Making Sense of the Noise: Leveraging Existing 16S rRNA Gene Surveys to Identify Key Community Members in Colorectal Cancer

Marc A Sze¹ and Patrick D Schloss^{1†}

† To whom correspondence should be addressed: pschloss@umich.edu

1 Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI

Co-author e-mails:

• marcsze@med.umich.edu

Abstract

Background. An increasing body of literature suggests that there is a crucial role for the microbiota in colorectal cancer (CRC) pathogenesis. Important drivers within this context have ranged from individual microbes to the whole community. Our study expands on a recent meta-analysis investigating microbial biomarkers for CRC by testing the hypothesis that the bacterial community has important associations to both early (adenoma) and late (carcinoma) stage disease. To test this hypothesis we examined both feces (n = 1737) and colon tissue (492 total samples from 350 individuals) across 14 previously published 16S rRNA gene sequencing studies on CRC and the microbiota.

Results. Fecal samples had a significant decrease for both Shannon diversity and evenness after correcting for study effect and variable region sequenced with more severe disease (P-value < 0.05). This reduction in evenness translated into small increases in relative risk for adenoma (P-value = 0.032) and carcinoma stages of CRC (P-value = 0.00034) while the reduction in Shannon diversity only translated into an increased relative risk for developing carcinomas (P-value = 0.0047). Increases in mouth-associated microbes were commonly in the top 5 most significantly increased relative risk of adenoma 16 and carcinoma for both stool and tissue samples. A prediction model for adenoma and 17 carcinoma was built using either the whole community or selected genera with highest 18 and lowest relative risk from fecal and tissue samples. Both approaches resulted in similar classification success according to Area Under the Curve (AUC) regardless of whether genera or OTUs were used to build the model. The most important groups within the full 21 community models consistently belonged to genera such as Ruminococcus, Bacteroides, and Roseburia across studies. Although a number of associations between the microbiota and CRC were identified, the majority of studies that we used in this meta-analysis were only individually adequately powered for large effect sizes.

Conclusions. These data provide support for the importance of the bacterial community to both adenoma and carcinoma genesis. The evidence collected within this study on the role of the microbiota in CRC identifies a number of correlations that may not have been detected because of the low power associated with the majority of studies that have been performed to date.

Keywords

microbiota; colorectal cancer; polyps; adenoma; meta-analysis.

33 Background

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is a growing world-wide health problem in which the microbiota has been purported to play an active role in disease pathogenesis [1,2]. Numerous studies have shown the importance of both individual microbes [3–7] and the overall community [8–10] in tumorgenesis using mouse models of CRC. There have also been numerous case/control studies investigating the microbiota in the formation of both adenoma and carcinoma. A recent meta-analysis investigated whether specific biomarkers could be consistently identified using multiple data sets [11]. This meta-analysis focused on identifying microbial signatures of CRC (biomarkers) but did so on a small total number of individuals and only investigated stool.

Although there has been an intense focus on microbiota-based biomarker discovery for CRC, the number of candidate genera seem to be endless. Some studies point towards mouth-associated genera such as Fusobacterium, Peptostreptococcus, Parvimonas, and Porphyromonas as key enriched genera [6,12-18]. Yet, even in these studies, mouth-associated genera are far from the only microbes identified to be associated with CRC. These other genera include, but are not limited to, *Providencia*, *Mogibacterium*, 48 Enterococcus, Escherichia/Shigella, Klebsiella, and Streptococcus [14-16]. In fact, there is good in vivo evidence that Escherichia/Shigella and Streptococcus can be important 50 in the pathogenesis of CRC [5,19,20]. Other studies have also identified Akkermansia 51 muciniphila and Bacteroides fragilis as potential markers of CRC with good mechanistic studies for the latter [15,21,22]. A recent meta-analysis confirmed the correlations of certain mouth-associated genera and Akkermansia muciniphila with carcinoma [11]. However, 54 the sample size (n = 509) is equal to or less than some more recent individual studies investigating the microbiota and CRC, making it hard to know how extrapolatable these findings are. That particular meta-analysis also added more potential microbial associations to both carcinoma (Pantoea agglomerans Ruminococcus, Lactobacillus) and adenoma

(*Prevotella*, *Methanosphaera*, *Succinovibrio*, *Haemophilus parainfluenzae*, *Ruminococcus*, *Lactobacillus*) stages of CRC that need to be investigated further, since a number of these

genera have been found to be enriched in controls and not disease [13,16,17]. There are

also genera like *Roseburia* that some studies find to be increased in CRC but other studies

report either decreased or no difference [15,18,23,24].

Most of these studies have focused on carcinoma but the adenoma observations are not any clearer at identifying candidate genera. Groups focusing on broad scale community metrics have found that metrics such as richness are decreased in the adenoma stage of CRC versus controls. Other studies have identified *Lactococcus*, *Pseudomonas*, *Acidovorax*, *Cloacibacterium*, *Helicobacter*, *Lactobacillus*, *Bilophila*, *Desulfovibrio*, and Mogibacterium to be increased in adenoma [25–27]. Based on the studies mentioned, there seems to be very little overlap between the genera identified to be associated with adenoma and carcinoma, with *Lactobacillus* being one of the few commonalities.

Targeting the identification of CRC microbial biomarkers within stool seems logical since it offers an easy and cost-effective way to stratify risk and the current gold standard for diagnosis, a colonoscopy, can be time-consuming and is not without risk of complications. Although stool represents an easy and less invasive way to assess risk, it is not clear how well this sample reflects adenoma- and carcinoma- associated microbial communities. Some studies have tried to assess this in health and disease but are limited by their sample size [18,28]. Sampling the microbiota directly associated with colon tissue directly may provide clearer answers but is not without limitations. The community present for sampling following the colonoscopy bowel prep may reflect the better adhered microbiota versus the resident community. Additionally, these samples contain more host DNA, potentially limiting the types of analysis that can be done. It is well known that low biomass samples can be very difficult to work with and results can be study dependent due to the randomness of contamination [29].

