

1 High-resolution tracking of microbial colonization in  
2 Fecal Microbiota Transplantation experiments via  
3 metagenome-assembled genomes

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17 genomes

## 18 **Abstract**

19 Fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) is an effective treatment for recurrent *Clostridium*  
20 *difficile* infection and shows promise for treating other medical conditions associated with  
21 intestinal dysbioses. However, we lack a sufficient understanding of which microbial populations  
22 successfully colonize the recipient gut, and the widely used approaches to study the microbial  
23 ecology of FMT experiments fail to provide enough resolution to identify populations that are  
24 likely responsible for FMT-derived benefits. Here we used shotgun metagenomics to reconstruct  
25 97 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) from fecal samples of a single donor and followed  
26 their distribution in two FMT recipients to identify microbial populations with different  
27 colonization properties. Our analysis of the occurrence and distribution patterns post-FMT  
28 revealed that 22% of the MAGs transferred from the donor to both recipients and remained  
29 abundant in their guts for at least eight weeks. Most MAGs that successfully colonized the  
30 recipient gut belonged to the order Bacteroidales. The vast majority of those that lacked evidence  
31 of colonization belonged to the order Clostridiales and colonization success was negatively  
32 correlated with the number of genes related to sporulation. Although our dataset showed a link  
33 between taxonomy and the ability of a MAG to colonize the recipient gut, we also identified  
34 MAGs with different colonization properties that belong to the same taxon, highlighting the  
35 importance of genome-resolved approaches to explore the functional basis of colonization and to  
36 identify targets for cultivation, hypothesis generation, and testing in model systems for  
37 mechanistic insights.

## 38 **Background**

39 Fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT), transferring fecal material from a healthy donor to a  
40 recipient, has gained recognition as an effective and relatively safe treatment for recurrent or  
41 refractory *Clostridium difficile* infection (CDI) [1–8]. Its success in treating CDI sparked interest  
42 in investigating FMT as a treatment for other medical conditions associated with intestinal  
43 dysbiosis, such as ulcerative colitis [9–11], Crohn’s disease (CD) [12–14], irritable bowel  
44 syndrome (IBS) [15,16]; and others, including metabolic syndrome [17], neurodevelopmental  
45 [18], and autoimmune disorders [19]. Despite the excitement due to its therapeutic potential,  
46 FMT also presents challenges for researchers and clinicians with potential adverse outcomes,  
47 including the transfer of infectious organisms [20] or contaminants from the environment  
48 [21,22]. A complete understanding of FMT from a basic science perspective is still lacking, as  
49 we have yet to determine the key microbial populations that are responsible for beneficial  
50 outcomes, as well as adverse effects.

51 Recent advances in high-throughput sequencing technologies, molecular approaches, and  
52 computation have dramatically increased our ability to investigate the ecology of microbial  
53 populations. Utilization of these advances at a proper level of resolution can lead to a better  
54 mechanistic understanding of FMT and identify new therapeutic opportunities or address  
55 potential risks. Most current studies on FMT use amplicons from marker genes, such as the 16S  
56 ribosomal RNA gene, to characterize the composition of microbial communities [23–26]. While  
57 providing valuable insights into the broad characteristics of FMTs, amplicons from the 16S  
58 ribosomal RNA gene do not offer the resolution to effectively identify populations that colonize

59 recipients [27]. Other studies use shotgun metagenomics to annotate short reads and map them to  
60 reference genomes in order to track changes in the functional potential or membership in the gut  
61 microbial communities of recipients [28–30]. In a recent study, Li *et al.* [30] demonstrated the  
62 coexistence of donors' and recipients' gut microbes three months after FMT by mapping short  
63 metagenomic reads to reference genomes. Although this approach provides more information  
64 than marker gene amplicons alone, it is subject to the limitations and biases of reference genomic  
65 databases, is unable to characterize populations that do not have closely related culture  
66 representatives, and does not provide direct access to the genomic context of relevant  
67 populations for more targeted follow-up studies.

68 Metagenomic assembly and binning [31,32] is an alternative approach to characterizing  
69 microbial communities through marker gene amplicons or reference genomes. Here we used the  
70 state-of-the-art metagenomic assembly and binning strategies to reconstruct microbial population  
71 genomes directly from a single FMT donor, and tracked the occurrence of resulting  
72 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs) in two FMT recipients up to eight weeks.

