

1 **Variation in the microbiome of the urogenital tract of koalas**

2 **(*Phascolarctos cinereus*) with and without ‘wet bottom’**

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15 **Abstract**

16 Koalas (*Phascolarctos cinereus*) are iconic Australian marsupials currently threatened by
17 several processes. Infectious reproductive tract disease, caused by *Chlamydia pecorum*, and
18 koala retrovirus infection are considered key drivers of population decline. The clinical sign
19 of ‘wet bottom’, a staining of the rump associated with urinary incontinence, is often linked
20 to chlamydial urogenital tract infections. But, wet bottom has been recorded in koalas free of
21 *C. pecorum*, suggesting other causative agents in those individuals. Current understanding of
22 the bacterial community of the koala urogenital tract is limited. We used 16S rRNA diversity
23 profiling to investigate the microbiome of the urogenital tract of ten female koalas. Five
24 presented with wet bottom and five were clinically normal. We detected thirteen phyla across
25 the ten samples, with Firmicutes occurring at the highest relative abundance. The order
26 Lactobacillales comprised 70.3% of the reads from all samples. After normalising reads using
27 DESeq2 and testing for significant differences, there were 25 operational taxonomic units
28 more commonly found in one group over the other. This study provides an essential
29 foundation for future investigations of both the normal microflora of the koala urogenital
30 tract, and better understanding of the causes of koala urogenital tract disease.

31

32 Introduction

33 The koala (*Phascolarctos cinereus*) is an iconic marsupial species endemic to Australia.
34 Northern koala populations, in the states of Queensland and New South Wales, are currently
35 declining due to impacts from both disease and increased urbanisation. Two significant
36 pathogens of koalas, *Chlamydia pecorum* and koala retrovirus (KoRV), have been the focus
37 of koala infectious disease investigation since their respective discoveries. KoRV is currently
38 undergoing endogenisation into the genome across the koala population in Australia¹. KoRV
39 has been detected in all northern koalas sampled², and has been associated with a large
40 number of clinical signs of disease³. *Chlamydia pecorum* infection causes ocular and
41 urogenital infections and can lead to blindness and infertility in koalas, greatly impacting
42 population fecundity and survivability^{4,5}. *C. pecorum* is commonly associated with the
43 clinical sign known as ‘wet bottom’ or ‘dirty tail’⁶. This staining or scalding of the rump is
44 associated with cystitis due to *C. pecorum* infection in some populations⁷, but recently
45 samples from a large number of koalas from Victorian populations with mild wet bottom
46 were negative via qPCR for *C. pecorum*⁸. In particular, koalas in a population considered at
47 the time to be free of *C. pecorum*⁹ had a similar prevalence and severity of wet bottom to
48 populations where *C. pecorum* occurred in more than 35% of the population. Further analysis
49 demonstrated that whilst wet bottom could be significantly linked to the detection of *C.*
50 *pecorum* infection in male Victorian koalas, this relationship did not exist in females¹⁰. It may
51 be that some other as yet unidentified organism is causing these mild clinical signs of disease
52 in koalas, however to date there has not been extensive research to determine the normal flora
53 of the koala urogenital tract, making it difficult to use traditional microbiological techniques
54 to detect species of interest. Modern sequencing technology, specifically 16S rRNA
55 biodiversity profiling, was used to improve our understanding of the microbiome of the

56 urogenital tract of koalas, and to compare the microbiome of koalas with and without mild
57 wet bottom.

58 **Methods**

59 **Sample Collection and initial screening**

60 Samples used in this study were urogenital swabs, from female koalas, stored in RLT buffer
61 (Qiagen) taken from an archive of koala samples collected in 2011 from French Island,
62 Victoria, Australia (38°21'0" S, 145°22'12" E). Koala samples were collected under general
63 anaesthetic by veterinarians and trained field assistants during routine population
64 management exercises and clinical health of koalas was recorded at the time. Sample
65 collection was approved by the University of Melbourne Faculty of Veterinary Science
66 Animal Ethics Committee, application ID:1011687.1. Koala specific data collected included
67 body condition score⁸, age (based on tooth wear)⁵ and wet bottom score¹¹. After screening all
68 samples for *Chlamydia* spp. using a previously described qPCR^{12,13}, we selected ten samples
69 from female koalas where no *C. pecorum* was detected. We used five samples collected from
70 koalas showing no clinical signs of urogenital disease and five samples collected from koalas
71 that showed clinical signs of wet bottom (Table 1). As no blood samples were available from
72 the koalas used in this study urogenital swabs were utilised for KoRV screening using qPCR
73 protocols previously described¹⁴.

74 **Amplification and sequencing**

75 DNA extraction and amplification from the swab samples was performed commercially by
76 The Australian Genome Research Facility (Australia). Sequencing was performed on the
77 Illumina MiSeq platform. Variable domains three and four of bacterial 16S rRNA were
78 amplified using primers 341F (5' CCTAYGGGRBGCASCAG 3') and 806R (5'
79 GGACTACNNGGGTATCTAAT 3').

