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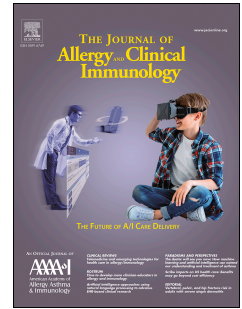
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The Sputum Microbiome, Airway Inflammation and Mortality in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease

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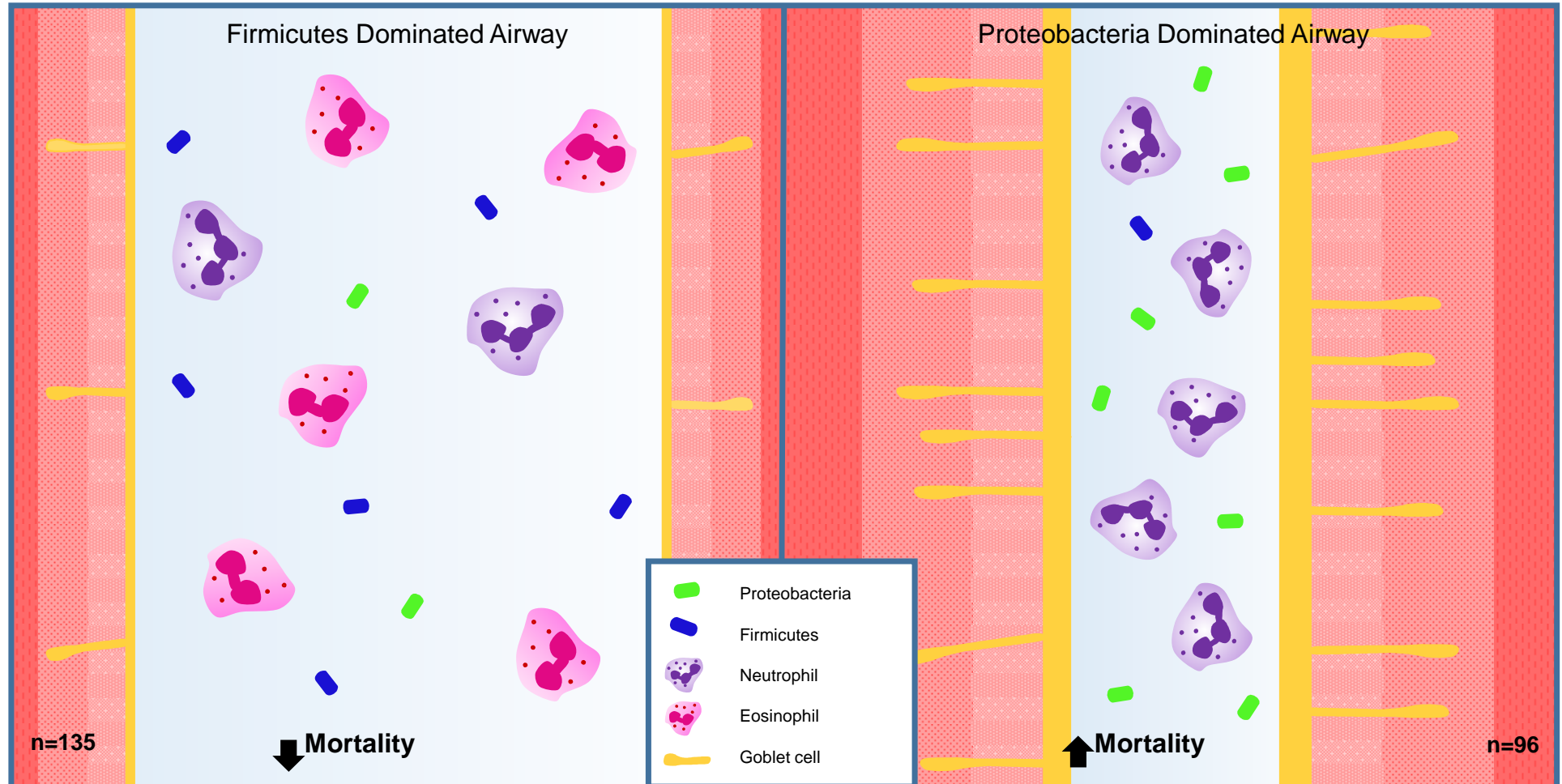
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Microbiome, Airway Inflammation and Mortality in COPD

n=253



1 **The Sputum Microbiome, Airway Inflammation and Mortality in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary**
2 **Disease**

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13

14

15 **Conflicts of interest**

16 JDC reports grants from Glaxosmithkline (GSK) for this research. In addition, he reports grants and
17 personal fees from Glaxosmithkline, Boehringer-Ingelheim, AstraZeneca, Pfizer, Bayer Healthcare,
18 Grifols, Napp, Aradigm corporation, and Insmmed outside the submitted work. HM and RTS were
19 employees of GSK at the time this study was conducted. RTS is a shareholder of GSK. BEM is an
20 employee and shareholder of GSK. The other authors declared no conflicts of interest.

21

22 Word count: 3311

23 **Abstract**

24 **Background:** The sputum microbiome has a potential role in disease phenotyping and risk stratification
25 in chronic obstructive pulmonary disease but few large longitudinal cohort studies exist.

26 **Objective:** To investigate the COPD sputum microbiome and its association with inflammatory
27 phenotypes and mortality.

28 **Methods:** 16S rRNA gene sequencing was performed on sputum from 253 clinically stable COPD
29 patients (4-years median follow-up). Samples were classified as Proteobacteria or Firmicutes (phylum
30 level) and *Haemophilus* or *Streptococcus* (genera level) dominant. Alpha diversity was measured using
31 Shannon-Wiener Diversity and Berger-Parker Dominance Indices. Survival was modelled using Cox
32 proportional hazards regression. A subset of 78 patients had label-free liquid chromatography/mass
33 spectrometry performed, with partial least square discriminant analysis integrating clinical, microbiome
34 and proteomics data.

35 **Results:** Proteobacteria dominance and lower diversity was associated with more severe COPD using the
36 GOLD classification system ($p=0.0015$), more frequent exacerbations ($p=0.0042$), blood eosinophils
37 ≤ 100 cells/ μL ($p<0.0001$) and lower FEV₁ ($p=0.026$). Blood eosinophil counts showed a positive
38 relationship with %Firmicutes and *Streptococcus*, and a negative association with %Proteobacteria and
39 *Haemophilus*. Proteobacteria dominance was associated with increased mortality compared to Firmicutes
40 dominated or balanced microbiome profiles (HR 2.58 95%CI 1.43-4.66, $p=0.0017$ and HR 7.47 95%CI
41 1.02-54.86, $p=0.048$ respectively). Integrated omics analysis showed significant associations between
42 Proteobacteria dominance and the neutrophil activation pathway in sputum.