## 73 **Methods**

74 **Sample collection, preparation, and sequencing.** We collected a total of 10 fecal samples; four  
75 samples from a single donor 'D' (a 30 year old male), and three samples from each of the two  
76 recipients 'R01' (a 23 year old male), and 'R02' (a 32 year old female) before and after FMT.  
77 Recipient samples originated from time points pre-FMT, four weeks after FMT, and eight weeks  
78 after FMT, while four samples from the donor were collected on four separate days two weeks

79 prior to the transplantation. Both recipients had mild/moderate ulcerative colitis, had no genetic  
80 relationship to the donor, and received FMT through a single colonoscopy. We processed and  
81 stored all samples at -80°C until DNA extraction. We extracted the genomic DNA from frozen  
82 samples according to the centrifugation protocol outlined in MoBio PowerSoil kit with the  
83 following modifications: cell lysis was performed using a GenoGrinder to physically lyse the  
84 samples in the MoBio Bead Plates and Solution (5 – 10 mins). After final precipitation, the DNA  
85 samples were resuspended in TE buffer and stored at -20°C until further analysis. We prepared  
86 our shotgun metagenomic libraries with OVATION Ultralow protocol (NuGen) and used an  
87 Illumina NextSeq 500 platform to generate 2x150 nt paired-end sequencing reads.

88 **Metagenomic assembly and binning.** We removed the low-quality reads from the raw  
89 sequencing results using the program ‘iu-filter-quality-minoche’ in illumina-utils [33] (available  
90 from <https://github.com/merenlab/illumina-utils>) according to Minoche *et al.* [34]. We then co-  
91 assembled reads from the donor samples using MEGAHIT v1.0.6 [35], used Centrifuge v1.0.2-  
92 beta [36] to remove contigs that are matching to human genome, and mapped short reads from  
93 each recipient and donor sample to the remaining contigs using Bowtie2 v2.0.5 [37]. We then  
94 used anvi’o v2.1.0 (available from <http://merenlab.org/software/anvio>) to profile mapping  
95 results, finalize genomic bins, and visualize results following the workflow outlined in Eren *et*  
96 *al.* [38]. Briefly, (1) the program ‘anvi-gen-contigs-database’ profiled our contigs using Prodigal  
97 v2.6.3 [39] with default settings to identify open reading frames, and HMMER [40] to identify  
98 matching genes in our contigs to bacterial [41] and archaeal [42] single-copy core gene  
99 collections, (2) ‘anvi-init-bam’ converted mapping results into BAM files, (3) ‘anvi-profile’  
100 processed each BAM file to estimate the coverage and detection statistics of each contig using

101 samtools [43], and finally (4) ‘anvi-merge’ combined profiles from each sample to create a  
102 merged anvi’o profile for our dataset. We used ‘anvi-cluster-with-concoct’ for the initial binning  
103 of contigs using CONCOCT [44] by constraining the number of clusters to 10 (‘--num-clusters  
104 10’) to minimize ‘fragmentation error’ (where multiple bins describe one population). We then  
105 interactively refined each CONCOCT bin exhibiting conflation error (where one bin describes  
106 multiple populations) using ‘anvi-refine’ based on tetra-nucleotide frequency, taxonomy, mean  
107 coverage, and completion and redundancy estimates based on bacterial and archaeal single-copy  
108 genes. We classified a given genome bin as a ‘metagenome-assembled genomes’ (MAGs) if it  
109 was more than 70% complete or larger than 2 Mbp, and its redundancy was estimated to be less  
110 than 10%. We used ‘anvi-interactive’ to visualize the distribution of our bins across samples and  
111 ‘anvi-summarize’ to generate static HTML output for binning results. We further used CheckM  
112 v1.0.7 [45] to assess the completion and contamination of all bins and to assign taxonomy and  
113 used RAST [46] to ascribe functions to our MAGs. So that our analyses were not limited to the  
114 assembled portion of the data, we employed MetaPhlAn [47] to obtain the taxonomic community  
115 profiles in each sample from all short reads.

