demultiplexed raw data from nasopharyngeal and stool
165 microbiota samples was performed with QIIME2 software (open access, Northern
166 Arizona University, Flagstaff, AZ, USA). Trimming and filtering taking into account
167 their quality scores before specific taxa identification achieved quality control of the
168 samples. DADA2 software was employed to carry out denoising steps and to obtain

169 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs). SILVA reference database was used for taxonomic
170 assignment [23]. The remaining analyses were performed R software [24].

171 For numerical clinical variables analysis, data was displayed as mean \pm SD when it
172 followed a normal distribution and median and interquartile range were represented for
173 non-normal distributions. Categorical variables were set out as percentages. In these
174 cases, statistical differences were calculated by ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis test for
175 numerical variables and Fisher's exact test for categorical.

176 Alpha and beta diversity and relative abundance were appraised with the Phyloseq
177 package. Normality and homogeneity of variance were examined by the Nortest and
178 LeveneTest packages, respectively. When these assumptions were reached, an ANOVA
179 test was carried out. Otherwise, the Kruskal Wallis test was employed.

180 Beta diversity differences were analysed with a Permutational Multivariate Analysis of
181 Variance (PERMANOVA) included in the Vegan package. Euler and microbial
182 packages were utilised for constructing Venn diagrams and to perform linear
183 discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) with an LDA score of 3. The Corrplot
184 package was applied for correlation analysis using the Spearman's correlation
185 coefficient.

186 **RESULTS**

187 *Study patients characteristics*

188

189 A total of 106 patients (52 women and 54 men) who had laboratory confirmation of
190 SARS-CoV-2 infection were included in the present study. The patients had a median
191 age of 54 years (range, 40 to 68). Based on the clinical spectrum criteria reported in the
192 COVID-19 treatment guidelines, patients were categorised into 3 cohorts: mild
193 symptomatology (24 patients), moderate illness and hospitalised in Respiratory Unit (51
194 patients) and severe symptomatology and admitted in the intensive care units (ICU) (31
195 patients) (**Table 1**). As expected, the age of the patients significantly increased with the
196 severity of the symptoms, and therefore, the patients included in the severe symptoms
197 group were significantly older than those with mild or moderate symptoms (**Table 1**).
198 Patient inclusion was carried out evenly in terms of gender; nevertheless, a gender-
199 related impact on the clinical course of these patients can be observed since the group of
200 patients with severe symptoms was predominantly composed of males when compared

201 with the mild illness group (**Table 1**). Correspondingly, the clinical course of patients
 202 classified according to severity was different. Most mild patients showed symptoms of a
 203 mild respiratory infection, but a third of them also displayed dyspnoea and low oxygen
 204 saturation, and a quarter reported the existence of gastrointestinal complaints (like
 205 stomach ache, digestive discomfort or diarrhoea); and a low percentage of patients (4%)
 206 reported high respiratory and heart rates. Moderate and severe patients showed higher
 207 frequencies of the evaluated symptoms: dyspnoea, low oxygen saturation and increased
 208 respiratory or heart rates ($p < 0.05$). However, no significant differences were observed
 209 in the percentage of the gastrointestinal complaints among the three groups of patients
 210 (**Table 1**). When the different comorbidities were considered, only those patients with
 211 severe symptoms showed a higher percentage of cardiomyopathy compared to those
 212 from mild or moderate symptomatology ($p < 0.05$). Additionally, no significant
 213 differences were found in the prevalence of the other pathologies among groups.
 214 Regarding the counts of lymphocytes and neutrophils did not show meaningful
 215 differences between the three groups of patients. However, the plasmatic determinations
 216 of platelets, D-dimer, ferritin and C reactive protein correlated with the severity of the
 217 symptoms, being the severe group significantly different ($p < 0.05$) (**Table 1**).

218
 219

	Mild (n=24)	Moderate (n=51)	Severe (n=31)
Clinical variables			
Age (Years)	43 ± 12 ^a	54 ± 14 ^b	62 ± 11 ^c
Gender (Male)	33% ^a	47% ^b	71% ^c
Symptoms			
Dyspnoea (Yes)	33% ^a	75% ^b	84% ^b
Gastrointestinal alteration (Yes)	26%	33%	33%
Respiratory rate (≥ 20 bpm)	4% ^a	22% ^a	63% ^b
SpO ₂ (Low)	33% ^a	43% ^a	71% ^b
Heart rate (≥ 100 bpm)	4% ^a	27% ^b	55% ^c
Comorbidities			
Obesity (Yes)	26%	27%	32%
Diabetes (Yes)	20%	18%	26%
Asthma (Yes)	3%	6%	7%
Cardiomyopathy (Yes)	5% ^a	6% ^a	42% ^b
Plasma determinations			
Lymphocytes (10 ³ /μL)	1.1 ± 0.6	1.4 ± 0.6	1.2 ± 2.7
Neutrophils (10 ³ /μL)	6 [5.5;6.6]	6.4 [4.2;8.6]	7.9 [5.4;10.9]
Platelets (10 ³ /μL)	329.6 ± 8.5 ^a	257.4 ± 115 ^b	276.4 ± 93 ^b
D dimer (mg/L)	0.39 [0.2;0.8] ^a	0.6 [0.3;1] ^a	1.6 [0.9;4.3] ^b
Ferritin (ng/L)	157 [126;179] ^a	487 [274;1027] ^b	829 [488;1376] ^c
C reactive protein (mg/L)	3.4 [2.6;4] ^a	18.2 [7.8;41.9] ^b	162 [65;210] ^c

220
 221

222 **Table 1. Clinical data description of enrolled patients.** Normal distributions are represented as mean
223 \pm SD while non normal distributions are represented by median and interquartile range. Categorical
224 variables are represented with percentage. Groups with different letters statistically differ ($p < 0.05$).

225

226

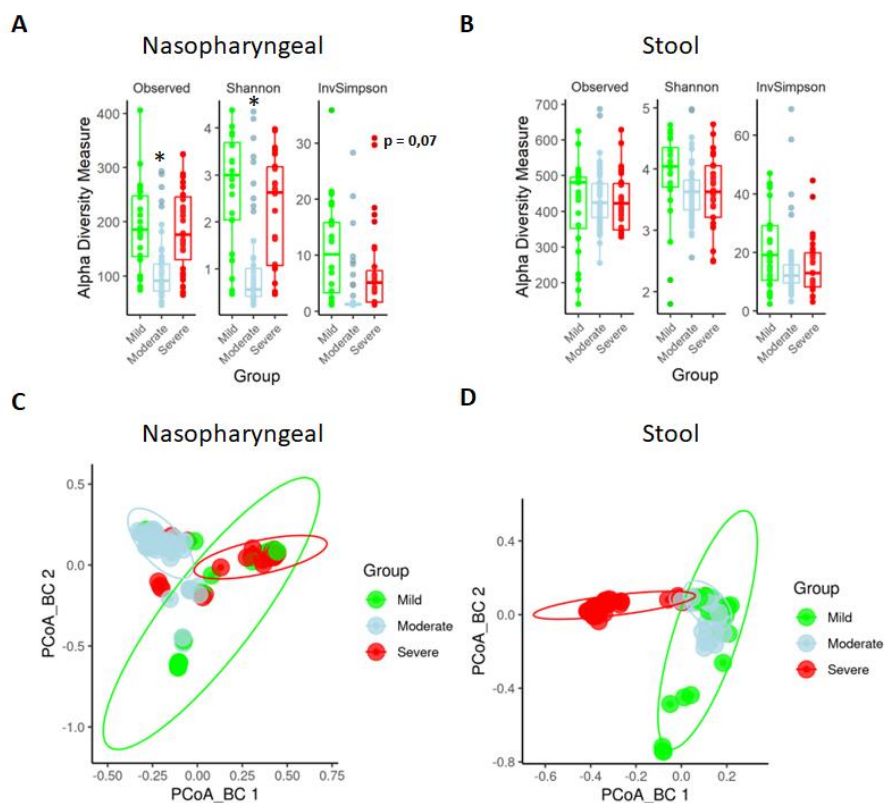
227 *Bacterial composition differs between sample type and severity index in SARS-CoV-2*
228 *infected patients*

229

230 Nasopharyngeal swabs and faeces were obtained from all the patients included in the
231 study in the first seven days after symptom onset, and used for characterization of the
232 microbiota composition. Microbiome diversity showed alterations that could be
233 associated with the disease severity (**Figure 1**). Specifically, the α -diversity in the
234 nasopharyngeal microbiota was reduced in the moderate and severe groups, in
235 comparison with the mild group although it was only significant in patients with
236 moderate symptoms (**Figure 1A**). Conversely, when α -diversity was examined in stool
237 samples, no significant modifications were observed between groups (**Figure 1B**). On
238 the other hand, β -diversity analysis revealed statistical differences between groups for
239 both samples, nasopharyngeal swabs and stools ($p < 0.001$) (**Figure 1C** and **1D**).
240 Nasopharyngeal microbial populations could be grouped based on the severity of the
241 symptoms and appear like three distinct and separate clusters corresponding to the
242 patients with mild, moderate and severe symptoms (**Figure 1C**). Remarkably, faecal
243 microbial communities of patients with severe symptoms differed significantly from
244 those of mild and moderate ill patients using the unweighted Bray-Curtis metric, which
245 compares samples based on bacterial presence-absence information (**Figure 1D**).