43 **Conclusion:** The sputum microbiome is associated with clinical and inflammatory phenotypes in COPD.
44 Reduced microbiome diversity, associated with Proteobacteria (predominantly *Haemophilus*) dominance,
45 is associated with neutrophil associated protein profiles and an increased risk of mortality.

46

47 **Capsule summary:** Microbiome analysis of sputum reveals distinct endotypes of COPD with different
48 inflammatory profiles and long term survival.

49

50 **Key Messages:**

- 51
 - The sputum microbiome in COPD is associated with clinical and inflammatory phenotypes

- 52 • Dominance and loss of microbial diversity are associated with increased mortality in COPD
- 53 • Microbiome and inflammatory profiles are linked, with Proteobacteria dominant profiles being
- 54 associated with neutrophil activation markers, and Firmicutes dominant profiles being associated
- 55 with raised blood eosinophil counts.

56

57 **Keywords:** Microbiome, COPD, Eosinophil, Phenotype, *Haemophilus*,

58

59 **Abbreviations**

60	aHR:	Adjusted hazards ratio
61	BPDI:	Berger-Parker dominance index
62	BMI:	Body mass index
63	CAT:	COPD assessment test
64	COPD:	Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease
65	DNA:	Deoxyribonucleic acid
66	FDR:	False discovery rate
67	FEV ₁ :	Forced expiratory volume in 1 second
68	FVC:	Forced vital capacity
69	GOLD:	Global initiative for chronic obstructive lung disease
70	HR:	Hazard ratio
71	ICS:	Inhaled corticosteroids
72	LC-MS/MS:	Liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry
73	MRC:	Medical research council
74	OTU:	Operational taxonomic unit
75	QIIME:	Quantitative insights into microbial ecology
76	RNA:	Ribonucleic acid
77	SGRQ:	St Georges respiratory questionnaire
78	SWDI:	Shannon-Wiener diversity index
79	TARDIS:	Tayside allergic and respiratory disease information system

80

81 Introduction

82 Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease (COPD) is recognized as a heterogeneous disease with patients
83 manifesting multiple diverse phenotypes, endotypes and “treatable traits”.(1-4) Recent therapeutic
84 concepts in COPD have moved away from the previous “one size fits all” treatment approach with
85 bronchodilators, inhaled corticosteroids (ICS) and other medications, towards a precision medicine
86 approach in which clinical characteristics and biomarkers are used to direct treatments and to optimize
87 their risk: benefit profile.(5-8) A recent example of this is the use of blood eosinophil counts to direct
88 treatment with inhaled corticosteroids.(7, 8) The use of a blood biomarker to guide treatment has gained
89 acceptance due to identification of a relationship between blood and sputum eosinophil counts.
90 Randomized controlled trials have subsequently shown that patients with blood eosinophil counts less
91 than 100cells/ μ L derive no significant benefit in terms of exacerbation reduction when treated with ICS,
92 and may be at increased risk of pneumonia.(6, 9, 10)

93 Eosinophilic COPD is an example of an endotype, a subtype of a condition defined by a distinct
94 pathophysiological mechanism.(2) Inflammation, however, is only one of the pathophysiological features
95 of COPD which is associated with airway structural damage and airway infection.(11, 12) Bacteria are
96 thought to play a key role in COPD pathogenesis and recent data has brought a deeper understanding of
97 the complex microbial communities present in the lung affected by COPD.(11, 13-16) Studies of the
98 COPD “lung microbiome” to date have found that as COPD becomes more severe in terms of lower lung
99 function, there is an increase in the relative abundance of Proteobacteria, and particularly the genus
100 *Haemophilus*.(11, 13, 15) Lower microbiome diversity is also associated with increased severity of
101 disease and neutrophilic inflammation including the formation of neutrophil extracellular traps.(11, 13,
102 15)

103 Exacerbations are key events in the natural history of COPD and recent work suggests no consistent
104 pattern of altered microbial profiles at exacerbation compared to stable disease.(15) Previous work
105 suggests there are at least four different exacerbation “endotypes” associated with distinct inflammatory
106 profiles - bacterial exacerbations, eosinophilic exacerbations, virus predominant exacerbations and pauci-
107 inflammatory events.(17) These events, defined by clinical and inflammatory criteria, may also have
108 distinct microbiome profiles.(18)

109 Lower lung function and frequent exacerbations may relate to endotypes linked to greater mortality in
110 COPD.(19-21) If changes in the microbiome loss of microbial diversity are indeed related to more severe
111 disease and high risk patient subtypes, it is plausible that the respiratory microbiome may associate with

112 long term mortality as has been observed in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis.(22) No studies have assessed
113 the association of the sputum microbiome profile with mortality in stable COPD.

114 Here we report the results from a longitudinal cohort study of COPD patients designed to integrate data
115 from the sputum microbiome and proteome with clinical phenotypes and long-term clinical outcomes, to
116 provide further insights into the relevance of the respiratory microbiome in clinical practice.

Journal Pre-proof

117 **Methods**

118 **Study Design**

119 We performed a longitudinal observational study of patients with a diagnosis of COPD nested within a
120 population based COPD registry (Tayside Allergic and Respiratory Disease Information System
121 (TARDIS)) in the East of Scotland.(16, 20) Patients were invited to participate in a microbiome sub-
122 study and were included if they were >40 years, had a FEV₁/FVC ratio <70% at screening, and a clinical
123 diagnosis of COPD. Exclusion criteria included the inability to give informed consent; primary diagnosis
124 of asthma; and systemic immunosuppression (excluding prednisolone at 5mg or less daily). Additionally,
125 patients needed to be clinically stable and free of antibiotic or oral corticosteroid therapy for > 4 weeks
126 prior to enrolment. All relevant medical history (comorbidities, current medications, significant past
127 conditions, operations and diagnostic procedures) was recorded at screening. Participants provided
128 induced sputum samples following induction with 3% hypertonic saline. Spirometry, St Georges
129 Respiratory Questionnaire (SGRQ), COPD assessment test (CAT) and MRC dyspnoea scoring was
130 performed at each visit. Exacerbations in the study period were defined as an increase in respiratory
131 symptoms greater than day to day variation requiring a change in therapy; participants returned to the
132 clinic for assessment and were given a standardized treatment of antibiotics and corticosteroids. Patients
133 were enrolled from 2013-2015 and survival data was obtained from linked medical records within the
134 TARDIS registry as described previously.(16)

