



## Article (refereed) - postprint

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1 The effect of anthropogenic arsenic contamination on the  
2 earthworm microbiome.

3

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20 **Abstract**

21 Earthworms are globally distributed and perform essential roles for soil health and  
22 microbial structure. We have investigated the effect of an anthropogenic contamination  
23 gradient on the bacterial community of the keystone ecological species *Lumbricus*  
24 *rubellus* through utilising 16S rRNA pyrosequencing for the first time to establish the  
25 microbiome of the host and surrounding soil.

26 The earthworm-associated microbiome differs from the surrounding environment which  
27 appears to be a result of both filtering and stimulation likely linked to the altered  
28 environment associated with the gut micro-habitat (neutral pH, anoxia and increased  
29 carbon substrates). We identified a core earthworm community comprising  
30 Proteobacteria (~50%) and Actinobacteria (~30%), with lower abundances of  
31 Bacteroidetes (~6%) and Acidobacteria (~3%). In addition to the known earthworm  
32 symbiont (*Verminephrobacter* sp.) we identified a potential host-associated  
33 Gammaproteobacteria species (*Serratia* sp.) which was absent from soil yet observed in  
34 most earthworms.

35 Although a distinct bacterial community defines these earthworms, clear family- and  
36 species-level modification were observed along an arsenic and iron contamination  
37 gradient. Several taxa observed in uncontaminated control microbiomes are suppressed  
38 by metal/metalloid field exposure, including eradication of the hereto ubiquitously  
39 associated *Verminephrobacter* symbiont, which raises implications to its functional role  
40 in the earthworm microbiome.

41 **Keywords:** microbiome, earthworm, symbiotic, host-associated, 16S rRNA  
42 pyrosequencing.

43

## 44 Introduction

45 In one square metre of a favourable soil environment roughly one litre of soil is  
46 contained within an earthworm population's gut where 4-10% of total soil is consumed  
47 annually (Drake & Horn 2007). Extrapolation indicates that over 10 years ~50% of soil  
48 will have passed through an earthworm and ~90% within 40 years. Within the United  
49 Kingdom an estimated 89.5 million litres of soil resides in the earthworm gut at any one  
50 time (1L M<sup>2</sup> of favourable UK soil (Barr *et al.*, 1978)) and therefore the egested material  
51 clearly represents the major constituent of soil.

52 Consequently, the global impact exerted by earthworms on the soil environment is vast  
53 and is integral to its microbial structure and physiochemical properties. The gut  
54 environment differs greatly from the surrounding soil as a result of a number of factors  
55 including exposure to anoxia and pH neutralisation (Drake & Horn 2007). Additionally,  
56 levels of organic carbon are higher in the gut than the surrounding soil due to the  
57 secretion of intestinal mucus producing a 'priming' effect (Brown *et al.* 2000). This can  
58 stimulate significantly an increase in the abundance of methanogenic, fermentative, and  
59 nitrate-reducing bacteria (Depkat-Jakob *et al.*, 2012, 2013). The transit time of ingested  
60 soil to eventual egestion is rapid, reported to range from 6-8 hours for *Lumbricus*  
61 *rubellus* (Daniel & Anderson 1992) to 2-16 hours for other earthworm species (Brown *et*  
62 *al.* 2000), raising the question of the extent of change which could occur in the microbial  
63 community during transit.

64 Host-associated microbiota is increasingly understood to contribute to an individual's  
65 phenotype. The host's impact on its microbiota and, in turn, the impact of the microbiota  
66 on the host can be observed in species at all taxonomic levels, including humans (Li *et*  
67 *al.*, 2008; Ley *et al.*, 2008). This 'two way street' forms the basis of the observed  
68 mutualism which can play an important role in the host organism's environmental  
69 interactions. Invertebrate examples of this mutualism include cellulose and xylan  
70 digestive processes in wood-feeding termites (Warnecke *et al.*, 2007), collagenolytic  
71 activity in *Osedax* boneworms (Goffredi *et al.*, 2007), and immune system potentiation  
72 in *Drosophila* (Teixeira *et al.*, 2008) and tsetse flies (Weiss *et al.*, 2012). The location of

73 such symbionts varies, including as organ-associated species (e.g. *Verminephrobacter*  
74 in earthworm species found in the nephridia (Pandazis, 1931; Schramm *et al.*, 2003)),  
75 or gut-bound structures which promote biofilm-like congregations, increasing microbial  
76 load and functional capacity (Hackstein & Stumm, 1994). A microbial community which  
77 could reduce host stress would be highly beneficial, and host-microbial symbiosis could  
78 therefore be seen as either an endpoint (i.e. an important component of the host) or a  
79 stepping-stone in invertebrate evolution which buffers the individual from external stress  
80 and enables the host population to encroach on environments otherwise inhospitable. If  
81 either, or both, hypotheses are correct this would exert strong selective pressure for the  
82 host to accommodate microbes which reduce the toxicity of environmental stressors.

83 Earthworm species ubiquitously host the symbiotic *Acidovorax*-like bacteria  
84 *Verminephrobacter* in the osmoregulatory nephridial organ (Pinel *et al.* 2008; Davidson  
85 *et al.* 2012) and this vertically transmitted symbiont has diversified with the specific host  
86 over significant evolutionary time (62-132 myr; Lund *et al.* (2009)). A role for  
87 *Verminephrobacter* in nitrogen and protein recovery was originally posited due to  
88 anatomical location and nephridial functionality (Pandazis 1931; Schramm *et al.* 2003);  
89 however, this has since been questioned due to an absence of extracellular proteases  
90 within the *Verminephrobacter eisinea* genome and on the analysis of aposymbiotically-  
91 reared individuals (Lund *et al.*, 2010).

92 Previous microbial analysis of the related earthworm species *Lumbricus terrestris* by  
93 Terminal Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (T-RFLP) has demonstrated  
94 highly similar microbial profiles in each 'compartment' (transient gut contents, soil, and  
95 casts (egested material)) indicative of a soil-derived microbiome (Egert *et al.*, 2004).  
96 Whilst the low resolution of T-RFLP analysis was considered a potential limiting factor,  
97 the authors concluded that an indigenous microbial community was unlikely. Later  
98 research suggests that the majority of microbial activity associated with the earthworm  
99 is likely contributed by the transient community being selectively stimulated by the  
100 unique environment encountered during transit. Wüst *et al.* (2011) described the role of  
101 the gut as an environment which encourages *Clostridia* and *Enterobacteriaceae*  
102 'fermenter' communities through metabolism of mucus- and plant-derived saccharides

103 resulting in nitrogenous gas production. The earthworm *Eisinea andrei* effects a  
104 reduction in soil microbial diversity but an increase in microbial activity through action on  
105 the transient community (Gómez-Brandón *et al.*, 2011). Distinct taxonomic groups have  
106 been identified at higher abundance in *L. terrestris* and *Apporectodea caliginosa* casts,  
107 notably Bacteriodes species (Nechitaylo *et al.*, 2010) where their role in organic  
108 matter breakdown is posited.