246

247



248
249
250
251
252
253
254

Figure 1. Nasopharyngeal and gut microbiota composition is modified depending on the severity of COVID-19 symptoms. (A) Alpha diversity analysis of nasopharyngeal swab samples microbiota. (B) Alpha diversity analysis of stool samples microbiota. (C) PCoA for Bray-Curtis index of nasopharyngeal swab microbiota. (D) PCoA for Bray-Curtis index of stool samples microbiota. Values are represented as mean \pm SD. Significant differences are represented as * = $p < 0.05$.

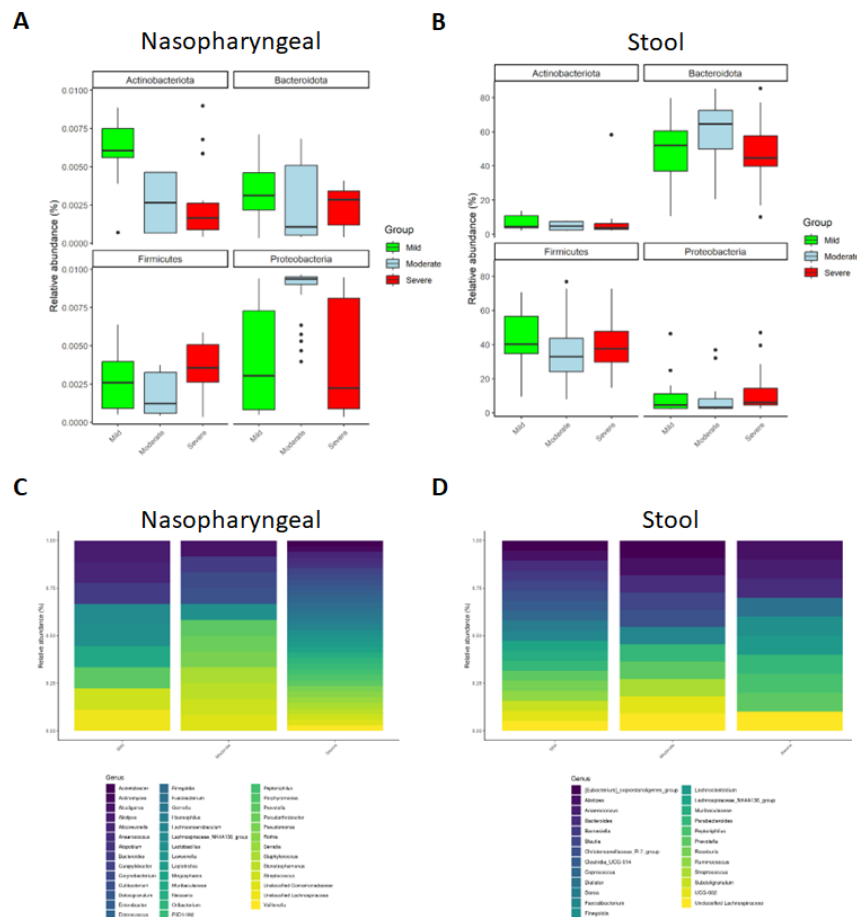
255 Similarly, the characterization of microbiota composition revealed heterogeneity in the
256 microbiota profile associated with severity and disease progression in these patients
257 (Figure Sx). At phylum level, in nasopharyngeal microbiota, the abundance of
258 *Bacillota* was increased while the abundance of *Bacteroidota* and *Actinobacteroidota*
259 was reduced in patients with severe symptomatology (Figure 2A). Conversely, the three
260 groups presented a more homogeneous distribution of faecal microbiota than the
261 nasopharyngeal one, being the most abundant phyla *Bacillota* and *Bacteroidota* (Figure
262 2B). Only the patients that had a worse prognosis showed a decrease of abundance in
263 *Bacteroidota* (Figure 2B).

264

265 At genus level, symptom severity was associated with a higher number of detected
266 genera (Figure 2C-D). Of note, the nasopharyngeal microbiome composition revealed
267 significant differences between groups in genus abundance. The mild group presented
268 significantly higher abundance of *Alistipes*, *Muribaculaceae* and *Lachnospiraceae* ($p <$
269 0.001), the moderate group showed a significant increase in *Alcaligenes* and
270 *Pseudorobacter* ($p < 0.001$) while the severe group had significantly higher relative

271 abundance of *Acinetobacter*, *Actinomyces*, *Anaerococcus*, *Atopobium*, *Campylobacter*,
 272 *Dolosigranulum*, *Enterobacter*, *Enterococcus*, *Fingoldia*, *Fusobacterium*, *Gemella*,
 273 *Haemophilus*, *Lawsonella*, *Leptotrichia*, *Megasphaera*, *Neisseria*, *Serratia*, *Rotia* and
 274 *Veillonella* ($p < 0.001$) (**Figure 2C**). However, a reduction in the number of detected
 275 genera was observed in stool samples as symptom severity increased (**Figure 2D**).
 276 Concretely, mild patients showed more presence of *Barnesiella*, *Muribaculaceae* and
 277 different members of the *Clostridia* class (*Clostridia*, *Coprococcus*, *Dorea*,
 278 *Lachnospiraceae*, *Roseburia* and *Ruminococcus*) ($p < 0.001$). Although moderate ill
 279 patients presented different genera, only *Streptococcus* was significantly increased in
 280 this group ($p < 0.001$). Remarkably, *Anaerococcus*, *Dialister*, *Lachnocostridium* or
 281 *Peptoniphilus* were more abundant in patients with severe symptoms ($p < 0.001$)
 282 (**Figure 2D**).

283
 284



285
 286
 287
 288
 289
 290
 291

Figure 2. Microbiota composition of nasopharyngeal and stool samples at phylum level is slightly modified by COVID-19 symptoms severity. In contrast, at genus level, severity increases the total amount of detected bacteria in nasopharyngeal swabs while in stool samples it is reduced. (A) Representation of the most abundant phyla in nasopharyngeal swab samples. **(B)** Representation of the most abundant phyla in stool samples. **(C)** Taxa identification of the most abundant genera in nasopharyngeal swab samples. **(D)** Taxa identification of the most abundant genera in stool samples.