80 Quality filtering and OTU assignment

81 Quality filtering and operational taxonomic unit (OTU) assignment was undertaken using a
82 mixture of scripts and algorithms available in the programs USEARCH¹⁵ and QIIME 1.9.1
83 (Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology)¹⁶. The resulting paired-end reads for each
84 swab sample were merged using USEARCH script **fastq_mergepairs**. Primers were then
85 trimmed using seqtk¹⁷ and reads were filtered for quality using USEARCH script
86 **fastq_filter**, utilising an expected error cut off of 1, rather than PHRED quality score¹⁸.
87 Paired reads which were shorter than 400 bp were discarded. Unique reads within the entire
88 sample set were assigned OTUs using the USEARCH algorithms **derep_fulllength** and
89 **cluster_otus**¹⁹, with a minimum identity of 97% for clustering. Singletons were excluded
90 from analysis due to the high likelihood that they contain errors, as per USEARCH
91 **cluster_otus** manual²⁰. The merged reads from each swab sample, including the previously
92 excluded singletons were matched with the produced OTUs using USEARCH script
93 **usearch_global**, with a threshold of 97% identity to group a read into specific OTU. The
94 taxonomy of each OTU was determined by using the QIIME script **assign_taxonomy.py** in
95 conjunction with the Greengenes taxonomy database²¹. Chloroplast and mitochondrial OTUs
96 were removed from the dataset using the QIIME script **filter_taxa_from_otu_table.py**.

97 Read normalisation and analysis

98 Read data was assessed using three different methods. Relative abundance was utilised to
99 compare basic phylum presence in each sample. Rarefaction of reads was undertaken, using
100 **multiple_rarefactions.py** QIIME script, to assess alpha and beta diversity at a set read level.
101 Negative-binomial normalisation of reads, using DESeq2²² as recommended by McMurdie
102 and Holmes²³, was performed using the QIIME script **normalize_table.py**. Alpha-diversity
103 metrics assessed were species richness, Chao1²⁴, phylogenetic distance and Shannon's

104 diversity²⁵, using reads sampled to a depth equalling the sample with the fewest reads
105 (rounded down to the nearest 5,000 reads). Non-parametric comparisons of alpha diversity
106 between the two sample groups (wet bottom present or absent) were undertaken with the
107 **compare_alpha_diversity.py** QIIME script, with 10,000 permutations. Beta-diversity was
108 assessed using the **beta_diversity_through_plots.py** QIIME script, in which both
109 unweighted and weighted UniFrac distances²⁶ were assessed. Bray-Curtis dissimilarity²⁷
110 between samples was also assessed. 3D PCoA plots were drawn within the script using
111 EMPERor software²⁸. Distance and dissimilarity metrics were used to compare the microbial
112 communities between the two groups by utilising the permutational ANOVA
113 (PERMANOVA) method within the **compare_categories.py** QIIME script, with 10,000
114 permutations. Statistical comparisons of the differential abundance of OTUs between koalas
115 with and without wet bottom utilised DESeq2 within the QIIME script
116 **differential_abundance.py**. These comparisons aimed to determine OTUs which were over-
117 represented in either group. Statistically significant results were based on P -values < 0.05 ,
118 and were adjusted for false discovery²⁹ within the script. The analyses listed above were
119 repeated to compare koalas from which KoRV provirus was or was not detected.

120

121 **Results**

122 **Clinical status of koalas**

123 Of the five koalas with wet bottom, the median wet bottom clinical score was 3 (ranging from
124 2 – 4). The five clinically healthy animals all had wet bottom clinical scores of 0. The median
125 body condition score of all koalas included in this study was 3 (ranging from 2 – 4). The
126 mean weight for koalas was 7.4 kg (\pm 1.01 standard deviation [S.D.]) (Table 1). All koalas

127 were negative for *C. pecorum*. Three koalas were positive for KoRV provirus, two in the
128 group of koalas without wet bottom (Table 1).

129 **Analysis and processing of sequencing data**

130 A total of 2,295,607 paired reads were obtained across the ten samples, with a mean read
131 number of $(229,560.7 \pm 40,522 \text{ S.D.})$. The GC content of the reads was 51.8%. After quality
132 filtering and discarding merged sequences shorter than 400, the total number of reads OTU
133 clustering was 1,946,587, with a mean read number of 194,658.7 (S.D. $\pm 29,951.1$) per
134 sample (Table 1).

135 The filtered reads were clustered into 261 OTUs, 7 of which were either chloroplasts or
136 mitochondria and were subsequently removed. For comparison, the same filtering and
137 clustering methodology was run without the removal of singletons, which resulted in the
138 clustering of reads into 592 OTUs.

139 **Phylum presence and relative abundance**

140 In total, 13 phyla were detected in the ten samples (Table 1), with Firmicutes occurring at the
141 highest relative abundance (77.61%). Just over a third of the OTUs were classified as
142 Firmicutes (95/254), followed by Proteobacteria (59/254) and the Bacteroidetes (35/254).

143 When samples were split into the two groups, koalas without wet bottom had 89.3% of reads
144 classified as Firmicutes, followed by those which could not be assigned using the 97% cut-off
145 (5.2%) and Actinobacteria (3.5%). Koalas with wet bottom had 68.2% Firmicutes. The next
146 two most prevalent phyla were Proteobacteria (12.5%) and Bacteroidetes (12.2%).

147 Deferribacteres were detected in only one sample (Koala 70, wet bottom present) and
148 Acidobacteria were only detected in two (one clinically normal koala and one displaying wet
149 bottom). Armatimonadetes was detected in three koalas without wet bottom, but in none of

150 the five diseased koalas. These three phyla were detected at the lowest relative abundance
151 across the ten samples.