In comparison to the previous meta-analysis, this study significantly increases the total stool samples investigated, re-examines important genera across adenoma and carcinoma across study, and examines differences and similarities between stool and tissue microbiota in the context of CRC. Importantly, this analysis and approach could provide valuable insights into the common genera that are both protective and detrimental in CRC and whether broad bacterial community measurements can account for these changes that were not provided by earlier meta-analysis studies [11].

Using both feces (n = 1737) and colon tissues (492 samples from 350 individuals) 92 totaling over 2229 total samples across 14 studies [12-18,21,23-27,30] [Table 1 & 2], we expand both the breadth and scope of the previous meta-analysis to investigate whether the bacterial community or specific members are more important risk factors for both adenoma and carcinoma stages of CRC. To accomplish this we first assessed whether bacterial diversity changes throughout disease (control to adenoma to carcinoma) and if it results in an increased relative risk (RR) for adenoma or carcinoma stages of CRC. We then assessed what genera, if any, increase or decrease the RR of adenoma or carcinoma stages of CRC. Next, using Random Forest models, we analyzed whether the 100 full community or only the combined top 5 increased and top 5 decreased RR genera 101 resulted in better model classification, based on the area under the curve (AUC). Finally, 102 we also examined at what effect and sample size the studies used were powered for 103 and the sample size needed to get to the traditionaly accepted 80% power. Our results 104 from these analyses suggests that the bacterial community changes as disease severity 105 worsens, that specific members are important for disease classification, and that many of 106 the studies are underpowered for assessing small effect sizes.

Results

Lower Bacterial Diversity is Associated with Increased RR of Carcinomas: To assess differences in broad scale community metrics as disease severity worsens 110 Operational Taxonomic Unit (OTU) richness, evenness, and Shannon diversity 111 measurements were power transformed and Z-score normalized. These metrics are 112 commonly used to assess the total number of OTUs, the equality of their abundance, and 113 the overall diversity, respectively. Using linear mixed-effect models to control for study 114 and variable region we assessed whether OTU richness, evenness, or Shannon diversity 115 changed in a step-wise manner with disease severity. In stool, there was a significant 116 decrease in both evenness and Shannon diversity as disease severity moved from control 117 to adenoma to carcinoma (P-value = 0.025 and 0.043, respectively) [Figure 1A]. We next 118 tested whether the detectable differences in community significantly increased in RR 119 of having an adenoma or carcinoma. For fecal samples, a decrease versus the overal 120 median in evenness resulted in a significantly increased RR for carcinoma (RR = 1.36 121 (1.15 - 1.61), P-value = 0.00034) and adenoma (RR = 1.16 (1.01 - 1.34), P-value = 122 0.032) while a decrease versus the overal median in Shannon diversity only increased 123 the RR for carcinoma (RR = 1.33 (1.09 - 1.62), P-value = 0.0047) [Figure 2]. Using the Bray-Curtis distance metric and PERMANOVA, it was also possible to identify significant bacterial community changes, in specific studies, for both carcinoma-associated and adenoma-associated microbiota versus control [Table S1 & S2].

Using similar transformations for tissue samples, linear mixed-effect models were used on the transformed combined data to control for study, re-sampling of the same individual, and 16S variable region to test whether OTU richness, evenness, or Shannon diversity changed in a step-wise manner as disease severity increased. For colon tissue, there were no significant changes in OTU richness, evenness, or Shannon diversity as disease severity progressed from control to adenoma to carcinoma (P-value > 0.05) [Figure 1B & C].

We next analyzed the RR, for matched (unaffected tissue and an adenoma or carcinoma from the same individual) and unmatched (control and adenoma or carcinoma tissue not from the same individual) colon tissue samples. For individuals at either an adenoma or 136 carcinoma stage of disease there was no significant change in RR based on lower than 137 median values for OTU richness, evenness, and Shannon diversity [Table S3-S5]. Similar 138 to stool samples, significant differences in bacterial community, assessed by PERMANOVA, 139 were identified in unmatched tissue samples, for those at either adenoma or carcinoma 140 stage of CRC [Table S6 & S7]. For studies with matched samples no differences in bacterial 141 community were observed when assessed with PERMANOVA [Table S6 & S7]. These 142 tissue results suggest that the microbiota within an individual are similar to each other 143 regardless of disease status.

Mouth-Associated Genera are Associated with an Increased RR of CRC: Next we asked if being higher than the median relative abundance, for any specific genera, resulted 146 in an altered RR for adenoma or carcinoma, in stool and colon tissue, due to our previous 147 observations of small increases in RR using OTU richness and Shannon diversity. To 148 investigate this we analyzed all common genera across each study, in colon tissue or stool, 149 and assessed whether a relative abundance higher than the median results in an increase 150 or decrease in RR. The top 5 most significantly increased RR were the same between 151 adenoma and carcinoma for both stool and colon tissue [Figure 3]. Mouth-associated 152 genera were commonly found in the top 5 genera associated with an increased RR of 153 having an adenoma (*Pyramidobacter* [Figure 3A] and *Rothia* [Figure 3C]) and carcinoma 154 (Fusobacterium, Parvimonas, Porphyromonas, and Peptostreptococcus [Figure 3B] and 155 Fusobacterium [Figure 3D]) for both stool and colon tissue samples. Conversely, genera 156 commonly associated with a normal gastrointestinal tract were correlated with a decreased 157 RR for both adenoma and carcinoma for both stool and colon tissue samples [Figure 3]. Even though mouth-associated genera were identified across disease stage, there was little direct overlap of the top 5 increased or decreased RR genera between both stages

and sample site.

When observing RRs with a P-value less than 0.05 there was almost no overlap between genera from stool or colon tissue and when they were similar the RR was in opposite directions (e.g. *Lactococcus*) [Table S8 & S9]. Many of the genera that had RRs with a P-value under 0.05 for colon tissue are also highly prevalent in contamination, specifically, *Novosphingobium*, *Selemonas*, and *Achromobacter* [Figure 3 & Table S8-S9]. For carcinoma stage of CRC, certain mouth-associated genera (*Fusobacterium*, *Parvimonas*, *Peptostreptococcus*) had a high RR for both colon tissue and stool samples [Table S10 & S11]. Finally, these data suggest that the most significantly increased RR genera for tissue was *Camplyobacter* while in stool it was *Peptostreptococcus* [Table S10 & S11].

