Bdellovibrio and Like Organisms are Predictors of Microbiome Diversity in distinct Host Groups

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28 Abstract

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Biodiversity is generally believed to be a main determinant of ecosystem functioning. 30 This principle also applies to the microbiome and could consequently contribute to host 31 health. According to ecological theory, communities are shaped by top predators 32 whose direct and indirect interactions with community members cause stability and 33 diversity. *Bdellovibrio* and like organisms (BALOs) are a neglected group of predatory 34 bacteria that feed on Gram-negative bacteria and can thereby influence microbiome 35 composition. We asked whether BALOs can predict biodiversity levels in microbiomes 36 from distinct host groups and environments. We demonstrate that genetic signatures 37 of BALOs are commonly found within the 16S rRNA reads from diverse host taxa. In 38 many cases, their presence, abundance, and especially richness are positively 39 40 correlated with overall microbiome diversity. Our findings suggest that BALOs can act as drivers of microbial alpha-diversity and should therefore be considered as 41 candidates for the restoration of microbiomes and the prevention of dysbiosis. 42

Biodiversity is a key attribute of productive [1] and stable ecosystems [2]. This is likely 43 due to the activity of highly productive keystone species [3], which are often more 44 common in species-rich communities [1]. Nevertheless, productivity and stability 45 appear to be mainly driven by diversity itself and not by individual taxa [4]. Species-46 rich communities exist for example in the human gut and oral microbiome and are 47 usually assumed to consist of functionally redundant species that act as insurance in 48 case of extinctions [5, 6]. Consequently, species-rich communities are more resilient 49 (cf. [7]). To date, most studies on the effect of biodiversity on ecosystem functioning 50 and specifically the effect of microbiome composition on host health have focused on 51 a single trophic level. Yet, changes in the diversity of one trophic level can affect other 52 trophic levels, either directly through consumer-resource interactions or indirectly when 53 the decrease of one species leads to abundance changes of other species [8]. The 54 presence of top predators has particularly strong effects because they can limit 55 dominant species abundance and thereby free niches for rare taxa [9-11]. The impact 56 of predators is likely distinct from environmental stressors, which may similarly free 57 58 niches and subsequently increase microbiome diversity, as recently documented for the microbiome of *Daphnia* waterfleas after antibiotic exposure [12]. Yet, in this case, 59 the effect on community composition is likely to be random, whereas predators usually 60 target the dominant species. 61

Bdellovibrio and like organisms (BALOs) are obligate predators of Gram-negative 62 bacteria in a wide range of habitats [13, 14]. BALOs were recently linked to a healthy 63 64 human gut microbiome [15], and proposed as living antibiotics in medical treatment [16] and water remediation [17]. Additionally, a microcosm experiment showed that 65 their predatory activity can exceed phage-induced mortality [18]. We here draw 66 attention to this neglected group of predators and tested their association with 67 microbial diversity as an indicator of a healthy microbiome across distinct animal host 68 groups and environments. 69

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We analyzed 16S rRNA data from randomly chosen, exemplary host taxa that are 71 representative of distinct animal taxonomic groups, including early branching 72 metazoans, ecdysozoa, selected vertebrates, and additionally home surfaces (Table 73 74 S1 and Supplementary Methods). We only considered studies, if they included 75 samples with and without BALOs, thereby allowing us to determine the consequences of BALO presence and absence in comparable groups. We determined BALO 76 77 occurrence (although not necessarily activity) by identifying OTUs that showed 97% sequence identity to members of the BALO-containing taxonomic 78 aroups Bdellovibrionales (including the families Bacteriovoracaceae and Bdellovibrionaceae) 79 80 and Micavibrionales (including Micavibrionaceae). From these data, we inferred relative BALO abundance and corresponding microbiome alpha- (i.e., Shannon-81 Wiener diversity, Simpson's diversity, richness) and beta-diversities. 82

