

Running title: Microbiota predict *C. difficile* severity in humanized mice

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## 1 **Abstract**

2 *Clostridium difficile* causes diarrheal disease when it successfully colonizes a  
3 dysbiotic gut microbial community. Current mouse models to study *C. difficile*  
4 infection (CDI) rely on pre-treatment with antibiotics to disrupt the mouse  
5 microbiome prior to inoculation. This model does not allow for analysis of  
6 human-associated microbial community members that modulate *C. difficile*  
7 colonization and expansion. To study human-associated microbes in the context  
8 of CDI, we inoculated germ-free C57BL/6 mice with one of 16 human fecal  
9 samples from diarrheal or healthy donors and challenged with *C. difficile* 14 days  
10 later. Five unique donor-mice combinations resulted in severe CDI while the  
11 remaining 11 only experienced mild disease. Both healthy and diarrheal donors  
12 were susceptible to colonization and severe symptoms of CDI. To determine if  
13 specific microbes were associated with disease severity outcomes, we built  
14 a classification Random Forest machine learning model based on relative  
15 abundance data of the communities prior to infection. The model identified a  
16 number of bacterial populations associated with the development of severe  
17 CDI, including *Bacilliales*, *Ruminococcaceae*, *Ruminococcus*, *Staphylococcus*,  
18 *Streptococcus* and *Bacteroidetes*. Additionally, a regression model accurately  
19 predicted colonization levels of *C. difficile* at one to ten days post-infection.  
20 This model explained 99% of the variance in the number of CFU isolated from  
21 mouse stool. Members of *Lachnospiraceae*, *Parabacteroides*, *Bacteroidales*,  
22 *Bacteroidetes*, *Porphyromonadaceae* and unclassified *Bacteria* families were  
23 predictive of future *C. difficile* colonization levels. Finally, challenging these mice  
24 with different strains of *C. difficile* revealed that susceptible human-associated  
25 microbial communities were prone to severe disease independent of strain  
26 type. Taken together these results suggest that human-associated microbial  
27 communities can be recapitulated in germ-free mice and used to characterize

28 dynamics of CDI. Because both healthy and diarrheal patients were susceptible  
29 to severe CDI, machine-learning models are useful to identify bacterial  
30 populations that allow colonization and contribute to the development of *C.*  
31 *difficile* associated disease in humans.

## 32 Introduction

33 *Clostridium difficile* is an opportunistic pathogen of the human lower  
34 gastrointestinal tract. Disruption of the native microbial community of the gut  
35 by antibiotics is the most common risk factor for development of *C. difficile*  
36 infection (CDI) (1). *C. difficile* is a spore-forming bacteria and can persist on  
37 abiotic surfaces and is not readily killed by ethanol-based hand-sanitizers,  
38 putting hospital patients particularly at risk. Indeed, ~12% of hospital acquired  
39 infections in the United States are due to *C. difficile* and result in up to 15,000  
40 deaths annually (2). This is a test (@Britton12).

41 Murine models to study CDI typically rely on treating conventionally-raised mice  
42 with antibiotics either in drinking water or by injection to induce susceptibility (3,  
43 4). This model provides a convenient way to study *C. difficile* pathogenesis and  
44 virulence factors. Numerous microbiome studies have been performed using  
45 this model to determine the antibiotic classes (5), starting microbial community  
46 (6) and metabolites (7) that impact development and severity of CDI. While  
47 informative, these studies are somewhat removed from human disease because  
48 they only examine mouse-associated microbial communities.

49 Gnotobiotic or germ-free mouse models have been used for a range of studies  
50 of CDI, including assessment of species-specific interactions between *C. difficile*  
51 and competing microbial community members (8), analysis of nutrient restriction  
52 (9), in vivo transcriptomics of *C. difficile* and examination of host immune  
53 response to CDI (10). Further, CDI therapeutics such as antibiotics and fecal  
54 microbiota transplants have been tested extensively in a gnotobiotic-piglet or  
55 piglet-to-gnotobiotic-mouse model of disease (11), (12). Pigs have a longer  
56 digestive tract with components more similar to humans than mice and are  
57 typically infected by strains typical in human infection (13). However, the murine

58 and porcine microbiomes typically do not resemble those of the human gut.

