



A Computational Approach for Identification of Salivary Biomarkers

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Abstract. A transparent, readily accessible bodily fluid, saliva is essential for maintaining oral health. Numerous biological substances that are useful for illness detection are also present. Saliva has drawn interest recently as a non-invasive, reasonably priced method of diagnosing a range of illnesses. The kinds of chemicals found in saliva that can function as biomarkers are described in this overview, including proteins, Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), Ribonucleic acid (RNA), and metabolites. Diabetes, heart disease, and oral cancer can all be detected and tracked with the use of these biomarkers. Saliva collection is easy, safe, and painless, which makes it perfect for routine medical examinations. The difficulties in using saliva for diagnosis are also covered in this research, including sample storage and guaranteeing reliable results. In spite of these obstacles, continuous saliva-based testing is getting better because of continued research, despite these obstacles. Saliva biomarkers have the potential to be a standard component of medical diagnostics in the future, particularly for early illness identification.

Keywords: Saliva, Biomarkers, Non-invasive diagnosis, Salivary diagnostics, Oral health, Disease detection, Point-of-care testing.

1 Introduction

Biomarkers are overview indicators that reflect biological conditions, disease progression, or response to therapy. In contemporary healthcare, they are essential instruments for prognosis, early diagnosis, therapeutic response monitoring, and treatment strategy customization [1][2][3][4]. Biomarkers in oncology help direct clinical judgement and better the effectiveness of clinical trials and medication expansion [2][4]. Each of the biomarkers in their classification are diagnostic, prognostic, predictive, and pharmacodynamics has a unique function in increase patient care [3].

Today's research work enables the use of saliva as a diagnostic fluid with great potential, despite the traditional accepted biomarker research requiring invasive fluid collection, including blood or tissue biopsies. This is because saliva offers a non-invasive, readily available, and reasonably cost-effective method to identify molecular expression indicative of diseases, particularly systemic and oral cancers [5][6][7]. The fluid contains proteins, metabolites, Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), and Ribonucleic acid (RNA), which provide information about systemic conditions and support real-time observation of diseases [5][6]. Moreover, shifts in the composition of the human

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mouth's microbial flora have been associated with both oral cancers and systemic cancers such as pancreatic cancer, implying that it is feasible to use saliva to identify cancers that are not located in the mouth [8]. The capability to use saliva to transmit gene expression information indicative of both systemic and focal diseases further accentuates the significance and utility of saliva. For instance, it has been shown to be related with the upregulation of key genes and specific expression patterns for both head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC) [7], oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) [6], and potential pancreatic carcinogenesis [8].

Galaxy and other bioinformatics platforms are becoming essential for analyzing such intricate transcriptome data. From preprocessing raw data to visualizing and analyzing differential gene expression, Galaxy enables researchers to carry out end-to-end Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) workflows [9][10][11]. Because of its accessibility and reproducibility, more people without extensive programming knowledge can participate in genomics research [10]. In order to find identical salivary biomarkers—genes that are consistently differentially expressed across disease types—we processed Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) data from the saliva samples of cancer patients, patients with chronic diseases, and healthy controls using Galaxy.

Finding these uniformly expressed salivary biomarkers is the primary goal of this research in order to support the non-invasive identification, categorization, and surveillance of malignancies and chronic illnesses. Such biomarkers could transform screening procedures and facilitate individualized treatment planning, which is crucial given the rising prevalence of cancer and the need for early detection measures [12][13]. Additionally, pan-cancer investigations have shown that many malignancies, including lung, liver, breast, and cervical cancer, share gene expression profiles [14][15], highlighting the possibility of finding biomarkers that are not specific to any one form of cancer.