135 **Clinical phenotypes**

136 *A-priori*, we identified clinical phenotypes that have been linked with response to therapies in COPD.
137 These were low blood eosinophil counts (examined using a cut-off of ≤ 100 cells/ μ L according to recent
138 Global Initiative for Chronic Obstructive Lung Disease (GOLD) recommendations and linked to ICS
139 response),(23) chronic bronchitis (defined as daily sputum production at least three months of the year
140 over at least two years and linked to response to treatments including roflumilast) and, finally, the
141 frequent exacerbator phenotype, defined as patients with ≥ 2 exacerbations/year.(9, 24) Clinical
142 phenotypes were not mutually exclusive.

143 **Sputum Microbiome**

144 DNA was extracted from whole sputum as described in the online supplement, followed by 16S rRNA
145 gene sequencing on the Illumina MiSeq platform. Bioinformatic analysis and quality checking of the
146 resulting sequences was performed using QIIME (version 1.9.0) and R (version 3.4.0). Shannon-Wiener
147 Diversity Index (SWDI, where a higher value indicates a sample is more diverse) and Berger-Parker

148 Dominance Index (BPDI, which measures the proportion of the microbiome dominated by the most
149 abundant taxa, with a value closer to 1 indicating a microbiome with greater dominance) were used as
150 measures of alpha diversity of samples. See online supplement for full methods.

151 **Characterization of microbiome subtypes of COPD**

152 Prior studies of the COPD sputum microbiome identified that Proteobacteria and Firmicutes were the
153 dominant phyla and that inflammation and COPD severity were strongly associated with the presence of a
154 single genera at >40% relative abundance in many patients.(11, 13, 18) Therefore *a-priori* we defined
155 candidate microbiome subgroups. At the phylum level samples were classified as either Proteobacteria
156 dominant or Firmicutes dominant based on >40% Observed Taxonomic Units (OTUs) of either phylum.
157 For analysis at the genera level we classified samples into *Haemophilus* dominant and *Streptococcus*
158 dominant (as the most abundant Firmicute); “balanced” microbiome profiles were defined by the absence
159 of >40% OTUs of either Proteobacteria or Firmicutes at the phylum level or no individual OTU
160 exceeding 40% at the genera level. The cut-off of 40% OTUs to define these groups was used based on
161 our previous work.(11) Throughout the manuscript we refer to the respiratory microbiome to reflect that
162 all assessments are made on sputum which includes contributions from the lower and upper respiratory
163 tracts.

164 **Integration of microbiome, clinical and proteomic data**

165 A subset of 78 patients included in the primary study provided sufficient sputum samples for proteomics
166 with the results integrated with their microbiome and clinical data. The total protein concentrations of
167 sputum supernatants were quantified using Pierce 660 protein assays. Sputum protein (50µg) from each
168 sample was added to an equal volume of acetonitrile before incubating at 100°C for 15mins. The samples
169 were dried down in a centrifugal vacuum and resuspended with 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate (pH 8.5)
170 to a final concentration of 1mg/mL. Samples were then reduced and alkylated before subjecting to nano-
171 flow-LC-MS/MS analysis. Protein identification and label-free quantification were carried out using
172 Maxquant (version 1.4.1.2) against Uniprot-human database (version 2014-07-09). The fixed
173 modification was carbamidomethylation on cysteine, and variable modifications include oxidation on
174 methionine and N-terminal acetylation. False Discovery Rate (FDR) for protein identification was set to
175 1% at protein level.

176 **Statistical analysis**

177 Statistical analysis of data was carried out using R version 3.4.0, SPSS version 21 and GraphPad Prism
178 6.07. Continuous data are presented as median (interquartile range) and categorical data are presented as
179 N (%). Continuous parametric data were compared using unpaired T-test while continuous non-

180 parametric data were compared using the Mann-Whitney U test. Generalized linear models with binomial
181 errors and a logistic link function were used to model the relationship between blood eosinophils and
182 relative abundance. Principal component analysis was used to analyse microbiome beta diversity.
183 Unadjusted survival was studied using Kaplan-Meier survival analysis. Cox Proportional Hazards models
184 incorporating age, sex, baseline FEV₁ and exacerbation frequency in the previous year were used to
185 model survival with the proportional hazards assumption checked using log-minus-log plots. Integrated
186 omics analysis was performed using partial least square discriminant analysis with FDR correction using
187 the Benjamini-Hochberg method, followed by a separate univariate analysis to confirm the results and to
188 avoid overfitting. Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$ for all other analyses.

189 **Results**

190 296 participants were enrolled in the study; after excluding 44 patients whose baseline sputum samples
191 failed DNA extraction and sequencing quality controls the final cohort was 252 participants (Figure 1)
192 with the baseline characteristics of the cohort shown in Table 1. The predominant phyla observed in the
193 microbiome were Proteobacteria and Firmicutes, with fewer OTUs identified as *Bacteroidetes*,
194 *Actinobacteria* and *Fusobacteria* (Figure 2A). At the genus level the most abundant genera were
195 *Haemophilus*, *Streptococcus*, *Neisseria*, *Veillonella*, and *Prevotella*, whilst some individual samples
196 additionally showed a predominance of genera such as *Pseudomonas*, *Stenotrophomonans*, *Pasteurella*,
197 Unknown *Enterobacteriaceae*, and *Moraxella* (Figure 2B).

198 **The non-eosinophilic phenotype has lower alpha diversity and increased relative abundance of** 199 **Proteobacteria**

200 We observed a clear relationship between microbiome and clinical phenotypes. Proteobacteria dominated
201 microbiomes (n=96) were associated with poorer lung function and more frequent exacerbations.
202 Significantly more *Streptococcus* dysbiotic microbiomes (n=56) were GOLD group D (p=0.011) and had
203 a worse mMRC score compared to balanced genera (p=0.0017) (Figure S2).