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The presence of BALOs was associated with a significantly higher Simpson and 84 Shannon diversity for the microbiomes of seven and five host species, respectively, as 85 86 well as the home surfaces (Figure 1, Table S2). The main exceptions referred to two sponge species, Carteriospongia foliascens and Ircinia variabilis, which showed a 87 significantly higher alpha-diversity in the absence of BALOs. This negative association 88 was not observed for microbiome richness (Figure S1, Table S3). Our subsequent 89 analysis of absolute OTU numbers revealed that microbiome richness is significantly 90 associated with both BALO abundance (Figure 2a, Table S4) and BALO richness 91 (Figure 2b, Table S4) in case of *H. vulgaris* and the sponges. A trend toward this 92 association was additionally observed for N. vectensis and D. melanogaster. 93

Interestingly, for both host systems, OTU richness was highest with medium BALO
 abundance, which possibly indicates that BALO richness rather than abundance
 influences microbiome richness.

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Fig. 1. Microbiome alpha-diversity in the presence and absence of BALOs. The Simpson (a) and Shannon (b) diversity is shown for a set of different hosts. Significant differences are indicated by asterisks and were calculated using the Wilcoxon rank sum test. P-values: p<0.001:'***', 0.0011>p<0.01:'**', 0.011>p<0.05:'*'. P-values are given in the Table S2.



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Fig. 2. Host microbiome richness measured as number of different non-BALO OTUs with increasing BALO abundance (a) and BALO richness (b). Significant differences are indicated by asterisks and were calculated using the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test. P-values: p<0.001:^{(***'}, 0.0011>p<0.01:^{(***'}, 0.011>p<0.05:^{(*'}. Significant differences between single categories of BALO abundance and BALO richness are indicated by different letters and were calculated with Dunn's post hoc test. All P-values are given in the Table S4.

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117 In contrast, variation in microbiome beta-diversity was not linked to the BALOs (Figure 118 3). At the same time, our PCoA analysis indicated an influence of BALOs on sample 119 clustering for several hosts (especially cnidarians and *C. elegans*). However, the 120 clustering was not independent of sample type, making it impossible to infer the exact 121 cause of clustering from the current data.

To exclude that BALO presence is caused by high microbiome diversity as a consequence of sampling effects, we analyzed the complete sponge dataset, additionally including species without BALOs [19]. We found that alpha-diversity *per se* does not predict the presence of BALOs (Table S5 and S6), which is therefore unlikely caused by sampling effects alone. bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/627455; this version posted May 5, 2019. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.







Fig. 3. PCoA of microbiome samples from different hosts using Bray Curtis distances. Samples are color-coded by presence and absence of BALOs. Different shapes indicate different sample subsets as indicated by the respective legends.

- The loss of top predators has comprehensive effects on community structure [9, 10]. We tested this idea by comparing microbiome alpha-diversities for distinct animal hosts and environments that either lacked or contained a prominent group of microbial predators, the BALOs. With the exception of the considered insects and most sponge species, we found that microbiomes containing BALOs were characterized by a significantly higher alpha-diversity.
- In contrast to the overall results, two sponge species showed a negative correlation between BALO presence and microbiome diversity, although not when considering microbiome richness. These results may suggest that BALO-containing sponges harbor a more species-rich, but less even microbiome. Notably, sponges in general

possess a comparatively species-rich microbiome (Figure S1). In these cases, 145 evenness may be negatively correlated to richness, consistent with previous 146 observations for plant communities [20] and possibly due to sampling effects, where a 147 superior competitor is more likely present in species-rich communities [1]. A niche-148 preemption model was previously identified to be the best predictor for the patterns in 149 plant communities [20]. Niche-preemption should favor resource use plasticity among 150 the less competitive species, resulting in lower growth and consequently reduced 151 evenness. In case of the sponges, the negative richness-evenness-relationship might 152 then overshadow the effect of BALOs on microbiome diversity. Temporal effects could 153 additionally explain the higher sponge microbiome diversity in the absence of BALOs. 154 As the sponge data used in this study came from single time point samples, we cannot 155 exclude subsequent changes in the community structure, for example a delayed effect 156 of BALO loss or gain on microbiome diversity. However, the longitudinal data on 157 surface microbiomes [21] indicates that changes in BALO presence/absence are 158 associated with more or less simultaneously occurring changes in OTU richness (Fig. 159 160 S2).