In conclusion, a potent and non-invasive method for locating universal biomarkers across a variety of medical states is the combination of salivary transcriptomic and bioinformatics. We have shown a repeatable and user-friendly method for analyzing Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) data from saliva using the Galaxy platform, which has allowed us to identify genes that are consistently expressed differently in cancer, chronic illness, and healthy people [9][10][11]. Saliva's molecular diversity and capacity to represent both local and systemic health conditions, in addition to its affordability and ease of use, make it a promising diagnostic fluid [5][6][7][8]. The discovery of these salivary biomarkers presents a viable avenue for illness classification, early detection, and monitoring across a variety of disorders. This study emphasizes the importance of a scalable, patient-friendly, and precision-focused diagnostic methodology that supports the objectives of personalized medicine and has a wider public health impact as transcriptome findings are progressively incorporated into clinical practice [4][12][13][14][15]. To fully understand the therapeutic application of these findings, more study and validation in bigger cohorts will be essential.

2 Materials

A bioinformatics pipeline was established using the **Galaxy platform** to identify potential salivary biomarkers associated with disease states. Salivary Ribonucleic acid se-

quencing (RNA-Seq) datasets were retrieved from the **NCBI (National Centre of Biotechnology Information) Sequence Read Archive (SRA)** under accession number **SRP493350** as shown in table I which includes samples from cancer patients, chronic disease patients, and healthy controls.

Table 1: Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) Sample Accession Numbers Grouped by Patient Category (Cancer, Control, and Chronic)

Patients	Cancer	Control	Chronic
		1	SRR32675112SRR32675086SRR32675109
	2		SRR32675111SRR32675085SRR32675108
	3	SRR32675100	SRR32675084 SRR32675107
	4	SRR32675089	SRR32675083 SRR32675106
	5	SRR32675078	SRR32675082 SRR32675105
6		SRR32675067	SRR32675081 SRR32675104
7		SRR32675063	SRR32675080 SRR32675103
	8	SRR32675062	SRR32675079 SRR32675102
	9	SRR32675061	SRR32675077 SRR32675101
	10	SRR32675060	SRR32675076 SRR32675099

3 Methodology

The bioinformatics workflow used for saliva Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) data analysis (Figure 1) includes data retrieval, quality control, adapter trimming, mapping, feature counting, and downstream analysis.

3.1 Data Retrieval and uploading

Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) data for this study were obtained from the **NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA)**. FASTQ files corresponding to saliva samples from **cancer patients, individuals with chronic diseases, and healthy controls** were downloaded using unique SRA accession numbers. These raw sequencing files, containing nucleotide sequences and quality scores, were uploaded to the **Galaxy platform** using the Upload Data tool. Centralizing the data within Galaxy enabled standardized quality control, read processing, and downstream transcriptome analysis for biomarker discovery in a reproducible workflow.

3.2 Quality Control

FastQC was used to assess the quality of raw paired-end Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) data obtained from NCBI SRA. Quality checks were performed separately for forward and reverse reads, evaluating key metrics such as per-base sequence quality, GC content, sequence length distribution, and adapter contamination. The reports helped identify low-quality regions and the need for adapter trimming, ensuring that only high-quality data were used. This quality control step improved the reliability and reproducibility of subsequent transcriptome analyses.

3.3 Adapter Trimming

Trimmomatic was used to preprocess paired-end reads by removing adapter/primer sequences and trimming low-quality bases while preserving read pairing integrity. The 16S rRNA primer sequences—**16S-forward** (CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG) and **16S-reverse** (GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC) [16] were specifically trimmed. Reads shorter than **36 bp** and bases with quality scores below **Q20** were discarded. This cleaning step produced high-quality, uniform FASTQ files across control, cancer, and chronic samples, enabling accurate downstream alignment and transcriptome analysis.

3.4 Mapping with Reference Genome

As shown in figure 1, The quality-filtered paired-end FASTQ files were aligned to the human reference genome **hg38 (GRCh38)** using **Bowtie2** to determine the genomic origin of each read. Alignment was performed in paired-end mode to maintain read pairing and improve mapping accuracy. The use of the updated hg38 genome enabled comprehensive mapping of both coding and non-coding regions. The alignment process generated **BAM files**, which were used for downstream transcript quantification and differential gene expression analysis across cancer, chronic, and control saliva samples.

3.5 Feature Counts

After generating the gene count matrix using FeatureCounts, low-expression genes (counts < 5) were filtered out to reduce noise. Remaining genes were annotated using GeneCards, enabling identification of disease-specific salivary biomarkers across cancer, chronic, and control groups as shown in figure 1.