Select Genera Models can Recapitulate Whole Community Models: Since specific 171 genera increased RR for carcinoma over diversity metrics we assessed whether the 172 bacterial community was better at classifying disease versus only a select group of genera. 173 We selected these genera based on their RR and P-value significance and used two 174 approaches to test this question. The first approach used genus level data and tested 175 for differences in AUC between all genera and selected genera. A single study was 176 used for training the model prior to testing on all other studies and this was repeated for 177 every study in the meta-analysis. The second approach used OTU level data and tested 178 for a generalized decrease in the 10-fold cross validation (CV) model AUC which is a 179 common approach used to guard against over-fitting. This was applied across study and the AUC of the all OTUs model was compared against the model that used only OTUs that taxonomically classified to selected genera. 182

For the first approach using the genera-based models, the training set median AUC for model classification was similar for both the select genera and full genera models, for both tissue and stool studies [Figure S2-S3]. When analyzing the tests sets that were comprised of genera data from other studies, both models had a similar ability to detect individuals with adenomas or carcinomas, with the select genera models performing better in some instances [Figure S4-S6]. Conversely, the second approach that used OTU-based models showed a slight decrease in median AUC between the full and select models, with one exception to this generalization being the carcinoma models for matched colon tissue [Figure 4 & 5].

In stool, the most common genera in the top 10 most imporant variables, in models for the first approach, that used full genera-based models were *Ruminococcus*, *Bacteroides*, and *Roseburia* [Figure 6A & B]. Regardless of sample type, mouth-associated genera were present in models for the carcinoma stage of CRC [Figure 6A & B]. Yet, none were present in the majority of studies and *Fusobacterium* was the only genus present in the adenoma stage of CRC [Figure 6A & B]. For the second approach that utilized full OTU-based models, *Ruminococcaceae* was present in the top 10 consistently for both adenoma and carcinoma models while *Roseburia* was only present in many adenoma models and *Bacteroides* was present in the overwhelming majority of the carcinoma models [Figure 6C & 6D].

Unlike the stool-based Random Forest models, the tissue-based models, for the full 201 genera from the first approach, showed no consistent representation of Ruminococcaceae, 202 Ruminococcus, Bacteroides, and Roseburia in the top 10 most important model variables 203 across study [Figure S7]. The vast majority of the top 10 model variables for the genera-204 and OTU-based models using colon tissue tended to be study specific. Further, there 205 was very little overlap in the top 10 important variables between adenoma and carcinoma stage models, regardless of whether colon tissue or stool was used [Figure 6 & S7]. This discordance between stool and colon tissue samples also applies to the mouth-associated genera with one noticeable skew being that Fusobacterium and Fusobacteriaceae occur 209 more often in the top 10 of matched versus unmatched colon tissue Random Forest models 210 [Figure S7B-C & S7E-F]. This suggests that either the colon tissue microbiota is study and person dependent or that kit and/or other types of contamination associated with low

biomass samples may be skewing the results.

CRC Studies are Underpowered for Detecting Small Effect Sizes: Next, we assessed 214 how much confidence should be placed in the reported outcomes from each individual 215 study by calculating the ability to detect a difference (power) and sample size needed 216 for small, medium, and large effect size differences between cases and controls. When 217 assessing the power of each study at different effect sizes the majority of studies acheived 218 80% power to detect a 30% or greater difference between groups [Figure 7A & B]. No 219 study that we analyzed had the standard 80% power to detect an effect size difference 220 equal to or below 10% [Figure 7A & B]. In order to achieve a power of 80%, for small effect 221 sizes, studies used in our meta-analysis would need to recruit over 1000 individuals for both the case and control arms [Figure 7C]

24 Discussion

Our study identifies clear differences in diversity, both at the community level and for individual genera, present in patients with and without CRC [Figure 1-3]. Although there was a step-wise decrease in diversity as disease progressed from control to adenoma to carcinoma, this did not translate into large effect sizes for the RR of CRC. Even though mouth-associated genera increased the RR of having a carcinoma, they did not consistently increase the RR of having an adenoma. Additionally, our observations suggest that by combining mouth-associated and CRC protective microbes we can classify either adenoma or carcinoma stage of disease as well as models that use the full community.

The data presented herein support the importance of select genera for carcinoma, but not necessarily adenoma, formation. The results that we have presented show that the both genera and OTU select and full models, for the carcinoma stage of CRC, had similar AUCs [Figure 4 & 5]. This suggests that an interplay between a select number of potentially protective and exacerbating microbes within the GI community is crucial for carcinoma formation. Importantly, it suggests that there may be key members of the GI community that might be studied further to potentially reduce the risk of carcinoma. Conversely, using the present data, it is clear that new approaches may be needed to identify members of the community associated with adenoma stage of disease. Regardless of sample type and whether a full or select model was used, our Random Forest models consistently performed poorly. Yet, the step-wise decrease in diversity suggests that the adenoma-associated community is not normal but has changed subtly [Figure 1]. This change in diversity, at this early stage of disease, could be focal to the adenoma itself. One possible explanation is that how the host interacts with these subtle changes at early stages of the disease is what leads to a thoroughly dysfunctional community that is supportive of CRC genesis.

Within stool, common GI microbes were most consistently present in the top 10

genera or OTUs across studies [Figure 6]. Changes in *Bacteroides*, *Ruminococcaceae*, *Ruminococcus*, and *Roseburia* were consistently found to be in the top 10 most important variables across the different studies for both adenoma and carcinoma [Figure 6]. These data suggest that whether the non-resident bacterium is *Fusobacteria* or *Peptostreptococcus* is not as important as how these bacteria interact with the changing resident community. Based on these observations, it is possible to hypothesize that small changes in community structure lead to new niches in which any one of the mouth-associated genera can gain a foothold, exacerbating the initial changes in community and facilitating the transition from adenoma to carcinoma stage of disease.