204 The low blood eosinophil subgroup (n=62) had lower microbiome diversity as measured by SWDI
205 (p<0.0001) whilst the BPDI was higher in the low blood eosinophil subgroup (p<0.0001). These
206 differences appeared to be associated with a higher relative abundance of Proteobacteria at the phylum
207 level (p=0.0001) and *Haemophilus* at the genus level (p=0.046, Figure 3B). We observed a statistically
208 significant negative correlation between % Proteobacteria and eosinophil count in peripheral blood
209 (Spearman r correlation, p<0.0001, Figure 3C) and a positive correlation between % Firmicutes and
210 eosinophil count (p<0.0001, Figure 3C). Further data are shown in Figure S3 online.

211 Differences at both the phylum and genus level were observed when comparing patients who frequently
212 exacerbate compared to non-frequent exacerbators (defined as those with ≤ 2 exacerbations/year) and
213 comparing patients with chronic bronchitis compared to those patients without chronic bronchitis (Figure
214 S4). Principle component analysis suggested that there was no clear clustering of microbiome based on
215 either blood eosinophil group, chronic bronchitic status or exacerbation frequency.

216 **Microbiome profiles are linked to long term mortality**

217 50 participants (19.8% of patients enrolled) died during a median follow-up of four years. At the genera
218 level, *Haemophilus* dominated profiles (HR 2.53 95%CI 1.08-5.94, p=0.032) were associated with
219 increased mortality compared to balanced profiles. *Streptococcus* dominated profiles were associated with

220 a similar mortality risk to *Haemophilus* when compared to balanced profiles (HR 2.05 95%CI 0.80-5.20,
221 $p=0.13$ Figure 4). The adjusted hazard ratios (aHR) were similar to the primary analysis (aHR 2.17
222 95%CI 0.89-5.27, $p=0.09$ and aHR 1.67 95%CI 0.64-4.37, $p=0.30$
223 for *Haemophilus* and *Streptococcus* dominated profiles respectively).

224 At the phylum level, Proteobacteria dominance was associated with increased mortality compared to both
225 Firmicutes dominated and balanced microbiome profiles (Hazard ratios (HR) 2.58 95%CI 1.43-4.67,
226 $p=0.0017$ and 7.47 95%CI 1.02-54.86, $p=0.048$, respectively). The relationship
227 between Proteobacteria dominance and survival compared to Firmicutes persisted after multivariate
228 adjustment for age, sex, FEV₁ and previous exacerbation frequency, aHR 2.35 95%CI 1.27-4.32,
229 $p=0.006$. Firmicutes dominated and balanced profiles were more similar to each other (HR 2.85 95%CI
230 0.38-21.43, $p=0.31$) (Figure 4). As *Streptococcus* dominated profiles appeared to behave differently to
231 others in the Firmicutes phylum, a sensitivity analysis was conducted comparing Proteobacteria
232 dominated profiles to Firmicutes dominated profiles with *Streptococcus* excluded (Figure S5). This did
233 not greatly affect the results, with a clearly worse mortality associated with Proteobacteria dominance
234 (HR 2.93 95%CI 1.22-7.06 $p=0.017$, aHR 2.80 95%CI 1.13-6.90 $p=0.026$).

235 Lower alpha diversity was also strongly associated with long term outcome. The median SWDI for all
236 samples was 3.36. Patients with values below this level had a markedly increased mortality (HR 4.05
237 95%CI 2.07-7.93, $p<0.0001$) which persisted after multivariate adjustment (aHR 3.08 95%CI 1.57-6.09,
238 $p=0.001$). The median BPDI was 0.41 and values above this level were similarly predictive of mortality
239 (HR 3.81 95%CI 1.99-7.30, $p<0.0001$), aHR 3.36 95%CI 1.73-6.51, $p=0.0003$) (see online Figure S6).

240 **Integration of clinical, microbiome and proteomic data shows that Proteobacteria dominated** 241 **microbiome profiles are associated with neutrophilic inflammation**

242 To investigate how microbiome profiles influence pathophysiology of COPD, we further investigated the
243 sputum protein profiles by nano-flow-LC-MS/MS from a subset of patients ($n=78$) with three predefined
244 (Proteobacteria dominated (33), balanced (15), Firmicutes dominated (30)) sputum microbiome types. All
245 patients with Proteobacteria and Firmicutes dominated profiles had greater than 50% OTUs of these phyla
246 in their sputum sample. The characteristics of these patients are shown in Supplementary Table S1.

247 The combined dataset consisted of 113 taxa identified through the microbiome analysis, 21 clinical
248 variables and 613 proteins. Partial least square discriminant analysis of the combined dataset revealed
249 separation between Proteobacteria, balanced and Firmicutes microbiome profiles ($R^2X=0.17$,
250 $R^2Y=0.73$, Figure 5A). The loadings plot (Figure 5B, used to determine what variable(s) in the dataset

251 drive the separation between the different microbiome profiles) indicated that the Proteobacteria
252 dominated microbiome cluster was associated with multiple proteins including myeloperoxidase, catalase,
253 matrix metalloproteinase 9 and 8, and neutrophil elastase, all of which may be associated with
254 neutrophilic inflammation. Further pathway analysis indicated that significantly upregulated proteins
255 (Supplementary Table S2) associated with the Proteobacteria group are over-represented within the
256 “neutrophil activation” pathway ($p=2.2E-14$, FDR corrected) adding further evidence to a possible
257 association between Proteobacteria and neutrophilic inflammation. In contrast, the Firmicutes dominated
258 microbiome cluster was associated with proteins such as Cystatin B (CSTB), Folate Receptor 1 (FOLR1),
259 Small Proline Rich Protein 3 (SPRR3), Golgi Membrane Protein 1 (GOLM1), and Clusterin (CLU)
260 (Figure 5B, black labels). Pathway analysis of significantly upregulated proteins (Supplementary Table
261 S2) in the Firmicutes group showed an over-representation of the “negative regulation of peptidase
262 activity” pathway ($p=3.7E-4$, FDR corrected) including cystatin B, Cysteine-S, alpha 1 antitrypsin, serpin
263 B3 and WAP four disulphide core domain protein 2.