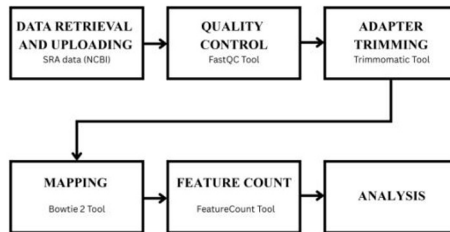


Fig.1. Workflow of Salivary RNA-Seq Data Analysis for Biomarker Identification

Shows the RNA-Seq analysis workflow used in this study. Salivary RNA-Seq data were obtained from the NCBI SRA database, quality-checked using FastQC, trimmed with Trimmomatic, aligned to the human reference genome using Bowtie2, and quantified with FeatureCounts to identify differentially expressed salivary biomarkers.

4 Results

4.1 Post-Trimming Quality Assessment Using FastQC

After applying Trimmomatic for adapter removal and quality trimming, all Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) samples underwent quality assessment using **FastQC** to evaluate the efficiency of preprocessing and ensure suitability for downstream analysis. The results demonstrated consistently high-quality reads across all three patient groups: cancer, control, and chronic.

4.1.1 Cancer Patient Samples

There were 13.8 million reads in all, with a GC content of 43.0% and a duplication level of 26.5% in the forward reads. The reverse reads had 7.5 million sequences, a greater GC content of 52.0%, and a lower duplication rate of 19.2%. The majority of bases received Phred values above 30 at every position, indicating great sequencing accuracy, according to the mean quality score plot. At the highest quality range, the per-sequence quality scores maximized, indicating few sequencing errors. After trimming, the read length was uniform, as evidenced by the sharp peak at 150 bp in the sequence length distribution graph (figure 2). The bimodal pattern in the GC content distribution was probably caused by a combination of transcriptomic and genomic content. As seen in figure 2, the sequence duplication plot verified a modest proportion of duplicated sequences, which is typical of Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) data including high expression genes.

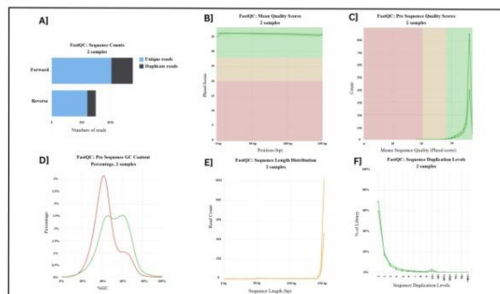


Fig. 2. Quality Control Metrics of Cancer RNA-Seq Samples

Quality control metrics of forward and reverse Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) reads. The sequence count analysis (A) shows the total number of reads along with unique and duplicated reads for each sample. Mean Phred quality scores across read positions (B) remain consistently above 30, indicating high sequencing quality. The per-sequence quality score distribution (C) confirms that most reads exhibit high base-calling accuracy. GC content distribution (D) reveals differences in nucleotide composition between the forward and reverse samples. Sequence length distribution (E) demonstrates uniform read lengths of approximately 150 bp, characteristic of Illumina sequencing. Sequence duplication levels (F) indicate higher duplication in the forward sample compared to the reverse sample.

4.1.2 ControlPatientSamples

Both forward and reverse readings displayed comparable quality attributes in control samples as shown in figure 3. The reverse reads had a significantly higher number of reads (16.0 million), 34.9% duplication, and 49.0% GC than the forward reads, which had 7.5 million sequences and 34.7% duplication. With Phred scores mostly above 30, the mean and per-sequence quality score graphs once more verified consistently high-quality data. Effective trimming was confirmed by the clear focus of the sequence length distribution at 150 bp. Around 50% of the GC content was more central, suggesting balanced nucleotide representation. As seen in figure 3, the over-representation of housekeeping or stable genes in healthy controls may have contributed to the slightly greater duplication levels compared to cancer samples.