116 **Criteria for detection and colonization of MAGs.** For each genome bin, anvi’o reports the  
117 percentage of nucleotide positions in all contigs that are covered by at least one short read based  
118 on mapping results, which is termed ‘portion-covered’. This statistic gives an estimate of  
119 ‘detection’ regardless of the coverage of a given genome bin. We required the portion-covered  
120 statistic of a genome bin to be at least 25% to consider it detected in a given sample. This  
121 prevented inflated detection rates due to non-specific mapping, which is not uncommon due to  
122 relatively well-conserved genes across gut populations. Finally, we conservatively decided that a

123 MAG was transferred from the donor and colonized a given recipient successfully only if (1) it  
124 was detected in both samples that were collected from a the recipient at four and eight weeks  
125 after the FMT and (2) it was not detected in the pre-FMT sample from the same recipient.

126 **Statistical analyses.** We performed cluster analyses on distribution profiles of MAGs and  
127 MetaPhlAn taxa using the R library vegan with Bray-Curtis distances of normalized values. We  
128 used the PERMANOVA (R adonis vegan) [48] test to measure the degree of similarity of the  
129 bacterial communities between the samples in the study. We further used similarity index  
130 (SIMPER) analysis to identify the taxa that contributed the highest dissimilarity between the  
131 samples. We classified the MAGs into four main groups based on their colonization  
132 characteristics in the recipients. We then performed a pairwise *t*-test (STAMP) [49] to ascertain  
133 any significant differences in the functional potential between the groups and carried out  
134 canonical correspondence analysis based on functional potential and the MAGs' colonization  
135 characteristics.