109 Earthworms are sometimes labelled 'extremophiles' due to regularly occupying habitats  
110 with severe geochemical gradients and high anthropogenic contamination (Morgan *et al.*  
111 *al.* 2007). The deep-burrowing earthworm species *L. terrestris* increases arsenic  
112 mobility in contaminated sites, concurrent with reduction of soil As(V) to As(III) during  
113 gut passage (Sizmur *et al.*, 2011). Genetic analysis of *L. rubellus* tolerance to arsenic  
114 has been previously undertaken (Langdon *et al.*, 2001, 2009; Kille *et al.*, 2013)  
115 suggesting a combination of genetic and epigenetic adaptive strategies. However, the  
116 host-associated microbial contribution has never been assessed. In the present study, a  
117 disused mine site with a range of arsenic contamination of up to c.x400 higher than the  
118 surrounding area was used as a 'model' anthropogenically stressed site. This site in the  
119 South-West of the United Kingdom has been previously characterised in terms of  
120 geochemistry and earthworm genotype (Klinck *et al.*, 2005; Kille *et al.*, 2013) and allows  
121 an *in situ* snapshot of the *Lumbricus rubellus* microbiome across a steep gradient where  
122 this extremotolerant species is commonly found. The specific aim of the present study  
123 was to elucidate both the differences between the microbial population present in the  
124 soil and that of the host, and also the impact of extreme stress on this community using  
125 High Throughput Sequencing to examine the microbiome of an ecologically-relevant  
126 earthworm species to a level of detail and resolution not previously published for any  
127 terrestrial oligochaete.

128

## 129 Results

### 130 The Basal Earthworm Microbiome

131 The observed taxonomic profiles and community structure represented the combination  
132 of transient soil and inherently host associated microbiota i.e. the known nephridial  
133 symbiont, *Verminephrobacter*. All earthworm samples included total gut contents  
134 (ingested soil) at time of harvesting, therefore any variation when performing  
135 comparisons with soil relates to direct influence of the host and represents the true  
136 microbial population present at the time of sampling.

137 The microbial composition (at the phylum level) of all *L. rubellus* analysed in this study,  
138 including on and off site controls together with the 5 sites originating from the As mine  
139 site, were analysed and compared with the combined soil microbial composition (Figure  
140 1). For the earthworms Proteobacteria is the most abundant phylum in the majority of  
141 individuals (28/32, 52.3% total average). The next most abundant phyla were  
142 Actinobacteria (28.0%), Bacteroidetes (5.9%), and Acidobacteria (3.2%).

143 In earthworms Alphaproteobacteria was the predominant class in most samples,  
144 primarily comprising Rhizobiales (57%) and Rhodospirillales (29%) which likely  
145 originated from soil and are subsequently selected for by the anoxic gut environment  
146 (Depkat-Jakob *et al.*, 2013).

147 Betaproteobacteria abundance was largely attributable to a single OTU of the known  
148 symbiont genus; *Verminephrobacter*, which comprised up to 93% of this microbial class  
149 in some individual earthworms. The presence of this taxon is highly sensitive to high  
150 arsenic contamination, resulting in near or total absence in all individuals from sites 1, 2,  
151 and 6, and 3/5 individuals from site 3 (high arsenic sites). *Verminephrobacter* presence  
152 in both Control sites and site 5 individuals was responsible for ~77% of  
153 Betaproteobacteria and ~22% total microbiota represented.

154 The remaining earthworm Betaproteobacteria was largely soil-derived with 17 of 18  
155 Betaproteobacteria genera being identified in both earthworm and soil communities. A  
156 proportion (16%) remains unclassifiable beyond Comamonadaceae (Family; 7%), (of  
157 which *Verminephrobacter* is member), Burkholderiales (Order; 6%) or

158 Betaproteobacteria (Class; 3%). Unclassified Comamonadaceae displayed significantly  
159 increased presence in the host compared with soil, as was also observed in the  
160 identified symbiont, and may indicate the presence of a *Verminephrobacter*-like species  
161 sufficiently distinct from known sequences as to form a distinct OTU.

162 Deltaproteobacteria abundance contributed 2.8% relative proportion to the earthworm  
163 community compared to 4.2% presence in soil. Gammaproteobacteria was present in  
164 approximately equal abundance between earthworm and soil communities (6.5% and  
165 7.3% respectively), however at the class-level an increased Enterobacteriales and  
166 reduced presence of Chromatiales was observed in the earthworm community  
167 (excluding the off-site control) when compared to that recorded in the soils.

168 The presence of Actinobacteria (28.0%) was consistent amongst all earthworm  
169 individuals, displaying an increased abundance compared to soil communities (8.7%).  
170 The relative abundance of major contributing classes was raised in host samples versus  
171 soils; Actinomycetales (13.6% vs. 4.2%), Acidimicrobiales (5.9% vs. 1.7%)  
172 Solirubrobacterales (5.5% vs. 1.16). Low levels of the phyla Bacteroidetes (5.9%) and  
173 Acidobacteria (3.2%) was present in host earthworm communities. This demonstrates a  
174 major decrease of soil Acidobacteria (34.6%) where it is the second most abundant  
175 phylum. Chloroflexi appeared at a higher rate in the microbiota of individuals from low  
176 contaminant sites (1.9% Off- and On-site controls compared to 0.8% contaminant sites),  
177 although this did not correspond with the soil communities, where Chloroflexi was  
178 identified in both high and low arsenic-enriched soils (Total: 1.6%).

### 179 **Host vs Habitat**

180 In total 26,618 OTUs were generated at 97% homology linkage with 15,723 OTUs  
181 originating from a single sequence (singletons) after normalisation (expected with this  
182 technique due to high variability in the soil environment (Griffiths *et al.*, 2011)).  
183 Supplementary Figure 3a shows OTU generation and diversity measures at 97%, 94%  
184 and 88%.

185 Principal Co-ordinate Analysis of Unifrac (Lozupone & Knight 2005) distances showed  
186 bacterial communities to differ between soil and host-resident microbiota (Figure 2a).



187 The largest differences were phylum level shifts where relative abundance of  
188 Acidobacteria reduced, and Actinobacteria increased from soil to *L. rubellus* however  
189 Figure 2b describes the family level abundance shifts in the earthworm community for  
190 families with >100 sequences in either the host or habitat. Taxa are ordered by  
191 magnitude of difference between soil and host and indicates that large shifts can be  
192 attributed to family level changes.

193 Diversity and richness is summarised in Figure 3a (detailed in Supplementary Figure 4).  
194 A general reduction in Shannon diversity was observed in host communities in  
195 comparison to the surrounding soil although not significant in all individuals (*t-test*,  
196  $P < 0.05$ , Supplementary Figure 4a). Chao1 richness was significantly lowered in all but  
197 one site (*t-test*,  $P < 0.05$ ) and Observed Species was significantly reduced in 5 of 7  
198 (Supplementary Figures 4b & 4c respectively). To assess the soil-host community  
199 differences from control sites, separate analysis of these samples was performed.  
200 Sample pooling generated 4 data points with high sequence depth (OnSiteControl-  
201 Worm, OnSiteControl-Soil, OffSiteControl-Worm, OffSiteControl-Soil. Subsampled to  
202 20,626 sequence reads per site). 16,725 OTUs were generated at the 97% homology.  
203 Diversity and richness estimates at this deeper level of sequencing maintained the  
204 same relationships as with the main dataset (Supplementary Figure 5) but also  
205 highlights that a large amount of diversity is yet to be captured.

## 206 **Core Community**

207 A consistent community structure was observed at the phylum level, as described  
208 above. 9,122 OTUs (at 97% homology) were found solely in the earthworm host  
209 microbiome but were absent from the soil. Due to the large variation in site conditions, a  
210 significant amount of diversity was observed across the dataset.

211 Earthworms shared 21% of genera between individuals at all sites (Supplementary  
212 Figure 3b). These were predominantly genera from Proteobacteria (61%) and  
213 Actinobacteria (28%). Greater conservation is likely, however 64.8% could not be  
214 accurately identified at this taxonomic level. Earthworms from both contaminated and  
215 control soils shared 13 genera which could be annotated from the reference database,  
216 which were not observed in soils. Seven 'core' OTUs were detected at all sites in at

217 least one individual, and these OTUs contributed to 5.4% of all earthworm-derived  
218 reads (Supplementary Figure 3). Of these core OTUs, six were identified as  
219 Actinobacteria (Class) representing 28% of the abundance, predominantly Nocardioidea  
220 and Patulibacteraceae. A single OTU representing the Gammaproteobacteria genus  
221 *Serratia*, a genus which contains a known symbiont in aphids (Sabri *et al.*, 2011),  
222 represented 72% of the core OTUs abundance and was found at distinct abundance at  
223 all sites excluding the on-site control (1.4% of total host-associated reads) although not  
224 every individual earthworm profile.