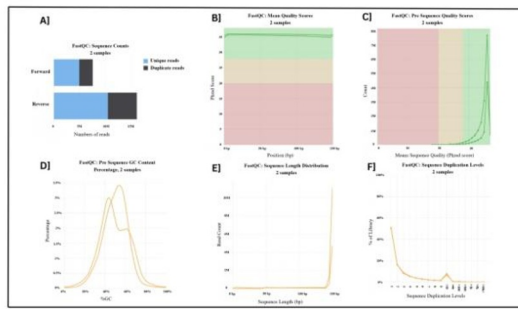


Fig. 3. Quality Control Metrics of Control RNA-Seq Samples

Quality control metrics of forward and reverse sequencing reads. Sequence counts (A) indicate total reads and duplication levels, with both samples showing relatively high duplication. Mean quality scores across read positions (B) and per-sequence quality scores (C) demonstrate consistently high sequencing accuracy. GC content distribution (D) is similar between samples, suggesting no strong GC bias. Sequence length distribution (E) shows uniform read lengths (~150 bp), and duplication analysis (F) highlights substantial duplication in both forward and reverse samples.

4.1.3 Chronic Patient Samples

Reverse reads showed 22.5% duplication, 45.0% GC content, and 18.0 million reads, whereas forward reads showed 20.6% duplication, 48.0% GC content, and 12.7 million sequences for chronic patient samples. Phred scores well within the green zone in every position, according to the quality score graphs, which stayed consistent with those of the other groups. Similar to previous groups, the length distribution displayed a clear peak at 150 bp, and the GC content plot exhibited expected fluctuation in transcriptome-derived samples. Out of the three groups, sequenced duplication levels were the lowest, indicating a more varied transcriptome profile (see figure 4).

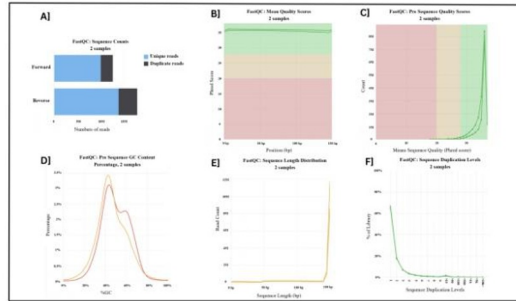


Fig. 4. Quality Control Metrics of Chronic RNA-Seq Samples

Quality control metrics for forward and reverse sequencing reads. Sequence counts (A) show total reads and moderate duplication levels. Mean quality scores across read positions (B) and per-sequence quality scores (C) indicate consistently high sequencing quality. GC content distribution (D) shows similar, unbiased nucleotide composition. Sequence length distribution (E) reveals uniform read lengths (~150 bp), and duplication analysis (F) confirms acceptable library complexity.

4.2 Mapping and Alignment Efficiency with Bowtie2

Following quality trimming, Bowtie2 was used to match the cleaned paired-end reads from the cancer, control, and chronic saliva samples to the human reference genome (hg38). With alignment percentages typically falling between 1.6% and 2.5%, the total alignment efficiency was comparatively low across all sample groups, as shown in figure 5. The majority of alignment rates for cancer patient samples were between 2.0 and 2.3%; the lowest alignment rates, 1.9%, were found for SRR32675089 and SRR32675100. With rates ranging from 1.6% to 2.5%, control patient samples showed somewhat greater range; SRR32675080 had the highest rate at 2.5%, while SRR32675082 and SRR32675084 had the lowest. Similar trends were observed in chronic patient samples, with alignment efficiencies ranging from 1.8% to 2.4%. Figure 5 illustrates that SRR32675106 had the highest alignment at 2.4%, whereas SRR32675101 and SRR32675105 mapped the least successfully.

Reads were categorized using the Bowtie2 PE Alignment Scores, which were displayed as horizontal bar graphs in figure 5, according to how each pair of reads matched with the genome. A considerable number of read pairs did not align to the reference, as evidenced by the fact that the biggest percentage of aligned reads across all samples fell into the "PE neither mate aligned" category (red bars). "PE one mate aligned" or "PE one mate multimapped" (yellow and orange bars) represented a smaller but significant number of reads, indicating partial alignment or mapping to several genomic sites. Only a small percentage of the dataset obtained high-confidence, concordant alignments, as evidenced by the extremely small number of reads classified as "PE mapped discordantly uniquely" or "PE mapped uniquely."