264 **Discussion**

265 To the authors' knowledge, this is the first study to demonstrate that the sputum microbiome in stable
266 COPD patients is associated with long term survival in a prospective cohort of patients; a recent study has
267 linked the microbiome (reduced alpha diversity, increased *Staphylococcus* and reduced *Veillonella*) at
268 acute exacerbation of COPD requiring hospitalization with increased mortality.(25) Taken together these
269 studies suggest that the respiratory microbiome is associated with long term outcomes in COPD. In our
270 study, sputum microbiome profiles at baseline were linked with clinical phenotypes, with exacerbation
271 subtypes and ultimately with long term outcomes. Proteobacteria dysbiosis, defined by the dominance of
272 one or more organisms including well recognized COPD pathogenic genera such as *Haemophilus*,
273 *Moraxella* and *Pseudomonas*, was more frequent in patients with low blood eosinophil counts, chronic
274 bronchitis symptoms and patients with frequent exacerbations.(26-28) These patients had worse lung
275 function and ultimately increased mortality. In contrast, patients with Firmicutes dominance had milder
276 disease, apart from those patients with dominance of the genera *Streptococcus*. Patients with dominance
277 due to *Streptococcus* had a high level of disease severity with impairment of quality of life, lung function
278 impairment and had equivalent mortality to patients with *Haemophilus* dominance. Neither *Haemophilus*
279 nor *Streptococcus* was significantly associated with mortality compared to balanced profiles after
280 adjustment for age, sex, FEV₁ and exacerbation history. In the case of *Haemophilus*, the HR was still
281 greater than 2 after multivariable adjustment suggesting our study may have been underpowered. IWe,
282 and others, have previously shown an association between Proteobacteria, *Haemophilus* and neutrophilic
283 inflammation.(11, 29) We have now extended this observation by conducting an integrated analysis of
284 microbiome, proteomic and clinical data which demonstrates a clear statistically significant association
285 between Proteobacteria and neutrophilic inflammatory markers such as neutrophil elastase,
286 myeloperoxidase and matrix metalloproteinases which are released from neutrophils during inflammatory
287 responses. Although the pathway analysis and prior work suggests these are neutrophil associated, other
288 cells such as macrophages may contribute to the release of matrix metalloproteinases and
289 myeloperoxidase for example. Our data therefore suggests that while there is significant overlap in the
290 phenotypic characteristics of patients with COPD, at each extreme of the spectrum are patients with
291 Proteobacteria dominant profiles with eosinopenia, chronic bronchitis, neutrophil dominated
292 inflammation, frequent exacerbations, poor lung function and reduced survival, and conversely
293 *Streptococcus* dominant profiles associated with raised blood eosinophil counts, the absence of chronic
294 bronchitis and frequent exacerbations. Whether these microbiome profiles link to response to treatments
295 such as inhaled corticosteroids or anti-inflammatory drugs remains to be established but neutrophilic
296 disease is established to be less responsive to inhaled corticosteroids.(12)

297 It is not possible from our analysis to disentangle cause and effect when considering the impact of the
298 microbiome on clinical phenotype and clinical outcomes. Proteobacteria dysbiosis may be associated with
299 a more rapid decline in FEV₁, or changes in the lung during remodelling may predispose to Proteobacteria
300 dominance, or both statements may be true. Similarly, patients with raised eosinophil counts have an
301 excess of *Streptococcus*. This may suggest that eosinophilic inflammation predisposes to *Streptococcus*
302 infection/ colonisation, as has been demonstrated for other Firmicutes such as *Staphylococcus*,⁽³⁰⁾ or
303 some members of the *Streptococcus* genera may provoke an eosinophilic response, or changes in the
304 microbiome may be the result of external factors such as antibiotic treatment, inhaled or oral
305 corticosteroid therapy or interactions with the upper airway and gut microbiomes.⁽³¹⁾ Further
306 mechanistic studies will be required to test these above hypotheses and to determine the cause or effect of
307 the association between eosinophil count and *Streptococcus*. The cross-sectional nature of our study
308 makes causal inference impossible. Antibiotic treatment in particular is an important potential
309 confounder. The relationship between diversity and the frequent exacerbator phenotype may reflect the
310 effect of repeated antibiotic courses in patients with frequent exacerbations. Some aspects of our survival
311 analysis nevertheless suggest that dominance and loss of microbial diversity themselves may be harmful
312 and contribute to disease progression. The strength of association with survival was striking with a more
313 than 2-fold increased risk of death among individuals with Proteobacteria or *Haemophilus* dominance.
314 While this could reflect these patients simply having more severe disease, adjustment for age, sex, and
315 FEV₁ and exacerbation frequency, did not significantly modify the association of Proteobacteria with
316 mortality. We have previously demonstrated that *Haemophilus* dysbiosis is associated with an increased
317 frequency of exacerbations and increased airway neutrophil extracellular trap formation.⁽¹¹⁾ NET
318 formation exposes the airway to increased concentrations of toxic proteases and antimicrobial peptides
319 such as neutrophil elastase and matrix metalloproteinases which are linked to disease progression in
320 emphysema and COPD, and which were linked to Proteobacteria dominance in this study.⁽³²⁾ There is
321 therefore a clear causal pathway through which bacterial infection could lead to disease progression and
322 increased mortality. Despite the strength of our findings the number of events during follow-up was
323 relatively small and confidence intervals wide. Our findings should ideally be replicated in future
324 longitudinal microbiome studies.

325 A series of microbiome studies of varying designs, including cross-sectional and longitudinal cohorts
326 have now provided remarkably consistent results. The dominance of *Haemophilus* and *Streptococcus* as
327 key taxa in COPD, distinct microbiome subtypes of exacerbation, the association with lower diversity and
328 poor lung function and more severe disease are all highly consistent across multiple cohorts.^{(11, 13, 15,}
329 18) This requires a consideration of how the microbiome could be therapeutically targeted. Here there is
330 an absence of evidence. *Haemophilus influenzae*, the most frequently identified species on culture in

331 those with *Haemophilus* dominance by sequencing, may be amenable to treatment with antibiotics but the
332 microbiome has been shown to be remarkably resistant to short term disruption with antibiotics.(11, 15)
333 Long term antibiotic treatment such as with macrolides has been shown to modify the microbiome, but in
334 a study by Rogers *et al*, in patients with bronchiectasis, a reduced relative abundance of *Haemophilus* was
335 associated with an increased relative abundance of other Proteobacteria including *Pseudomonas*.(33)
336 Therefore it is not certain that antibiotic treatment would produce a positive change in the microbiome.
337 Vaccination, pulmonary or gastrointestinal probiotics or discontinuation of immunosuppressive
338 medications such as corticosteroids have all been considered but interventional studies are now required
339 to establish if treatments can modify the microbiome in a meaningful way.