292

293

294 *Differences in bacteria abundance could be used as biomarkers to predict disease*

295 *severity and outcome in SARS-CoV-2 infection*

296

297 We investigated if some specific taxa could contribute to the severity of the symptoms.

298 ASVs were evaluated to determine core taxa along with the specific bacteria of each

299 group of patients and samples (**Figure 3A,B**). In nasopharyngeal swabs, Venn diagram

300 analysis revealed that the three groups of study shared 51 core taxa. 60 specific bacteria

301 were identified in patients with mild symptoms while 32 were seen in patients with

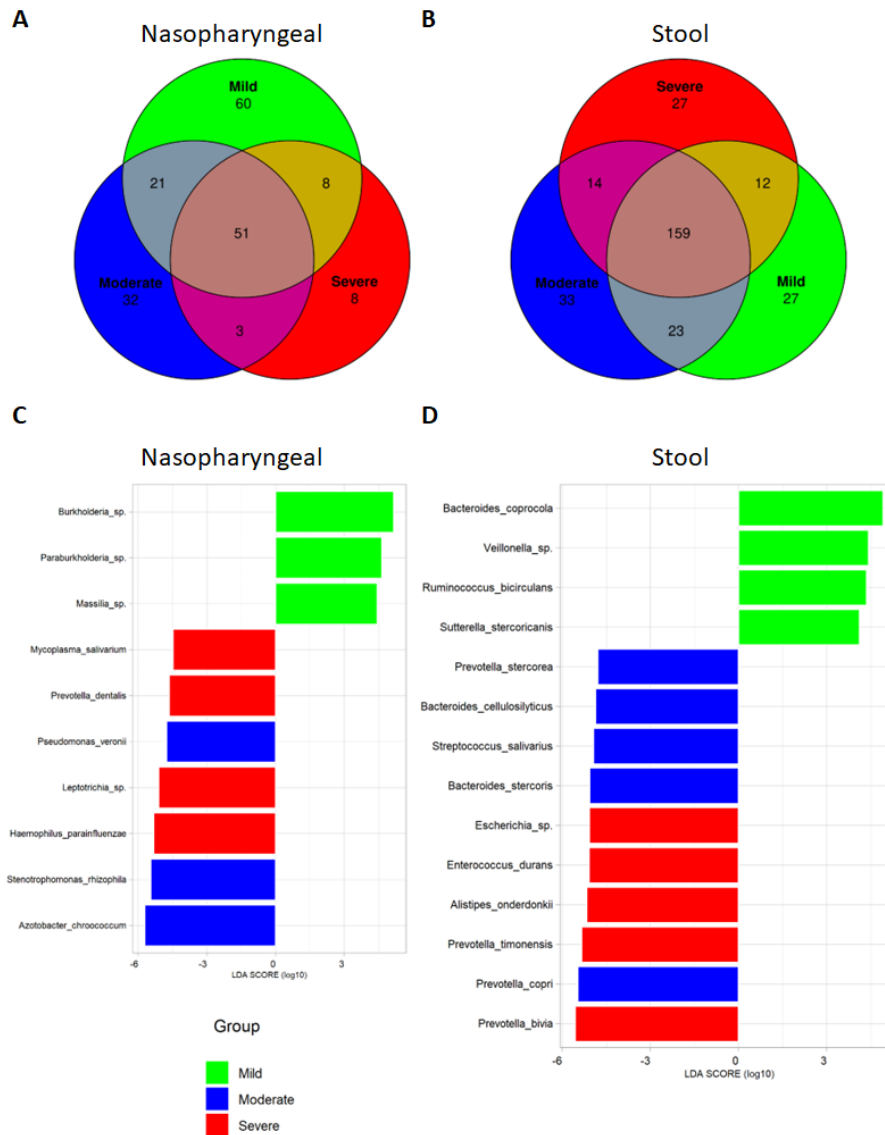
302 moderate symptoms and 8 in patients with severe symptoms. In stool, 159 core taxa

303 were shared by the three groups of patients, being 27 specific for mild patients

304 symptoms, 33 for moderate patients and 27 for severe patients (For more details see

305 **Table S1**).

306



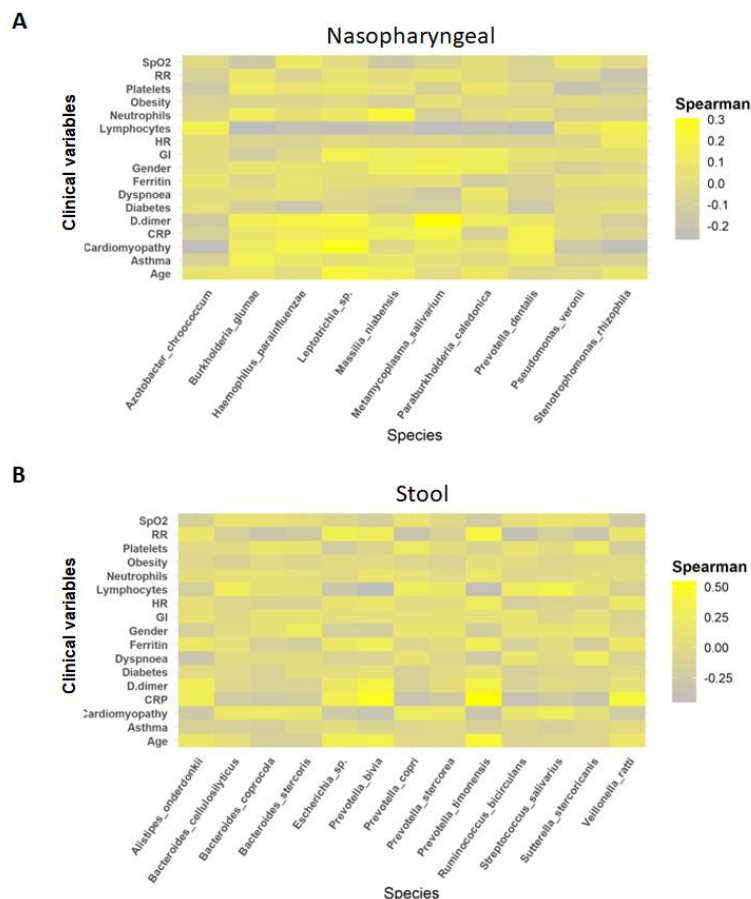
307
 308 **Figure 3. Differential analysis expression of microbiota composition from nasopharyngeal and stool**
 309 **samples revealed the presence of specific bacteria related to COVID-19 severity index. (A)**
 310 **Venn diagram showing ASVs distribution in nasopharyngeal swab samples. (B) Venn diagram showing ASVs**
 311 **distribution in stool samples. (C) LefSe plot of taxonomic biomarkers present in nasopharyngeal swab**
 312 **samples (p value = 0.01 and LDA value = 4). (D) LefSe plot of taxonomic biomarkers present in stool**
 313 **samples (p value = 0.01 and LDA value =4).**
 314

315 Besides, the linear discriminant analysis (LEfSe) was performed to identify differential
 316 microorganisms for each group of patients (**Figure 3C,D**). In nasopharyngeal samples,
 317 *Burkholderia sp.*, *Paraburkholderia sp.* and *Massilia sp.* were identified in mild
 318 patients; *Pseudomonas veronii*, *Stenotrophomonas rhizophila* and *Azotobacter*
 319 *chroococcum* in moderate patients; and *Mycoplasma salivarium*, *Prevotella dentalis*,
 320 *Leptotrichia* and *Haemophilus parainfluenzae* in severe patients. In stool samples,
 321 *Bacteroides coprocola*, *Veillonella sp.*, *Ruminococcus bicirculans* and *Sutterella*
 322 *stercoricanis* were identified as predictors of mild condition; *Prevotella stercorea*,
 323 *Bacteroides cellulosilyticus*, *Streptococcus salivarius*, *Bacteroides stercoris* and

324 *Prevotella copri* as predictors of moderate symptoms; and *Escherichia*, *Enterococcus*
 325 *durans*, *Alistipes onderdonkii*, *Prevotella timonensis* and *Prevotella bivia* as markers of
 326 severe condition.

327

328 To further assess the role of these potential biomarkers in the prediction of COVID-19
 329 severity, a correlation analysis was performed (**Figure 4**). In summary, biomarkers for
 330 mild symptomatology (*B. coprocola*, *R. bicirculans*, *S. stercoricanis* and *Veillonella*
 331 *sp.*) presented a negative correlation profile with the different clinical features or
 332 biochemical parameters evaluated. In contrast, biomarkers associated with severe
 333 symptoms in nasopharyngeal swabs (*M. salivarium* and *Leptotrichia*) showed a positive
 334 correlation with D dimer and cardiomyopathy, respectively. In addition, the other two
 335 biomarkers linked to the highest severity (*H. parainfluenzae* and *P. dentalis*) also
 336 showed a tendency related to CRP, D dimer and cardiomyopathy (**Figure 4A**).
 337 Interestingly, similar results were found in stool samples. Severe biomarkers revealed a
 338 positive correlation towards D dimer and CRP levels, especially *P. bivia* and *P.*
 339 *timonensis*. These two bacteria also presented a positive association with ferritin levels,
 340 age and respiratory rate, and a negative correlation with lymphocyte count (**Figure 4B**).