These findings point to possible issues that could explain the low alignment rates, as discussed in figure 5, such as non-human contamination, a high microbial presence in saliva, or a lack of representation of salivary RNA sequences in the reference genome. Despite these drawbacks, the pipeline was designed to handle low-input Ribo-

nucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) data, such as saliva, which is frequently found in non-invasive sampling, thus the alignedreads were stillenoughtomoveonwithfeature-countingand differential expression analysis, as shown in figure 5.

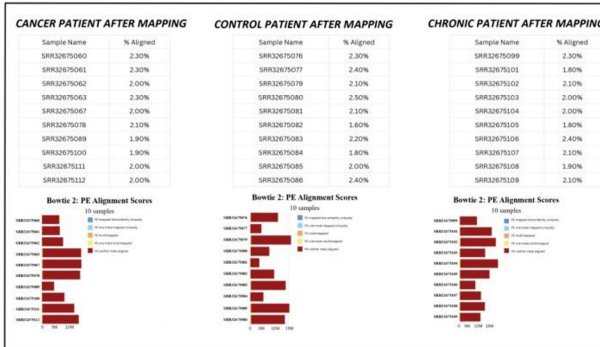


Fig. 5. Bowtie2 Mapping Statistics Across Patient Groups

Bowtie2 alignment summary of salivary Ribonucleic acid sequencing (RNA-Seq) data across cancer, control, and chronic patient groups. Alignment rates per sample ranged from 1.6% to 2.5%, reflecting the presence of microbial or non-human Ribonucleic acid (RNA). PE alignment score plots show most reads as “neither mate aligned,” with smaller fractions uniquely, partially, or multimapped, providing an overview of mapping efficiency.

4.3 Feature Counts Assignment Across Patient Groups

The feature Counts assignment findings for three patient group—cancer, control, and chronic—each with ten samples are shown in the figure 6. The information displays how sequencing reads are distributed across many categories, including assigned reads, unmapped reads, and other classes of unassigned reads (caused by ambiguity, chimaeras, poor mapping quality, or lack of features). The highest variability was seen in cancer samples, such as SRR32675089, which had a relatively low percentage of assigned reads and a sizable number that fell into unassigned categories, mostly as a result of poor mapping quality or missing annotation features.

This raises the possibility of problems with biological heterogeneity, sequencing quality, or Ribonucleic acid (RNA) integrity. With a greater percentage of reads successfully assigned to features and fewer reads lost to assignment, control samples showed more consistent alignment performance in contrast, suggesting better annotation and sequencing quality. With samples like SRR32675099, SRR32675102, and SRR32675104 reaching up to 20 million assigned reads and few unassigned categories, the chronic patient group demonstrated the best outcomes, demonstrating good sequencing quality, effective mapping, and a well-represented transcriptome. As illustrated in figure 6, these patterns simply that chronic samples are the most dependable for downstream analysis, but cancer samples might need more quality control or other processing techniques because of their lower assignment efficiency.

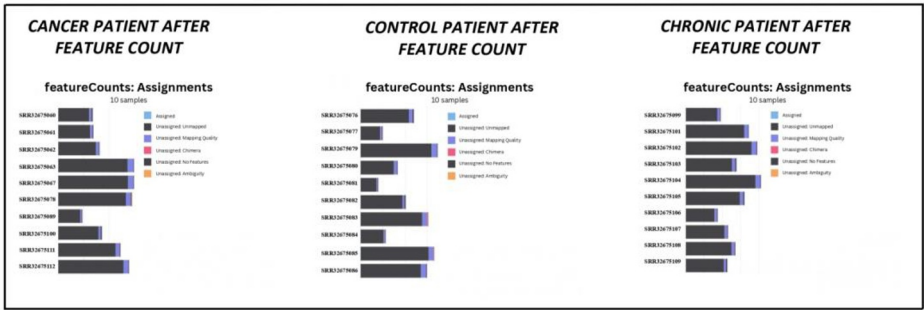


Fig. 6. Comparison of Read Assignment in Cancer, Control, and Chronic Samples

Comparison of assigned read counts across cancer, control, and chronic patient groups. Chronic samples show the highest proportion of assigned reads, indicating effective gene annotation. Control samples display intermediate assignment levels, while cancer samples exhibit greater variability and lower read assignment.