### 225 **The effect of anthropogenic contamination on the microbial community**

226 There was an implied, but non-significant trend observed in host community diversity  
227 between *L. rubellus* from control and contaminated sites (Figure 3b, Supplementary  
228 Figure 6). No significant trend was observed in correlation to arsenic availability or pH in  
229 either soil or earthworm microbiota with tested diversity and richness estimates  
230 (Shannon, Chao1, Observed OTUs, Supplementary Figure 4). Low resolution through  
231 subsampling normalisation may obscure minor trends.

232 Non-parametric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) analysis of unifracs distance profiles  
233 (Lozupone & Knight 2005) of all individual worm microbiomes demonstrates a  
234 consistent microbial population being present in earthworms from the same site (Figure  
235 3B) and also highlights the major environmental variables correlating with the host-  
236 microbiome, primarily the strong correlation with pH in the control sites. In the presence  
237 of the other measured environmental stressors, pH becomes less significant and the  
238 arsenic-iron complex is observed as the dominant determinant of microbiome  
239 composition. Cadmium appears to contribute strongly to the observed spatial patterning  
240 although sporadic presence/absence (5 sites  $<0.7 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ Cd}$  | 2 sites  $>7 \text{ mg kg}^{-1} \text{ Cd}$ )  
241 may over-represent the impact.

242 OTUs which drive the observed variance are identified in Figure 4. Network generation  
243 based upon the 47 most abundant earthworm-identified OTUs ( $>7\%$  abundance)  
244 separate *L. rubellus* individuals into control and contaminated groups, with Site 5  
245 spanning the two clusters. (ANOVA  $P < 0.05$  = association,  $P > 0.05$  = shared (FDR  
246 correction)). Site 5 samples were omitted from OTU association calculations due to

247 individuals from this site being outliers. 11 of the 48 abundant OTUs associate with the  
248 contaminated sites whereas 8 associate only with control sites and are largely absent  
249 from contaminated site locations. 29 OTUs were not significantly associated with either  
250 cluster implying co-occurrence in both control and contaminated site samples.

251

252

## 253 **Discussion**

254 We have described how the earthworm microbiome is distinct from the surrounding soil  
255 microbial community. Notably, the *L. rubellus* microbiome is dominated by  
256 Proteobacteria (~50%) and Actinobacteria (~30%). Bacteroidetes (~6%), Acidobacteria  
257 (~3%), Firmicutes, Chloroflexi and Cyanobacteria also appear regularly at lower  
258 abundance levels. Approximately 1/3 of Genera/OTUs (29.4% and 34.3% respectively)  
259 appear as earthworm-specific (not observed in the soil profiles), but only 7 OTUs are  
260 repeatedly observed in individuals sourced from across the seven sites. Sequencing  
261 depth is a limiting factor; however, these results support the concept that the community  
262 shift occurs in response to increases in the abundance of quiescent soil species via  
263 stimulatory effects in the gut environment, coupled with the environmental filtering of  
264 certain soil- and plant-associated species either by inter-specific competition or by  
265 unfavourable conditions. Figure 5 visually summarises the co-occurrence of OTUs  
266 across the dataset, demonstrating that while the majority of species are shared between  
267 all samples (host and soil), there is higher shared OTU incidence between worm  
268 individuals and their site of origin. Further notable is the number of OTUs which occur  
269 solely in the earthworms and remain absent from the soil, representing host-associated  
270 species not found in abundance in the soil. These observations contrast with earlier  
271 literature describing a high degree of similarity in the diversity of microbial communities  
272 within the earthworm gut and surrounding bulk soil (Egert *et al.*, 2004), but they concur  
273 with a later study that found the same major taxonomic groups at but at different  
274 proportions (Nechitaylo *et al.*, 2010).

275 We demonstrate that the earthworm-associated microbiome displays a significantly  
276 reduced level of diversity and richness in comparison to the surrounding soil, an

277 observation in agreement with Gómez-Brandón *et al.* (2011). This reduction is likely due  
278 to both the prominence of the *Verminephrobacter* symbiont, and proliferation of minor  
279 soil species in the favourable conditions of the host gut environment (neutral pH,  
280 mucosal saccharides, organic acids (Wüst *et al.*, 2009)) in conjunction with decreasing  
281 numbers of transient species. A diversity closer to soil was observed in host earthworms  
282 inhabiting contaminated micro-habitats where the symbiont is eliminated. This suggests  
283 that egested material is more similar to soil diversity despite taxonomic shifts and that  
284 the reduced measures observed are due in part to host-bound species.

285 Significant reductions are observed in the oligotrophic and acidophilic Acidobacteria  
286 families (including Solibacteraceae and Koribacteraceae) when passing from soil to  
287 host, which likely reflects both the impact of circumneutral gut pH and increases in  
288 carbon sources derived from gut secretions (Drake & Horn, 2007). Conversely,  
289 increases in Actinobacterial families typically described in soil communities suggest a  
290 stimulating effect of the host environment and may contribute to the acknowledged  
291 activity of earthworm species in nutrient cycling. For example, the increased earthworm  
292 abundance of Streptomycetaceae can contribute to cellulose degradation through  
293 enzymatic activity (Thakuria *et al.*, 2010), Mycobacteriaceae utilise soil humic acids and  
294 act in nitrogen cycling (Ventura *et al.*, 2007) and *Frankia* function as facultative nitrogen-  
295 fixing symbionts in plants (Normand *et al.*, 2007)) Additionally, the total absence (at this  
296 sequencing depth) of Enterobacteriaceae from soils, and the significant abundance in  
297 host communities, strongly suggests a microbial community curated by earthworms and  
298 indicates the potential presence of functionally beneficial symbiotic communities.

299 Anthropogenic soil contamination, particularly in the form of arsenic and iron, caused  
300 significant shifts in the composition of the earthworm microbiome. However several  
301 species of Actinobacteria and one species of Gammaprotobacteria were identified as  
302 being present in individuals from all sites (albeit not consistently in all individuals at this  
303 sequencing depth). The prominence of *Serratia* (Gammaproteobacteria) has not been  
304 previously noted in earthworms, although it may be a constituent of the  
305 Enterobacteriaceae community previously described (Wüst *et al.*, 2011). In free living  
306 communities, *Serratia* is known to digest a wide range of carbon sources through

307 production of various hydrolases (Farmer *et al.*, 1985), yet *Serratia symbiotica* is an  
308 intracellular symbiotic species in aphids which has lost many of these attributes during  
309 chronic host-association and vertical transmission (Sabri *et al.*, 2011). If the *Serratia*  
310 here observed, is indeed a symbiotic species then a chronic, vertically transmitted,  
311 association may account for such divergence. Further analysis will be needed to  
312 establish the nature of the *Serratia*-earthworm association and to determine the  
313 functional role of this highly prevalent species within its host.

314 The observed ubiquity of the symbiotic *Verminephrobacter* species in *L. rubellus*  
315 inhabiting non-contaminated control soils was predicted (Davidson *et al.*, 2013);  
316 however, we have found that it is highly sensitive to environmental arsenic  
317 contamination. As a long-known symbiont of *L. rubellus* nephridia (Pandazis, 1931),  
318 the absence of *Verminephrobacter* has been shown to reduce earthworm fitness in  
319 nutritionally impoverished environments (Lund *et al.*, 2010). The symbiont has been  
320 shown to be actively recruited by the earthworm whilst in the cocoon (Davidson & Stahl,  
321 2008) but the abundant presence of *L. rubellus* at the contaminated sites (Langdon *et*  
322 *al.*, 2001) suggests that absence of the symbiont does not cause apparent detriment to  
323 the host population and revives the question of its function.