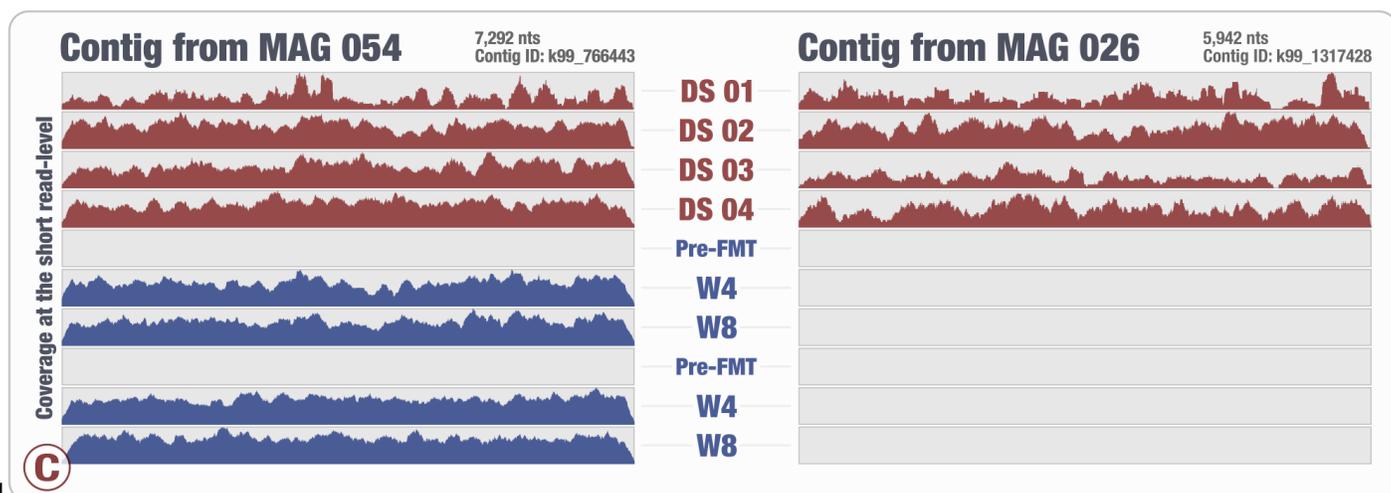
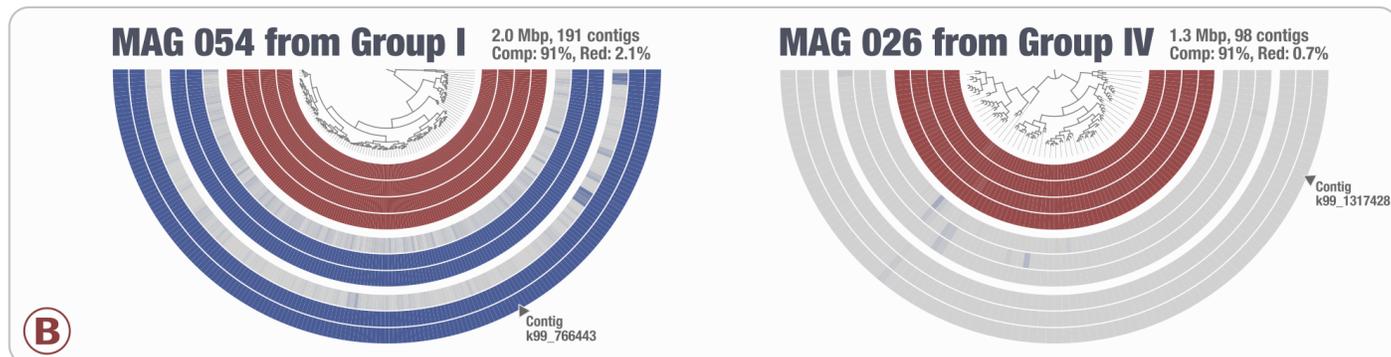
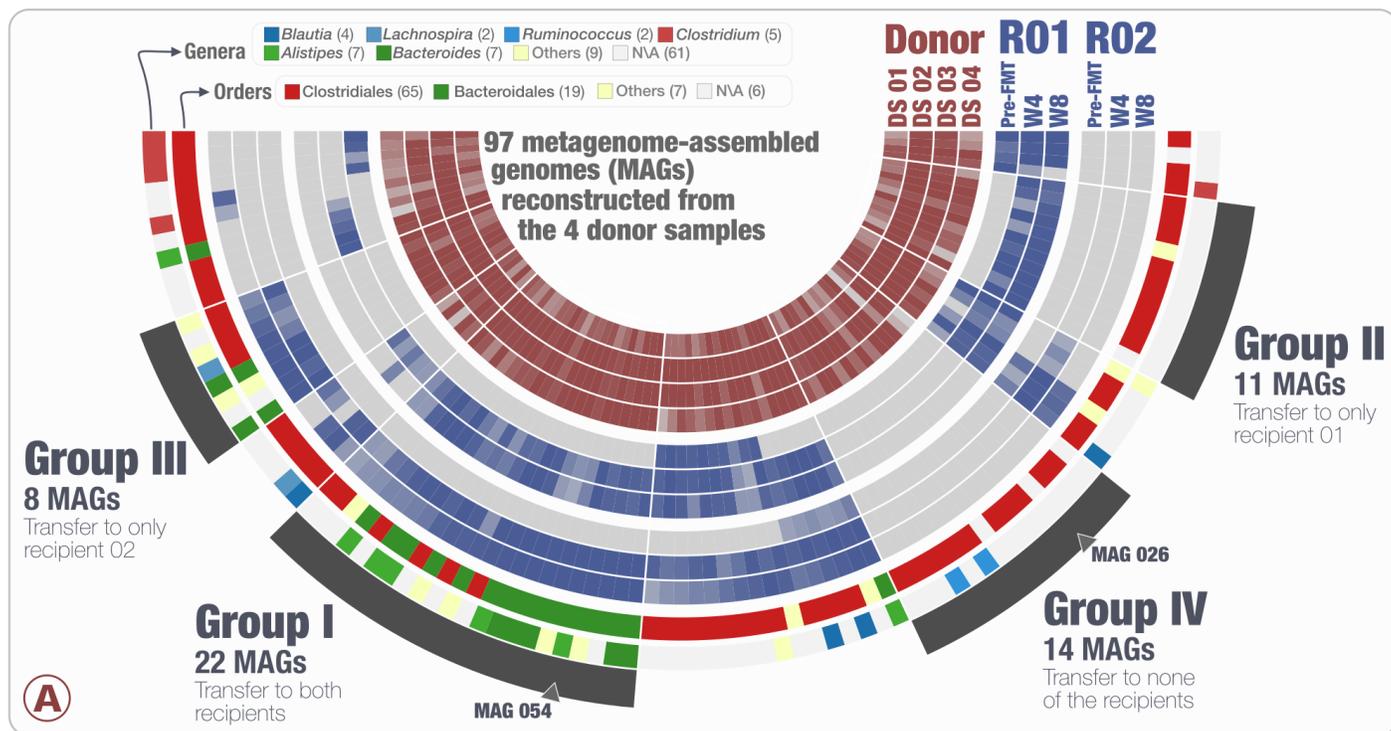
136 **Data availability.** Anvi'o profiles to reproduce all findings and visualizations in this study, as  
137 well as FASTA files and distribution statistics for each MAG, are stored under  
138 [doi:10.5281/zenodo.185393](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.185393). Raw metagenomic reads are also stored at the NCBI Sequence  
139 Read Archive under the accession number [SRP093449](https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/seq/submit/submit.cgi?accession=SRP093449).