341

342 **Figure 4. Whereas mild biomarkers showed negative correlations towards clinical variables, severe**
 343 **biomarkers presented positive correlations.** (A) Correlation plot of nasopharyngeal swab biomarkers
 344 and clinical variables. (B) Correlation plot of stool samples biomarkers and clinical variables. RR:
 345 respiratory rate; HR: heart rate; GI: gastrointestinal alterations.

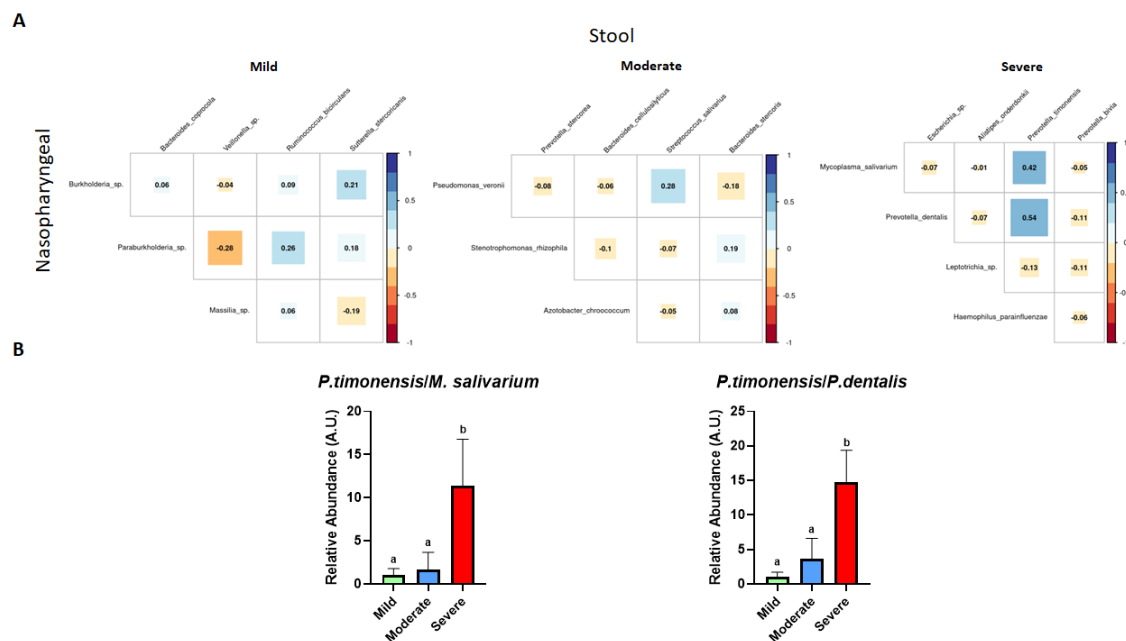
346
 347

348 *Identification of a novel microbiome-based COVID-19 prognosis approach.*

349

350 Considering the LEfSe results, we propose a new approach to predict disease severity in
 351 patients suffering SARS-CoV-2 infection based on establishing a pattern of
 352 nasopharyngeal-gut microbiota. The Spearman's correlation analysis revealed no
 353 important associations between nasopharyngeal and faecal microbiota in mild and
 354 moderate groups (**Figure 5A,B**). However, in patients with severe symptoms the
 355 Spearman's rho coefficient showed a significant positive correlation between *P.*
 356 *timonensis* towards *P. dentalis* and *M. salivarium* (**Figure 5C**). Consequently, the ratio
 357 between the abundance of these bacteria could serve as reliable predictors of severity of
 358 COVID-19. The results revealed a significant increase in the ratios *P. timonensis* / *M.*
 359 *salivarium* and *P. timonensis*/*P. dentalis* in patients with severe symptoms compared to
 360 those with mild or moderate symptoms (**Figure 5D,E**).

361



362

363 **Figure 5. The existence of a relationship between the abundance of nasopharyngeal severe**
 364 **biomarkers and stool severe biomarkers allow the employment of an abundance ratio between**
 365 **them as a new tool for predicting COVID-19 severity.** (A) Correlation plot among biomarkers found in
 366 nasopharyngeal swab and stool samples in each condition (mild, moderate and severe from left to right)
 367 (B) Ratio of the abundance between *P. timonensis* (stool) and *M. salivarium* and *P. dentalis*
 368 (nasopharyngeal swab) biomarkers. Groups with different letters statistically differ ($p < 0.05$).

369

370

371 **DISCUSSION**

372

373 Recent findings have evidenced the prominent role of the microbiome in viral
374 infections, and it can either promote or suppress viral them [25, 26]. In fact, different
375 studies have explored the interplay between the host microbiota and SARS-CoV-2
376 infection [27, 28]. However, few studies have investigated the nasopharyngeal-faecal
377 axis as a potential biomarker of severity in patients infected with SARS-CoV-2. Hence,
378 the present study provides several nasopharyngeal and gut microbiota-based biomarkers
379 that could help to predict COVID-19 severity.

380

381 According to the National Institutes of Health (NIH), COVID-19 severity is classified
382 depending on the associated symptoms [21] that include age, gender, D-dimer levels,
383 dyspnoea and higher SpO₂ score, which are predictors of worse disease progression
384 [29]. The current study confirmed that older age as well as a higher percentage of
385 dyspnoea; increased heart and respiratory rates together with lower oxygen saturation
386 were associated with severe symptoms. In fact, ageing is related to immune response
387 decline as well as higher incidence of systemic, chronic and low-grade inflammation
388 called inflammaging. Gender is also considered a risk factor, as a recent meta-analysis
389 has shown that men tended to have higher risk of developing severe symptoms, being
390 hospitalised, admitted to the intensive care units and die [34] for more severe disease.
391 The results in the present study support these previous studies as it is found that men
392 and women are disproportionately affected since males suffered from more severe
393 disease than females, including higher ICU admission rates, dyspnoea, increased heart
394 rate. Sex disparities in symptoms severity has been attributed to higher rates of
395 hazardous behaviours and existence of comorbidities, such as cardiomyopathy, in males
396 than in females. In fact, the incidence of cardiovascular complications in COVID-19
397 pathology appears to be associated with sex and gender differences, thus contributing to
398 the greater severity and poorer outcomes of the SARS-CoV2-mediated disease in male
399 patients compared to women [35]. This relationship has also been demonstrated in this
400 study since a higher rate of cardiovascular condition is evidenced in male patients as the
401 severity of symptoms increases. In this context, there is few and controversial sex-
402 stratified data investigating the role of cardiovascular complications in the prognosis
403 and outcome of COVID-19 disease in men and women. However, it has been reported

404 that women exhibit higher expression and activation of angiotensin type 2 (AT2)
405 receptors, which have been associated with a more robust anti-inflammatory immune
406 response against SARS-CoV-2 infection and are also involved in the control of blood
407 pressure and renal function, thereby providing protection for cardiovascular
408 complications in female patients [36]. Remarkably, the extent of cardiac cell mortality is
409 more noticeable in males than in females under various conditions [35], and this could
410 be linked to an augmented protection against cardiovascular complications in female
411 patients. Additionally, women produce high levels of regenerative white blood cells and
412 epoxy-eicosatrienoic acids, which display antihypertensive and anti-inflammatory
413 properties on blood vessels [37]. Consequently, this leads to restricted cardiac
414 remodelling and a more effective restoration of functionality [38]. Regarding some
415 biochemical parameters typically described as biomarkers for COVID-19 severity (D-
416 dimer, ferritin and CRP) [39, 40], the findings obtained in this study found that those
417 groups of patients with moderate or severe symptoms showed significantly increased
418 levels of these plasma parameters, which are consistent with previous reports [41-43].

419

420 The association of then microbiota composition with these clinical variables has been
421 widely studied [15] and it is well described that the microbiota can modulate host
422 immunity and physiological functions [47], Consequently, the microbiota could be key
423 in the clinical phenotype of these patients although the specific contribution of the
424 microbiota to the progression of the infection and a poor prognosis is not yet fully
425 understood. This study addresses for the first time the implication of nasopharyngeal
426 and faecal microbiota in the prognosis of COVID-19. Firstly, when the alpha and beta
427 diversity were evaluated, the results revealed only substantial changes in richness and
428 Shannon diversity index in nasopharyngeal microbiome associated with severe
429 symptoms. In this sense, controversial results have been previously reported, and
430 although most of the studies have proposed that SARS-CoV-2 infection is associated
431 with lower microbial diversity in nasopharyngeal samples [14, 48, 49], others did not
432 find differences in alpha diversity composition among groups with different
433 symptomatology [50, 51].