340 Limitations of our study should be acknowledged. Our study was enrolled from a single UK region and
341 results may not be generalizable to other settings worldwide. Our study included a high proportion of
342 patients with severe COPD and frequent exacerbations and consequently a high frequency of use of
343 preventative therapies such as inhaled corticosteroids and antibiotics. CT scanning can identify additional
344 phenotypic characteristics in COPD such as those patients with dominant bronchiectasis and emphysema
345 and the absence of systematic CT scanning in our study is an important limitation. We reported all-cause
346 mortality but did not have sufficient data to examine associations with respiratory specific mortality. We
347 used 16S rRNA sequencing to characterize the respiratory microbiome. This is the most widely used
348 method in the literature but has inherent biases which must be considered in interpretation of the results.
349 The most relevant limitation in this case is the lack of resolution to determine organism identity to species
350 level. It is therefore not known which Streptococcal species are being identified in the *Streptococcus*
351 cluster; use of species specific PCR could resolve the identity to species level in future studies.(34) It
352 should also be noted that sputum, while widely used in studies of the airway microbiome, has limitations
353 in that it is often intermediate between bronchoalveolar lavage and upper airway swabs, therefore
354 containing contributions from the upper and lower airway. Since our study aims to test the prognostic and
355 phenotypic utility of the sputum microbiome, we make no inferences about lung ecology. Whilst different
356 studies have utilized various cut-offs to investigate associations between microbiome profiles and blood
357 eosinophil counts (e.g. 2%), we used 100cells/ μ L to define eosinophilia, based on the recent GOLD 2019
358 clinical guidelines. Our generalised linear models show a continuous relationship between microbiome
359 profiles and blood eosinophil counts and did not suggest a true “cut-off” which is consistent with current
360 thinking within the COPD field as a whole. Our proteomic analysis was only performed in a subset of
361 patients. While the characteristics of these patients were similar to the overall cohort this introduces a risk
362 of selection bias. Our study has many strengths including the large sample size compared to other COPD
363 microbiome studies, the inclusion of a representative cohort including patients across the spectrum of
364 COPD and the availability of long-term microbiome samples and follow-up data.

365 In conclusion, we have identified microbiome associated subtypes of COPD associated with clinical
366 phenotypes and increased mortality. Our results support a personalized medicine approach to therapy in
367 COPD.

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371 **Contributorship section**

372 Study design: AJD, HM, BEM, RTS, JDC

373 Data collection: AJD, SF, JDC

374 Laboratory analysis: AJD, JTJH, HRK, CJF, BT, AJC, SF

375 Data analysis: AJD, JTJH, ML, BEM, RTS, JDC

376 Data interpretation: AJD, JTJH, ML, BM, RTS, JDC

377 Drafting the manuscript: AJD, JTJH, BM, RTS, JDC

378 Revising the manuscript and approval for submission: All authors

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472

473 **Figure Legends**

474 **Figure 1.** Flow chart of the patients and samples used in this study. Baseline characteristics of the cohort
475 who provided sufficient sputum for microbiome sequencing (n=252) is shown in Table 1

476 **Figure 2. A:** Microbiome profiles of all stable samples at the phylum level. **B:** Patient microbiome
477 profiles in COPD at the genus level. The samples are sorted by percentage *Haemophilus* and percentage
478 *Streptococcus* to emphasize the dominant populations.

479 **Figure 3.** Relationship between clinical phenotypes and microbiome composition **A:** Alpha diversity
480 measured by Shannon-Wiener Diversity Index and Berger-Parker Dominance Index, is associated with
481 the peripheral blood eosinophil count, p-value from paired T-test, 62 patients were identified as having a
482 peripheral blood eosinophil count of ≤ 100 cells/ μL , 190 had a count of >100 cells/ μL . **B:** Average %
483 OTUs at the phyla and genera level for non-eosinophilic patients compared to eosinophilic patients. **C:** %
484 Proteobacteria is negatively correlated with blood eosinophil counts. % Firmicutes is positively correlated
485 with blood eosinophil count. Generalized linear models with binomial errors and a logistic link function
486 were used to show how expected proportions of these phyla are related to blood eosinophil levels.

487 **Figure 4.** Relationship between baseline microbiome profiles and long-term survival. **A:** Microbiome
488 subgroups identified at the phylum level, for clarity only samples classed as Firmicutes or Proteobacteria
489 dysbiotic or balanced phyla are shown. **B:** Microbiome subgroups identified at the genera level, only
490 samples classed as *Haemophilus* or *Streptococcus* dysbiotic or balanced genera are shown.

491 **Figure 5.** Proteobacteria dominated microbiome profiles are associated with neutrophilic inflammation
492 in patients with COPD. 747 variables (consisting of 613 proteome, 113 microbiome and 21 clinical
493 variables) from n=78 patients were subjected to partial least square discriminant analysis based on three
494 pre-defined microbiome groups. **A:** The scores plot reveals the separation between the three
495 microbiome groups, Firmicutes (n=30, blue dots), balanced (n=15, yellow dots) and Proteobacteria
496 (n=33, red dots), ($R^2\text{X}=0.17$, $R^2\text{Y}=0.73$). **B:** Loadings plot showing which key variables (those closest to the
497 grouping reference points (black dots) drive the separation. Microbiome variables are labelled in red
498 with orange dots, proteins in black with green dots and clinical variables in blue with blue dots. A
499 separate univariate analysis was carried out to confirm the results and to avoid overfitting
500 (Supplementary Table S2).

501

502 **Table 1.** Baseline characteristics of the study population (n=252 unique subjects). Abbreviations: ICS=
 503 inhaled corticosteroids, BMI= body mass index, MRC= Medical Research Council, FEV₁= forced
 504 expiratory volume in 1 second, FVC= forced vital capacity, SGRQ= St Georges Respiratory
 505 Questionnaire, CAT= COPD assessment test. *includes medications used in combination with other
 506 bronchodilators or inhaled steroids.