324 The effect of elevated arsenic and iron on the host microbiota produces a conserved  
325 earthworm-associated community structure which is distinct from that extant in the  
326 surrounding soil. Furthermore, earthworm microbiome profiles are more similar between  
327 sites than individual earthworms and their site-specific soil. The combinatorial effect of  
328 iron with arsenic may relate to Fe-As complexes affecting arsenic speciation promoting  
329 the oxidation of arsenic to the As(V) species (Bednar *et al.*, 2005). It has been shown  
330 that leaching of arsenic from soils by the action of microbiota is increased in the  
331 presence of a carbon source (Turpeinen *et al.*, 1999) which may contribute to the effect  
332 of earthworm species on arsenic mobility (Sizmur *et al.*, 2011). Microbiome profiles  
333 originating from Site 5 earthworms consistently appeared unaffected by the high arsenic  
334 levels according to NMDS and Principal Co-ordinate Analysis. This correlates with  
335 marginally higher pH and higher copper concentration than the other most contaminated

336 sites although the multifactorial environmental characteristics which were assessed  
337 have not discerned the cause of this anomalous site.

338 We identified 18 abundant OTUs with a statistically significant increased abundance in  
339 *L. rubellus* from arsenic contaminated sites. These include unknown species of  
340 Burkholderiales, Acidimicrobiales, several Acetobacteria OTUs and the Actinomycetales  
341 *Frankia* and *Mycobactaria*. Additionally, two Comamonadaceae OTUs (closely related  
342 to the sensitive *Verminephrobacter* symbiont) were associated with the contaminated  
343 microbiomes and may represent a divergent, tolerant lineage. In the terrestrial isopod  
344 *Porcellio scaber*, environmental mercury contamination causes a shift in gut community  
345 and an increased abundance of Hg-resistance bacterial genes, potentially contributing  
346 to the isopod's resistant phenotype (Lapanje *et al.*, 2010). Species identified in this  
347 study could be of interest in future investigations into the basis of local adaptations of  
348 earthworm field populations to chronic arsenic exposure, and also in understanding the  
349 increased mobility of soil arsenic in the presence of earthworms (Sizmur *et al.*, 2011).

350 Twenty highly abundant OTUs were found not to significantly associate with either  
351 contaminated or control site earthworms. These core OTUs consisted of several  
352 flavobacterium species, including *Actinobacteria*, *Rhizobiales* and *Serratia* and form the  
353 most likely candidates for defining a core functional community. However, distinguishing  
354 active species from those inactive in transit are beyond the possibilities of this study and  
355 requires further research.

356 There were 9 contaminant-sensitive OTUs identified, including *Bacillus*, *Clostridia*,  
357 *Rhizobiales*, and the *Verminephrobacter* symbiont. All of these were strongly associated  
358 with unpolluted reference sites. Given their high abundance in the *L. rubellus*  
359 microbiome from control sites, their absence could result in major changes in the  
360 functional output of the microbial population and may potentially disrupt fundamental  
361 host processes (e.g. the *Verminephrobacter* symbiont). Additionally, in light of the  
362 essential environmental roles that *L. rubellus* performs (Edwards, 2004; Bernard *et al.*,  
363 2012; Nahmani *et al.*, 2007), alteration of the stable microbial community structure could  
364 have large impacts upon global processes such as greenhouse gas production  
365 (Lubbers *et al.*, 2013; Ihssen *et al.*, 2003).

366 Given the high microbial community variability at the genus/species level, few species  
367 form major constituents or contribute towards a 'core community' as observed in some  
368 other invertebrates, for instance termites (Warnecke *et al.*, 2007). This means that any  
369 broad functional roles arising from the microbiome (e.g. denitrification (Drake *et al.*,  
370 2006; Ihssen *et al.*, 2003)) would have to be enacted by communities acting in concert,  
371 rather than by single dominant species. However, it is reasonable to expect that  
372 disparate ingested communities can differentially proliferate to a functionally  
373 convergent, active, microbial population to exploit the stable conditions maintained by  
374 the host environment. The host-induced propagation of Enterobacteriales (facultative  
375 aerobes) validates one proposed origin of nitrogenous gasses (Wüst *et al.*, 2011) and  
376 supports the notion that some roles are derived from the action of a wider microbial  
377 community rather than an individual species.

378 Earthworms are globally distributed and perform essential roles in organic matter  
379 fragmentation, carbon and nitrogen cycle regulation and the modulation of soil microbial  
380 composition (Lavelle *et al.*, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2002; Brown *et al.*, 2000). The present study  
381 posits that the earthworm species *L. rubellus* accommodates, *in situ*, a significantly  
382 divergent microbiome community compared with that found in the surrounding bulk soil  
383 that it inhabits. Therefore, understanding the interplay between transient/resident  
384 microbial communities and their ecosystem-engineering geophagic hosts is key to  
385 explaining the environmental effects earthworms have, as well as improving our  
386 knowledge of the benefits of mutualism for soil invertebrates. Moreover, the  
387 demonstrated impact of anthropogenic contaminants on the microbial community of a  
388 representative member of an ecologically-important taxon raises concerns for both host  
389 health and causal effects on the global environment.

390

391 Supplementary information is available at the Environmental Microbiology website.

392

## 393 **Experimental Procedures**

### 394 **Site description and soil chemistry**

395 *Lumbricus rubellus* and soil samples were obtained from the disused Devon Great  
396 Consols mine site in the Tamar Valley, Devon, South-West UK (Mine centre: Latitude:  
397 50.538456, Longitude: 355.777252) (Supplementary Figure 1). The site has historically  
398 mined copper then later arsenic and an extreme arsenic gradient is still observed at  
399 discrete site locations, as has been previously documented (Kille *et al.*, 2013). Soil  
400 characterisation was previously performed (described in Kille *et al.* 2013) where  
401 triplicate samples were taken from the epigeic level (surface 10cm), dried at 80°C and  
402 analysed via aqua regia digestion for total concentrations of various metals  
403 (Supplementary Figure 1). pH varies within small boundaries and is independent of the  
404 arsenic gradient. Five sites were identified within the mine in addition to two 'clean'  
405 reference sites. The first was located at a site adjacent to the contaminated area, which  
406 displays relatively increased arsenic level (On-Site Control) and another 20 km distant  
407 from DGC which was outside the geological area of arsenic rich soils present in the  
408 Tamar Valley (Off-Site Control, Latitude: 50.688863 Longitude: 355.75955).

409 Earthworms were visually identified as *L. rubellus* with later confirmation via COI  
410 barcode sequencing (described below). Individuals were immediately washed with  
411 distilled water, frozen in liquid nitrogen, ground using a pestle and mortar and stored at -  
412 80°C until required. Soil samples were collected from the epigeic surface layer (10 cm;  
413 *L. rubellus* habitat) in a one metre square 'W' formation and hand mixed in a sterile bag  
414 before being divided into three replicates, chilled and DNA extracted within 24 hours.

