Title: Divergence in gut microbial communities mirrors a social group fission event in

a black-and-white colobus monkey (*Colobus vellerosus*)

Running title: Microbiome divergence mirrors group fission

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17   **ABSTRACT**

Host behavior and social factors have increasingly been implicated in structuring the

composition of gut microbial communities. In social animals, distinct microbial communities

characterize different social groups across a variety of taxa, although little longitudinal research

has been conducted that demonstrates how this divergence occurs. Our study addresses this

question by characterizing the gut microbial composition of an African Old World monkey, the

black-and-white colobus (*Colobus vellerosus*)*, prior to and after a social group fission event. Gut

microbial taxonomic composition of these monkeys was profiled using the V-4 hypervariable

region of the bacterial 16s rRNA gene, and pairwise-relatedness values were calculated for all

individuals using 17 STR loci and partial pedigree information. The two social groups in this

study were found to harbor distinct microbial signatures after the fission event from which they

emerged, while these communities were not divergent in the same individuals prior to this event.

Three genera were found to differ in abundance between the two new social groups:

Parabacteroides, *Coprococcus*, and *Porphyromonadaceae*. Additionally, although this fission

happened partially along lines of relatedness, relatedness did not structure the differences that we

found. Taken together, this study suggests that distinct gut microbial profiles can emerge in

social groups in less than one year and recommends further work into more finely mapping the

timescales, causes, and potentially adaptive effects of this recurring trend toward distinct group

microbial signatures.

Keywords: gut microbiome, group fission, social groups, sociality

Research highlights:

• Distinct gut microbial profiles emerge in two social groups of *C. vellerosus* less than nine

months after a fission event.

• Three genera differ in abundance between the two new social groups.

• Relatedness does not structure differences in microbial composition between the groups.

45   **INTRODUCTION**

46   The mammalian gut harbors a dynamic microbial community which contributes to host

47 physiology, metabolism, and defense (Huttenhower *et al.*, 2012; Cho & Blaser, 2012;

48 Barbachano *et al.,* 2017). This community both shapes host phenotypes and is shaped by host

49 characteristics that can include phylogeny, genetic variation, environment, and spatial

50 distribution (Wu *et al.*, 2011; Leamy *et al.*, 2014; Barelli *et al.*, 2015; Amato, 2013; Amato *et al.*,

51 2016). Moreover, behavior and social context can contribute to gut microbiome composition, and

52 diet choice, habitat use, mate choice, and social networks have all been shown to modulate gut

53 diversity (Archie *et al.*, 2015; Ezenwa *et al.*, 2012). In fact, the social transmission of beneficial

54 microbes has been cited as one of the benefits associated with group living (Lombardo, 2008),

55 and it has been suggested that more similar gut communities between hosts may confer similar

56 "ecosystem services" to their hosts (Costello *et al.*, 2012). Given that conspecifics in the same

57 social group likely encounter highly comparable ecological challenges, the social transmission

58 and ultimate convergence of a group's gut microbiota into the consortia that provides the most

59 ideal ecosystem services for that particular group's set of demands could prove to be of

60 evolutionary benefit.

61   Distinguishing the complex and intertwined forces that shape this dynamic community,

62 however, is difficult. Studies of wild populations can help to address this difficulty, providing

63 insight into the forces at play in natural communities as well as how they change over time

64 (Amato, 2013). In particular, studies of wild primates and other highly social animals allow us to

65 answer important questions about how social forces shape these changes in some of our own

66 closest living relatives. For example, in a number of wild primate populations, more closely

67 associated individuals have more homogenous gut microbiome compositions (Perofsky *et al.*,

68 2017; Moeller *et al.*, 2016; Amato *et al.,* 2017) and distinct gut microbiota characterize different

social groups in the same population (Tung *et al.,* 2015; McCord *et al.*, 2014; Bennett *et al.*,

2016; Springer *et al.* 2017; Degnan *et al.,* 2012). Taken together, these findings highlight the

importance of social context in gut microbiome composition. Furthermore, immigrant males

which have resided in a new social group for a longer period of time have more similar gut

microbiota to the resident males of that group, suggesting that the convergence of group member

microbiota may occur over a span of months to years (Grieneisen *et al.*, 2017). Because dietary

shifts typically alter the composition of microbial communities over a shorter time scale of days

to weeks, this finding suggests that distinct group communities are not solely the result of

changes in diet (Bonte *et al.*, 2012; Williams *et al.*, 2012; Turnbaugh *et al.*, 2009). However,

further studies are needed to more thoroughly examine the time scales over which these

convergences occur in natural communities.