## 140 **Results**

141 The shotgun sequencing of genomic DNA from 10 fecal samples resulted in a total of  
142 269,144,211 quality-filtered 2x150 paired-end metagenomic reads (Table S1). By co-assembling

143 the donor samples, which corresponded to 115,037,928 of the quality-filtered reads, we  
144 recovered 51,063 contigs that were longer than 2.5 kbp and organized them into 444 genomic  
145 bins comprising a total of 442.64 Mbp at various levels of completion (Figure S1, Table S1).  
146 Using completion and size criteria, we designated 97 of our genomic bins as metagenome-  
147 assembled genomes (MAGs) (Figure 1, Table S1). Four major patterns emerged from the  
148 distribution of MAGs across individuals: MAGs that colonized both recipients R01 and R02  
149 (Group I, n=22), MAGs that colonized only R01 (Group II, n=11), only R02 (Group III, n=8)  
150 and MAGs that did not colonize either of the recipients (Group IV, n=14) (Figure 1). We found  
151 no correlation between the abundances of MAGs in donor samples and their success at  
152 colonizing recipients (ANOVA,  $F=0.717$ ,  $p=0.543$ ). Table S1 reports the detection and mean  
153 coverage statistics for each MAG in each group.

154 The taxonomy of 15 of the 22 MAGs that colonized both recipients resolved to the order  
155 Bacteroidales (Figure 1). Besides Bacteroidales, Group I also included six MAGs that were  
156 classified as order Clostridiales and one MAG as Coriobacteriales. CheckM partitioned the  
157 Group I MAGs into two genera, *Bacteroides* (n=5) and *Alistipes* (n=5). Eight MAGs in this  
158 group were not assigned to a specific genus. In contrast to the Bacteroidales-dominated Group I,  
159 11 of the 14 MAGs that did not colonize recipients (Group IV) resolved to the order  
160 Clostridiales. The remaining three MAGs were not assigned any taxonomy at the order level.  
161 The only genus-level annotation for the MAGs in Group IV was *Ruminococcus* (n=2). Overall,  
162 CheckM did not assign any genus-level taxonomy to 20 of the 36 MAGs that colonized either  
163 both recipients (Group I) or none (Group IV).