The colon tissue-based studies did not provide a clearer understanding of how the microbiota may be associated with CRC Generally, the full OTU-based models of unmatched and matched colon tissue samples were concordant with stool samples showing that GI resident microbes were the most prevalent in the top 10 most important variables across study [Figure S7E & F]. Unlike in stool, *Fusobacterium* was the only mouth-associated bacteria consistently present in the top 10 most important variables of the full carcinoma stage models [Figure S7B-C & E-F]. The majority of the colon tissue-based results seem to be study specific with many of top 10 taxa being present only in a single study. Additionally, the presence of genera associated with contamination, within the top 10 most important variables for the genera and OTU models is worrying. The low bacterial biomass of tissue samples coupled with potential contamination could explain why the these results seem to be more sporadic than the stool results.

One important caveat to this study is that even though genera associated with certain species such as *Bacteroides fragilis* and *Streptococcus gallolyticus* subsp. *gallolyticus* were not identified, it does not necessarily mean that these specific species are not important in human CRC [20,22]. Since we are limited in our aggregation of the data to the genus level, it is not possible to clearly delineate which species are contributing to overall

disease progression. Our observations are not inconsistent with the previous literature on either Bacteroides fragilis or Streptococcus gallolyticus subsp. gallolyticus. As an example, the stool-based full community models consistently identified the genus Bacteroides, as well as OTUs that classified as Bacteroides, to be important model components across studies. This suggests that even though Bacteroides may not increase the RR of CRC 279 and may not vary in relative abundance, like Fusobacterium, it is still important in CRC. 280 Additionally, Streptococcus gallolyticus subsp. gallolyticus is a mouth-associated micobe, 281 and the results from this study suggest that regardless sample type, mouth-associated 282 genera are commonly associated with an increased RR for both adenoma and carcinoma 283 stage of disease. 284

The associations between the microbiota and adenoma stage of disease are inconclusive, in part, because many studies may not be powered effectively to observe small effect 286 sizes. None of the studies analyzed were properly powered to detect a 10% or lower 287 change between cases and controls. The results within our meta-analysis suggest that a 288 small effect size may well be the scope in which differences consistently occur between 289 controls and adenoma stage of disease. Future studies investigating adenoma stage and 290 the microbiota need to take power into consideration to reproducibly study whether the 291 microbiota contributes to polyp formation. In contrast to adenoma stage of disease, our 292 observations suggest that most studies analyzed have sufficient power to detect many 293 changes in the carcinoma-associated microbiota because of large effect size differences 294 between cases and controls [Figure 7].

296 Conclusion

By aggregating together a large collection of studies analyzing both fecal and colon tissue samples, we are able to provide evidence supporting the importance of the bacterial 298 community in CRC. Further, the data presented here suggests that mouth-associated 299 microbes can gain a foothold within the colon and are are commonly associated with the 300 greatest RR of having a carcinoma. No conclusive signal with these mouth-associated 301 micobes could be detected for adenoma stage of disease. Our observations also highlight 302 the importance of power and sample number considerations when investigating the 303 microbiota and adenoma stage of disease due to the subtle changes in the community. 304 Overall, associations of microbiota with the carcinoma stage of CRC are much stronger 305 than those with the adenoma stage.

Methods

Obtaining Data Sets: The studies used for this meta-analysis were identified through the review articles written by Keku, et al. and Vogtmann, et al. [31,32] and additional 309 studies not mentioned in the reviews were obtained based on the authors' knowledge of the literature. Studies that used tissue or feces as their sample source for 454 or Illumina 16S 311 rRNA gene sequencing analysis and had data sets with sequences available for analysis 312 were included. Some studies were excluded because they did not have publicly available 313 sequences or did not have metadata in which the authors were able to share. After these 314 filtering steps, the following studies remained: Ahn, et al. [12], Baxter, et al. [13], Brim, et 315 al. [30], Burns, et al. [16], Chen, et al. [14], Dejea, et al. [24], Flemer, et al. [18], Geng, et 316 al. [23], Hale, et al. [27], Kostic, et al. [33], Lu, et al. [26], Sanapareddy, et al. [25], Wang, 317 et al. [15], Weir, et al. [21], and Zeller, et al. [17]. The Zackular [34] study was not included 318 because the 90 individuals analyzed within the study are contained within the larger Baxter 319 study [13]. After sequence processing, all the case samples for the Kostic study had 100 320 or less sequences remaining and was excluded, leaving a total of 14 studies that analysis 321 could be completed on. 322

Data Set Breakdown: In total, there were seven studies with only fecal samples (Ahn,
Baxter, Brim, Hale, Wang, Weir, and Zeller), five studies with only tissue samples (Burns,
Dejea, Geng, Lu, Sanapareddy), and two studies with both fecal and tissue samples (Chen
and Flemer). The total number of individuals analyzed after sequence processing for feces
was 1737 [Table 1]. The total number of matched and unmatched tissue samples that were
analyzed after sequence processing was 492 [Table 2].