Group fission events provide an ideal natural system for interrogating such questions.

These are a means of group proliferation in social animals that occur when the costs of living in a

certain group have grown to outweigh the benefits (Sueur & Maire, 2014). When this happens,

one or more social groups will break off from the original group, oftentimes splitting along lines

of relatedness (Widdig *et al.*, 2006; Snyder-Mackler *et al.*, 2014). This type of event provides us

the opportunity for unique insight into the physiological and behavioral changes in individuals

following such an event as well as the time scales over which they occur. For example, fission

events and variations in group size have enabled insight into the effects of social context on

grooming networks, fertility and cortisol levels in primates (Henzi *et al.*, 1997; Dunbar, 2018;

Markham *et al.*, 2015). Here, we report on the gut microbiome compositions of a group of ursine

colobus or white-thighed black-and-white colobus (*C. vellerosus*) before, and less than a year

after, a fission event. The aim of this study was to examine the plasticity of the gut microbiome

shortly following a fission event as a way of gaining insight into the time scale over which

microbiomes diverge into the distinct microbiomes that have been shown to characterize

different social groups.

96   **METHODS**

Study system

The Boabeng-Fiema Monkey Sanctuary (BFMS) is a 1.92 km^2 dry semi-deciduous forest

(Hall & Swaine, 1981) located in central Ghana (7°43' N and 1°42'W). Ursine colobus or white-

thighed black-and-white colobus (*Colobus vellerosus*) is one of two diurnal primate species that

resides at BFMS (Saj *et al.*, 2005). This is an arboreal, folivorous monkey (Saj & Sicotte 2007a,

2007b) that lives in uni-male or multi-male multi-female groups of 9-38 animals (Kankam &

Sicotte, 2013; Wong & Sicotte, 2006). Dispersal is male-biased in this species (Teichroeb *et al.*,

2011), although females do show facultative dispersal (Teichroeb *et al.*, 2009; Teichroeb *et al.*,

2011; Wikberg *et al.*, 2012; Sicotte *et al.*, 2017). Female social networks are affected by the

presence of infants, kinship, and immigration status, but not by dominance rank (Wikberg *et al.*,

2013; Wikberg *et al.,* 2014a; Wikberg *et al.*, 2014b; Wikberg *et al.*, 2015). Several groups of *C.*

vellerosus have been followed systematically since 2000 for behavioral, demographic and

ecological data (see for example Teichroeb & Sicotte, 2009; Bădescu *et al.*, 2015). Fecal samples

were collected on a regular basis from each focal female in our study groups between 2006 and

2009 (see for example Wikberg *et al.*, 2015). This study follows the fission of one social group

into two daughter groups (named NP and DA) over the course of one year (2006-2007).

Ethical note

This study was approved by the University of Calgary's Animal Care Committee, and

conducted with permission from the Ghana Wildlife Division and the management committee at

BFMS. This research adhered to the American Society of Primatologsts' Principles for the

Ethical Treatment of Non Human Primates.

Sample collection and STR genotyping

All fecal samples from the study period were collected using masks, fresh gloves, sterile

sticks, and sterile tubes to minimize contamination. 1-2 grams of feces were mixed with 6 µL of

RNAlater® (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham MA) immediately upon collection and stored at

-20°C in the field. After shipment to the Ting lab, samples were again stored at -20°C until DNA

extraction. DNA was extracted from two or more samples of each individual using a QIAamp

DNA Stool Mini Kit with a slightly modified manufacturer protocol (Wikberg *et al*., 2012), and

negative controls were processed with each round of extraction. 17 short tandem repeat (STR)

loci were amplified using Qiagen's multiplex PCR kit with a modified protocol and analyzed on

an ABI 3730 DNA analyzer (following Wikberg *et al*., 2012). We determined how many

replicates were needed to confirm homozygote genotypes based on real-time PCR DNA

quantification (Morin *et al*., 2001). Two replicates were used to confirm heterozygote genotypes.