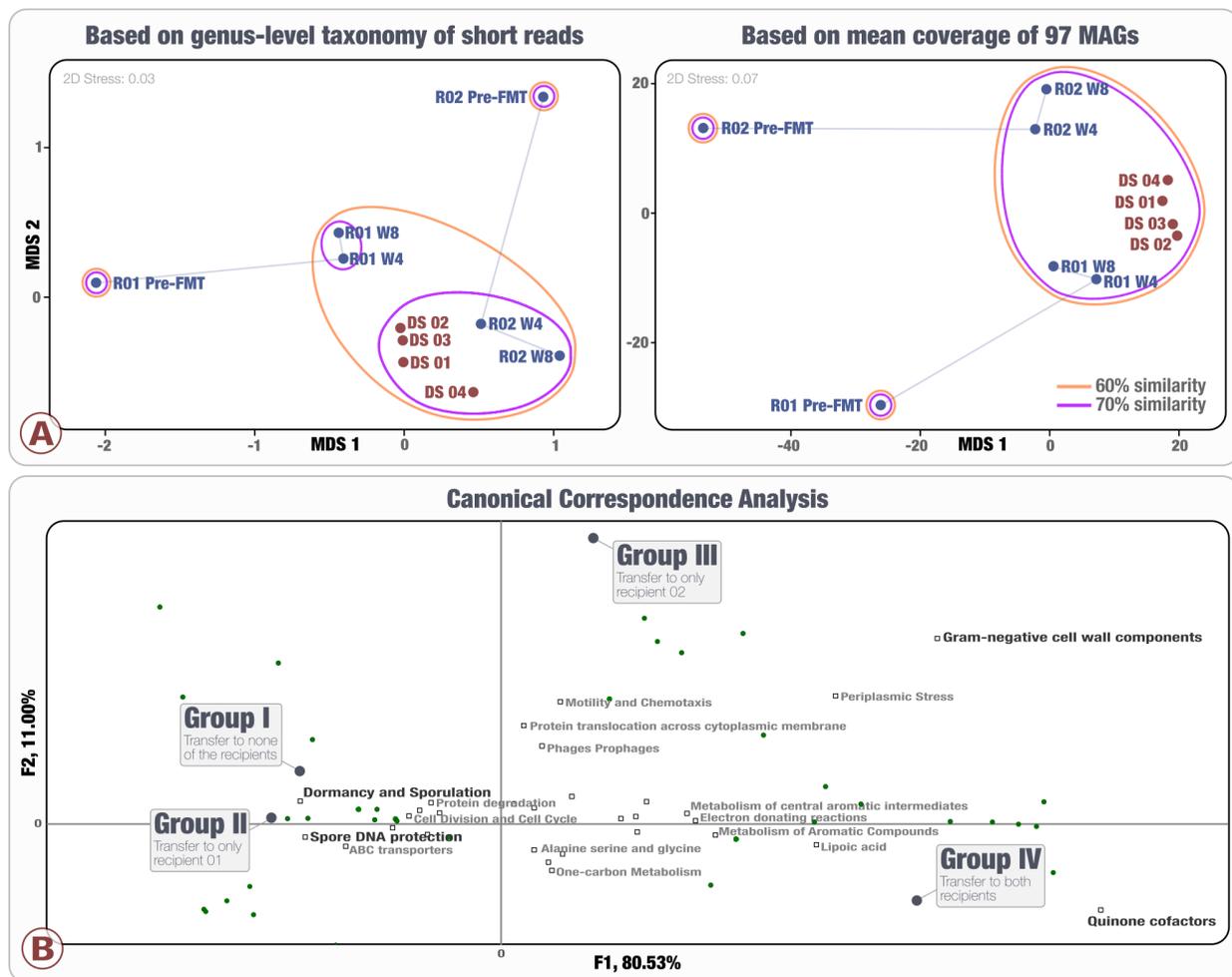


165 Figure 1. Distribution of MAGs across samples. Panel A shows the 97 MAGs and their level of detection in four  
166 donor samples (four inner circles) and in two recipients (R01 and R02) before FMT (pre-FMT), four weeks after  
167 FMT (W4), and eight weeks after FMT (W8). Bars in the layers that represent donor and recipient samples indicate  
168 the level of detection of a given MAG in a given sample. The outermost two circles display the genus- and order-  
169 level taxonomy for each MAG. Panel A also displays the selection of four groups: Group I with 22 MAGs that  
170 colonized both recipients, Group II with 11 MAGs that colonized only R01, Group III with 8 MAGs that colonized  
171 only R02, and finally Group IV with 14 MAGs that colonized neither recipient. Panel A displays the average  
172 detection of each MAG and Panel B displays the coherence of detection for each contig in two example MAGs.  
173 Panel C displays the coherence of detection for each nucleotide positions in two example contigs from the MAGs  
174 displayed in Panel B.

175 MAGs that colonized only one recipient's gut did not show a consistent taxonomic signal. While  
176 9 of 11 MAGs that colonized only R01 (Group II) were assigned to the order Clostridiales, only  
177 4 of 8 MAGs that colonized R02 (Group III) were assigned to that order (Figure 1, Table S1).  
178 The remaining MAGs in Group III were assigned to Bacteroidales (n=2), Burkholderiales (n=1),  
179 or not assigned (n=1).