59 The power of the gnotobiotic models to study CDI has been further realized by  
60 first inoculating germ-free mice and piglets with human stool microbes. In one  
61 study, germ-free piglets were acutely colonized with human feces for one week  
62 and then treated with tigecycline. After challenge with *C. difficile* none of the  
63 antibiotic-treated piglets succumbed to infection, while some of the untreated  
64 human-colonized pigs did (11). Further, germ-free mice colonized with human  
65 feces were bred over several generations to create a cohort of mice with identical  
66 human-derived microbiomes (14). These mice were subsequently treated with a  
67 five-antibiotic cocktail to induce dysbiosis and then were successfully colonized  
68 by *C. difficile* (14). While informative, these studies were limited in their use of  
69 only one human donor as input inoculum. In order to best understand the impact  
70 of *C. difficile* pathogenesis on human disease, we must have a laboratory model  
71 that allows for study of a variety of human-derived microbiomes.

72 To test the impact of individual human microbiomes on CDI, we colonized  
73 germ-free mice with 16 different human stool donors. We then characterized  
74 human-associated microbiome response to *C. difficile* challenge. Additionally,  
75 the use of machine-learning models allowed us to build a predictive model  
76 that classified “at-risk” microbiomes prior to infection with *C. difficile*. These  
77 findings show that human-associated microbiomes can be at risk for CDI even  
78 in the absence of antibiotics and that study of mice colonized with human feces  
79 provides a range of clinical outcomes.

## 80 Results

### 81 Germ-free mice inoculated with human feces as model for *C. difficile*

82 **infection.** To generate mice with human-derived microbiomes, we inoculated  
83 one cage of gnotobiotic C57/BL6 mice with one of 16 different human fecal  
84 donors. Five donors were patients that had diarrhea that was not attributable  
85 to *C. difficile* infection while 11 donors were healthy at time of donation. Stool  
86 from a patient that was colonized with virulent *C. difficile* was used as a positive  
87 control. After inoculation with human stool, mice were allowed to equilibrate  
88 for 14 days. Prior to infection, stool samples were taken from each mouse  
89 to establish baseline. Then, the *C. difficile* strain isolated from the positive  
90 control patient's sample (strain 430) was used to infect each mouse with 100  
91 spores. Mice were monitored for weight loss and clinical signs of disease.  
92 Fecal samples were taken to enumerate *C. difficile* CFU and for microbiome  
93 analysis every day for up to 10 days post-infection (Fig 1A). To ensure that  
94 the donors we selected represented a diverse array of human microbiomes,  
95 we sequenced the 16S rRNA genes from donor fecal inocula. Ordination of  
96 the distances between donor communities showed that the donors each had  
97 distinctly different communities, independent of whether the sample came from  
98 a sick or healthy person (Fig 1B). Likewise, the starting microbial communities of  
99 the mice on day 0 were characterizing by sequencing of fecal pellets DNA prior  
100 to infection. Ordination of all of the mouse communities on day 0 shows that  
101 mice were similar to each other within each cage and donor, but distinct from  
102 other donors (Fig 1C). This result confirmed that human-associated microbes  
103 were able to colonize gnotobiotic mice and provide distinct initial communities to  
104 test *C. difficile* dynamics.

### 105 *C. difficile* infection in mice with human-derived microbiota cause a range

106 **of outcomes.** *C. difficile* colonization was monitored by daily plating of stool  
107 pellets for *C. difficile* CFU. Nearly all of the mice were colonized to  $10^5 - 10^7$   
108 CFU by one day post-infection and remained colonized at that level until the end  
109 of the experiment (Fig 2A). As one indicator of disease, mouse weights were  
110 taken each day post-infection and weight-loss was monitored alongside clinical  
111 signs of disease. When mice were judged to be too ill to continue they were  
112 humanely euthanized. Overall, disease phenotypes fell into two classes. Mice  
113 that became severely ill and lost 20% or more of their starting body weight within  
114 one to two days post-infection were classified as “severe” whereas mice that  
115 were colonized with *C. difficile* but did not show signs of disease or severe weight  
116 loss were considered to have “mild” disease (Fig 2A, 2B). Interestingly, *C. difficile*  
117 was able to cause severe disease in both mice that had been colonized with  
118 healthy stool and those colonized with diarrheal stool, suggesting susceptibility  
119 to CDI is dependent on the composition of the starting microbiome and not  
120 associated with donor clinical metadata.