4.4 Analysis and interpretation of Biomarkers in Cancer, Control, and Chronic Groups

Finding and comparing gene expression biomarkers for cancer, control, and chronic illnesses was the goal of this work. Gene IDs with the greatest expression and those that were expressed only in each condition were highlighted after expression levels for each group were examined.

With a score of 9, the gene **ENSG00000241743.5 (X Active Particular Transcript)** displayed the greatest level of expression in the cancer group, suggesting a strong correlation with pathways particular to cancer (see figure 7). This transcript is known to play a role in the control of X-chromosome genes, and through epigenetic dysregulation, its abnormal expression may aid in the development of tumors. Another distinct gene that was only discovered in the cancer group was **ENSG000004399.13 (Plectin D1)**, a structural protein that is essential for preserving cytoskeletal integrity and may be involved in the invasion and motility of cancer cells.

In the control group, expression levels remained rather steady across all genes. With a score of 6, the gene **ENSG00000281344.1 (HELPAssociated Long Non-Coding RNA)** displayed the highest expression, indicating a possible function in preserving regular cellular homeostasis. As shown in figure 7, **ENSG00000269281.2 (KCNQ1 Opposite Strand Transcript 1)**, a unique gene in the control group, is engaged in ion transport regulation and may be crucial for non-pathological cellular function.

With a score of 6, **ENSG00000241743.5 (X Active Specific Transcript)** once again had the highest expression in the group with chronic conditions, confirming its involvement in both cancer and chronic pathological states. **ENSG00000168418.5 (Lysine Methyltransferase 2D)**, a chromatin modifier involved in transcription control, was a gene that was only found in the chronic group. This finding suggests that epigenetic mechanisms are responsible for the advancement of chronic disease.

4.4.1 CommonBiomarkerAcrossAllConditions

As shown in Figure 7, **ENSG00000241743.5 (XACT)** is consistently expressed in cancer, control, and chronic disease samples. XACT is a long non-coding RNA that regulates X-chromosome gene expression by coating the **active X chromosome** and counteracting **XIST-mediated X-chromosome inactivation**. This role is crucial during early embryonic development, where XACT maintains proper gene dosage and supports pluripotency. Aberrant or overexpression of XACT has been reported in female-biased cancers, potentially causing abnormal X-linked gene dosage and promoting tumorigenesis. Due to its regulatory and scaffolding functions in chromatin modulation, XACT represents a potential **biomarker and therapeutic target** in cancer and developmental disorders.

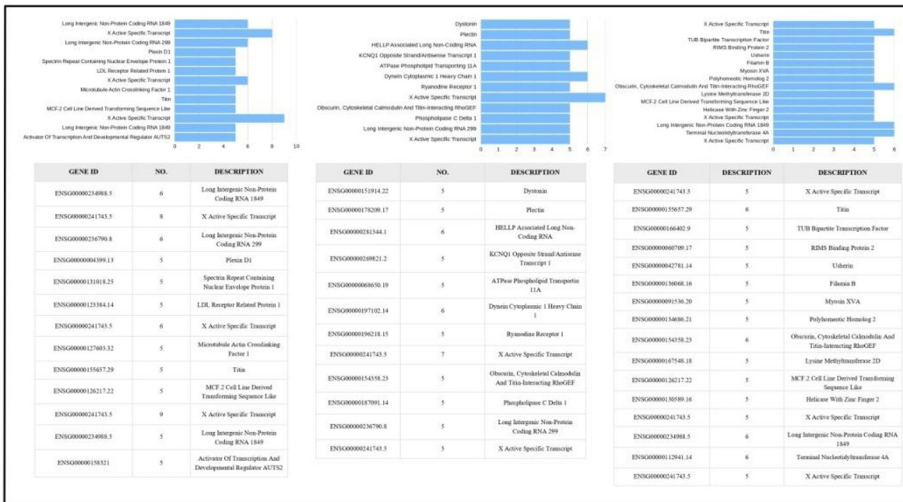


Fig. 7. Expression Analysis of Key Biomarker Genes in Saliva Samples

Gene expression profiles in saliva samples from cancer, control, and chronic patients. Line graphs show relative expression patterns of selected genes, with elevated levels in cancer samples (e.g., A-Kinase Specific Transcript 1, long intergenic non-coding RNAs) and sharp peaks in chronic samples (e.g., Phospholipase C Beta 1, Myeloid-Associated Differentiation Marker). Tables provide gene IDs, counts, and descriptions for biological context.