We found that BALO OTU richness, rather than abundance, is significantly associated 161 with microbiome richness in *H. vulgaris* and the combined set of sponges. Moreover, 162 this significant association between BALO and microbiome richness was only 163 observed when the high BALO richness category could be included. Considering that 164 165 different BALO strains are known to vary in their range of suitable prey [22], the above results may suggest that a more diverse BALO community is able to prey on a more 166 diverse set of bacteria and thereby reduces the predation pressure on single species, 167 thus increasing microbiome diversity. 168

Our additional analysis of beta-diversity did not reveal a strong BALO influence on microbiome community structure. Together with the results on alpha-diversity, this may imply that BALO presence is not correlated with a specific community composition and that BALOs survive in a range of differently assembled communities.

Our results from a range of distinct animal hosts and environments point to BALOs as 173 potential drivers of microbiome alpha-diversity, possibly by actively preying on highly 174 abundant species, thereby favoring rare species. Thus, BALOs may be of particular 175 176 importance for our understanding of the stability and resilience of microbiome ecosystem functions. Our current meta-analysis is, however, based on associations, 177 which can only be indicative of possible causal relationships. An important next step 178 179 should therefore be a detailed experimental analysis of the exact causal role of BALOs on microbiome diversity and resulting functions. It would be of similar high interest to 180 assess to what extent other kinds of bacterial antagonists, such as phages, or 181 environmental stressors may also influence microbiome diversity and the associated 182 effects. Moreover, it is worth testing whether the interaction between BALOs and other 183 bacteria is additionally shaped by the host immune system, which could cause different 184 dynamics of the BALO-mediated effects within rather than outside host organisms. 185

186 Considering that BALOs are not pathogenic to higher organisms [23], have a likely 187 stronger effect on community structure than phages [18], and appear to enhance 188 microbial diversity, they are highly promising candidates for probiotic therapy [24] that 189 aims at restoring disturbed microbiomes and improving host health or ecosystem 190 productivity and stability.

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198 199 200 **Conflict of interest statement** 201 The authors declare no conflict of interest. 202 203 References 204 205 Cardinale BJ, Srivastava DS, Duffy JE, et al (2006) Effects of biodiversity on the 206 1. 207 functioning of trophic groups and ecosystems. Nature 443:989–992. 208 https://doi.org/10.1038/Nature05202 2. Boyer KE, Kertesz JS, Bruno JF Biodiversity effects on productivity and stability 209 of marine macroalgal communities: the role of environmental context. Oikos 210 211 118:1062–1072. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0706.2009.17252.x 3. Power ME, Tilman D, Estes JA, et al (1996) Challenges in the quest for 212 keystones. BioScience 46:609-620. https://doi.org/10.2307/1312990 213 214 4. Thompson R, Starzomski BM (2007) What does biodiversity actually do? A 215 review for managers and policy makers. Biodivers Conserv 16:1359–1378. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10531-005-6232-9 216 Naeem S, Li SB (1997) Biodiversity enhances ecosystem reliability. Nature 5. 217 390:507-509. https://doi.org/10.1038/37348 218 219 6. Yachi S, Loreau M (1999) Biodiversity and ecosystem productivity in a fluctuating environment: The insurance hypothesis. Proc Natl Acad Sci 96:1463-220 221 1468. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.96.4.1463 7. Holling CS (1973) Resilience and stability of ecological systems. Annu Rev Ecol 222 Syst 4:1–23. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.es.04.110173.000245 223 224 8. Thebault E, Loreau M (2003) Food-web constraints on biodiversity-ecosystem functioning relationships. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100:14949–14954. 225 https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2434847100 226 Jabiol J, McKie BG, Bruder A, et al Trophic complexity enhances ecosystem 227 9. functioning in an aquatic detritus-based model system. J Anim Ecol 82:1042-228 1051. https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2656.12079 229 10. Gessner MO, Swan CM, Dang CK, et al (2010) Diversity meets decomposition. 230 231 Trends Ecol Evol 25:372–380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2010.01.010 232 11. Leitão RP, Zuanon J, Villéger S, et al (2016) Rare species contribute disproportionately to the functional structure of species assemblages. Proc R 233 Soc B Biol Sci 283:20160084. https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2016.0084 234

