Detection of phylogenetic core groups in diverse microbial ecosystems

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29 ABSTRACT

30 The detection and subsequent analysis of phylogenetic core groups (PCGs) in a
 31 microbial ecosystem has been recently proposed as a potentially important analytical
 32 framework with which to increase our understanding of its structure and function.
 33 However, it was still unclear whether PCGs represented an infrequent phenomenon in
 34 nature. Here we provide evidence of PCGs in a large and diverse array of environments,
 35 which seems to indicate that their existence is indeed a predominant feature of microbial
 36 ecosystems. Moreover, we offer dedicated scripts to examine the presence and
 37 characteristics of PCGs in other microbial community datasets.

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60 **Background.** It is nowadays commonly believed that microbial communities assemble
61 on the basis of function alone. This idea is supported by the predominant observation
62 that different community compositions can translate into functionally-equivalent
63 microbial ecosystems. In this model, multiple unrelated populations would be
64 functionally redundant [1] in a particular microbial ecosystem type. However, this idea
65 is somewhat challenged by the extended phenomenon of phylogenetic clustering in
66 microbial communities; the tendency of bacteria to co-occur with phylogenetically
67 related populations more often than expected by chance alone [2, 3].

68 Phylogenetic clustering in a microbial ecosystem can be studied in terms of
69 phylogenetic core groups (PCGs), representing discrete portions of the bacterial
70 phylogeny present in all instances of a given ecosystem type. PCGs have been detected
71 so far in the rice rhizosphere [4] and human gut (fecal) [5] environments. The existence
72 of a PCG in a particular microbial ecosystem type has been theorized to be linked to
73 selection based on a combination of biotic and abiotic factors characteristic of that
74 ecosystem, and the existence in populations belonging to that PCG of a
75 phylogenetically-conserved set of traits allowing them to surpass such selection [4].
76 Thus, the study of PCGs in a given ecosystem could help understand the selection
77 forces at play in the ecosystem, and thus illuminate overall community assembly and
78 function.

79 It is still unclear whether PCGs are a predominant feature of microbial ecosystems or a
80 rare phenomenon. Thus, to test these possibilities we evaluate here the existence of
81 PCGs in a wide array of diverse microbial ecosystems. Also, so far PCGs had been
82 detected in terms of 16S sequence clusters of varying depth, which represents a
83 reasonable proxy. However, sequence clustering lacks true transitivity, which, jointly
84 with differential initial seeding between clustering runs, may translate into slightly
85 different clusters for the same input dataset generated by different runs or clustering
86 algorithms. Thus, here we analyze PCGs also on the basis of nodes in a phylogenetic
87 tree detected in all instances of the ecosystem type, an approach that also provides
88 increased phylogenetic resolution.

89 **Methods.** Here we analyze the existence of PCGs in nine different datasets from the
90 literature presenting a comparatively high number of ecosystem replicates and
91 sequencing depth (Table 1); The human microbiome is represented by datasets
92 *FlemishGut* [6] (fecal), *TwinsUK* [7] (fecal), *Illeum* [8] (mucosa), *Rectum* [8] (mucosa),
93 and *Vagina* [9] (mucosa). Plant-associated environments are represented by *Rice* (root
94 samples) [10] and *Leaf* [11], animal microbiomes by *Sponge* (*Carteriospongia*
95 *foliascens*) [12] and *Mice* [13], and environmental communities by *Wastewater* [14].
96 *Rice* was further subdivided by root environment (rhizosphere, rhizoplane, and
97 endosphere), *Mice* by origin (wild or lab), and *Vagina* in terms of previously reported
98 community types [9].

99 For each dataset, samples presenting very low sequence depths were removed, then all
100 samples were subsampled to a (minimum) common depth. Finally, the normalized
101 datasets were analyzed with *BacterialCore.py* (<https://git.io/Je5V3>). The script uses
102 various QIIME processes [15] and R libraries to detect PCGs and produce associated
103 analyses and statistics. It employs the clustering-based core detection approach
104 previously described [5], and a new approach based on a 16S rRNA gene phylogeny.
105 Here, the algorithm traverses the tree from leaves to root; if a leaf/node is present in a

(selected) percentage of samples it is flagged as “core”, and its abundance values removed from all parental nodes before continuing, so that reported core groups are non-overlapping. Additionally, *BacterialCore.py* provides per core-group information, statistics, and consensus taxonomies.