Gut microbial profiling

We collected metagenomic data from matched genotyped samples from female members

of the original social group collected from June to August, 2006 (n = 12 samples) and from

matched genotyped samples from the same female individuals residing in the two daughter

groups from July to August, 2007 (NP with n = 6 samples; DA with n = 6 samples). DNA was

extracted again as above and quantified using a Qubit dsDNA BR Assay Kit protocol using a

Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham MA). Samples containing at least 1.0

ng/µL were chosen for preparation and sequencing of the V-4 hypervariable region of the

bacterial 16S ribosomal RNA gene in the Genomics and Cell Characterization Core Facility at

the University of Oregon. 200 ng of DNA diluted in 10 µL of H_2O were PCR amplified using

barcoded Illumina 515F and 806R primers. Targets were amplified in reactions of 1 µL DNA,

1.25 µL of 10 µM primer mix, 10.25 µL H2O, and 12.5 µL NEB Q5 hot start 2x Master Mix.

The thermal cycling profile was as follows: initial denaturing at 98°C for 0:30, 20-30 cycles of

98°C for 0:10, 61°C for 0:20, and 72°C for 0:20, and a final extension of 72°C for 2:00. PCR

products were cleaned using Ampure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA), quantified and

normalized. Barcoded amplicons were pooled and pair-end sequenced with 150 base pair reads

on a partial medium output run on the Illumina NextSeq platform. Sequences were then

demultiplexed and denoised using DADA2 (Bolger *et al.*, 2014). Taxonomic units were assigned

using the Qiime2 pipeline. An OTU table was generated for samples rarefied to an even

sampling depth of 46,040 reads per sample, retaining 1,104,960 sequences for 24 samples.

Negative controls were processed at both the extraction and library preparation (PCR) stages,

and they were sequenced and carried through the data processing pipelines. No evidence of

contamination was found via fluorometry or gel electrophoresis during laboratory work, nor was

there any evidence of contaminating sequences in the Illumina reads for the negative controls.

Data Analyses

Unless otherwise noted, all subsequent statistical analyses were run in R. To test whether

average gut microbial composition differed by social group, samples were analyzed using four

groups based on social group at the time of sample collection: original group which became NP

after the fission, original group which became DA after the fission, DA, and NP. Beta diversity

was calculated for the samples as Bray-Curtis dissimilarity using the *phyloseq* package for R

(McMurdie & Holmes, 2013). This metric was selected over metrics accounting for evolutionary

relatedness as it represents a quantitative measure of community dissimilarity based on relative

abundance without adjusting for the phylogenetic proximity of OTUs, thereby allowing insight

into structure without accounting for relatedness among microbial taxa. We also ran a

PERMANOVA using the *adonis* function in the *vegan* package, with social group (pre-fission

DA, pre-fission NP, post-fission DA, post-fission NP), age class (subadult, adult), collection site

(mature forest, woodland), and reproductive status of the individual (cycling, non-cycling,

pregnant, lactating) as predictors in the model. Linear effect size analysis (LefSe) was run for the

groups before and after the fission event at a KW alpha value of 0.01 and an LDA score of 3.0

(Segata *et al.*, 2011).

To assess whether the fission occurred along lines of host relatedness, we calculated

relatedness following Wikberg *et al.* (2012). A Kruskal-Wallis test was run using metrics of

average group relatedness for the three social groups (original group, DA, NP). Finally, we

determined whether host relatedness explained differences in gut microbial beta diversity seen

between groups. We investigated the correlation between the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix

and the host relatedness matrix for each group using Mantel tests, and Spearman rank correlation

statistics were computed with 999 permutations.