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Supplementary Material

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Bdellovibrio and Like Organisms are Predictors of Microbiome Diversity across Diverse Host Groups

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304305 1 Supplementary Methods

306 For our analysis, we randomly selected exemplary host taxa that are representative of distinct 307 taxonomic animal groups, ranging from very simple to more complex hosts and including early branching invertebrates, ecdysozoa, and also vertebrates (Table S1). In addition, we only 308 309 considered host taxa, for which a single study included at least five samples with and without 310 BALOs - with the exception of the Nematostella dataset with only four samples without BALOs. This preselection was performed in order to allow a direct comparison of samples with and 311 312 without BALOs for each host system or environment. Further, only studies with publicly available OTU tables were selected. Moreover, we considered one study with longitudinal data 313 generated from human mucus, sebum, skin swabs, as well as from different surfaces from 314 their family homes [10]. This data set served to test the stability of the association of BALO 315 presence and bacterial community diversity across time within the same environment. 316

Several datasets were from microbiomeDB (http://microbiomedb.org/mbio/) and only included 317 relative abundance data, while the remaining data sets also had information on absolute 318 frequencies. The Caenorhabditis elegans dataset was produced by us for this study by 319 320 sampling worms from the Kiel Botanical garden in 2016 at four consecutive time points (one in October, two in September, and one in November). Worm samples were prepared as 321 described previously [1] by using the protocol for "natural worm" microbiome extraction. DNA 322 was sequenced using the Miseg platform and the primers 515f-806r to sequence the V4 region 323 of the 16S rRNA gene. Original sequence data are available from the European Nucleotide 324 325 Archive (accession number PRJEB30476). Sequence reads were analyzed using Mothur v. 1.39.5 [2] as described in the Miseq SOP (https://www.mothur.org/wiki/MiSeq_SOP) and the 326 SILVA reference database version 128. OTU clustering was based on 97% sequence identity. 327 Samples with BALOs were categorized based on their abundance (i.e., high (11-227 reads), 328 medium (6-10), low (1-5), and no reads) and richness (high (5-7), low (1-4), and no). We 329 compared microbiome alpha-diversity in the presence and absence of BALOs using two-330 sample Wilcoxon rank sum tests to account for outliers. We assessed the influence of BALO 331 abundance or richness on microbiome richness with the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test and 332 Dunn's post hoc test with p-value adjustment using fdr. Beta-diversity was measured using 333 334 Bray Curtis distance on relative abundance and visualized using PCoA of the 500 most abundant OTUs. Sponge samples were analyzed using Fisher's exact test and the Wilcoxon 335 rank sum test to test for an association between BALO presence/absence and microbiome 336 337 alpha-diversity, either as categorical or continues variable. All statistical analyses were performed in R [3] using phyloseq [4] and vegan [5]. 338