152 **Richness and diversity**

153 Species richness within each sample, using absolute abundance, is described in Table 1.

154 Across the ten samples sequenced, the mean number of OTUs in each sample (with
155 singletons, chloroplasts and mitochondria removed) was 80.0 (ranging from 55 to 126). After
156 rarefaction to 160,000 reads, the mean OTUs of the two groups were 80.0 (S.D. \pm 9.62) and
157 75.93 (S.D. \pm 24.61) for koalas with wet bottom and without wet bottom, respectively.

158 Assessing absolute reads, the median Shannon's diversity of these samples was 2.48 (ranging
159 from 1.08 to 4.09) and the median diversity in koalas with and without wet bottom was
160 comparable (Kruskal-Wallis test; $H = 0.53$, d.f. = 1, $P = 0.465$). At 160,000 reads alpha
161 diversity metrics for samples from koalas with or without wet bottom were comparable. This
162 included OTU abundance ($P = 0.81$), Chao1 ($P = 0.83$), phylogenetic distance ($P = 0.71$) and
163 Shannon's diversity ($P = 0.86$) (Supplementary materials S1). Results detailing
164 presence/absence for all OTUs detected in koala urogenital samples is recorded in
165 supplementary materials S2.

166 Fewer than half of the OTUs detected across the two sample groups were shared between
167 them (112/254) (Figure 1). At a read depth of 160,000 there was a significant difference
168 between the microbial communities in koalas with wet bottom compared to those without,
169 based on the results of PERMANOVA using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity ($F = 4.92$, $P = 0.019$)
170 and unweighted (qualitative) UniFrac distances ($F = 1.62$, $P = 0.031$). There was no
171 significant difference detected when using weighted (quantitative) UniFrac distances ($F =$
172 1.51 , $P = 0.061$). The 2D and 3D principle coordinate analysis graphs comparing koalas with
173 and without wet bottom are shown in supplementary materials S3 and S4. There were no

174 significant differences in either alpha or beta diversity metrics when comparing koalas with
175 or without KoRV provirus detected.

176 **Comparisons between samples using DESeq2 normalised reads**

177 Negative binomial normalisation of reads from each sample using DESeq2 still resulted in
178 Firmicutes as the most dominant phylum across all samples. This was followed by
179 Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes (Figure 2). Overall there were 25 OTUs with significant (P
180 < 0.05) over-representation or under-representation in wet bottom affected koalas, in
181 comparison to clinically normal koalas, based on these normalised read counts (Table 2). Of
182 those OTUs, when assessing absolute read count, six occurred only in koalas with wet
183 bottom, whilst eight occurred only in koalas without wet bottom (Table 2). There were no
184 significant differences between abundances of normalised OTUs between koalas with or
185 without KoRV provirus detected.

186 **Discussion**

187 Previous assessment of the koala microbiome has focused on the unique digestive system of
188 koalas comparing either two free ranging animals from northern populations³⁰ or two captive
189 koalas in Europe³¹, from which the ocular microbiome was also assessed. This study is the
190 first investigation of the microbiome of the urogenital tract of the female koala using modern
191 high-throughput techniques, and only the second to assess the urogenital tract of a marsupial,
192 with the Tammar wallaby investigated previously using terminal restriction fragment length
193 polymorphism analysis³². The majority of reads in our sample set were classified in the order
194 Lactobacillus. This dominance of Firmicutes mirrors what has been seen in the human
195 vaginal microbiome³³. In humans, the acidic pH of the genital tract is maintained by these
196 lactic acid producing bacteria, which in turn is thought to play a role in preventing pathogenic
197 infection³⁴. It appears from our sample set that koalas have a different family within the

198 *Lactobacillus*, possibly performing a similar role. The most common family within our
199 classified OTUs, in terms of either relative or normalised read abundance, was
200 *Aerococcaceae*, whilst in humans the *Lactobacilli* dominate the reproductive tract. Within the
201 *Aerococcaceae*, the genera *Aerococcus* and *Facklamia* were both represented in the top four
202 most abundant OTUs. For all four significantly differentially abundant *Aerococcus* spp.
203 OTUs, the same OTU could be detected in at least 4/5 (80%) of the converse sample group in
204 absolute reads. For example, OTU 4, an *Aerococcus* spp. whose representative sequence had
205 91.8% identity to *Aerococcus urinae* occurred in all ten koala samples, but was present in
206 significantly higher quantities in clinically normal koalas after normalisation. Whether
207 specific *Aerococcus* spp. that are over or under-represented are an important factor in terms
208 of disease presence requires further investigation. The production of hydrogen peroxide by
209 commensal *Lactobacillus* is thought to play a role in reducing the successful establishment of
210 sexually transmitted diseases in humans^{35,36}, and it has been shown that *Aerococcus* spp. are
211 involved in hydrogen peroxide production^{37,38}. In humans *Aerococcus* spp. have also been
212 associated with disease, including the aforementioned *Aerococcus urinae*, which can cause
213 urinary tract infections³⁹ and septicaemia⁴⁰. Investigations into the urinary microbiome of
214 women with and without ‘urgency urinary incontinence’ found that *Aerococcus* spp. were
215 detected more frequently in cases where disease was present⁴¹. In our study, the four
216 *Aerococcus* spp. OTUs that had significantly different normalised abundance were evenly
217 split, with two having higher abundance in koalas with wet bottom and two in koalas without
218 wet bottom. The role of organisms within this family as opportunistic pathogens in koalas
219 cannot be ruled out.