Sequence Processing: For the majority of studies, raw sequences were downloaded from the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) (ftp://ftp-trace.ncbi.nih.gov/sra/sra-instant/reads/
ByStudy/sra/SRP/) and metadata were obtained by searching the respective accession

number of the study at the following website: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/study/. Of the studies that did not have sequences and metadata on the SRA, data was obtained from DBGap (n = 1, [12]) and directly from the authors (n = 4, [18,21,25,27]). Each study was processed using the mothur (v1.39.3) software program [35] and quality filtering utilized the 335 default methods for both 454 and Illumina based sequencing. If it was not possible to use 336 the defaults, the stated quality cut-offs, from the study itself, were used instead. Sequences 337 that were made up of an artificial combination of two or more different sequences and 338 commonly known as chimeras were identified and removed using VSEARCH [36] before 339 de novo OTU clustering at 97% similarity was completed using the OptiClust algorithm 340 [37]. 341

Statistical Analysis: All statistical analysis after sequence processing utilized the R (v3.4.3) software package [38]. For the α -diversity analysis, values were power transformed 343 using the rcompanion (v1.11.1) package [39] and then Z-score normalized using the car (v2.1.6) package [40]. Testing for α -diversity differences utilized linear mixed-effect models 345 created using the lme4 (v1.1.15) package [41] to correct for study, repeat sampling of 346 individuals (tissue only), and 16S hypervariable region used. Relative risk was analyzed 347 using both the epiR (v0.9.93) and metafor (v2.0.0) packages [42,43] by assessing how 348 many individuals with and without disease were above and below the overall median value 349 within each specific study. Relative risk significance testing utilized the chi-squared test. 350 β-diversity differences utilized a Bray-Curtis distance matrix and PERMANOVA executed 351 with the vegan (v2.4.5) package [44]. Random Forest models were built using both the caret 352 (v6.0.78) and randomForest (v4.6.12) packages [45,46]. Power analysis and estimations 353 were made using the pwr (v1.2.1) and statmod (v1.4.30) packages [47,48]. All figures were 354 created using both ggplot2 (v2.2.1) and gridExtra (v2.3) packages [49,50]. 355

Study Analysis Overview: OTU richness, evenness, and Shannon diversity was first
 assessed for differences between controls, adenoma stage, and carcinoma stage using

both linear mixed-effect models and RR. The Bray-Curtis index was used to assess, for each individual study, differences between control-adenoma and control-carcinoma. Next, all common genera were assessed for differences in RR for having an adenoma or 360 carcinoma and ranked based on P-value. We then built Random Forest models based on 36 full or selected community, based on the top 5 increased and top 5 decreased RR based on 362 P-value, and these models were trained on one study then tested on the remaining studies. 363 This process was repeated for every study in the meta-analysis. A similar approach was 364 then applied at the OTU level with the exception that a 10-fold CV over 100 different models, 365 based on random 80/20 splitting of the data, was used to generate a range of expected 366 AUCs. For these OTU-based models, the selected model included all OTUs that had a 367 taxonomic classification to a taxa in the top 5 increased and top 5 decreased RR based 368 on P-value. Finally, the power of each study was assessed for an effect size ranging from 369 1% to 30% and an estimated sample size, for these effect sizes, was generated based on 370 80% power. For comparisons in which only control versus adenoma stage were made, the 371 carcinoma samples were excluded from each respective study. Similarly, for comparisons 372 in which control versus carcinoma stage were made the adenoma samples were excluded 373 from each respective study. The data were split between feces and tissue samples. Within the tissue groups the data were further divided between samples from the same individual (matched) and those from different individuals (unmatched). Where applicable for each study, predictions for adenoma and carcinoma stage of disease were then tested for feces, matched tissue, and unmatched tissue. 378

Obtaining Genera Relative Abundance and Selected Models: For the genera analysis of the RR, OTUs were added together based on the genus or lowest available taxonomic classification level and the total average counts, for 100 different subsamplings, were collected. The OTU based Random Forest Models using selected OTUs utilized a similar approach except that the OTUs were not aggregated together by taxonomic identity but kept as separate OTUs. OTU Random Forest models using the full community included all

379

380

381

382

383

OTUs while those for the selected model included only those OTUs that had a taxonomic classification to a variable in the top 5 increased of top 5 decreased RR based on P-value.

Matched versus Unmatched Tissue Samples: In general, tissue samples with control 387 and CRC samples from different indivdiuals were classified as unmatched while samples 388 that belonged to the same individual were classified as matched. Studies with matched 389 data included Burns, Dejea, Geng, and Lu while those with unmatched data were from 390 Burns, Flemer, Chen, and Sanapareddy. For some studies samples became unmatched 39 when a corresponding matched sample did not make it through sequence processing. All 392 samples, from both tissue sample types, were analyzed together for the linear mixed-effect 393 models with samples from the same individual corrected for. For all other analysis, not mentioned herein, matched and unmatched samples were analyzed separately using the 395 statistical approaches mentioned in the Statistical Analysis section.

Assessing Important Random Forest Model Variables: Using Mean Decrease in 397 Accuracy (MDA) the top 10 most important variables to the Random Forest model were 398 obtained in two different ways depending on whether the model used genera or OTU data. 399 For the genus based models, the number of times that a genus showed up in the top 10 of the training set across each study was counted while, for the OTU based models, the 401 medians for each OTU across 100 different 80/20 splits of the data was generated and 402 the top 10 OTUs then counted for each study. Common taxa, for the OTU based models, 403 were identified by using the lowest classification within the RDP database for each of the specific OTUs obtained from the previous counts and the number of times this classification occurred in the top 10, in each study, was recorded. The two studies that had adenoma tissue were equally divided between matched and unmatched groups and were grouped 407 together for the counting of the top 10 genera and OTUs. 408

Reproducible Methods: The code and analysis can be found at https://github.com/
SchlossLab/Sze CRCMetaAnalysis Microbiome 2017. Unless otherwise mentioned, the

accession number of raw sequences from the studies used in this analysis can be found
 directly in the respective batch file in the GitHub repository or in the original manuscript.

Declarations

414 Ethics approval and consent to participate

Ethics approval and informed consent for each of the studies used is mentioned in the respective manuscripts used in this meta-analysis.

417 Consent for publication

Not applicable.

419 Availability of data and material

A detailed and reproducible description of how the data were processed and analyzed for each study can be found at https://github.com/SchlossLab/Sze_CRCMetaAnalysis_
Microbiome_2017. Raw sequences can be downloaded from the SRA in most cases and can be found in the respective study batch file in the GitHub repository or within the original publication. For instances when sequences are not publicly available, they may be accessed by contacting the corresponding authors from whence the data came.

426 Competing Interests

427 All authors declare that they do not have any relevant competing interests to report.

428 Funding

MAS is supported by a Canadian Institute of Health Research fellowship and a University of Michigan Postdoctoral Translational Scholar Program grant.