182   **RESULTS**

In the summer of 2006, one of our study groups (28 individuals) showed elevated levels

of female aggression. Subgroups started to range 50 meters apart for periods of time, although

the subgroups always convened during the day (Wikberg, unpublished data). *C. vellerosus*

typically exhibit a smaller group spread, and 50 meters is used to define a between-group

encounter in this species (Sicotte & MacIntosh, 2004). The home range of the original group

spanned approximately 0.20 km^2 through both woodland and mature forest. By May of 2007, this

group had fissioned into two daughter groups: NP (10 individuals) and DA (18 individuals)

(Table 1). These two groups both remained on the original home range, splitting the range after

the fission (Fig. 1). Both daughter groups ranged in subsets of the original range that included

both woodland and mature forest, but DA ranged 0.15 km^2, moreso in woodland areas, while

NP's new range was 0.054 km^2, moreso in mature forest after the fission event.

The original group was broken down into two groups for the sake of analysis—those

female individuals which eventually split into the DA group and those females that split into the

NP group. Average Bray-Curtis dissimilarity was 0.527 (SD +/- 0.046) for the two groups before

the fission event, while it was 0.538 (SD +/- 0.048) for the two social groups after the fission

event. In the PERMANOVA, age class ($p = 0.378$, df = 1, F = 1.028), collection site ($p = 0.482$,

df = 2, F = 0.992), and reproductive status ($p = 0.790$, df = 2, F = 0.860) were not significant

predictors of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, but social group was a significant predictor ($p = 0.001$, df

= 3, F = 4.416). Pairwise comparisons indicated that Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between the two

social groups was not significant prior to the fission ($p = 0.085$, n = 12, pseudo F = 1.23), while

differences after the fission were significant ($p = 0.02$, n = 12, pseudo F = 1.62). Significant

differences were also found between the 2006 and 2007 sampling periods for all groups sampled

($p < 0.01$, n = 24, pseudo F = 2.19). Group membership explained 7.0% of the variation in gut

microbiome diversity, while the largest predictor of variation was sampling year (2006 vs. 2007),

explaining 31.4% of the variation in diversity (Fig. 2).

208   The average pairwise-relatedness among females in the social group prior to the fission

was 0.153, while it was 0.232 in the post-fission NP group and 0.125 in the post-fission DA

group (Fig. 3). This average pairwise-relatedness increased by 0.079 in the NP social group from

the original DA group, suggesting that this fission event may have happened partially along lines

of female relatedness, with a group of more closely-related female individuals splitting off to

form the new NP group. However, the average pairwise-relatedness decreased by 0.028 between

the pre-fission group and the new DA group. The pairwise-relatedness was not statistically

different between any of the groups ($p = 0.103$, $df = 2$, $\chi^2 = 4.5518$). The Mantel test comparing

Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and relatedness showed no statistically significant correlation between

these variables ($r < 0.01$, $p = 0.494$).

218   On the whole, individual gut samples were vastly dominated by Firmicutes (57-78%) and

219   Bacteriodes (2-13%). The next most prevalent phyla across samples were Tenericutes (3-10%)

220   and Verucomicrobia (<1-16%). Linear discriminant effect analysis (LefSe) found no differences

221   between the groups prior to the fission and three genera to differ between the two new social

222   groups after the fission: *Parabacteroides, Coprococcus,* and *Porphyromonadaceae* (Fig. 4).

224   **DISCUSSION**

225   Distinct gut microbiota characterize different social groups across a wide range of taxa

(Bennett *et al*., 2016; Degnan *et al.,* 2012; Tung *et al.,* 2015; Amato *et al.,* 2017). Examining the

process and the time scale over which these divergences occur is important to understand the

influence that social context can exert on gut microbiome assembly. Some recent research has

focused on the time scale across which an individual's microbiome converges with that of a new

social group. Grieniesen *et al*. (2017) found that the longer an immigrant male baboon resided in

a new social group, the more closely his core and non-core microbiomes resembled those of the

adult members of that group, suggesting that the process of group convergence takes place over a

span of months to years. Amaral *et al*. (2017) also found that, when newly-weaned infants joined

new social groups, their gut microbiomes converged to resemble their new groups within two

weeks. Our study focuses on the time scale across which social groups diverge from one another.