180 We used non-metric multidimensional scaling (nMDS; 2D Stress: 0.03 with Bray-Curtis  
181 similarity index) on square-root normalized values of the microbial community profiles based on  
182 the average coverage of the 97 MAGs as well as the genus-level taxonomy as characterized by  
183 Metaphlan using all metagenomic short reads. Both analyses revealed an increased similarity  
184 between the donor microbiota and the recipients following the FMT experiment (Figure 2). The  
185 donor and recipient bacterial community profiles differed significantly from each other before  
186 FMT (PERMANOVA, pseudo-F=11.952,  $p=0.002$ ; Figure 2) and bacterial community profiles  
187 within each recipient shifted significantly after FMT (PERMANOVA, pseudo-F=3.993,  
188  $p=0.026$ ; Figure 2). Based on metagenomic short reads, the microbial community structure in  
189 both R01 and R02 were more than 60% similar to the donor microbiota after FMT (Figure 2).  
190 Furthermore, similarity percentage analysis (SIMPER) of the community structure based on  
191 genus-level taxonomy suggested that the two recipients were 61.24% similar after FMT and that

192 *Bacteroides* was responsible for the largest fraction (14.65%) of the recipient sample differences  
 193 between pre-FMT and four weeks after FMT. There were no significant changes in the  
 194 recipients' bacterial community between week four and eight post-FMT (PERMANOVA,  
 195 pseudo-F=0.223,  $p=0.665$ ; Figure 2).



196  
 197 Figure 2. (A) Non-metric multidimensional scaling based on microbial community profiles at the genus level of  
 198 short reads annotated by MetaPhlAn and based on mean coverage of 97 MAGs. Clustering employed average  
 199 linkage with Bray-Curtis similarity index on square-root normalized values. Labels represent the donor (D) with  
 200 four sample replicates (S01 – S04), and recipients (R01, R02) before FMT (Pre-FMT), four weeks (W4) and eight  
 201 weeks after FMT (W8). (B) Canonical correspondence analysis of 97 MAGs based on the 29 significant functional  
 202 subcategories and the detection of donor's microbiota in the recipients.

203 To investigate whether there was a functional link between MAGs and their success of  
204 colonization, we studied 500 functions and 110 sub-systems assigned by RAST across our 97  
205 MAGs (Table S2). We performed a canonical correspondence analysis (CCA) to determine  
206 whether functional markers could be used as an indicator for groups of bacteria that were more  
207 or less likely to colonize recipients. CCA (pseudo-F=1.746,  $p<0.0001$ ) revealed that the MAGs  
208 that colonized both recipients (Group I) possessed a higher relative abundance of genes coding  
209 for quinone cofactors. Group I also showed potential functions involving gram-negative cell wall  
210 components, periplasmic stress, and metabolism of aromatic compounds and their intermediates.  
211 In contrast, the MAGs that did not colonize any of the recipients carried higher number of genes  
212 related to dormancy and sporulation, spore DNA protection, and motility and chemotaxis (Figure  
213 2, Table S2).

## 214 **Discussion**

215 Our study demonstrates that genome-resolved metagenomics can facilitate high-resolution  
216 tracking of the donor populations in recipient guts after FMT experiments by revealing bacterial  
217 populations with differential colonization properties. Previous studies reported an increase in  
218 relative abundance of *Alistipes* [23,24,50–52] and *Bacteroides* populations after FMT  
219 experiments [23–26,30]. The success of the order Bacteroidales was also striking in our dataset:  
220 15 of the 19 Bacteroidales MAGs we identified in the donor successfully colonized both  
221 recipient guts (Figure 1). Although taxonomic signal was relatively strong, our results also  
222 showed that taxonomy is not the sole predictor of transfer, as MAGs that resolved to the same  
223 genera (i.e., *Alistipes*, *Bacteroides*, and *Clostridium*) showed different colonization properties. In

224 addition, taxonomic annotation of a large fraction of MAGs in our study did not resolve to a  
225 genus name, which suggests that bacterial populations that have not yet been characterized in  
226 culture collections may be playing important roles in FMT treatments.