339 2 Supplementary Figures and Tables

Study	Host body site	Seq. platform	Environment of host	N samples	Normaliz ation	Further information
		Caenor	habditis elegans (Nematoda)		
This study*	Gut	Miseq (V4)	Natural isolates from compost heaps	73	4986 reads per sample	Time series
		Nemat	ostella vectensis	(Cnidaria)		
[6]	Whole animals	454 (V2)	Natural isolates, but maintained in the lab for 10 years as clonal lines	16	3000 reads per sample	Microbiome diversity of species sampled along the US east coast
			Six sponge speci	es		
[7]	Random sponge pieces	Hiseq (V4)	Natural isolates from different sites	315 samples	No normaliza tion	Different species and different sampling sites
Drosophila melanogaster (Insecta, Diptera)						
[8]	Whole flies	Miseq (V3-V4)	Samples taken from various kitchen	79	1200 reads per sample	Only adult flies
		Apis mel	<i>llifera</i> (Insecta, Hy	menoptera)		
Unpublished, Dominguez- Bello	whole head, whole larva, whole pupa, whole gut	Unknown	Unknown	383	Unknown	From microbiomeDB, different functional guilds and developmental stages, effect of Tetracycline application
		Canis lupus	familaris (Vertebr	ata, Mamma	alia)	
[9]	Sebum	Illumina GAIIx (V2)	Different homes	145	5000 reads per sample	From microbiomeDB, most BALOs in sebum und mucus
Home surfaces						
[10]	Different surfaces from family homes	Hiseq (V4)	Different homes	690	2500 reads per sample	From microbiomeDB
Homo sapiens (Vertebrata, Mammalia)						
[10]	Mucus, sebum, skin swabs	Hiseq (V4)	Different homes	910	2500 reads per sample	From microbiomeDB
Hydra vulgaris (Cnidaria)						
[11]	Whole animals	454 (V1- V2)	Lab-kept animals	36	No normaliza tion	Developmental data

Table S1: Summary of the considered and analyzed studies.

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Table S2: Test statistics of the comparison of microbiome alpha-diversity in the absence and presence of BALOs as shown in Fig. 1.

diversity measure	host	W	Р
Simpson	Apis mellifera	594	0.1541
Simpson	Caenorhabditis elegans	774	0.001617
Simpson	Canis lupus familaris	1382	< 0.001
Simpson	Drosophila melanogaster	506	0.9089
Simpson	Homo sapiens	57463	< 0.001
Simpson	Nematostella vectensis	736	0.03724
Simpson	Family homes	27095	< 0.001
Simpson	Hydra vulgaris	68	< 0.001
Simpson	Carteriospongia foliascens_Green Island	91	0.589
Simpson	Carteriospongia foliascens_Kimberley, Western Australia	48	< 0.001
Simpson	Carteriospongia foliascens_Orpheus Island, Little Pioneer Bay	50	< 0.001
Simpson	Cliona delitrix_Caribbean	140	0.3135
Simpson	Ircinia oros_Spain	148	0.01725
Simpson	Ircinia variabilis_Spain	425	< 0.001
Simpson	Mycale laxissima_Enrique Cay, Puerto Rico	35	0.1653
Simpson	Xestospongia muta_Boynton Beach, FL	5	0.04798
Simpson	All together	486490	< 0.001
Shannon	Apis mellifera	557	0.1151
Shannon	Caenorhabditis elegans	792	0.0025
Shannon	Canis lupus familaris	1019	< 0.001
Shannon	Drosophila melanogaster	487	0.9348
Shannon	Homo sapiens	49350	< 0.001
Shannon	Nematostella vectensis	729	0.0327
Shannon	Family homes	22200	< 0.001
Shannon	Hydra vulgaris	58	< 0.001
Shannon	Carteriospongia foliascens_Green Island	85	0.4231
Shannon	Carteriospongia foliascens_Kimberley, Western Australia	45	0.004662
Shannon	Carteriospongia foliascens_Orpheus Island, Little Pioneer Bay	41	0.05528
Shannon	Cliona delitrix_Caribbean	159	0.6025
Shannon	Ircinia oros_Spain	185	0.1247
Shannon	Ircinia variabilis_Spain	417	< 0.001
Shannon	Mycale laxissima_Enrique Cay, Puerto Rico	35	0.1653
Shannon	Xestospongia muta_Boynton Beach, FL	6	0.07323
Shannon	All together	415580	< 0.001

Table S3: Test statistics of the comparison of microbiome richness in the presence and absence of BALOs as shown in Fig. S1.