### 415 **DNA extraction**

416 Total DNA was extracted from 5 randomly selected earthworm samples and the three  
417 soil replicates from each site. Earthworm extraction was performed to manufacturer  
418 specifications using the Qiagen blood and tissue extraction kit (Qiagen Inc., Crawley,  
419 UK) with the substitution of proteinase K digestion for a bead-beating step. ~0.5 g 0.1  
420 mm glass beads and ~20 1.0 mm zirconia/silica beads (Biospec products Inc  
421 (Bartlesville, Oklahoma, USA)) were placed into 2 ml screw-cap tubes and  
422 homogenised using an MPBio FastPrep-24 tissue and cell homogeniser (Solon, Ohio,



423 USA). The resultant supernatant was utilised in the downstream extraction with the  
424 Blood and Tissue kit. DNA was quantified using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer  
425 (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, DE) prior to PCR. Soil extraction was performed  
426 to specification using the Soil PowerBio kit (MO BIO Laboratories, CA, USA).

427 All samples were analysed using Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis (DGGE) to  
428 as an initial assessment of bacterial diversity and community structure following the  
429 method described in Webster *et al.* (2006) (Data not shown).

### 430 **Bar-code Amplification**

431 PCRs were performed in 50µl reactions in an aseptic UV cabinet with sterile plasticware  
432 and nuclease-free molecular-grade H<sub>2</sub>O as follows: 1x reaction buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>,  
433 0.4 pmol µL<sup>-1</sup> each primer, 0.25 mM each dNTP, 1.25 U Taq polymerase plus 1 µl  
434 concentration-normalised template. PCR mixture for soil samples contained an  
435 additional 10 mg bovine serum albumin (BSA; Promega Corporation, Madison, WI).

436 Earthworm species confirmation was achieved via sequencing of the COI barcode gene  
437 (Primers: LCO-1490 (5'-GGTCAACAAATCATAAAGATATTGG-3'), HCO-2198 (5'-  
438 TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA-3'). 16S rRNA community sequencing used  
439 universal bacterial primers (357f (5'-CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG-3') and 907r (5'-  
440 CCGTCAATTCMTTGGAGTTT-3')) with 12bp barcode and 454 sequencing adaptors  
441 (Roche, CT, USA).

442 PCR conditions were: initial denaturation of 95°C for 5 mins, 35 amplification cycles of  
443 95°C for 30 seconds, 54°C for 40 seconds, 72°C for 1 Min, and a final single extension  
444 cycle of 72°C for 1 minute. In all cases triplicate PCRs were performed and pooled in an  
445 equimolar mix prior to sequencing.

### 446 **Next Generation Sequencing and Bioinformatic Analysis**

447 A total of ~1,200,000 sequence reads were obtained from Research and Testing  
448 laboratories (Lubbock, USA). This dataset was primarily composed of 530,320 454 GS  
449 FLX+ reads and expanded with an additional 681,891 454 FLX Titanium reads. Reads  
450 were screened at >25 average quality, within 3 standard deviations from mean length  
451 and truncated to 650 bp prior to denoising using acacia (Bragg *et al.*, 2012),

452 incorporating the Quince model (Quince *et al.*, 2009). 726,884 corrected reads were  
453 filtered further utilising the QIIME pipeline (Caporaso *et al.*, 2010) to restrict length  
454 (350<X<600 bp); remove homopolymers >6; and reject mismatched primers. 579,526  
455 reads were filtered to remove contaminating *L. rubellus* host sequence (22,454) and  
456 *Monocystis agilis* (6,893); a known eukaryotic parasite. The remaining 550,179 reads  
457 were demultiplexed by sample and randomly subsampled to the lowest sample size  
458 whilst still retaining at least three replicates (2,811) which resulted in removal of three *L.*  
459 *rubellus* individuals from analysis. ~148,983 reads were utilised for processing and  
460 analysis using the QIIME pipeline (Caporaso *et al.*, 2010) (For detailed processing see  
461 Supplementary Figure 2). OTUs were generated at 0.97, 0.94 and 0.88 where  
462 appropriate using UCLUST (Edgar, 2010). Taxonomy identification was performed  
463 using BLAST with the greengenes reference dataset (McDonald *et al.*, 2012).

464 Statistical analysis was performed using R (R Core Team & R Development Core  
465 Team, 2013) including the Vegan (Oksanen *et al.*, 2013) and ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009)  
466 packages. To visually examine the relationship between the earthworm associated  
467 microbiomes across the different sites Non Metric Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS)  
468 from unifrac distances (Lozupone & Knight, 2005) was performed. To describe and  
469 compare community structure Shannon diversity, chao1 richness and observed species  
470 metrics' were calculated with QIIME.

471 To represent association of major OTUs to site conditions, network analysis was  
472 performed with QIIME and analysed with Cytoscape (Shannon *et al.*, 2003). OTUs  
473 (>200 abundance per sample (7%)) were labelled to most accurate taxonomic level  
474 available and coloured by association to site origin conditions (ANOVA  $P < 0.05$  =  
475 association,  $P > 0.05$  = shared (FDR correction)). Site 5 samples were omitted from OTU  
476 association calculations due to individuals from this site having distinct geochemical  
477 properties (discussed below).

478 All work was done on the Bio-Linux operating system (Field *et al.*, 2006) and performed  
479 on a local compute cluster.

480

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485

486

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642

643

644 **Titles and legends to figures**

645 **Figure 1. Contrasting the *Lumbricus rubellus* and soil microbiomes.**

646 Figure demonstrating separation between soil (squares) and *L. rubellus* (circles)  
647 showing change in community structure from soil to host. (A) PCoA of unifrac distances  
648 with distinct separation on the primary axis. Each point represents an individual  
649 microbiome sample. (B) Bacterial families with significant difference between host and  
650 soil. If Family level annotation was not possible Order was given denoted by (o).  
651 Additive presence for all sites ordered by magnitude and plotted with standard deviation  
652 error bars. Families with >3.5% host or soil reads and significant change displayed.  
653 Right box describes family, or next identifiable taxa. t-test denotes significance of  
654 change in family abundance between soil and host (\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ).

655 **Figure 2. Phylum-level diversity chart for Soil and *L. rubellus* samples arranged**  
656 **by UPGMA phylogenetic sample similarity.**

657 Vertical columns indicate relative proportion of microbial phyla per sample. Columns  
658 labelled: **Site/Replicate** and coloured according to arsenic contaminant level by  
659 indicative boxes [High arsenic: dark] -> [Low arsenic: Pale]. Phylogenetic analysis  
660 indicates individuals sourced from the same site cluster closely by microbiome profile.  
661 Proteobacteria has been displayed at class level as the largest Phyla. Full taxonomic  
662 analysis is in main text body.

663 **Figure 3. The effect of anthropogenic stress on community structure.**

664 (A) Overview of Diversity and Richness (Shannon and Chao1 respectively) for all soil  
665 (Squares) and *Lumbricus rubellus* (circles) microbiomes as coloured by site origin.  
666 Lower right box displays magnified area for clarity. Also see Supplementary Figure 3.  
667 (B) Non-parametric Multi-Dimensional Scaling (NMDS) plot representing divergence of  
668 *L. rubellus* microbiota profile and site similarity in conjunction with environmental  
669 factors. pH is shown as the major contributor to community structure variation in  
670 individuals from control soils replicating known soil effects. Arsenic abundance appears  
671 to cause a combinatorial effect with iron due to iron affecting. Site-specific grouping is  
672 observed, as is the effect of increasing stress on the microbiome community structure.



673 **Figure 4. Network Analysis of all *L. rubellus* samples with associated abundant**  
674 **OTUs**

675 Significantly present OTUs (>7% abundance, diamonds) in network association with  
676 earthworm individuals (*L. rubellus*, blue circles). Coloured by association to site origin  
677 conditions when ANOVA testing associates OTU with condition ( $P < 0.05$  = association,  
678 FDR correction). All samples were incorporated in generation of network however Site 5  
679 outlier individuals were omitted from association calculations.