227 Although a substantial number of studies report successful medical outcomes of FMT  
228 experiments [3,7,53,54], a complete understanding of this procedure from the perspective of  
229 microbial ecology is still lacking. Studying FMT as an ecological event, and the identification of  
230 the key fecal components that facilitate the procedure's success as a treatment for intestinal  
231 disorders require the characterization of the transferred microbial populations at a high level of  
232 resolution. In contrast to operational taxonomic units identified through 16S rRNA gene  
233 amplicons that often combine multiple populations into a single unit [55,56], MAGs  
234 reconstructed directly from the donor samples can provide enough resolution to guide cultivation  
235 efforts. A recent effort by Vineis et al. [57] demonstrated this principle by first identifying  
236 populations of interest using MAGs reconstructed from a gut metagenome and then using the  
237 genomic context of those MAGs to screen culture experiments from the same gut sample to  
238 bring the target population to the bench. A similar approach in the context of FMTs can provide  
239 opportunities to design experiments to explore the functional basis of colonization in controlled  
240 systems.

241 The complete transfer of fecal matter between individuals comes with various risks. For instance,  
242 a recent meta-analysis of 50 peer-reviewed FMT case reports reported 38 potentially transfer-  
243 related adverse effects in FMT patients in 35 studies, including fever, sore throat, vomiting,  
244 abdominal pain, bowel perforation, rhinorrhea, transient relapse of UC and CDI, and in one case,

245 death, due to temporary systemic immune response to the applied bacteria [58]. Besides bacteria,  
246 FMT can transfer viruses, archaea, and fungi, as well as other agents of the donor host such as  
247 colonocytes [59], which may affect the recipient's biology in unexpected ways. A more complete  
248 understanding of the microbial ecology of FMTs would identify precisely what needs to be  
249 transferred, so that recipients benefit from the positive outcomes of FMT without incurring  
250 medical risks from uncharacterized biological material.

251 A recent study by Khanna *et al.* [60] reported high rates of success with the treatment of patients  
252 with primary *Clostridium difficile* infection (CDI) using an investigational oral microbiome  
253 therapeutic, SER-109, which contains bacterial spores enriched and purified from healthy  
254 donors. However, Seres Therapeutics announced more recently that interim findings from the  
255 mid-stage clinical study of SER-109 failed to meet their primary goal of reducing the risk of  
256 recurrence for up to eight weeks [61]. In our study, the MAGs that failed to colonize any of the  
257 recipients were significantly enriched for spore-formation genes. Interestingly, Nayfach *et al.*  
258 [62] recently made a similar observation regarding the transmission of bacteria and sporulation  
259 in a different system, vertical transmission between mothers and their infants. Populations with  
260 high vertical transmission rates had lower number of genes related to sporulation [62]. These  
261 observations suggest that dismissing non-spore forming bacteria may decrease the efficacy of  
262 FMT therapies due to limited colonization efficiency, and deeper insights into the functional  
263 basis of microbial colonization warrants further study.

264 Identifying and using bacterial populations associated with positive health outcomes and that  
265 harbor high colonization properties may result in more effective therapies compared to cleansing

266 all but spore-forming bacteria to avoid the transfer of pathogens. The analytical strategy adopted  
267 in our study can facilitate the identification of bacterial population genomes that may be critical  
268 to the success of FMT due to their colonization properties, and provide genomic insights to  
269 leverage our investigations beyond associations, and ultimately reveal the mechanistic  
270 underpinnings of this procedure.

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## 433 **Declarations**

434

### 435 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

436 The study was reviewed and approved by the University of Chicago Ethics Committee and by  
437 the University of Chicago Institutional Review Board (IRB 132-0212). Written and informed  
438 consent was obtained for all participants.

439

### 440 **Consent for publication**

441 Not applicable

442

### 443 **Availability of data and materials**

444 All data generated and analyzed during this study are included in this published article and its  
445 supplementary information files.

446

### 447 **Competing interests**

448 The authors declare that they have no competing interests

449

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453

### 454 **Authors' contributions**

455 SAK, NJH, DAA, and DTR designed the study, collected, and processed the patient samples.  
456 STML, TOD, HGM, and AME generated, processed, and analyzed the sequencing data. STML,  
457 and AME wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.