Results and discussion. The microbial ecosystems analyzed presented a considerable number of PCGs detected at different phylogenetic depths along the bacterial phylogeny (Table 1, Figure 1, Suppl. Mat. 1, Suppl. Mat. 2). The exceptions to this pattern were the mucosa environments analyzed (*Illeum*, *Rectum*, and *Vagina*) as well as the *Leaf* ecosystem, featuring the presence of very few PCGs. This phenomenon could be hypothesized to relate to the more homogeneous abiotic conditions of these environments translating to less diverse communities. However, the *Rice rhizoplane* and *endosphere* ecosystems, which could also be *a priori* considered as presenting more homogeneous abiotic conditions, presented a large number of PCGs. The low number of PCGs detected in the mucosal ecosystems could be related to their comparatively low sequencing depth. Nevertheless, the leaf environment presents a substantial sequencing depth, but only two PCGs.

Overall, the detected PCGs represented a preeminent fraction of the total community (Table 1), with the lowest pooled abundance values being 18.5% (*Leaf*) and 34.9% (*Illeum*), and the largest 77.6% (*Sponge*) and 93.4% (*Vagina*). In general, there was a good correspondence between the clustering and tree-based approaches (Figure 1, Supplementary Material 2), both of which produced correlated results in terms of number of PCGs and their phylogenetic depth. Commonly, results for the clustering approach represented a subset of those from the tree-based approach (Supplementary Material 1; Venn diagrams)

In this brief report we have detected PCGs in terms of 16S sequence clusters and nodes in a phylogenetic tree of different depths present in all samples from the same ecosystem type. While this is a useful heuristic, other criteria such as a Poisson distribution [16], a competitive lottery schema [17], invariance metrics [18], or the use of neutral models [19, 20], could be employed and implemented within *BacterialCore.py*.

Conclusion. The use of observed phylogenetic clustering patterns of community assembly may represent an important clue to understand the assembly and function of a microbial ecosystem. Here we provide evidence of PCGs in a large and diverse array of environments, which seems to indicate that their existence is indeed a predominant feature of microbial ecosystems. Moreover, we offer dedicated scripts to examine the presence and characteristics of PCGs in other microbial community datasets.

Availability of data:

The datasets analyzed during the current study are available from their original sources. Additional result files and scripts are available from the corresponding author upon request.