220 The *Aerococcus* were the most common genus amongst those OTUs with significant
221 differential abundance after normalisation using DESeq2. The representative sequences of
222 these four OTUs did not match known species within the *Aerococcus* genus with an identity

223 greater than 97%, suggesting that these represent novel species. This is not unexpected, as the
224 culture of organisms from the koala urogenital tract has been limited to only a small number
225 of studies, with the majority focused on diagnosing what was later deemed to be chlamydial
226 infection⁴²⁻⁴⁴. Efforts in culturing novel bacteria from koalas have focused primarily on its
227 unusual gut microbiome⁴⁵, owing to its diet of eucalyptus leaves, as well as the microbial
228 flora in the pouch⁴⁶. Of the OTUs that were classified to species level in our study, one was
229 classified as *Lonepinella koalarum*, which was first isolated from the faeces of a captive
230 koala⁴⁷. In our koalas, *L. koalarum* was present in 6/10 samples and occurred at a relatively
231 low abundance in the majority, ranging from 1 to 3139 absolute reads (median of 1)
232 (Supplementary material S2). Whilst it is possible for a species to occupy multiple body sites,
233 it could also suggest that our samples contain minor contaminants from the intestinal tract.
234 The anatomy of the koala, with the cloaca through which the urogenital tract is accessed also
235 containing the rectal opening, means that such contaminants are difficult to avoid. Future
236 studies of the urogenital tract microbiome would benefit from either taking control samples
237 from the rectum of the koala being sampled, or inverting the cloaca so that the urogenital
238 opening is more easily accessible, as described previously for the tammar wallaby³². In that
239 study, approximately a quarter of phylotypes (26/96) were detected in both the urogenital and
240 rectal samples, suggesting that bacteria occupying multiple sites in marsupials is not unusual.
241 Whilst there did not appear to be any strong clustering on our 2D or 3D PCoA plots,
242 comparisons of the beta-diversity between groups highlighted that the makeup of the
243 communities was significantly different when assessing Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and
244 unweighted UniFrac distances. These metrics assess presence/absence of OTUs between
245 groups, with UniFrac also considering phylogenetic distance between OTUs present. The
246 finding that weighted UniFrac distances, which considers the abundance of OTUs, were
247 comparable between groups suggests that there was no clustering due to OTU prevalence.

248 The average number of OTUs detected in our samples is difficult to compare to other
249 publications investigating koala microbiomes. This is both due to the impact that sample site
250 differences would have on OTUs present, as well as the method of OTU classification used.
251 For instance, previous research on the koala intestinal microbiome used QIIME for analysis
252 of 454 pyrosequencing reads³⁰ and detected 1855 OTUs, after removal of chimeras and
253 singletons, from caecum, colon, and faecal samples. Similarly, an Illumina based study of
254 microbiomes from ocular, oral, rectal and faecal samples from two captive koalas found OTU
255 numbers ranging between 597 to 3,592, with a median of 1,456³¹. The average raw read
256 numbers per sample assessed in these projects ranged from 12,831 (454 pyrosequencing) to
257 323,030 (Illumina). Our own average raw reads per sample were within that range (229,561),
258 suggesting that the OTU differences between our studies are either associated with the
259 sample site (urogenital versus digestive tract) or clustering methodology used. We employed
260 UPARSE due to its demonstrated ability to correctly identify OTUs in a mock community
261 and minimise spurious OTUs¹⁹.

262 It could be argued that the skewed relative abundance of Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes in
263 the samples from koala 49 and 70, respectively, could be a result of swab contamination with
264 faecal material, which would impact diversity inferences. The human microbiome project
265 identified that reads from stool samples were predominately from the Bacteroidetes phylum⁴⁸,
266 and the most recent assessment of the koala rectal microbiome found these two phyla to be
267 the most abundant in samples taken from both koalas assessed³¹. The representative sequence
268 from the OTU with the highest relative abundance from koala 49 matched *Escherichia coli*
269 with 100% identity (429 bp) (GenBank Accession Number: KY305421). *E. coli* is an
270 organism commonly found in the gut of mammals. It can also cause urinary tract disease
271 through opportunistic infections in species such as humans⁴⁹, cats and dogs⁵⁰. It is possible
272 that the *E. coli* detected here is responsible for a urinary tract infection, resulting in “wet

273 bottom”, rather than simply resulting from faecal contamination. Early investigations into
274 reproductive tract disease in koalas isolated *E. coli* from the uterine horns⁵¹ and from purulent
275 exudate⁵² of koalas suffering pyometritis. Increased sample sizes, as well as samples from
276 different anatomical regions of the same individuals would allow elucidation of the role of *E.*
277 *coli* as a causative agent of urogenital disease. The most abundant OTU in the sample from
278 koala 70 had a 92.2% nucleotide identity to *Tannerella forsythia* (424 bp) (GenBank
279 Accession Number: JN713185). This organism is more commonly considered an oral
280 pathogen in humans, but has been isolated from women suffering from bacterial vaginosis⁵³.
281 An organism related to this pathogen, represented by this OTU, could also be causing wet
282 bottom clinical signs in koalas, but more data is required to truly assess its impact.

283 The other family of significant interest are the Tissierellaceae, within the order Clostridiales.
284 The four OTUs classified as Tissierellaceae with a significant differential abundance, three in
285 the genus *Peptoniphilus*, all occurred in higher normalised quantities in koalas with wet
286 bottom present. Interestingly, only one of these four OTUs was detected at all in the group of
287 koalas without wet bottom, and only from the reads of one koala within this group. The
288 *Peptoniphilus*, previously part of the genus *Peptostreptococcus*⁵⁴ within the family
289 Peptostreptococcaceae (also in the order Clostridiales), have been associated with
290 inflammatory diseases in other species. This includes mastitis in cattle⁵⁵ and pelvic
291 inflammatory disease in humans⁵⁶. Organisms in this genus are fastidious anaerobes⁵⁴ and
292 therefore potentially overlooked in culture based methods of investigating urogenital tract
293 pathogens.