5 Discussion

Potential universal salivary biomarkers across cancer, chronic, and control groups were identified using the Galaxy platform integrating transcriptomics and bioinformatics pipelines [9][10][11]. **ENSG00000241743.5 (X Active Specific Transcript, XACT)** showed consistently high expression across all conditions, with notable increases in cancer and chronic disease samples, supporting its role as a primary diagnostic biomarker [1][2][3][4]. As a long non-coding RNA regulating X chromosome

activity via interaction with XIST [13][14], XACT is central to epigenetic control and disease progression. Its dysregulation in tumors may alter developmental programs, contributing to malignant growth [2][14][15].

Besides XACT, condition-specific biomarkers were found in cancer samples, such as **ENSG000004399.13 (Plectin D1)**, which is linked to cytoskeletal remodeling and cellular invasiveness, two important aspects of tumor growth [4][12][15]. A lncRNA associated with stable gene regulation, **ENSG00000269281.2 (KCNQ1OT1)**, was specifically expressed in the control group, indicating its connection to cellular homeostasis [1][5]. A gene involved in chromatin modification and epigenetic memory, **ENSG00000168418.5 (Lysine Methyltransferase 2D)** stood out in the chronic disease group. This gene indicates sustained regulatory alteration that are frequently present in chronic inflammatory or degenerative conditions [2][14]. Saliva's molecular richness and diagnostic potential beyond oral pathology are highlighted by the variety of these indicators [5][6][7].

Despite the encouraging results, some technical issues surfaced, such as low alignment rates (~1.6–2.5%) when mapping human genome reads to salivary reads. The fact that salivary Ribonucleic acid (RNA) is diverse and contains both microbial and degraded host transcripts is probably the cause of this [6][9][11]. However, enough gene-level mapping was accomplished to allow for reliable investigation of differential expression [9][10]. Additionally, samples from chronic patients had the highest assignment efficiency, indicating that these datasets had higher Ribonucleic acid (RNA) integrity and representativeness.

All of the findings support the viability of employing saliva as a transcript-rich, non-invasive bio specimen for gene expression profiling [5][6][7][8]. The discovered biomarkers serve as a basis for the creation of quick, point-of-care diagnostic instruments in addition to providing molecular signatures of disease states [4][7]. These results provide a new avenue for precision diagnostics, particularly in the use of straightforward and scalable sample techniques for the early identification and tracking of systemic disorders [3][4][8][23].

6 Future Scopes

The recent findings pave the way for a number of future studies, with a particular emphasis on establishing diagnostic sensitivity and specificity through experimental validation of biomarkers such as XACT in larger, diverse cohorts. By providing accurate transcript quantification in saliva, integrating these biomarkers with qRT-PCR or digital PCR systems may hasten clinical translation. Furthermore, integrating multi-omic techniques—combining transcriptomic with metabolomics, salivary proteomics, and microbiome profiling—could improve the precision and depth of disease categorization, especially when it comes to distinguishing between early-stage malignancies and chronic inflammation. Using the non-invasive and repeatable nature of saliva sample, longitudinal monitoring of these biomarkers throughout therapy may provide insightful information about therapeutic response, remission, and recurrence. Additionally, by applying machine learning models to transcriptome data, it is possible to stratify patients according to the risk or development of their disease

and find new biomarker signatures. The creation of point-of-care salivary diagnostic kits that are affordable, minimally intrusive, and appropriate for general use—including in environments with low resources—may ultimately result from these developments. All of this research points to a revolutionary change in customized healthcare and precision diagnostics.

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