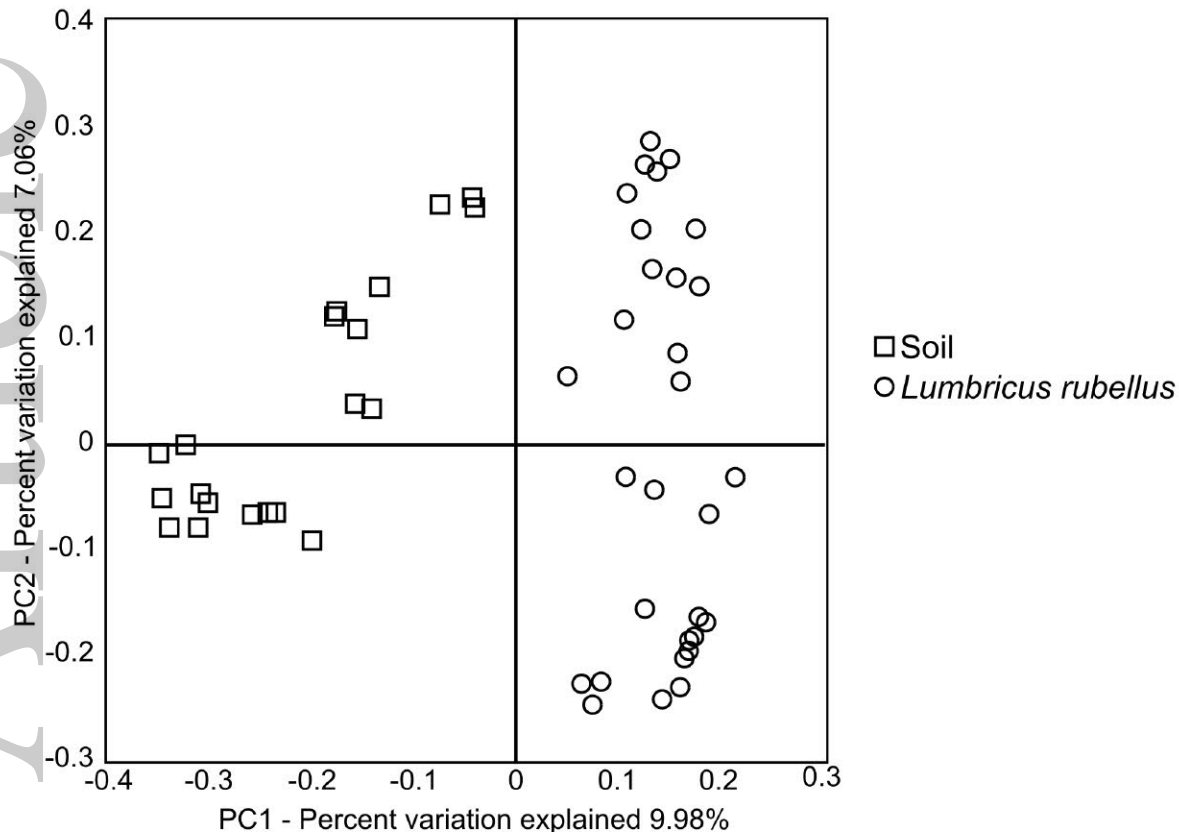
680 **Figure 5. Venn diagram summarising shared OTUs between soil and earthworm**  
681 **samples at High and Low contaminant sites.**

682 A high number of OTUs were observed in all situations correlating with the soil-derived  
683 microbiome hypothesis however, a smaller number of *L. rubellus*- OTUs were observed,  
684 implying presence of host-associated species. OTUs counted when derived from a non-  
685 singleton sequence.

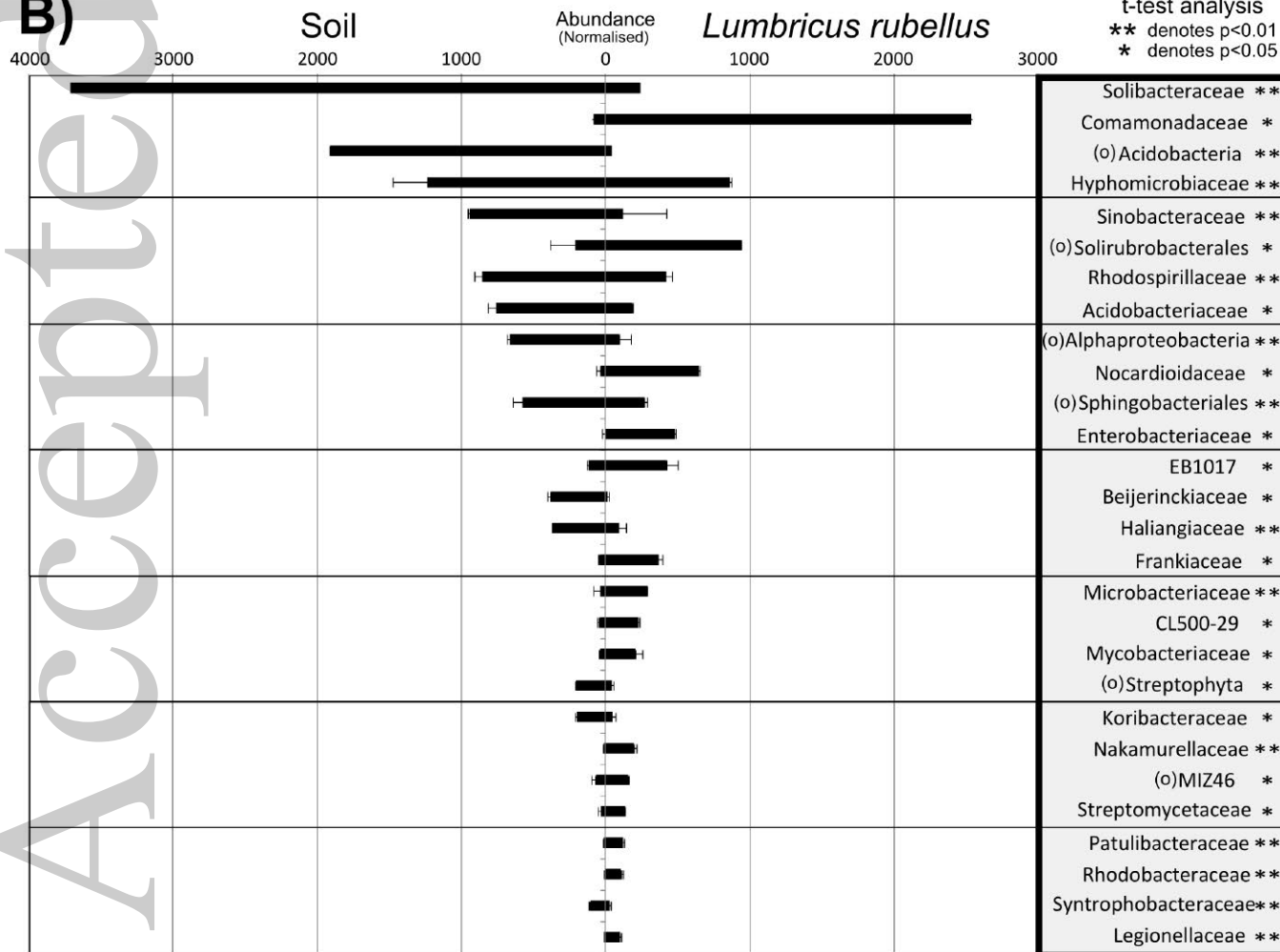
686

A)