Authors' contributions

All authors helped to design and conceptualize the study. MAS identified and analyzed the data. MAS and PDS interpreted the data. MAS wrote the first draft of the manuscript and both he and PDS reviewed and revised updated versions. All authors approved the final manuscript.

436 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank all the study participants who were a part of each of the individual studies utilized. We would also like to thank each of the study authors for making their data available for use. Finally, we would like to thank the members of the Schloss lab for valuable feed back and proof reading during the formulation of this manuscript.

441 References

- 1. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2016. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians.
- 443 2016;66:7–30.
- 2. Flynn KJ, Baxter NT, Schloss PD. Metabolic and Community Synergy of Oral Bacteria in
- Colorectal Cancer. mSphere. 2016;1.
- 3. Goodwin AC, Destefano Shields CE, Wu S, Huso DL, Wu X, Murray-Stewart TR, et al.
- Polyamine catabolism contributes to enterotoxigenic Bacteroides fragilis-induced colon
- tumorigenesis. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of
- 449 America. 2011;108:15354-9.
- 450 4. Abed J, Emgård JEM, Zamir G, Faroja M, Almogy G, Grenov A, et al. Fap2
- 451 Mediates Fusobacterium nucleatum Colorectal Adenocarcinoma Enrichment by Binding to
- Tumor-Expressed Gal-GalNAc. Cell Host & Microbe. 2016;20:215–25.
- 5. Arthur JC, Perez-Chanona E, Mühlbauer M, Tomkovich S, Uronis JM, Fan T-J, et al.
- 454 Intestinal inflammation targets cancer-inducing activity of the microbiota. Science (New
- 455 York, N.Y.). 2012;338:120–3.
- 456 6. Kostic AD, Chun E, Robertson L, Glickman JN, Gallini CA, Michaud M, et al.
- 457 Fusobacterium nucleatum potentiates intestinal tumorigenesis and modulates the
- tumor-immune microenvironment. Cell Host & Microbe. 2013;14:207–15.
- ⁴⁵⁹ 7. Wu S, Rhee K-J, Albesiano E, Rabizadeh S, Wu X, Yen H-R, et al. A human
- colonic commensal promotes colon tumorigenesis via activation of T helper type 17
- T cell responses. Nature Medicine. 2009;15:1016–22.
- 8. Zackular JP, Baxter NT, Chen GY, Schloss PD. Manipulation of the Gut Microbiota

- Reveals Role in Colon Tumorigenesis. mSphere. 2016;1.
- 9. Zackular JP, Baxter NT, Iverson KD, Sadler WD, Petrosino JF, Chen GY, et al. The gut microbiome modulates colon tumorigenesis. mBio. 2013;4:e00692–00613.
- 10. Baxter NT, Zackular JP, Chen GY, Schloss PD. Structure of the gut microbiome following colonization with human feces determines colonic tumor burden. Microbiome. 2014;2:20.
- 11. Shah MS, DeSantis TZ, Weinmaier T, McMurdie PJ, Cope JL, Altrichter A, et al.
 Leveraging sequence-based faecal microbial community survey data to identify a composite
 biomarker for colorectal cancer. Gut. 2017;
- 12. Ahn J, Sinha R, Pei Z, Dominianni C, Wu J, Shi J, et al. Human gut microbiome and risk for colorectal cancer. Journal of the National Cancer Institute. 2013;105:1907–11.
- 13. Baxter NT, Ruffin MT, Rogers MAM, Schloss PD. Microbiota-based model improves the sensitivity of fecal immunochemical test for detecting colonic lesions. Genome Medicine. 2016;8:37.
- 14. Chen W, Liu F, Ling Z, Tong X, Xiang C. Human intestinal lumen and mucosa-associated
 microbiota in patients with colorectal cancer. PloS One. 2012;7:e39743.
- 15. Wang T, Cai G, Qiu Y, Fei N, Zhang M, Pang X, et al. Structural segregation of gut microbiota between colorectal cancer patients and healthy volunteers. The ISME journal. 2012;6:320–9.
- 16. Burns MB, Lynch J, Starr TK, Knights D, Blekhman R. Virulence genes are a signature of the microbiome in the colorectal tumor microenvironment. Genome Medicine. 2015;7:55.
- 17. Zeller G, Tap J, Voigt AY, Sunagawa S, Kultima JR, Costea PI, et al. Potential of fecal microbiota for early-stage detection of colorectal cancer. Molecular Systems Biology.

- 485 2014;10:766.
- 18. Flemer B, Lynch DB, Brown JMR, Jeffery IB, Ryan FJ, Claesson MJ, et al.
- Tumour-associated and non-tumour-associated microbiota in colorectal cancer. Gut.
- 488 2017;66:633–43.
- 19. Arthur JC, Gharaibeh RZ, Mühlbauer M, Perez-Chanona E, Uronis JM, McCafferty J, et
- al. Microbial genomic analysis reveals the essential role of inflammation in bacteria-induced
- colorectal cancer. Nature Communications [Internet]. Springer Nature; 2014;5:4724.
- 492 Available from: https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms5724
- 20. Aymeric L, Donnadieu F, Mulet C, Merle L du, Nigro G, Saffarian A, et al. Colorectal
- cancer specific conditions promoteStreptococcus gallolyticusgut colonization. Proceedings
- of the National Academy of Sciences [Internet]. Proceedings of the National Academy of
- 496 Sciences; 2017;115:E283–91. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1715112115
- 21. Weir TL, Manter DK, Sheflin AM, Barnett BA, Heuberger AL, Ryan EP. Stool microbiome
- and metabolome differences between colorectal cancer patients and healthy adults. PloS
- 499 One. 2013;8:e70803.
- 22. Boleij A, Hechenbleikner EM, Goodwin AC, Badani R, Stein EM, Lazarev MG, et
- al. The bacteroides fragilis toxin gene is prevalent in the colon mucosa of colorectal
- cancer patients. Clinical Infectious Diseases [Internet]. Oxford University Press (OUP);
- ⁵⁰³ 2014;60:208–15. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1093/cid/ciu787
- 23. Geng J, Fan H, Tang X, Zhai H, Zhang Z. Diversified pattern of the human colorectal
- cancer microbiome. Gut Pathogens. 2013;5:2.
- 24. Dejea CM, Wick EC, Hechenbleikner EM, White JR, Mark Welch JL, Rossetti BJ, et al.
- Microbiota organization is a distinct feature of proximal colorectal cancers. Proceedings of