Characteristics	Median (IQR) or n (%)
N	252
Age	71 (66-78)
Male Gender	153 (60.71%)
BMI	26.47 (24.0-31.02)
ICS use*	163 (64.4%)
Long acting beta-agonists*	201 (79.4%)
Long acting muscarinic antagonist*	186 (73.8%)
Short acting bronchodilators only	14 (5.6%)
Oral antibiotics	51 (20.24%)
MRC dyspnoea score	3 (2-4)
Current smokers	65 (25.79%)
Ex-smokers	184 (73.02%)
Pack years	
<10	12 (4.76%)
10-20	37 (14.68%)
20-40	94 (37.30%)
40 or more	107 (42.46%)
Missing	2 (0.79%)
Exacerbation frequency (year prior to the study)	
0	52 (20.63%)
1	48 (19.0%)
2	40 (15.8%)
3 or more	112 (44.3%)
Severe exacerbation requiring hospitalization (year prior to the study)	57 (22.62%)
Daily Sputum volume (mL)	10.0 (4.75-20.0)
Spirometry	
FEV ₁ (L)	1.50 (1.06-1.95)
FEV ₁ (% predicted)	65.35 (49.75-80.00)
FVC	2.87 (2.11-3.61)
FEV ₁ /FVC	53.00 (44.75-61.02)
GOLD 2017	
A	58 (23.02%)
B	32 (12.6%)
C	52 (20.6%)

D	110 (43.5%)
SGRQ total score	47.82 (31.93-64.58)
CAT total score	19 (14-25)