294 Our sample size is larger than previous studies of koala microbiomes, which have
295 incorporated at most two individuals, yet it is substantially smaller than many studies in
296 human medicine which include hundreds of samples⁵⁷. Our samples were opportunistically
297 collected during population management exercises, and chosen from our sample archive due

298 to the absence of *C. pecorum* from the French Island koala population at the time of testing⁹.
299 Whilst *C. pecorum* was subsequently determined to be present in this population¹³, no koalas
300 used in this project were positive via a *Chlamydia* spp. PCR. Importantly, no koalas used in
301 this study were found to have reads classified within the Chlamydiae phylum after taxonomic
302 assignment of OTUs.

303 We have recently shown that koalas with wet bottom are almost twice as likely to be infected
304 with KoRV⁵⁸. This, in combination with the knowledge that *C. pecorum* was not associated
305 with wet bottom in female Victorian koalas, led us to hypothesise that mild wet bottom could
306 be associated with opportunistic urinary tract infections arising as a result of KoRV-induced
307 immunosuppression. As no blood samples were obtained from the koalas utilised in this
308 study, we did not have an accurate means of testing for KoRV provirus in our individuals.
309 Previous studies have validated the use of faecal samples for KoRV testing⁵⁹, but it is
310 unlikely that urogenital swabs accurately reflect the true frequency of KoRV in our sample
311 set, particularly as the virus has not entered the germline in Victorian koalas¹. To more
312 rigorously assess the hypothesis that KoRV might induce wet bottom in koalas through
313 immunosuppression and opportunistic infection, a broader study using individuals of known
314 KoRV status would be required.

315 Disturbance of the normal vaginal flora in humans, such as in cases of bacterial vaginosis, is
316 a risk factor associated with infection by retroviruses (such as human immunodeficiency
317 virus) and *Chlamydia trachomatis*⁶⁰. Our study provides useful data as to what bacteria could
318 be expected in a clinically normal koala's urogenital tract. This will allow for broader, more
319 detailed studies on the impact of the koala urogenital microbiome on KoRV and *C. pecorum*
320 infections, and vice versa. Future studies would benefit from a greater sample size and a more
321 diverse array of sampled regions both within a single state, and across the country. It would
322 be interesting to follow the same individuals over time to determine if mating and breeding

323 impact the microbiome of the urogenital tract, as occurs in humans⁶¹. However, animal
324 welfare issues regarding recapturing wild koalas multiple times may make this unfeasible.
325 Additionally, as our study focused solely on female koalas, a follow up survey of the
326 microbiome of the male reproductive tract would be enlightening. Finally, targeted studies
327 assessing the prevalence of organisms associated with wet bottom would increase our
328 understanding of organisms potentially impacting koala populations and could in turn assist
329 with conservation of this iconic species.

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334 **Author Contributions**

335 ARL conceived the project, processed and analysed the data and drafted the manuscript. JAG
336 collected samples used, collected clinical information from sampled koalas and revised the
337 manuscript. ML refined the project and revised the manuscript. LH collected clinical
338 information from koalas and revised the manuscript. JG refined the project and revised the
339 manuscript. JMD conceived and refined the project and drafted the manuscript. FMS
340 conceived and refined the project and drafted the manuscript.

341 **Additional Information**

342 All reads used in the project are available through the NCBI BioProject ID: PRJNA359726.
343 The authors declare that there are no competing financial interests in relation to this research.

344

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495

Table 1. Koala metrics and relative abundance data from ten samples submitted for 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing. All koalas were female and sampled from French Island, Victoria, Australia in 2011.

Koala/Sample name	K1	K2	K3	K4	K5	K31	K49	K55	K59	K70
Weight (kg)	6.0	7.4	6.4	7.0	8.0	7.9	7.8	7.3	7.1	9.7
Wet bottom score*	0	0	0	0	0	2	3	3	4	3
Body condition score [^]	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	2	3
Tooth wear class ⁺	II	IVa	III	I	IVb	III	III	IVa	IVc	IVb
KoRV detected	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No	No
Total reads used	225868	178678	169576	203062	166906	162343	177452	216270	192105	254327
Total OTUs	93	66	86	89	74	55	61	74	76	126
Phyla[#]										
Acidobacteria	-	-	-	-	< 0.01%	-	-	-	-	0.01%
Actinobacteria	5.47%	9.06%	2.92%	0.17%	0.03%	3.27%	0.66%	1.50%	0.30%	0.19%
Armatimonadetes	< 0.01%	< 0.01%	-	-	< 0.01%	-	-	-	-	-
Bacteroidetes	0.57%	0.05%	2.14%	1.72%	0.21%	0.33%	0.05%	9.05%	1.00%	50.53%
Cyanobacteria	< 0.01%	-	< 0.01%	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.02%
Deferribacteres	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	< 0.01%
Firmicutes	92.92%	89.57%	85.67%	79.17%	98.92%	80.35%	40.92%	84.88%	95.65%	39.09%
Fusobacteria	0.02%	< 0.01%	< 0.01%	0.07%	< 0.01%	< 0.01%	-	< 0.01%	0.02%	1.09%
Planctomycetes	-	-	< 0.01%	-	0.01%	-	-	-	< 0.01%	0.80%
Proteobacteria	0.24%	0.15%	1.66%	1.51%	0.45%	0.23%	56.90%	0.19%	2.37%	2.70%
Synergistetes	0.08%	0.02%	0.30%	0.31%	0.01%	-	-	< 0.01%	0.02%	4.35%
TM7	0.02%	0.50%	0.21%	-	< 0.01%	1.38%	0.05%	2.86%	< 0.01%	0.02%
Verrucomicrobia	< 0.01%	< 0.01%	< 0.01%	-	0.02%	< 0.01%	-	-	0.01%	0.69%
Unassigned	0.69%	0.65%	7.07%	17.04%	0.34%	14.44%	1.42%	1.52%	0.61%	0.52%