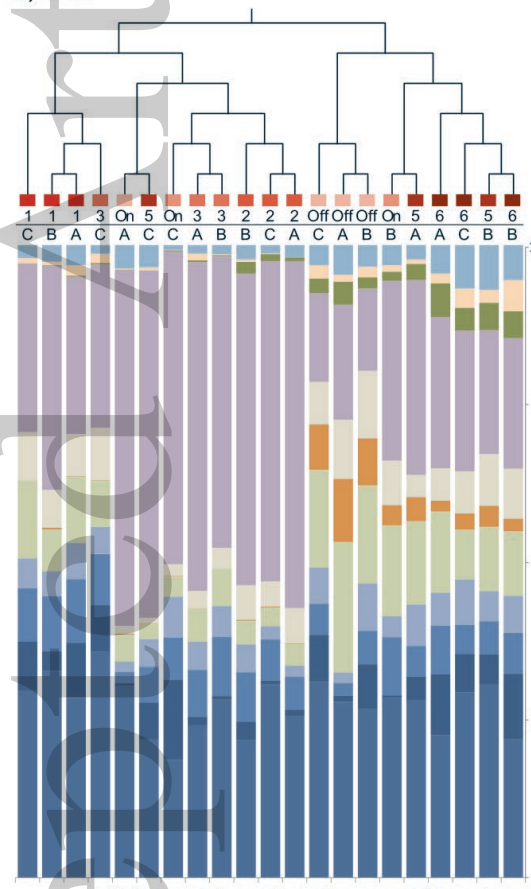
PCoA *L. rubellus* vs Soil Microbiome



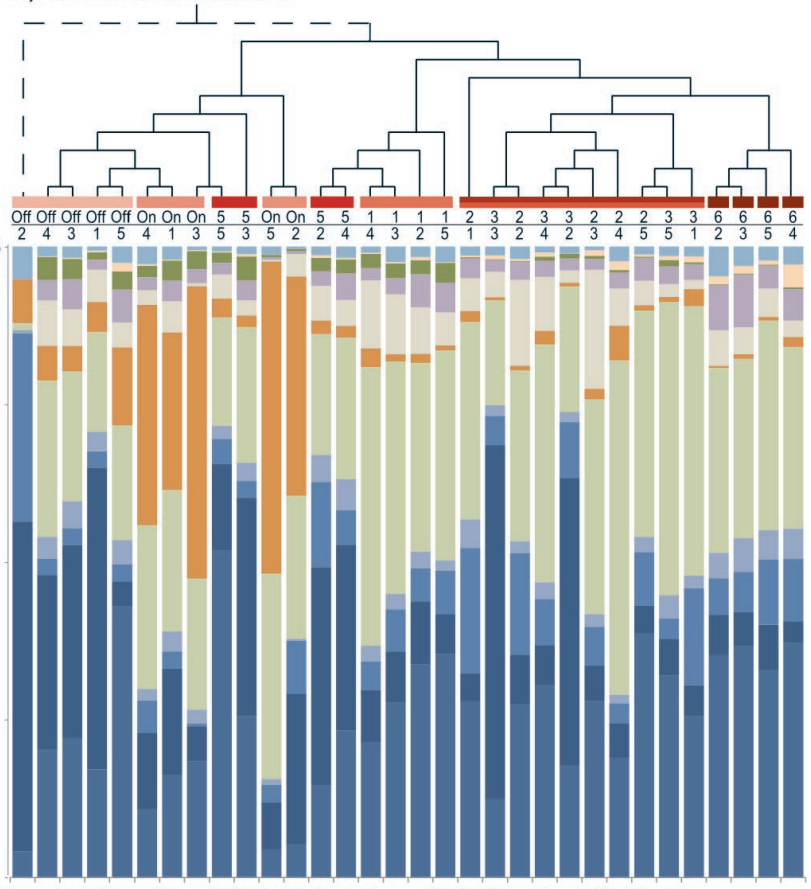
B)



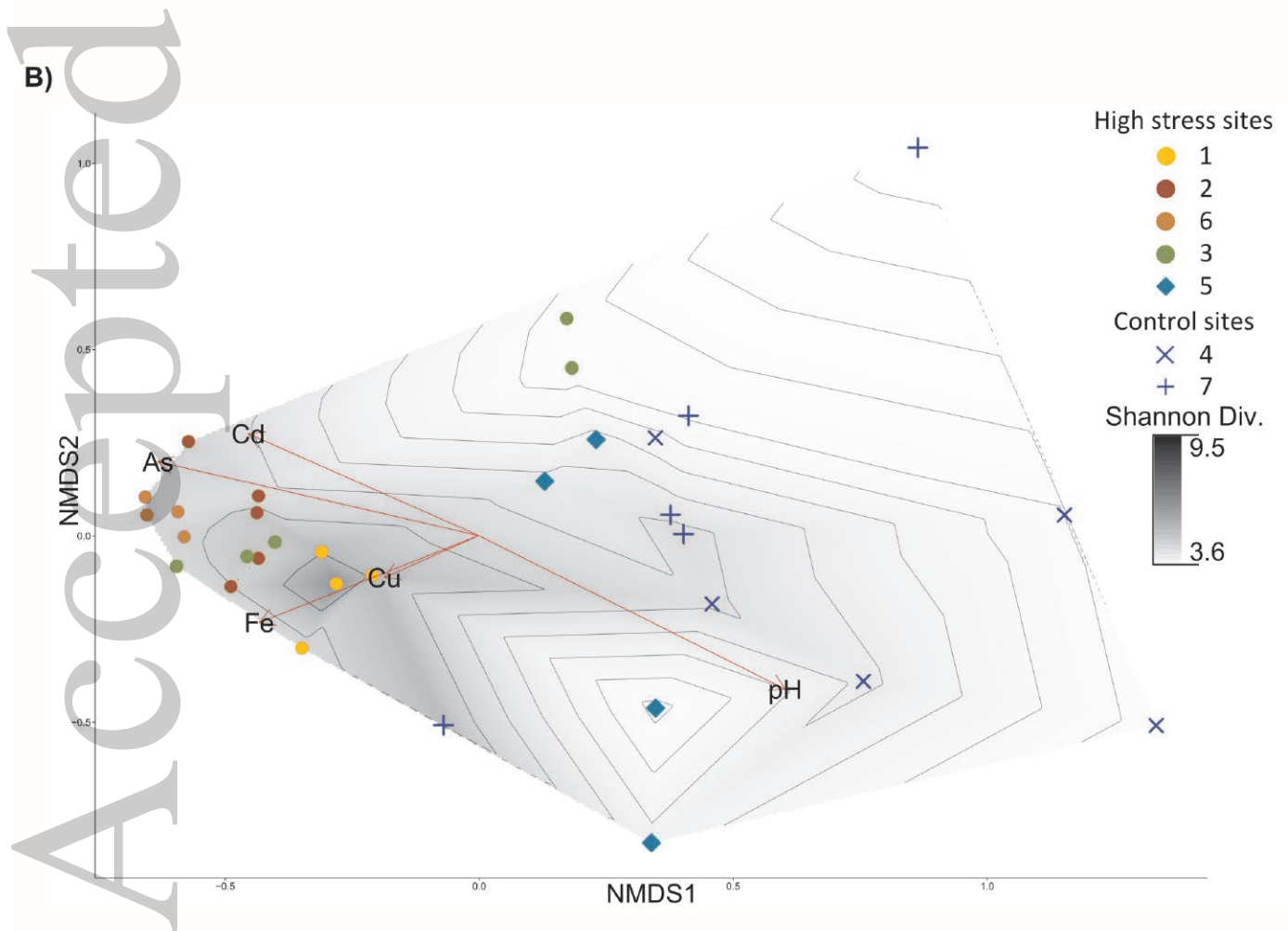
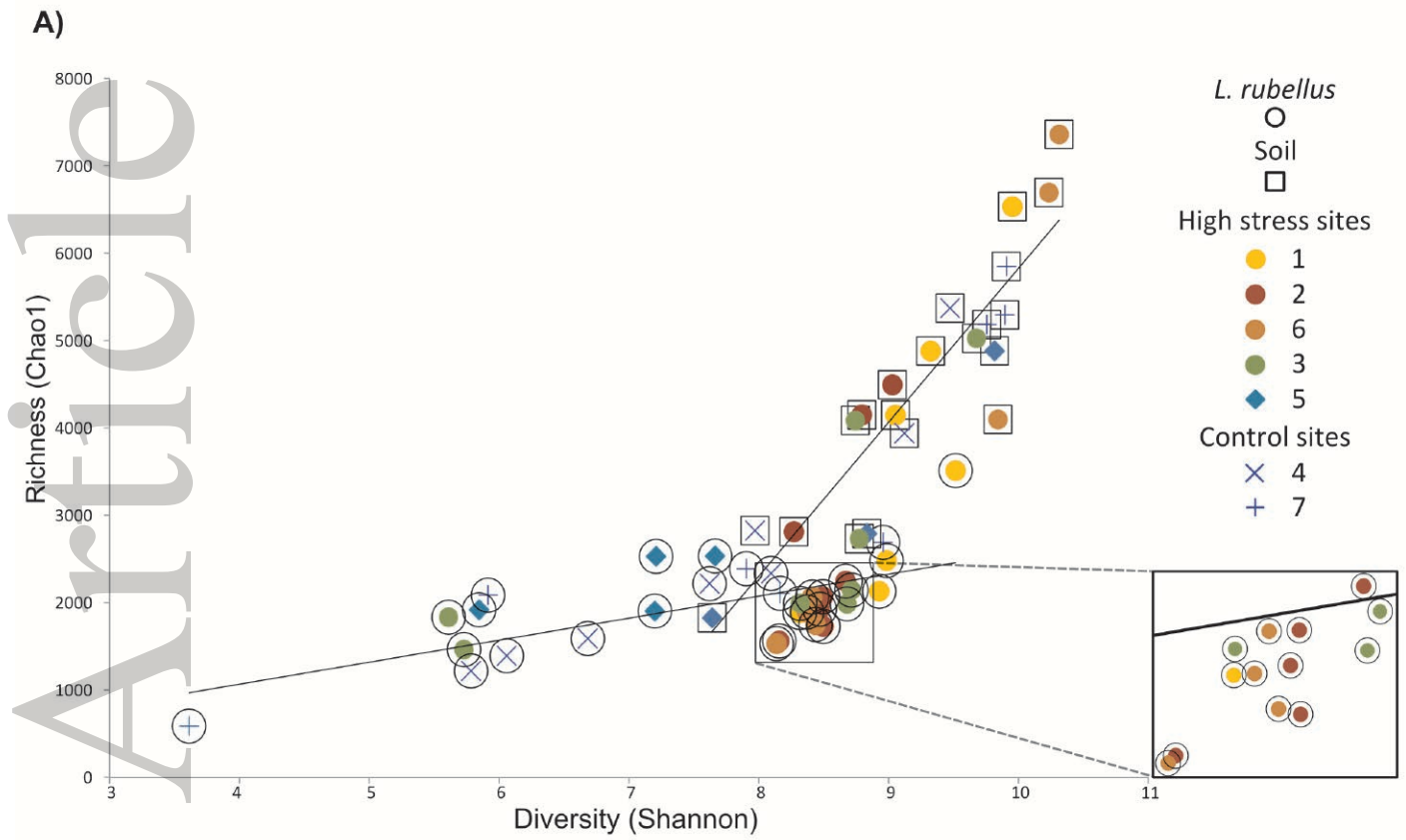
a) Soil