434 Furthermore, in terms of beta diversity, previous studies have reported modifications in
435 the microbiome composition from the respiratory or gastrointestinal tract in COVID-19
436 patients when compared to healthy subjects [19, 52]. In the present study, in both

437 nasopharyngeal swabs and stools, every group of patients presented distinctly
438 differentiated clusters. As previously reported, COVID-19 disease severity is more
439 dependent on the presence or absence of certain bacteria rather than alterations in
440 bacterial diversity and richness [14, 53]. Supporting this, characterization of bacterial
441 microbiota composition at phyla and genera levels for nasopharyngeal and stool
442 samples indicated a more evident association between changes on them and the severity
443 of the disease. Specifically, in nasopharyngeal swabs, the presence of *Bacteroidota* and
444 *Actinobacteriota* has been previously linked to a better prognosis of SARS-CoV-2
445 infection, since these bacteria have been proposed to exert beneficial effects by
446 preventing respiratory diseases, including COVID-19 [54-58]. Moreover, in
447 nasopharyngeal samples, the abundance of *Bacillota* and *Pseudomonadota* was
448 increased in patients with severe symptomatology, thus supporting previous studies in
449 which higher counts of *Bacillota* (*Staphylococcus* sp. and *Streptococcus* sp.) and
450 *Pseudomonadota* (*Pseudomonas* sp.) were associated with moderate and severe
451 symptoms of COVID-19 [59].

452 The evaluation of genera abundance composition showed that *Alistipes* and
453 *Muribaculaceae* were highly abundant in mild patients. While these bacteria have been
454 well characterised in gut microbiota, little information regarding their presence in
455 nasopharyngeal microbiota has been provided up to date. Different experimental studies
456 in mice have suggested their role in viral infections. Thus, *Muribaculaceae* was found
457 in the lung microbiota in SARS-CoV-2 infected mice that were treated with a selective
458 inhibitor of the main protease (M^{Pro}) [60]. In the case of *Alistipes*, in a study conducted
459 in children infected with respiratory syncytial virus (RVS), these bacteria were more
460 abundant in the nasopharyngeal microbiota of non RVS-infected subjects [61]. Overall,
461 these genera could be associated with a protective role against viral infection, and their
462 higher presence in nasopharyngeal samples from mild COVID-19 patients could
463 prevent the progression to severe disease.

464 Interestingly, mild patients have also shown a higher content of *Lactobacillus*, similarly
465 to that reported previously in asymptomatic COVID-19 patients [62]. Of note, it is well
466 described that the microorganisms forming the protective microbiota are fundamentally
467 represented by *Lactobacillus* species. Correspondingly, the use of *Lactobacillus* strains
468 as probiotics for preventing viral infections has been previously explored [63], and
469 hence, its administration in SARS-CoV-2 infection could be considered to avoid
470 complications. The increased presence of other genera, such as *Corynebacterium*,

471 *Acinetobacter*, *Staphylococcus* and *Veillonella*, positively correlated with the severity of
472 SARS-CoV-2 infection. This correlation is supported by previous studies in which these
473 genera were associated with both disease severity and systemic inflammation [14, 64].
474 In addition, higher abundance of *Enterococcus* was observed in severe patients, thus
475 confirming other studies in critically ill patients [65].
476 In contrast to the findings in the nasopharyngeal microbiota, the analysis at phylum
477 level in stool samples did not reveal notable modifications among patient groups.
478 However, in mild ill patients, different genera from *Clostridia* class (*Clostridia*,
479 *Coprococcus*, *Dorea*, *Lachnospiraceae*, *Roseburia* and *Ruminococcus*), *Barnesiella* and
480 *Muribaculaceae* were identified as highly abundant. While the class *Clostridia* was
481 associated with a reduced production of proinflammatory cytokines in COVID-19
482 patients and in those who recovered from the infection [66, 67], *Barnesiella* prevents
483 colonisation by antibiotic-resistant bacteria such as *Enterococcus*, which is involved in
484 bloodstream infection in critically ill COVID-19 patients [68, 69]. Furthermore, studies
485 performed in mice have shown that *Muribaculaceae* abundance is reduced in mice
486 coinfecting with different respiratory viruses, suggesting that it may play a protective
487 role under viral infection [70]. Therefore, it seems that under SARS-CoV-2 infection,
488 the reduction of *Barnesiella*, *Clostridia* and *Muribaculaceae* members were associated
489 with more severe symptoms. Nonetheless, the detected genera for the severe illness
490 group, *Lachnocostrium*, *Anaerococcus* and *Peptoniphilus*, have been recognised as
491 opportunistic pathogens and could contribute to a poor prognosis through inducing gut
492 inflammation [71].
493
494 Regarding these differences, both nasopharyngeal and gut microbiota composition
495 could be used to identify specific bacteria to predict COVID-19 severity. In the present
496 study, unique ASVs for each condition were identified. For nasopharyngeal samples,
497 species belonging to the genus *Lactobacillus* (*L. fermentum* or *L. reuteri*) or *Prevotella*
498 (*P. pallens*, *P. ori* and *P. shahii*) have been identified. The role of *Prevotella sp.* in
499 COVID-19 infection has not been clearly elucidated. Published microbiome analysis
500 have revealed that its abundance was higher in mild patients [72], although others have
501 suggested that it could be a biomarker of critical phenotype in COVID-19 patients [73,
502 74]. In spite of the controversial results, the results obtained in this study would confirm
503 the potential use of this species as a biomarker for mild symptomatology. Interestingly,
504 *Anaerococcus prevotii* was one of the exclusive species found in stools in mild patients.

505 This species has been linked to lower inflammation in COVID-19 patients [75].
506 Conversely, *Coprobacillus cateniformis* was solely found in severe patients, which
507 could be involved in the development of a worse condition in these patients through
508 ACE2 upregulation [18].

509 Even though these bacteria are unique for each group, LEfSe was performed to obtain
510 specific biomarkers [76]. For mild patients, *Burkholderia* and *Paraburkholderia* were
511 identified in nasopharyngeal swabs and *B. coprocola* and *R. bicirculans* in stool
512 samples. Although the information regarding the first two species in humans is limited,
513 a few studies have reported their presence in the commensal human microbiota [77, 78].
514 Contrarily, *B. coprocola* and *R. bicirculans* have been found in both healthy and
515 COVID-19 patients [79] although the abundance of *R. bicirculans* was reduced in
516 infected subjects [80].

517 In patients with moderate symptoms, *P. veronii* was detected in nasopharyngeal samples
518 whereas *P. stercorea*, *B. cellulosilyficus*, *B. stercoris* and *P. copri* were identified in
519 stool samples. In general, these findings agree with previous studies in COVID-19
520 patients [81]. Thus, *Xu et al.* found that infected patients showed higher abundance of *B.*
521 *cellulosilyficus* [82], whereas *B. stercoris* and *P. copri* were associated with ACE2
522 upregulation and increased proinflammatory cytokine production, respectively, in
523 COVID-19 patients [79, 83].