* Wet bottom score ranges from 0 (absent) to 10 (most severe)¹¹

[^] Body condition score ranges from 1 (low/poor condition) to 5 (high/over conditioned). A score of 3 is considered standard⁸

⁺ Tooth wear class can be used to estimate koala age and ranges from I (young) to VIII (old)⁵

[#] Phyla assigned using QIIME¹⁶ script **assign_taxonomy.py** utilising Greengenes²¹ curated 16S rRNA library

Table 2. Significant operational taxonomic units (OTU) assessed using DESeq2²², ordered from lowest to highest adjusted *P* value. Representative sequences were compared to NCBI nucleotide database using MegaBLAST⁶², excluding ‘uncultured organisms’

OTU ID	Adjusted <i>P</i> value	Higher abundance group*	OTU present in samples/n		NCBI Mega BLAST ^	Nucleotide Identity (%)^	Accession number^
			WB absent	WB present			
38	< 0.001	WB present	0/5	5/5	<i>Peptoniphilus indolicus</i>	96.8	NR_117566
21	< 0.001	WB present	1/5	5/5	<i>Peptoniphilus asaccharolyticus</i>	100	KP944181
47	< 0.001	WB present	0/5	3/5	<i>Levyella massiliensis</i>	100	NR_133039
51	< 0.001	WB present	0/5	3/5	<i>Peptoniphilus lacrimalis</i>	100	KM624632
65	0.001	WB present	1/5	2/5	<i>Sutterellaceae bacterium</i>	99.5	LK054638
86	0.003	WB absent	3/5	0/5	<i>Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron</i>	100	KU234409
75	0.004	WB absent	2/5	0/5	<i>Clostridium</i> sp.	96.5	AB622820
4	0.004	WB absent	5/5	5/5	<i>Lactobacillales bacterium</i>	92.8	HQ115584
70	0.005	WB absent	2/5	0/5	<i>Clostridium neopropionicum</i>	94.6	JQ897394
73	0.005	WB present	0/5	2/5	<i>Alistipes onderdonkii</i>	93.6	NR_113151
69	0.005	WB absent	2/5	0/5	<i>Lachnospiraceae bacterium</i>	95.3	EU728729
2	0.006	WB absent	5/5	5/5	<i>Trichococcus</i> sp.	94.2	KU533824
94	0.007	WB absent	2/5	1/5	<i>Rhizobiales</i> sp.	100	KJ016001
95	0.013	WB absent	2/5	0/5	<i>Rhizobium leguminosarum</i>	100	KX346599
103	0.019	WB absent	2/5	0/5	<i>Piscinibacter aquaticus</i>	88.6	NR_114061
106	0.019	WB absent	3/5	0/5	<i>Burkholderia cenocepacia</i>	100	KU749979
109	0.019	WB present	0/5	2/5	<i>Peptostreptococcus anaerobius</i>	94.1	NR_042847
148	0.019	WB present	0/5	2/5	<i>Trichococcus</i> sp.	87.5	KU533824
159	0.019	WB present	2/5	4/5	<i>Abiotrophia defectiva</i>	87.9	JF803600
114	0.019	WB absent	2/5	1/5	<i>Massilia</i> sp.	99.8	JF279920
113	0.019	WB absent	3/5	0/5	<i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i>	100	KU955329
1	0.030	WB present	5/5	5/5	<i>Aerococcus viridans</i>	95.1	KC699123
105	0.035	WB present	4/5	5/5	<i>Aerococcus sanguinicola</i>	93.0	LC145565
250	0.038	WB present	1/5	2/5	<i>Hippea</i> sp.	79.5	FR754504

90	0.038	WB present	1/5	2/5	<i>Olsenella scatoligenes</i>	97.8	NR_134781
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* OTU was detected with significantly higher normalised read counts in koalas with (WB present) or without (WB absent) wet bottom

^ Organism with the lowest e-value detected using a MegaBLAST search of the NCBI nucleotide database, the nucleotide identity compared to the representative sequence, and the accession number of the hit

Supplementary Material 1. Alpha diversity metrics for microbial communities in the urogenital tract of koalas with and without wet bottom.

All metrics assessed at a depth of 160,000 reads, with 100 permutations. *P* values comparing categories are non-parametric t-tests using 10,000 Monte Carlo permutations.