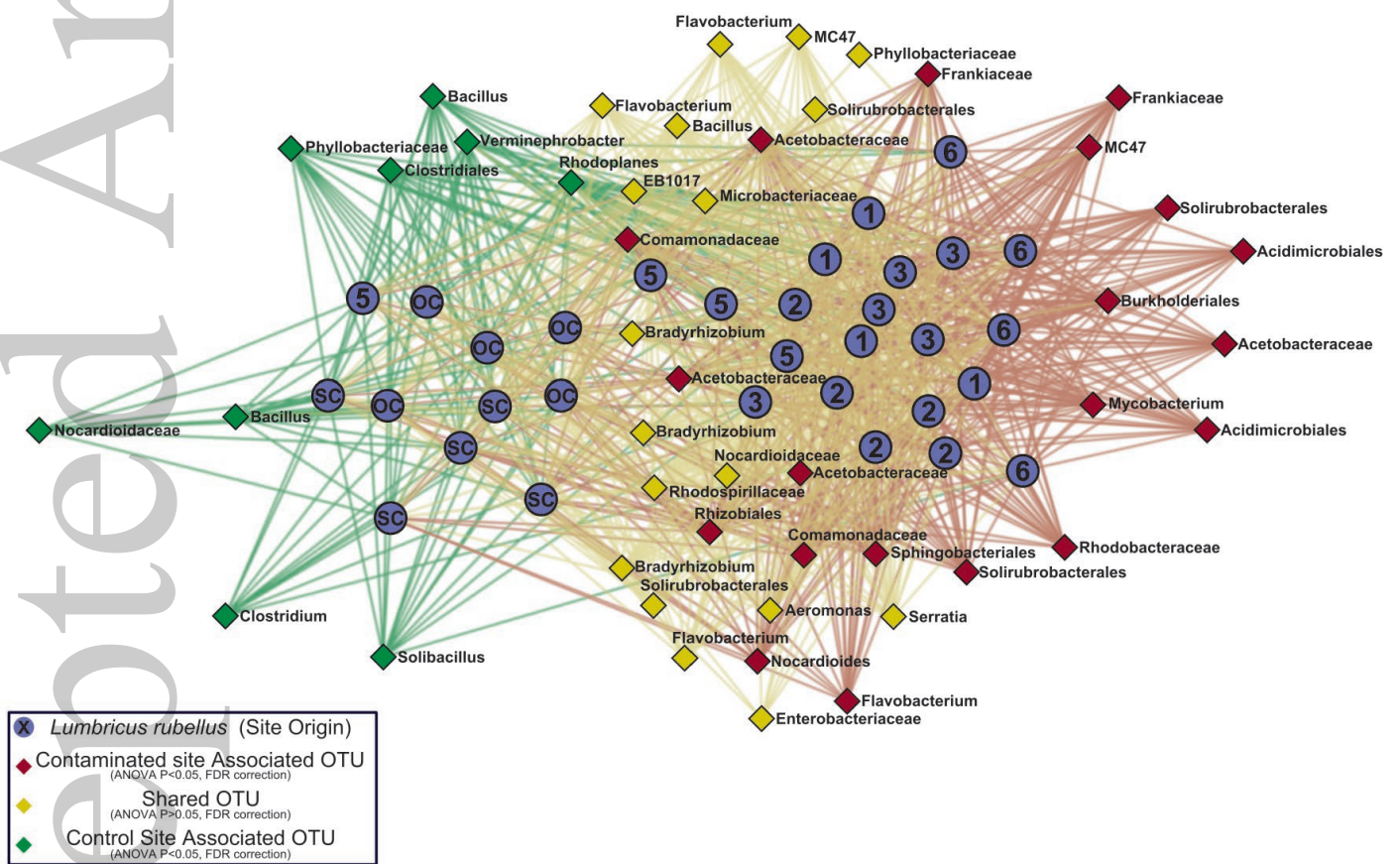


b) *Lumbricus rubellus*



■ Alphaproteobacteria ■ Betaproteobacteria ■ Gammaproteobacteria ■ Deltaproteobacteria ■ Actinobacteria ■ Firmicutes  
 ■ Bacteroidetes ■ Acidobacteria ■ Chloroflexi ■ Cyanobacteria ■ Other





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