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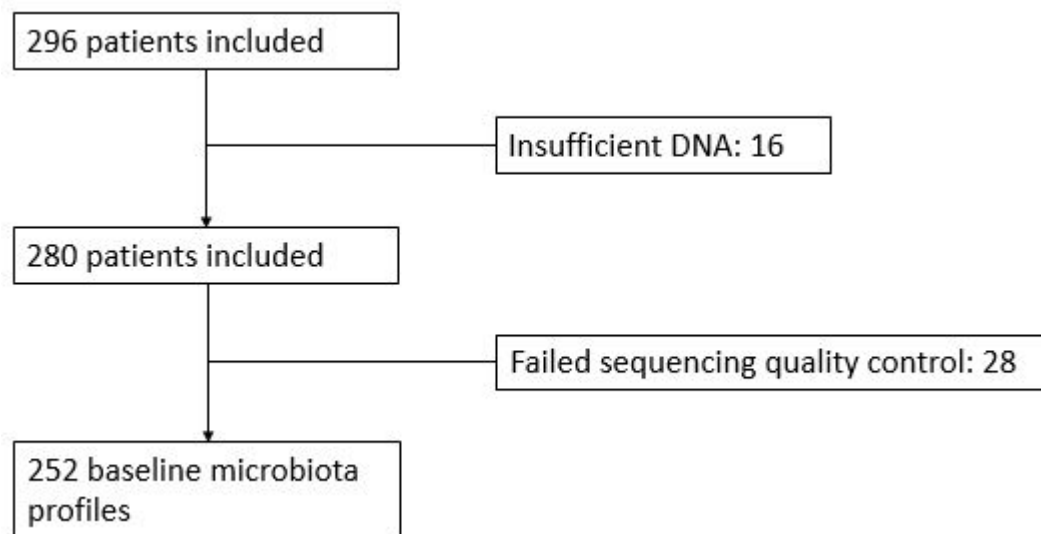
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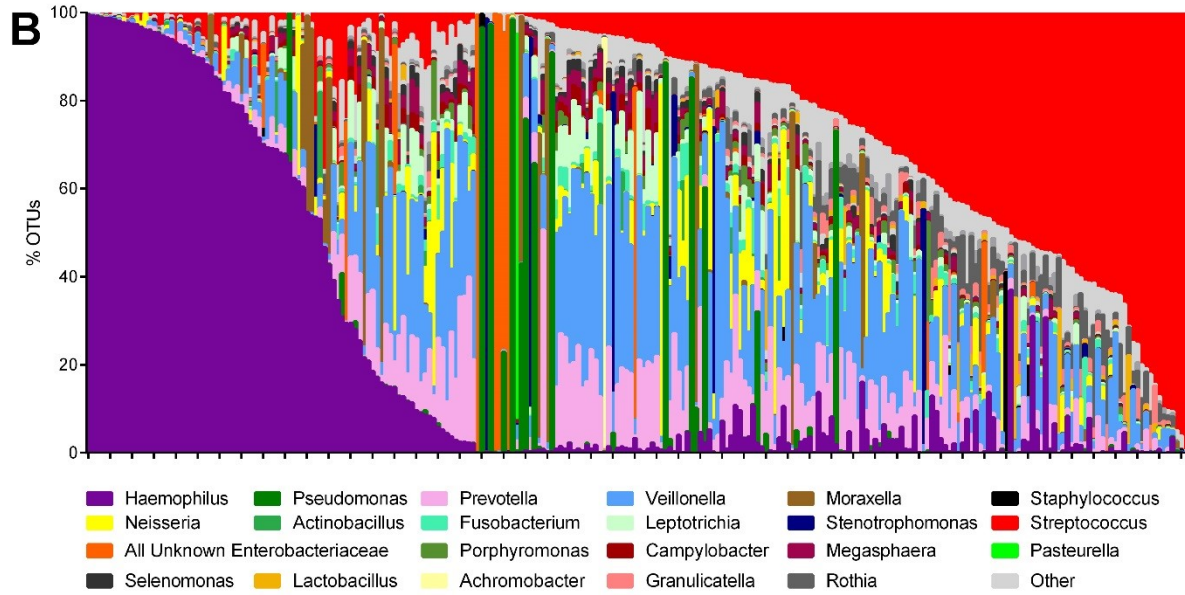
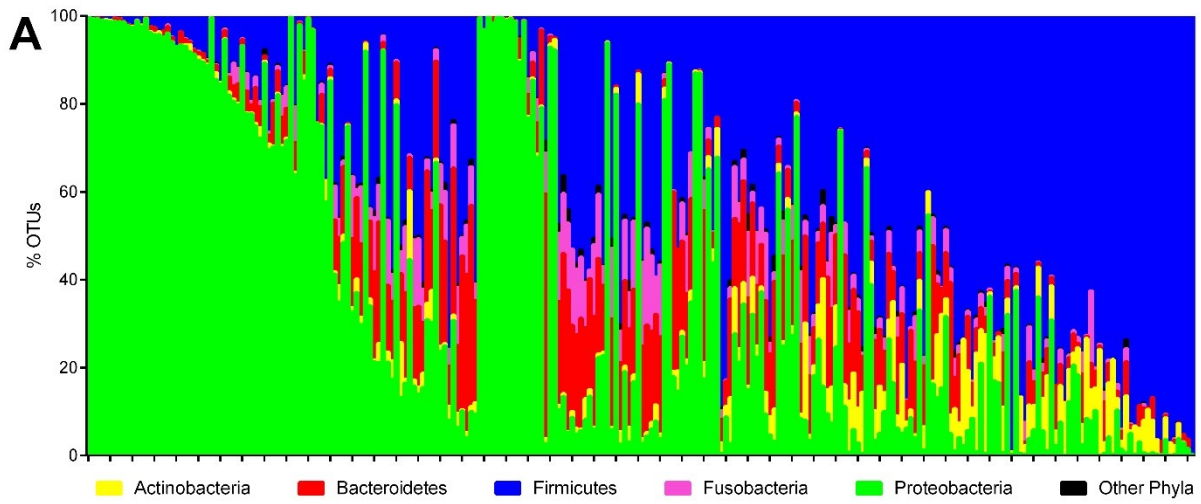
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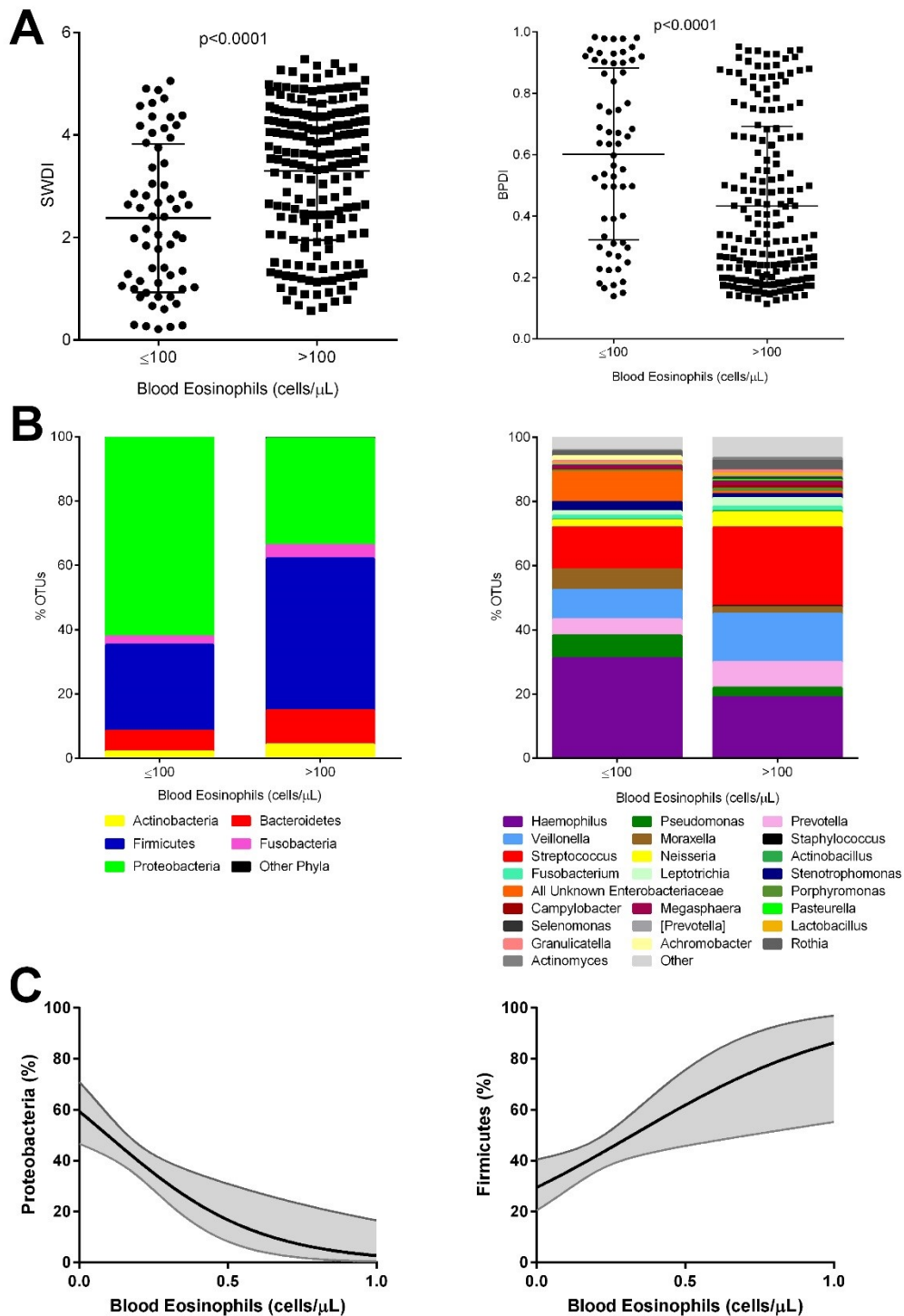
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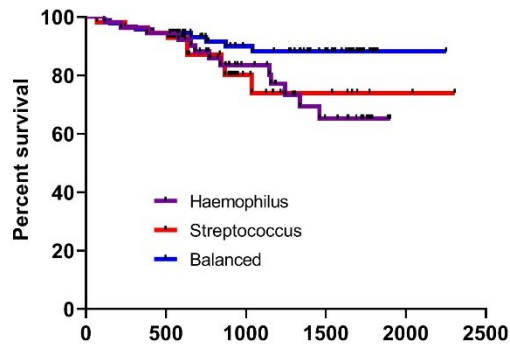
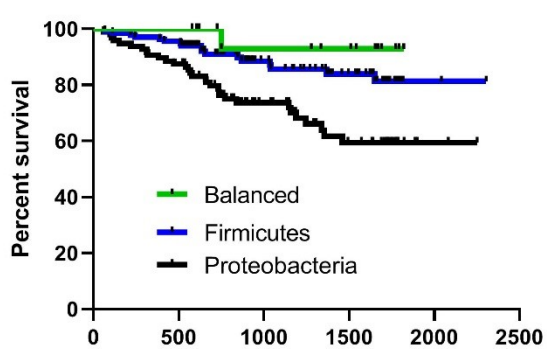
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	Time (days of follow-up)				
Numbers at risk	0	500	1000	1500	2000
Firmicutes	135	130	64	44	3
Balanced	18	18	13	11	0
Proteobacteria	96	85	46	27	4

	Time (days of follow-up)				
Numbers at risk	0	500	1000	1500	2000
Haemophilus	53	51	29	16	2
Streptococcus	56	54	15	8	3
Balanced	91	87	52	38	0

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