Host	W	Р
Caenorhabditis elegans	178.5	0.06802
Drosophila melanogaster	348	0.1102
Hydra vulgaris	88.5	0.003041
Nematostella vectensis	11	0.1293
All sponges together	4531.5	< 0.001
Carteriospongia foliascens_Green Island	144	< 0.001
Carteriospongia foliascens_Kimberley, Western Australia	70	0.9321
Carteriospongia foliascens_Orpheus Island, Little Pioneer Bay	116	0.4946
Cliona delitrix_Caribbean	468	0.021
Ircinia oros_Spain	518	< 0.001
Ircinia variabilis_Spain	664	0.01112
Mycale laxissima_Enrique Cay, Puerto Rico	220	0.9319
Xestospongia muta_Boynton Beach, FL'	42	0.1058

349 Table S4: Test statistics of the comparison of microbiome richness and BALO abundance

and BALO richness as shown in Fig. 2.

host	category	Kruskal-Wallis Chi-squared	Df	Ρ	Significant Dunn's
Caenorhabditis elegans	BALO abundance	3.3508	1	0.06717	
Drosophila melanogaster	BALO abundance	6.3712	3	0.09488	
Hydra vulgaris	BALO abundance	12.795	3	0.005102	Medium:Low P = 0.014 , No:Medium P = 0.011
Nematostella vectensis	BALO abundance	3.7776	3	0.2865	
All sponges together	BALO abundance	14.573	3	0.002221	No:Low P = 0.0033
Caenorhabditis elegans	BALO diversity	4.2926	3	0.2316	
Drosophila melanogaster	BALO diversity	2.5684	1	0.109	
Hydra vulgaris	BALO diversity	6.7652	2	0.03396	
Nematostella vectensis	BALO diversity	2.489	1	0.1146	
All sponges together	BALO diversity	17.87	2	< 0.001	No:Low P = 0.0032, No:High P = 0.0053, Low:High P = 0.0349

352 Table S5: Test statistics of the comparison of sponge microbiome alpha-diversity category

and BALO presence. Contingency tables are based on the average of the respective value

354 (given in brackets for the different categories) for each species.

	Microbiome	Fisher's Exact Test		
	high (>=600 - 809.25)	low (306.67 - <600)	Р	Odds ratio
BALOs present	10	38	0.7356	0.79247
BALOs absent	4	12		
	Microbiome Sim	Fisher's Exact Test		
	high (>=0.9)	low (0.38 - <0.9)	Р	Odds ratio
BALOs present	17	31	1	1.20297
BALOs absent	5	11		
	Microbiome Sha	Fisher's Exact Test		
	high (3.5 - 4.74)	low (1.7 - <3.5)	Р	Odds ratio
BALOs present	23	25	1	1.17976
BALOs absent	7	9		

^a Microbiome richness is treated as a categorical variable, being either high or low. Cut-offs for the two groups are indicated.

358 Table S6: Wilcoxon rank sum test statistics of the comparison of sponge microbiome alpha-

diversity in samples either with BALO presence *versus* BALO absence.

Diversity measure ^a	W	Р
Simpson	324	0.3598
Shannon	329	0.4018
OTU richness	364	0.7647

^a Microbiome diversity is used as a continuous variable and compared among the two

361 groups, which are either defined by the presence or the absence of BALOs.

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Fig. S1: Microbiome richness of different hosts (a) and particular sponge species (b) measured as number of different non-BALO OTUs in the presence and absence of BALOs. Significant differences are indicated by asterisks and were calculated using the Wilcoxon rank sum test. P-values: p<0.001:'***', 0.0011>p<0.01:'**', 0.011>p<0.05:'*'. P-values are given in the Table S3.

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were taken every other day. Data points are colored and shaped according to the presenceor absence of BALOs.

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