524 In critically ill patients, the biomarkers found for nasopharyngeal microbiota were *M.*
525 *salivarium*, *P. dentalis*, *Leptotrichia* and *H. parainfluenzae*. In stool samples,
526 *Escherichia sp.*, *E. durans*, *P. timonensis* and *P. bivia* were the species recognised as
527 biomarkers. In general, all of them have been observed in the microbiota of SARS-
528 CoV-2 infected patients. Moreover, both *P. bivia* and *P. timonensis* have been defined
529 as unique microorganisms in COVID-19 patients' microbiota [79, 84], whilst *M.*
530 *salivarium*, *H. parainfluenzae* and *E. durans* were related to a higher abundance and
531 poor outcome in these patients [85-87]. Of note, the use of these bacteria as biomarkers
532 of severity in SARS-CoV-2 infection is further supported by the fact that these species
533 exhibited positive correlations with various clinical variables. Specifically, *M.*
534 *salivarium*, *H. parainfluenzae*, *P. dentalis*, *P. bivia* and *P. timonensis* showed positive
535 correlation with ferritin, CRP and D-dimer levels, as well as cardiomyopathy and
536 respiratory rates. Several studies have revealed both the relationship between CRP
537 levels, gut microbiota and COVID-19 severity [88], as well as the positive correlation of
538 specific bacteria with D-dimer, CRP and the levels of pro-inflammatory mediators in

539 plasma [89]. When considering *A. onderdonkii*, it has been reported that this bacteria do
540 not aggravate the symptomatology of the COVID-19 patients due to its anti-
541 inflammatory properties [18]; however, there are conflicting evidences regarding its
542 pathogenicity that indicate that *A. onderdonkii* may have protective effects against some
543 diseases, including liver fibrosis, colitis and cardiovascular disease, as well as in cancer
544 immunotherapy, while it may be *involved* in colorectal cancer development and
545 affective disorders like depression [90]. Moreover, *Alistipes* is a relatively recent
546 subdivision genus of the *Bacteriodota*, which is commonly associated with chronic
547 intestinal inflammation [90]. Therefore, taking into account that *Zuo T et al.* employed a
548 different methodology to analyse microbiota composition from stool samples [18], *A.*
549 *onderdonkii* could be considered as a biomarker of severe condition in SARS-CoV-2
550 infected subjects.

551 Finally, the implication of a connection between faecal and nasopharyngeal microbiota
552 in COVID-19 patients has been previously proposed [91]. In the present study, and to
553 maximise the potential use of these biomarkers, the relationship of specific bacteria
554 from nasopharyngeal and stool samples was analysed. Concretely, a strong positive
555 correlation between *P. timonensis* (stool) towards *P. dentalis* and *M. salivarium*
556 (nasopharyngeal) was found in severe condition. Accordingly, the ratio of the
557 abundance of these species was also significantly increased within the highest severity
558 of this condition. As a result, the ratio proposed in this study could be used as a novel
559 predictor to identify critically ill COVID-19 patients as the ratio *Bacillota* and
560 *Bacteroidetes* has been used as a marker of dysbiosis [92]. In this case, this ratio *P.*
561 *timonensis/P. dentalis* and *M. Salivarium* could be a prognostic tool for severe SARS-
562 CoV-2, and an increase in it could be associated with a higher risk to develop a severe
563 condition.

564

565 **CONCLUSION**

566 This inter-individual variability between the COVID-19 patients could contribute to the
567 different symptomatology observed. This study has identified a correlation between
568 changes in the nasopharyngeal and stool microbiota with COVID-19 severity. A novel
569 biomarker linked to severity of COVID-19 infection has been described based on
570 changes in the abundance of bacterial species in nasopharyngeal and faecal samples.
571 This knowledge can support the design of novel therapeutic strategies to mitigate
572 adverse outcomes. Further investigations are imperative to explore how the association

573 between nasopharyngeal and faecal microbiota can be modulated to uncover its role in
574 enhancing immune health, preventing or treating SARS-CoV-2 infections, and fostering
575 immunity.

576

577 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

578 Benita Martín-Castaño, Margarita Martínez-Zaldívar, Emilio Mota, Fernando Cobo,
579 Concepcion Morales-García, Marta Alvarez-Estevéz, Federico García, Silvia Merlos,
580 Paula García-Flores, Manuel Colmenero-Ruiz, José Hernández-Quero, María Nuñez
581 were involved in the sample collection. Patricia Diez-Echave, Jorge García-García,
582 Alba Rodríguez-Nogales, Maria Elena Rodríguez-Cabezas, Laura Hidalgo-García,
583 Antonio Jesús Ruiz-Malagon, José Alberto Molina-Tijeras, María Jesús Rodríguez-Sojo
584 and Anaïs Redruello were involved in the processing of samples and obtaining results.
585 Rocio Morón and Emilio Fernández-Varón had access to the data and were involved in
586 the conception and data analysis and interpretation. Alba Rodríguez-Nogales, Javier
587 Martín, Maria Elena Rodriguez-Cabezas, Benita Martín-Castaño, Rocio Morón, Jorge
588 García-García, Ángel Carazo and Julio Gálvez had access to the data and were involved
589 in the conception and design of the work, data analysis and interpretation, critical
590 revision of the article and final approval before submission. All authors reviewed the
591 final manuscript and agreed to be account able for all aspects of the work.

592

593 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

594 We acknowledge the collaboration of all the participants who voluntarily and selflessly
595 participated in the study.

596

597 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

598 All authors declare no interest.

599

600 **FUNDING INFORMATION**

601 The research project was supported by Government of Andalusia (Spain) (CV20-
602 99908).

603

604 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

605 Participant data cannot be made publicly available due to the sensitive nature of the
606 personal health data and privacy and confidentiality reasons. However, under certain

607 conditions, these data could be accessible for statistical and scientific research. For
608 further information, please contact the corresponding authors.

609

610

611

612 REFERENCES

613

- 614 1. Geneva: World Health Organization, A.o.h.c.w.i., *WHO COVID-19 Dashboard*.
615 2020.
- 616 2. Harvey, W.T., et al., *SARS-CoV-2 variants, spike mutations and immune escape*.
617 *Nat Rev Microbiol*, 2021. **19**(7): p. 409-424.
- 618 3. Crook, H., et al., *Long covid-mechanisms, risk factors, and management*. *BMJ*,
619 2021. **374**: p. n1648.
- 620 4. Yang, J., et al., *Prevalence of comorbidities and its effects in patients infected*
621 *with SARS-CoV-2: a systematic review and meta-analysis*. *Int J Infect Dis*, 2020.
622 **94**: p. 91-95.
- 623 5. Severe Covid, G.G., et al., *Genomewide Association Study of Severe Covid-19*
624 *with Respiratory Failure*. *N Engl J Med*, 2020. **383**(16): p. 1522-1534.
- 625 6. Bastard, P., et al., *Autoantibodies against type I IFNs in patients with life-*
626 *threatening COVID-19*. *Science*, 2020. **370**(6515).
- 627 7. Zhou, P., et al., *A pneumonia outbreak associated with a new coronavirus of*
628 *probable bat origin*. *Nature*, 2020. **579**(7798): p. 270-273.
- 629 8. Peng, L., et al., *SARS-CoV-2 can be detected in urine, blood, anal swabs, and*
630 *oropharyngeal swabs specimens*. *J Med Virol*, 2020. **92**(9): p. 1676-1680.
- 631 9. Sun, J., et al., *Isolation of infectious SARS-CoV-2 from urine of a COVID-19*
632 *patient*. *Emerg Microbes Infect*, 2020. **9**(1): p. 991-993.
- 633 10. Wang, W., et al., *Detection of SARS-CoV-2 in Different Types of Clinical*
634 *Specimens*. *JAMA*, 2020. **323**(18): p. 1843-1844.
- 635 11. Hao, Z., et al., *Digestive system is a potential route of COVID-19: an analysis of*
636 *single-cell coexpression pattern of key proteins in viral entry process*. *Gut*,
637 2020. **69**(6): p. 1010.
- 638 12. Lamers, M.M., et al., *SARS-CoV-2 productively infects human gut enterocytes*.
639 *Science*, 2020. **369**(6499): p. 50-54.