We found distinct gut microbial signatures to characterize two daughter groups of colobus less

than nine months after the fission event that resulted in these groups. Prior to this fission, the

same individuals did not harbor distinct microbial communities, although the difference between

them did approach significance. This trend may be due to sampling the original group at a

timepoint during the initial stages of the fission event. Taken together, this finding both indicates

that distinct gut microbial profiles can emerge in two new social groups in less than nine months

and suggests that the process of group-specific microbial divergence may begin prior to the

establishment of those groups. Additional timepoints leading up to and following a fission event

are needed to more finely map the timescale across which these communities diverge and to

better understand the mechanisms driving divergence.

Hosts can gain microbes through changes in social context, such as alterations in direct

and indirect interactions with conspecifics that provide access to different microbes, potentially

affecting gut microbiome composition (Lombardo *et al*., 2008). In social animals, changes in

group composition, size, and social networks could all contribute to this type of shift. In this

study, group composition of females before and after the fission remained similar overall (Table

1); thus the number and age structure of females in each fission product are unlikely to be

driving our results. There were, however, other changes in social context in DA social group

during the post-fission field season, including two males immigrating to DA group and one

infant dying. Further investigation into how changes in social environment and social stress

affect the gut microbiome are required to determine how these events may have influenced the

observed gut microbiome divergence.

Other factors potentially contributing to the observed microbial shifts are diet and/or

ranging patterns. While diet has been suggested as a primary driver in structuring the gut

microbiome (Muegge *et al*., 2011; Amato *et al.,* 2014; Hale *et al.*, 2018), diet has not been found

to explain differences in gut microbial beta diversity between individuals and groups in our

population (Wikberg *et al.,* 2017; Wikberg unpublished data). Alternatively, despite all females

in NP and DA group using a distinct part of their group's home range as well as a large overlap

zone between the two groups (Fig. 1) and collection site being a non-significant predictor

variable for gut microbial dissimilarity, we cannot rule out the effects of habitat use on the

observed shifts. While product groups ranged in subsets of the original range that included both

woodland and mature forest, DA ranged primarily in woodland areas after the fission while NP's

new range tended toward the mature forest. Because even small changes in environment can

expose animals to new reservoirs of environmentally-derived microbes, it is possible that the

divergence observed between the two product groups is in part driven by spatial distribution and

habitat use.

As has been reported in other folivorous species, individual gut samples were vastly

dominated by Firmicutes and Bacteriodes with low but consistent proportions of Tenericutes and

Verucomicrobia (Yildirim *et al.*, 2010; Amato *et al.*, 2016). Linear discriminant analysis (LefSe)

revealed three genera to differ between the two product groups of this study. The new DA group

was found to have relatively more *Porphyromonadaceae* and *Parabacteriodes* than the NP group

after the fission, while the genus *Coprococcus* was found to be at greater prevalence in the NP

group than the new DA group. The *Coprococcus* genus is in the order Clostridiales, which can

assist in the degradation of plant material and is likely to reflect the folivorous diet of these

animals (Barelli *et al.*, 2015). It has been found at differential abundances in different social

groups of baboons, suggesting that this might be a genus with a strong propensity for social

transmission (Grieneisen *et al.*, 2017). This genus is also commonly used to gauge individual gut

health, and decreased levels of *Coprococcus* have been shown to accompany a stress response

(Derrien *et al.*, 2015), which could be related to the changes in social context and/or increased

ranging in woodland habitat seen in the DA social group. Because quadrats characterized as

"woodland" at BFMS have been previously found to have fewer large trees, less species

diversity, and a lower basal area of colobus food trees than those in the interior of the forest

(Teichroeb & Sicotte, 2018), it is possible that the DA group's increased ranging in this type of

habitat may partially account for the elevated levels of *Coprococcus* observed in this group.

While our analyses showed that collection site (woodland forest vs. mature forest) was not found

to be a significant predictor of variation in this study, more detailed study on the effects of

ranging patterns and habitat use are required.

This fission event resulted in an increase in average pairwise-relatedness for the NP and a

decrease for the DA group, although there were no significant differences in mean relatedness

between the original group and the post-fission groups. This is a common phenomenon in

animals that disperse by group fission, and an increase in relatedness in fission product groups

has been demonstrated widely across primate species (Widdig *et al.*, 2006; Snyder-Mackler *et*

al., 2014). Although genetic variation can play a significant role in shaping the diversity of the

gut microbiome (Goodrich *et al.*, 2014), previous studies have found little evidence for a strong

role of host genetics in structuring the microbial communities of wild primates (Degnan *et al.*,

2012; Amato *et al.*, 2017; Spor *et al.*, 2011). In this particular data set, no correlation existed

between beta diversity and relatedness. Taken together, our results suggest that even though NP

group contained some close female kin dyads, relatedness did not play a significant role in

structuring the differences in beta diversity seen between the two groups.