	Wet bottom absent						Wet bottom present						<i>P</i> value
	Koala 1	Koala 2	Koala 3	Koala 4	Koala 5	Mean (\pm SD)	Koala 31	Koala 49	Koala 55	Koala 59	Koala 70	Mean (\pm SD)	
Shannon	2.58	2.74	2.97	3.08	1.08	2.49 (\pm 0.73)	2.37	1.44	2.30	1.81	4.09	2.40 (\pm 0.91)	0.86
Chao1	97.09	84.91	91.46	92.46	87.57	90.70 (\pm 4.19)	58.69	76.39	91.54	87.42	127.94	88.39 (\pm 22.81)	0.83
Richness	88.77	64.11	85.40	88.03	73.70	80.00 (\pm 9.62)	54.91	59.24	69.23	72.87	123.39	75.93 (\pm 24.61)	0.81
PD whole tree	9.13	7.03	8.91	7.70	7.93	8.14 (\pm 0.78)	6.48	6.52	7.81	7.83	10.44	7.98 (\pm 1.44)	0.71

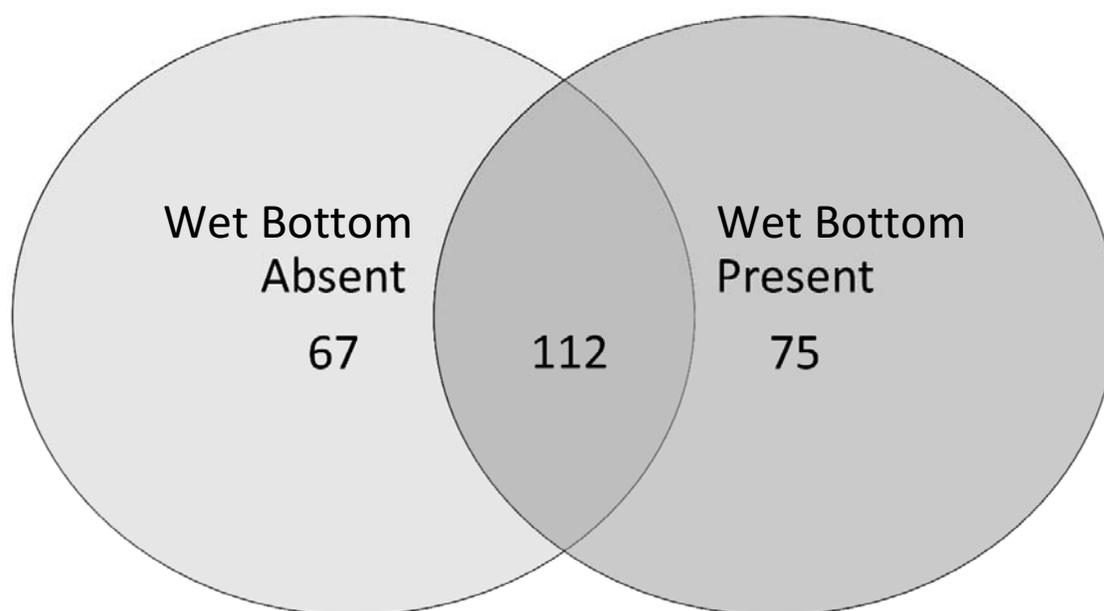


Figure 1. Venn diagram of the total operational taxonomic units (OTUs) detected in koalas with or without wet bottom. Overlap does not scale with OTU number.