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TABLES

Table 1. PCGs in diverse ecosystems

Dataset	Samples	Depth	Frequency	Core groups per clust. threshold
FlemishGut	873	8,383	0.50±0.13	97 ² , 95 ¹ , 93 ¹ , 92 ¹ , 90 ¹ , 89 ³ , 88 ³ , 86 ³ , 84 ¹ , 82 ¹ , 77 ¹
TwinsUK	2,727	14,082	0.37±0.11	90 ² , 89 ¹ , 88 ¹ , 86 ¹ , 83 ² , 81 ¹ , 77 ¹
Illeum	429	3,624	0.34±0.17	84 ¹ , 81 ¹
Rectum	304	3,763	0.42±0.18	86 ¹ , 79 ¹ , 75 ¹
Rice	372	16,884	0.43±0.20	97 ¹ , 95 ¹ , 90 ¹ , 87 ¹ , 86 ¹ , 85 ¹ , 84 ¹ , 83 ¹ , 82 ¹ , 81 ³ , 80 ³ , 79 ¹ , 78 ³ , 77 ³ , 76 ² , 75 ¹
Rice (Rhizosphere)	125	16,884	0.50±0.03	97 ¹ , 96 ¹ , 95 ¹ , 94 ¹ , 93 ¹ , 92 ¹ , 91 ¹ , 90 ¹ , 89 ¹ , 88 ¹ , 87 ¹ , 86 ¹ , 85 ¹ , 84 ¹ , 83 ¹ , 82 ¹ , 81 ¹ , 80 ¹ , 79 ¹ , 78 ¹ , 77 ¹ , 76 ¹ , 75 ¹
Rice (Endosphere)	133	17,735	0.70±0.15	97 ¹ , 96 ¹ , 95 ¹ , 92 ¹ , 91 ¹ , 90 ¹ , 88 ¹ , 87 ² , 86 ³ , 85 ² , 84 ² , 83 ¹ , 82 ¹ , 81 ¹ , 80 ² , 79 ² , 78 ² , 77 ² , 76 ² , 75 ³
Rice (Rhizoplane)	114	17,821	0.54±0.09	97 ³ , 96 ¹ , 95 ³ , 94 ³ , 93 ³ , 92 ¹ , 91 ¹ , 90 ¹ , 89 ² , 88 ¹ , 87 ¹ , 86 ¹ , 85 ¹ , 84 ¹ , 83 ¹ , 82 ¹ , 81 ¹ , 80 ¹ , 79 ¹ , 78 ¹ , 77 ¹ , 76 ¹ , 75 ²
Vagina (#1-3,5)	286	693	0.93±0.11	82 ¹
Vagina (#1)	105	693	0.80±0.19	97 ¹
Vagina (#2)	25	774	0.79±0.17	97 ¹
Vagina (#3)	135	1,271	0.85±0.13	97 ¹
Vagina (#4)	108	881	NA	NA
Vagina (#5)	21	936	0.76±0.17	97 ¹ , 95 ¹
Wastewater	43	48,668	0.53±0.07	97 ¹ , 96 ² , 95 ² , 94 ¹ , 93 ¹ , 92 ¹ , 91 ¹ , 90 ¹ , 89 ¹ , 88 ¹ , 87 ¹ , 86 ¹ , 85 ¹ , 84 ¹ , 83 ¹ , 82 ¹ , 81 ¹ , 80 ¹ , 79 ¹ , 78 ¹ , 77 ¹ , 76 ¹ , 75 ¹
Sponge	143	27,921	0.77±0.10	97 ¹ , 96 ¹ , 93 ¹ , 92 ³ , 91 ¹ , 90 ³ , 89 ¹ , 88 ¹ , 87 ¹ , 86 ¹ , 85 ¹ , 84 ¹ , 83 ² , 81 ³ , 80 ³ , 78 ² , 76 ¹
Leaf	175	10,322	0.18±0.10	97 ¹ , 91 ¹
Mice (Total)	230	10,086	0.52±0.08	95 ¹ , 92 ¹ , 91 ² , 91 ¹ , 89 ² , 88 ³ , 87 ² , 86 ² , 85 ¹ , 84 ¹ , 83 ¹ , 82 ¹ , 81 ¹ , 80 ¹ , 79 ¹ , 78 ¹
Mice (Lab)	129	15,932	0.51±0.10	97 ² , 96 ³ , 95 ² , 94 ² , 93 ² , 92 ¹ , 91 ¹ , 90 ¹ , 89 ¹ , 88 ¹ , 87 ¹ , 86 ¹ , 85 ³ , 84 ³ , 83 ¹ , 81 ¹ , 80 ³ , 79 ¹ , 78 ¹
Mice (Wild)	101	10,086	0.57±0.07	97 ³ , 96 ¹ , 93 ¹ , 92 ² , 90 ² , 89 ¹ , 88 ² , 87 ¹ , 86 ¹ , 85 ¹ , 84 ² , 83 ¹ , 82 ¹ , 81 ¹ , 79 ¹ , 78 ² , 77 ¹ , 75 ¹

Depth; sequences per sample. **Frequency**; average pooled abundance of members of the core OTUs across the dataset. **Core groups per clust. threshold**; Numbers represent similarity clustering thresholds (x10⁻²) were core OTUs were detected, and superscript values indicate the number of such OTUs observed for each threshold.

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210 FIGURE LEGENDS

211 **Figure 1. Detection of PCGs in datasets.** Results for selected datasets based on the
 212 dynamic clustering of 16S rRNA gene sequences from 97% to 75% sequence identity
 213 (right to left) [OTUs] and the phylogenetic tree-based approach [Tree]. For each
 214 threshold, OTUs/nodes present in all samples (i.e. core) appear vertically stacked with
 215 individual heights representing average relative abundance of each core OTU/node in
 216 the dataset. For the tree-based approach, x-axis values represent the maximum intra-
 217 node distance, not the average.

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219 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

220 **Supplementary Material 1.** *BacterialCore.py* result files (intermediate clustering
 221 files have been omitted due to their large size).

222 **Supplementary Material 2.** Detection of PCGs in datasets. Results based on the
 223 dynamic clustering of 16S rRNA gene sequences from 97% to 75% sequence identity
 224 (right to left) [Page 1; OTUs], and the phylogenetic tree-based approach where x-axis
 225 values represent the maximum intra-node distance [Page 2; MaxS] or the average intra-
 226 node distance [Page3; MeanS]. For each threshold, OTUs/nodes present in all samples
 227 (i.e. core) appear vertically stacked with individual heights representing average relative
 228 abundance of each core OTU/node in the dataset. Results arising from both approaches
 229 are also compared [Pages 4-5].

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