304   Finally, the largest proportion of variation between groups in this study was explained by

year, rather than group membership. Previous studies have found temporal variation in the gut

microbiomes of other folivorous primates to change in response to seasonal changes in food

availability (Amato *et al.*, 2015; Springer *et al.* 2017), which is consistent with past observations

in this study population (Wikberg *et al.*, 2016, Wikberg unpublished data). However, because

longitudinally collected samples in this study were all from the wet season, the observed

differences would need to be explained by some aspect of interannual variation in food

availability during the same season. Further work is needed to clarify this possibility, including

more sampling points between years and seasons as well as detailed data on changes in diet and

food availability through time.

314   Overall, we used a longitudinal approach that provides a new perspective into how social

groups acquire distinct gut microbial communities and the time period over which these

divergent communities establish. This has significant consequences for understanding the role of

social context in shaping the unique microbial signatures associated with distinct social groups

across a wide variety of taxa. Further work is recommended into more finely mapping the

timescales and factors that result in this divergence, especially within the context of the

potentially adaptive effects of this recurrent, social-context dependent trend.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We confirm that all research protocols reported in this manuscript were reviewed and

approved by an appropriate institution and/or governmental agency that regulates research with

animals, all research reported in this manuscript adhered to the legal requirements of the country

in which the work took place, and that the research adhered to the American Society of

Primatologists (ASP) Principles for the Ethical Treatment of Non Human Primates. Specifically,

we gained permission from the Ghana Wildlife Division, the management committee at BFMS,

and the University of Calgary's Animal Care Committee to conduct this study. Funding was

granted by Alberta Ingenuity, American Society of Primatologists, International Primatological

Society, Leakey Foundation, Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada,

Province of Alberta, Sweden-America Foundation, Wenner–Gren Foundation (8172), the

University of Calgary, the University of Oregon's O'Day Fellowship Program in Biological

Sciences and Office of the Vice President for Research and Innovation, and the National Institute

of General Medical Sciences (P50GM098911) via the META Center for Systems Biology. We

thank two anonymous reviewers for their helpful feedback.

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551   **TABLES**

	Males			Females			Total
	Adults + Subadults	Juveniles	Infants	Adults + Subadults	Juveniles	Infants	
Pre-fission DA	9	0	2	12	4	1	28
Post-fission DA	5	2	1	7	3	0	18
Post-fission NP	1	0	2	6	0	1	10

553   Table 1. Composition of the different social groups before and after the fission event. Although

554   this study only examined the gut microbial compositions of females, males are included in this

555   table for insight into group composition overall.

557   **FIGURES**

Figure 1. Home range distributions of the DA and NP groups prior to and after the fission event.

(A) The original DA group maintained a large home range in the summer of 2006. (B) The two

product groups split the original home range by the summer of 2007.

Figure 2. Post-fission group membership predicts Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of the NP and DA

groups. No significant difference in gut microbial diversity was observed prior to the fission

event (p = 0.085, n = 12, pseudo F = 1.23), while less than nine months after the fission event

these groups showed unique microbial signatures (p = 0.02, n = 12, pseudo F = 1.62). Significant

differences were found in gut microbial diversity between all groups across the years sampled (p

< 0.01, n = 24, pseudo F = 2.19).

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Figure 3. Pairwise-relatedness as calculated using 17 STR loci are represented by social group.

On average, pairwise-relatedness increased by 0.079 in the NP social group from the original

group. However, the pairwise-relatedness between groups was not statistically different

(p=0.103, df=2, χ^2=4.55).

Figure 4. LDA scores for taxa differing significantly between product group. Three genera were

found in different relative abundance between these two groups. Linear effect size analysis

(LefSe) was run for the groups at a KW alpha value of 0.01 and an LDA score of 3.0.