- 640 13. Zang, R., et al., *TMPRSS2 and TMPRSS4 promote SARS-CoV-2 infection of*
641 *human small intestinal enterocytes*. *Sci Immunol*, 2020. **5**(47).
- 642 14. Candell, S., et al., *The nasopharyngeal microbiome in COVID-19*. *Emerg*
643 *Microbes Infect*, 2023. **12**(1): p. e2165970.
- 644 15. Ancona, G., et al., *Gut and airway microbiota dysbiosis and their role in*
645 *COVID-19 and long-COVID*. *Front Immunol*, 2023. **14**: p. 1080043.
- 646 16. De Bruyn, A., et al., *Secondary infection in COVID-19 critically ill patients: a*
647 *retrospective single-center evaluation*. *BMC Infect Dis*, 2022. **22**(1): p. 207.
- 648 17. Gu, S., et al., *Alterations of the Gut Microbiota in Patients With Coronavirus*
649 *Disease 2019 or H1N1 Influenza*. *Clin Infect Dis*, 2020. **71**(10): p. 2669-2678.
- 650 18. Zuo, T., et al., *Alterations in Gut Microbiota of Patients With COVID-19 During*
651 *Time of Hospitalization*. *Gastroenterology*, 2020. **159**(3): p. 944-955 e8.
- 652 19. Wu, Y., et al., *Altered oral and gut microbiota and its association with SARS-*
653 *CoV-2 viral load in COVID-19 patients during hospitalization*. *NPJ Biofilms*
654 *Microbiomes*, 2021. **7**(1): p. 61.
- 655 20. Cao, J., et al., *Integrated gut virome and bacteriome dynamics in COVID-19*
656 *patients*. *Gut Microbes*, 2021. **13**(1): p. 1-21.
- 657 21. Health., N.I.o., <https://www.covid19treatmentguidelines.nih.gov/>. 2019.
- 658 22. Rodriguez-Nogales, A., et al., *Differential intestinal anti-inflammatory effects of*
659 *Lactobacillus fermentum and Lactobacillus salivarius in DSS mouse colitis:*
660 *impact on microRNAs expression and microbiota composition*. *Mol Nutr Food*
661 *Res*, 2017. **61**(11).
- 662 23. .
- 663 24. ., R.C.T. and *R: A language and environment for statistical*
664 *computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria., 2013.
- 665 25. Guo, X., et al., *Abnormal blood microbiota profiles are associated with*
666 *inflammation and immune restoration in HIV/AIDS individuals*. *mSystems*,
667 2023: p. e0046723.
- 668 26. Mutlu, E.A., et al., *A compositional look at the human gastrointestinal*
669 *microbiome and immune activation parameters in HIV infected subjects*. *PLoS*
670 *Pathog*, 2014. **10**(2): p. e1003829.
- 671 27. Yamamoto, S., et al., *The human microbiome and COVID-19: A systematic*
672 *review*. *PLoS One*, 2021. **16**(6): p. e0253293.

- 673 28. Di Stadio, A., et al., *The Microbiota/Host Immune System Interaction in the*
674 *Nose to Protect from COVID-19*. Life (Basel), 2020. **10**(12).
- 675 29. Zhou, F., et al., *Clinical course and risk factors for mortality of adult inpatients*
676 *with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China: a retrospective cohort study*. Lancet, 2020.
677 **395**(10229): p. 1054-1062.
- 678 30. Mauvais-Jarvis, F., *Aging, Male Sex, Obesity, and Metabolic Inflammation*
679 *Create the Perfect Storm for COVID-19*. Diabetes, 2020. **69**(9): p. 1857-1863.
- 680 31. Aolymat, I., *A Cross-Sectional Study of the Impact of COVID-19 on Domestic*
681 *Violence, Menstruation, Genital Tract Health, and Contraception Use among*
682 *Women in Jordan*. Am J Trop Med Hyg, 2020. **104**(2): p. 519-525.
- 683 32. Morgan, R., et al., *Using gender analysis matrixes to integrate a gender lens*
684 *into infectious diseases outbreaks research*. Health Policy and Planning, 2022.
685 **37**(7): p. 935-941.
- 686 33. Robert, S.A., *Community-level socioeconomic status effects on adult health*.
687 Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 1998. **39**(1): p. 18-37.
- 688 34. Pijls, B.G., et al., *Temporal trends of sex differences for COVID-19 infection,*
689 *hospitalisation, severe disease, intensive care unit (ICU) admission and death: a*
690 *meta-analysis of 229 studies covering over 10M patients*. F1000Res, 2022. **11**:
691 p. 5.
- 692 35. Ritter, O. and G. Kararigas, *Sex-Biased Vulnerability of the Heart to COVID-19*.
693 Mayo Clin Proc, 2020. **95**(11): p. 2332-2335.
- 694 36. Wang, K., M. Gheblawi, and G.Y. Oudit, *Angiotensin Converting Enzyme 2: A*
695 *Double-Edged Sword*. Circulation, 2020. **142**(5): p. 426-428.
- 696 37. Pullen, A.B., et al., *Molecular and Cellular Differences in Cardiac Repair of*
697 *Male and Female Mice*. J Am Heart Assoc, 2020. **9**(8): p. e015672.
- 698 38. Wehbe, Z., et al., *Molecular and Biological Mechanisms Underlying Gender*
699 *Differences in COVID-19 Severity and Mortality*. Front Immunol, 2021. **12**: p.
700 659339.
- 701 39. Kermali, M., et al., *The role of biomarkers in diagnosis of COVID-19 - A*
702 *systematic review*. Life Sci, 2020. **254**: p. 117788.
- 703 40. Ranard, B.L., et al., *Identification of Endotypes of Hospitalized COVID-19*
704 *Patients*. Front Med (Lausanne), 2021. **8**: p. 770343.
- 705 41. Rostami, M. and H. Mansouritorghabeh, *D-dimer level in COVID-19 infection:*
706 *a systematic review*. Expert Rev Hematol, 2020. **13**(11): p. 1265-1275.

- 707 42. Zhou, C., et al., *Increased Serum Levels of Hepcidin and Ferritin Are Associated*
708 *with Severity of COVID-19*. Med Sci Monit, 2020. **26**: p. e926178.
- 709 43. Gomez-Pastora, J., et al., *Hyperferritinemia in critically ill COVID-19 patients -*
710 *Is ferritin the product of inflammation or a pathogenic mediator?* Clin Chim
711 Acta, 2020. **509**: p. 249-251.
- 712 44. Wang, G., et al., *C-Reactive Protein Level May Predict the Risk of COVID-19*
713 *Aggravation*. Open Forum Infect Dis, 2020. **7**(5): p. ofaa153.
- 714 45. Cooper, I.D., et al., *Relationships between hyperinsulinaemia, magnesium,*
715 *vitamin D, thrombosis and COVID-19: rationale for clinical management*. Open
716 Heart, 2020. **7**(2).
- 717 46. Henry, B.M., et al., *Hematologic, biochemical and immune biomarker*
718 *abnormalities associated with severe illness and mortality in coronavirus*
719 *disease 2019 (COVID-19): a meta-analysis*. Clin Chem Lab Med, 2020. **58**(7):
720 p. 1021-1028.
- 721 47. Honda, K. and D.R. Littman, *The microbiota in adaptive immune homeostasis*
722 *and disease*. Nature, 2016. **535**(7610): p. 75-84.
- 723 48. Gupta, A., et al., *Nasopharyngeal microbiome reveals the prevalence of*
724 *opportunistic pathogens in SARS-CoV-2 infected individuals and their*
725 *association with host types*. Microbes Infect, 2022. **24**(1): p. 104880.
- 726 49. Gao, M., et al., *Characterization of the Human Oropharyngeal Microbiomes in*
727 *SARS-CoV-2 Infection and Recovery Patients*. Adv Sci (Weinh), 2021. **8**(20): p.
728 e2102785.
- 729 50. De Maio, F., et al., *Nasopharyngeal Microbiota Profiling of SARS-CoV-2*
730 *Infected Patients*. Biol Proced Online, 2020. **22**: p. 18.
- 731 51. Braun, T., et al., *SARS-CoV-2 does not have a strong effect on the*
732 *nasopharyngeal microbial composition*. Sci Rep, 2021. **11**(1): p. 8922.
- 733 52. Xu, R., et al., *Temporal association between human upper respiratory and gut*
734 *bacterial microbiomes during the course of COVID-19 in adults*. Commun Biol,
735 2021. **4**(1): p. 240.
- 736 53. Wang, M., et al., *The relationship between gut microbiota and COVID-19*
737 *progression: new insights into immunopathogenesis and treatment*. Front
738 Immunol, 2023. **14**: p. 1180336.