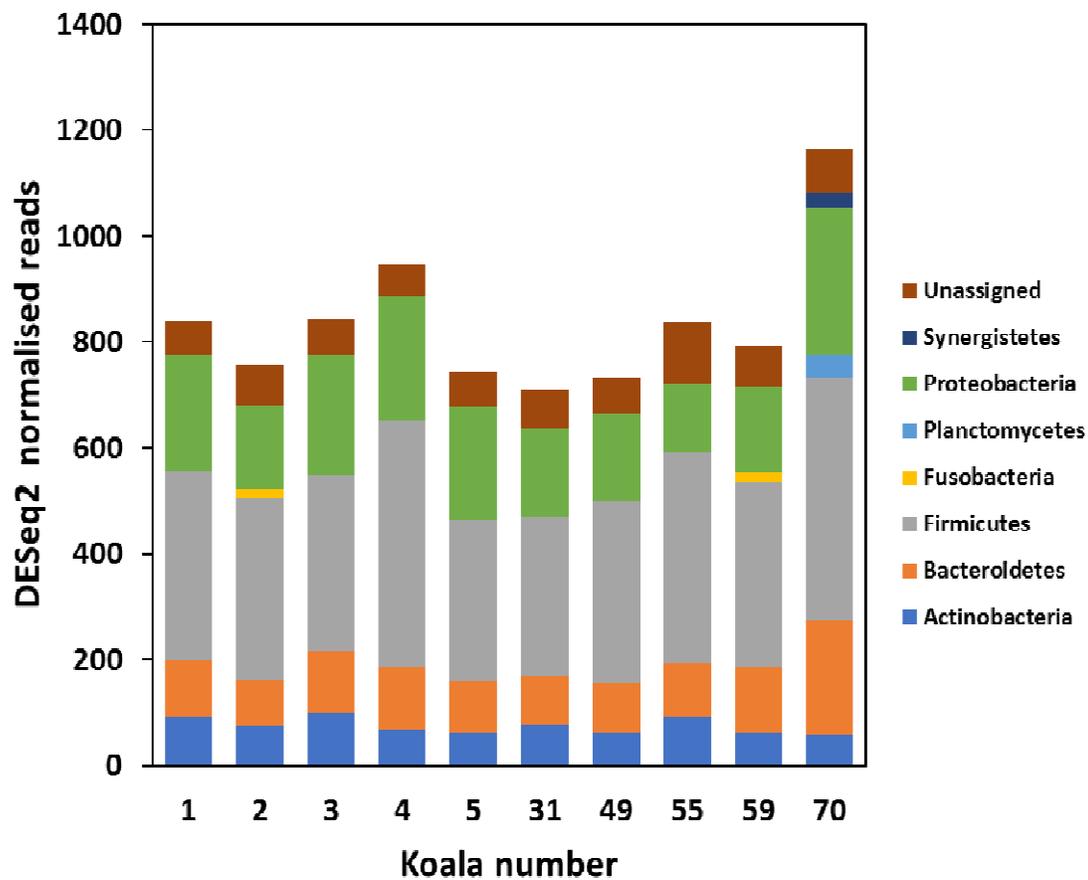
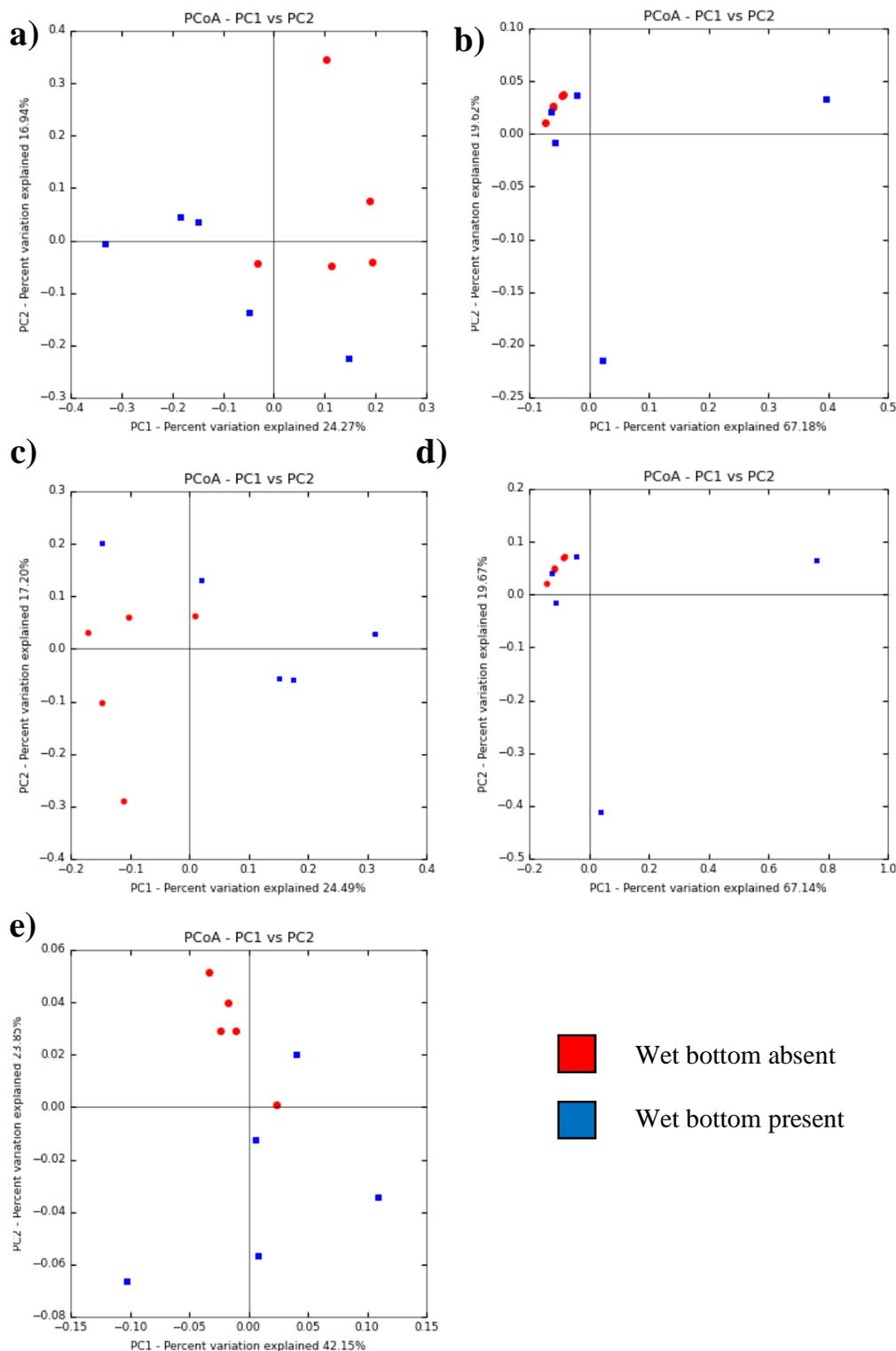


Figure 2. DESeq2 normalised read counts of phyla detected in koala urogenital swab samples. Reads were characterised into taxonomic groups using QIIME¹⁶, utilising Greengenes²¹ as a reference database.

Supplementary Material 3. 2D PCoA plots of koala samples, with and without wet bottom, using a) unweighted UniFrac distances of rarefracted reads, b) weighted UniFrac distances of rarefracted reads, c) jackknifed unweighted UniFrac distances to 160,000 reads, d) jackknifed weighted UniFrac distances to 160,000 reads, e) weighted UniFrac distances of normalised reads



Supplementary Material 4. 3D PCoA plots of koala samples, with and without wet bottom, using a) unweighted UniFrac distances of rarefracted reads, b) weighted UniFrac distances of rarefracted reads, c) jackknifed unweighted UniFrac distances to 160,000 reads, d) jackknifed weighted UniFrac distances to 160,000 reads, e) weighted UniFrac distances of normalised reads