- the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2014;111:18321–6.
- ⁵⁰⁹ 25. Sanapareddy N, Legge RM, Jovov B, McCoy A, Burcal L, Araujo-Perez F, et al. ⁵¹⁰ Increased rectal microbial richness is associated with the presence of colorectal adenomas ⁵¹¹ in humans. The ISME journal. 2012;6:1858–68.
- 26. Lu Y, Chen J, Zheng J, Hu G, Wang J, Huang C, et al. Mucosal adherent bacterial dysbiosis in patients with colorectal adenomas. Scientific Reports. 2016;6:26337.
- 27. Hale VL, Chen J, Johnson S, Harrington SC, Yab TC, Smyrk TC, et al. Shifts in the Fecal
 Microbiota Associated with Adenomatous Polyps. Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers &
 Prevention: A Publication of the American Association for Cancer Research, Cosponsored
 by the American Society of Preventive Oncology. 2017;26:85–94.
- 28. Flynn KJ, Ruffin MT, Turgeon DK, Schloss PD. Spatial variation of the native colon microbiota in healthy adults. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory; 2017; Available from: https://doi.org/10.1101/189886
- 29. Salter SJ, Cox MJ, Turek EM, Calus ST, Cookson WO, Moffatt MF, et al. Reagent and laboratory contamination can critically impact sequence-based microbiome analyses.

 BMC Biology [Internet]. Springer Nature; 2014;12. Available from: https://doi.org/10.1186/s12915-014-0087-z
- 30. Brim H, Yooseph S, Zoetendal EG, Lee E, Torralbo M, Laiyemo AO, et al. Microbiome analysis of stool samples from African Americans with colon polyps. PloS One. 2013;8:e81352.
- 31. Keku TO, Dulal S, Deveaux A, Jovov B, Han X. The gastrointestinal microbiota and colorectal cancer. American Journal of Physiology Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2017 Oct 30];308:G351–63. Available from: http://ajpgi.physiology.

- org/lookup/doi/10.1152/ajpgi.00360.2012
- 32. Vogtmann E, Goedert JJ. Epidemiologic studies of the human microbiome and cancer.
- British Journal of Cancer [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2017 Oct 30];114:237–42. Available from:
- http://www.nature.com/doifinder/10.1038/bjc.2015.465
- 33. Kostic AD, Gevers D, Pedamallu CS, Michaud M, Duke F, Earl AM, et al. Genomic
- analysis identifies association of Fusobacterium with colorectal carcinoma. Genome
- 537 Research. 2012;22:292-8.
- 34. Zackular JP, Rogers MAM, Ruffin MT, Schloss PD. The human gut microbiome as
- a screening tool for colorectal cancer. Cancer Prevention Research (Philadelphia, Pa.).
- 540 2014;7:1112–21.
- 35. Schloss PD, Westcott SL, Ryabin T, Hall JR, Hartmann M, Hollister EB, et al.
- Introducing mothur: Open-Source, Platform-Independent, Community-Supported Software
- for Describing and Comparing Microbial Communities. Appl.Environ.Microbiol. [Internet].
- 2009 [cited 12AD Jan 1];75:7537-41. Available from: http://aem.asm.org/cgi/content/
- 545 abstract/75/23/7537
- 36. Rognes T, Flouri T, Nichols B, Quince C, Mahé F. VSEARCH: A versatile open source
- tool for metagenomics. PeerJ. 2016;4:e2584.
- 548 37. Westcott SL, Schloss PD. OptiClust, an Improved Method for Assigning
- Amplicon-Based Sequence Data to Operational Taxonomic Units. mSphere. 2017;2.
- 550 38. R Core Team. R: A language and environment for statistical computing [Internet].
- ⁵⁵¹ Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing; 2017. Available from: https:
- 552 //www.R-project.org/
- ss 39. Mangiafico S. Rcompanion: Functions to support extension education program

- evaluation [Internet]. 2017. Available from: https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=
 rcompanion
- 40. Fox J, Weisberg S. An R companion to applied regression [Internet]. Second. Thousand
 Oaks CA: Sage; 2011. Available from: http://socserv.socsci.mcmaster.ca/jfox/Books/
 Companion
- 41. Bates D, Mächler M, Bolker B, Walker S. Fitting linear mixed-effects models using Ime4.
 Journal of Statistical Software. 2015;67:1–48.
- 42. Telmo Nunes MS with contributions from, Heuer C, Marshall J, Sanchez J, Thornton R, Reiczigel J, et al. EpiR: Tools for the analysis of epidemiological data [Internet]. 2017.

 Available from: https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=epiR
- 43. Viechtbauer W. Conducting meta-analyses in R with the metafor package. Journal of
 Statistical Software [Internet]. 2010;36:1–48. Available from: http://www.jstatsoft.org/v36/
 i03/
- 44. Oksanen J, Blanchet FG, Friendly M, Kindt R, Legendre P, McGlinn D, et al. Vegan:
 Community ecology package [Internet]. 2017. Available from: https://CRAN.R-project.org/
 package=vegan
- 45. Jed Wing MKC from, Weston S, Williams A, Keefer C, Engelhardt A, Cooper T,
 et al. Caret: Classification and regression training [Internet]. 2017. Available from:
 https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=caret
- 46. Liaw A, Wiener M. Classification and regression by randomForest. R News [Internet].
 2002;2:18–22. Available from: http://CRAN.R-project.org/doc/Rnews/
- 47. Champely S. Pwr: Basic functions for power analysis [Internet]. 2017. Available from:

- https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pwr
- 577 48. Giner G, Smyth GK. Statmod: Probability calculations for the inverse gaussian distribution. R Journal. 2016;8:339–51.
- 49. Wickham H. Ggplot2: Elegant graphics for data analysis [Internet]. Springer-Verlag
 New York; 2009. Available from: http://ggplot2.org
- 50. Auguie B. GridExtra: Miscellaneous functions for "grid" graphics [Internet]. 2017.
- Available from: https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=gridExtra

Table 1: Total Individuals in each Study Included in the Stool Analysis

Study	Data Stored	16S Region	Control (n)	Adenoma (n)	Carcinoma (n)
Ahn	DBGap	V3-4	148	0	62
Baxter	SRA	V4	172	198	120
Brim	SRA	V1-3	6	6	0
Flemer	Author	V3-4	37	0	43
Hale	Author	V3-5	473	214	17
Wang	SRA	V3	56	0	46
Weir	Author	V4	4	0	7
Zeller	SRA	V4	50	37	41

Table 2: Studies with Tissue Samples Included in the Analysis

Study	Data Stored	16S Region	Control (n)	Adenoma (n)	Carcinoma (n)
Burns	SRA	V5-6	18	0	16
Chen	SRA	V1-V3	9	0	9
Dejea	SRA	V3-5	31	0	32
Flemer	Author	V3-4	103	37	94
Geng	SRA	V1-2	16	0	16
Lu	SRA	V3-4	20	20	0
Sanapareddy	Author	V1-2	38	0	33

- Figure 1: α -Diversity Differences between Control, Adenoma, and Carcinoma Across Sampling Site. A) α -diversity metric differences by group in stool samples. B) α -diversity metric differences by group in unmatched tissue samples. C) α -diversity metric differences by group in matched tissue samples. The dashed line represents a Z-score of 0 or no difference from the median.
- Figure 2: Relative Risk for Adenoma or Carcinoma based on α -Diversity Metrics in Stool. A) α -metric relative risk for adenoma. B) α -metric relative risk for carcinoma. Colors represent the different variable regions used within the respective study.
- Figure 3: Top 5 Genera that Decrease and Increase Relative Risk for Lesion. A)

 Adenoma relative risk in stool. B) Carcinoma relative risk in stool. C) Adenoma relative

 risk in tissue. D) Carcinoma relative risk in tissue. For all panels the relative risk was also

 compared to whether one, two, three, or four of the CRC-associated genera were present.
- Figure 4: Stool OTU Random Forest Model Across Studies. A) Adenoma random forest model between the full community and select genera OTUs only. B) Carcinoma random forest model between the full community and select genera OTUs only. The dotted line represents an AUC of 0.5 and the lines represent the range in which the AUC for the 100 different 80/20 runs fell between. The solid red line represents the median AUC of all the studies for either the full community or select genera OTUS only model.
- Figure 5: Tissue OTU Random Forest Model Across Studies. A) Adenoma random forest model between the full community and select genera OTUs only. B) Carcinoma random forest model between the full community and select genera OTUs only. The dotted line represents an AUC of 0.5 and the lines represent the range in which the AUC for the 100 different 80/20 runs fell between. The solid red line represents the median AUC of all the studies for either the full community or select genera OTUS only model.
 - Figure 6: Most Common Genera Across Full Community Stool Study Models. A)

Common genera in the top 10 for adenoma Random Forest genus models. B) Common genera in the top 10 for carcinoma Random Forest genus models. C) Common genera in the top 10 for adenoma Random Forest OTU models. D) Common genera in the top 10 for carcinoma Random Forest OTU models.

Figure 7: Power and Effect Size Analysis of Studies Included. A) Power based on
effect size for studies with adenoma individuals. B) Power based on effect size for studies
with carcinoma individuals. C) The estimated sample number needed for each arm of each
study to detect an effect size of 1-30%. The dotted red lines in A) and B) represent a power
of 0.8.

- Figure S1: Relative Risk for Adenoma or Carcinoma based on α -Diversity Metrics in Tissue. A) α -metric relative risk for adenoma. B) α -metric relative risk for carcinoma. Colors represent the different variable regions used within the respective study.
- Figure S2: Stool Random Forest Genus Model AUC for each Study. A) AUC of adenoma models using all genera or select genera only. B) AUC of carcinoma models using all genera or select genera only. The black line represents the median within each group.
- Figure S3: Tissue Random Forest Genus Model AUC for each Study. A) AUC of adenoma models using all genera or only select genera divided between matched and unmatched tissue. B) AUC of carcinoma models using all genera or select genera only.

 The black line represents the median within each group divided between matched and unmatched tissue.
- Figure S4: Stool Random Forest Prediction Success Using Genera Across Studies.

 A) AUC for prediction in adenoma using all genera or select genera only. B) AUC for prediction in carcinoma using all genera or select genera only. The dotted line represents an AUC of 0.5. The x-axis is the data set in which the model was initially trained on. The red lines represent the median AUC using that specific study as the training set.
- Figure S5: Tissue Random Forest Prediction Success of Carcinoma Using Genera
 Across Studies. A) AUC for prediction in unmatched tissue for all genera or select genera
 only. B) AUC for prediction in matched tissue using all genera or select genera only. The
 dotted line represents an AUC of 0.5. The x-axis is the data set in which the model was
 initially trained on. The red lines represent the median AUC using that specific study as
 the training set.
- Figure S6: Tissue Random Forest Prediction Success of Adenoma Using Genera

 Across Studies. The red lines represent the median AUC using that specific study as the

644 training set.

Figure S7: Most Common Genera Across Full Community Tissue Study Models. A)

Common genera in the top 10 for adenoma Random Forest genus models. B) Common

genera in the top 10 for unmatched carcinoma Random Forest genus models. B) Common

genera in the top 10 for matched carcinoma Random Forest genus models. D) Common

genera in the top 10 for adenoma Random Forest OTU models. E) Common genera in the

top 10 for unmatched carcinoma Random Forest OTU models. F) Common genera in the

top 10 for matched carcinoma Random Forest OTU models.