- 739 54. Bozkurt, H.S. and O. Bilen, *Oral booster probiotic bifidobacteria in SARS-*
740 *COV-2 patients*. *Int J Immunopathol Pharmacol*, 2021. **35**: p.
741 20587384211059677.
- 742 55. Nardelli, C., et al., *Nasal Microbiome in COVID-19: A Potential Role of*
743 *Corynebacterium in Anosmia*. *Curr Microbiol*, 2022. **80**(1): p. 53.
- 744 56. Wei, N., et al., *Characterization of oral bacterial and fungal microbiome in*
745 *recovered COVID-19 patients*. *BMC Microbiol*, 2023. **23**(1): p. 123.
- 746 57. Bassis, C.M., et al., *The nasal cavity microbiota of healthy adults*. *Microbiome*,
747 2014. **2**: p. 27.
- 748 58. Perez-Losada, M., et al., *Nasal Bacteriomes of Patients with Asthma and*
749 *Allergic Rhinitis Show Unique Composition, Structure, Function and*
750 *Interactions*. *Microorganisms*, 2023. **11**(3).
- 751 59. Garcia-Vidal, C., et al., *Incidence of co-infections and superinfections in*
752 *hospitalized patients with COVID-19: a retrospective cohort study*. *Clin*
753 *Microbiol Infect*, 2021. **27**(1): p. 83-88.
- 754 60. Seibert, B., et al., *Mild and Severe SARS-CoV-2 Infection Induces Respiratory*
755 *and Intestinal Microbiome Changes in the K18-hACE2 Transgenic Mouse*
756 *Model*. *Microbiol Spectr*, 2021. **9**(1): p. e0053621.
- 757 61. Schippa, S., et al., *Nasal Microbiota in RSV Bronchiolitis*. *Microorganisms*,
758 2020. **8**(5).
- 759 62. Kageyama, Y., et al., *Lactobacillus plantarum induces innate cytokine responses*
760 *that potentially provide a protective benefit against COVID-19: A single-arm,*
761 *double-blind, prospective trial combined with an in vitro cytokine response*
762 *assay*. *Exp Ther Med*, 2022. **23**(1): p. 20.
- 763 63. Lopez-Santamarina, A., et al., *Probiotic Effects against Virus Infections: New*
764 *Weapons for an Old War*. *Foods*, 2021. **10**(1).
- 765 64. Ma, S., et al., *Metagenomic analysis reveals oropharyngeal microbiota*
766 *alterations in patients with COVID-19*. *Signal Transduct Target Ther*, 2021.
767 **6**(1): p. 191.
- 768 65. Merenstein, C., et al., *Signatures of COVID-19 Severity and Immune Response*
769 *in the Respiratory Tract Microbiome*. *mBio*, 2021. **12**(4): p. e0177721.
- 770 66. Mizutani, T., et al., *Correlation Analysis between Gut Microbiota Alterations*
771 *and the Cytokine Response in Patients with Coronavirus Disease during*
772 *Hospitalization*. *Microbiol Spectr*, 2022. **10**(2): p. e0168921.

- 773 67. Mankowska-Wierzbicka, D., et al., *Alterations in Gut Microbiota Composition*
774 *in Patients with COVID-19: A Pilot Study of Whole Hypervariable 16S rRNA*
775 *Gene Sequencing*. Biomedicines, 2023. **11**(2).
- 776 68. Ubeda, C., et al., *Intestinal microbiota containing *Barnesiella* species cures*
777 *vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium* colonization*. Infect Immun, 2013.
778 **81**(3): p. 965-73.
- 779 69. Giacobbe, D.R., et al., *Enterococcal bloodstream infections in critically ill*
780 *patients with COVID-19: a case series*. Ann Med, 2021. **53**(1): p. 1779-1786.
- 781 70. Wu, X., et al., *Coinfection with influenza virus and non-typeable *Haemophilus**
782 *influenzae aggregates inflammatory lung injury and alters gut microbiota in*
783 *COPD mice*. Front Microbiol, 2023. **14**: p. 1137369.
- 784 71. Murphy, E.C. and I.M. Frick, *Gram-positive anaerobic cocci--commensals and*
785 *opportunistic pathogens*. FEMS Microbiol Rev, 2013. **37**(4): p. 520-53.
- 786 72. Chen, J., et al., *Comparison of the respiratory tract microbiome in hospitalized*
787 *COVID-19 patients with different disease severity*. J Med Virol, 2022. **94**(11): p.
788 5284-5293.
- 789 73. Haran, J.P., et al., *Inflammation-type dysbiosis of the oral microbiome*
790 *associates with the duration of COVID-19 symptoms and long COVID*. JCI
791 Insight, 2021. **6**(20).
- 792 74. Lu, S., et al., *Metatranscriptomic analysis revealed *Prevotella* as a potential*
793 *biomarker of oropharyngeal microbiomes in SARS-CoV-2 infection*. Front Cell
794 Infect Microbiol, 2023. **13**: p. 1161763.
- 795 75. Seong, H., et al., *Clinical implications of gut microbiota and cytokine responses*
796 *in coronavirus disease prognosis*. Front Immunol, 2023. **14**: p. 1079277.
- 797 76. Segata, N., et al., *Metagenomic biomarker discovery and explanation*. Genome
798 Biol, 2011. **12**(6): p. R60.
- 799 77. Ning, Y., et al., *Comparative analysis of the gut microbiota composition*
800 *between knee osteoarthritis and Kashin-Beck disease in Northwest China*.
801 Arthritis Res Ther, 2022. **24**(1): p. 129.
- 802 78. Mengyi, Z., et al., *Plasma metagenomics reveals regional variations of*
803 *emerging and re-emerging pathogens in Chinese blood donors with an emphasis*
804 *on human parvovirus B19*. One Health, 2023. **17**: p. 100602.

- 805 79. Li, S., et al., *Microbiome Profiling Using Shotgun Metagenomic Sequencing*
806 *Identified Unique Microorganisms in COVID-19 Patients With Altered Gut*
807 *Microbiota*. *Front Microbiol*, 2021. **12**: p. 712081.
- 808 80. Liu, Q., et al., *Gut microbiota dynamics in a prospective cohort of patients with*
809 *post-acute COVID-19 syndrome*. *Gut*, 2022. **71**(3): p. 544-552.
- 810 81. de Nies, L., et al., *Altered infective competence of the human gut microbiome in*
811 *COVID-19*. *Microbiome*, 2023. **11**(1): p. 46.
- 812 82. Xu, X., et al., *Integrated analysis of gut microbiome and host immune responses*
813 *in COVID-19*. *Front Med*, 2022. **16**(2): p. 263-275.
- 814 83. Lymberopoulos, E., et al., *COVID-19 severity is associated with population-*
815 *level gut microbiome variations*. *Front Cell Infect Microbiol*, 2022. **12**: p.
816 963338.
- 817 84. Thissen, J.B., et al., *Evaluation of co-circulating pathogens and microbiome*
818 *from COVID-19 infections*. *PLoS One*, 2022. **17**(12): p. e0278543.
- 819 85. Sulaiman, I., et al., *Microbial signatures in the lower airways of mechanically*
820 *ventilated COVID-19 patients associated with poor clinical outcome*. *Nat*
821 *Microbiol*, 2021. **6**(10): p. 1245-1258.
- 822 86. DeVoe, C., et al., *Increased rates of secondary bacterial infections, including*
823 *Enterococcus bacteremia, in patients hospitalized with coronavirus disease*
824 *2019 (COVID-19)*. *Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol*, 2022. **43**(10): p. 1416-1423.
- 825 87. Devi, P., et al., *Longitudinal study across SARS-CoV-2 variants identifies*
826 *transcriptionally active microbes (TAMs) associated with Delta severity*.
827 *iScience*, 2023. **26**(10): p. 107779.
- 828 88. Moreira-Rosario, A., et al., *Gut Microbiota Diversity and C-Reactive Protein*
829 *Are Predictors of Disease Severity in COVID-19 Patients*. *Front Microbiol*,
830 2021. **12**: p. 705020.
- 831 89. Zhou, Y., et al., *Gut Microbiota Dysbiosis Correlates with Abnormal Immune*
832 *Response in Moderate COVID-19 Patients with Fever*. *J Inflamm Res*, 2021. **14**:
833 p. 2619-2631.
- 834 90. Parker, B.J., et al., *The Genus Alistipes: Gut Bacteria With Emerging*
835 *Implications to Inflammation, Cancer, and Mental Health*. *Front Immunol*,
836 2020. **11**: p. 906.
- 837 91. Li, J., et al., *Assessment of microbiota in the gut and upper respiratory tract*
838 *associated with SARS-CoV-2 infection*. *Microbiome*, 2023. **11**(1): p. 38.

- 839 92. Ley, R.E., et al., *Microbial ecology: human gut microbes associated with*
840 *obesity*. Nature, 2006. **444**(7122): p. 1022-3.
841