121 **Results to be written** 1. Microbes present in the gut prior to infection are  
122 predictive of *C. difficile* CFU and severity a. Figure 3: Random forest to  
123 predict CFU, predictive OTUs b. Figure 4: Random Forest predicts CDI severity,  
124 predictive OTUs 2. Propensity for severe CDI is community-dependent and  
125 strain-independent a. Figure 5: Infection of mice with different *C. difficile* strains.

## 126 **Discussion**

127 • Restate results, • caveats about mouse weights • No donors were colonization  
128 resistant, discuss donor differences • Discuss prediction methods and outcomes  
129 • Discuss potential mechanisms for interesting OTUs • Discuss different strain  
130 results • Future work blah blah

131 **Materials and Methods**

- 132 • Mice ULAM number • Donor stool ERIN IRB shit • Bacteria/plating • Sequencing  
133 • Data analysis, code availability • Machine learning models

134 **Acknowledgments**

135 Lab, sequencing core, Jhansi



136 **Figure Legends**

137 **Figure 1. Germ-free mice inoculated with human feces as a model for *C.***  
138 ***difficile* infection.** A) Experimental design. Stool from 16 healthy, diarrheal  
139 and CDI patients were independently inoculated into 3-4 germ-free mice by  
140 oral gavage. 14 days later mice were orally infected with 100 spores of *C.*  
141 *difficile* strain 431. Weight and stool CFU were monitored for up to 10 days post  
142 infection. B) NMDS ordination of donor stool communities prior to inoculating  
143 mice. Each point represents one donor and are colored by clinical diagnosis. C)  
144 NDMS ordination of the stool communities on day 0. Each symbol represents  
145 one mouse and is colored by donor. Circles represent mice that experienced  
146 mild disease and triangles represent those that suffered severe disease.

147 **Figure 2. *C. difficile* infection results in mild or severe disease.** A) *C.*  
148 *difficile* CFU was enumerated by plating of mouse stool pellets daily. Each point  
149 represents a mouse and the lines represent the median CFU in each group.  
150 Error bars are interquartile ranges. Red lines and points correspond to mice  
151 that succumbed to severe disease whereas black lines and points correspond  
152 to mice that had mild or no disease. B) Mouse weights were recorded and daily  
153 percent weight loss calculated for each mouse. Data is presented as the median  
154 of each group and interquartile ranges. Mice that succumbed to severe infection  
155 typically lost a significant amount of weight by day 1 or 2 post infection. Red  
156 lines correspond to severely ill mice, black to mice with mild disease.

157 **Figure 3. Random Forest prediction of *C. difficile* colonization level.** A)  
158 OTUs above 1% relative abundance on day 0 were used to predict median  
159  $\log_{10}$  CFU of *C. difficile* after colonization. OTUs were chosen such that they  
160 were not predictive of cage or donor. Each point is a mouse colored by cage.  
161 B) Partial dependency plots of the top six predictive OTUs. Line displays the

162 partial dependence of  $\log_{10}$  CFU on the relative abundance of each predictive  
163 OUT. Each median  $\log_{10}$  CFU is plotted against its relative abundance for each  
164 predictive OTU.

165 **Figure 4. Random Forest prediction of CDI severity.** OTUs above 1%  
166 relative abundance on day 0 were used to predict disease severity. OTUs  
167 were chosen such that they were not predictive of cage or donor. Predictive  
168 classification tested via 10-fold (gray), leave-one-cage-out (purple dashed)  
169 or leave-one-mouse-out (blue dashed) models are displayed in (A). B) Partial  
170 dependency plots of most predictive OTUs. Line displays the partial dependence  
171 of  $\log_{10}$  CFU on OTU relative abundance. Points are the OTU relative abundance  
172 of each mouse colored by outcome (red, severe, black, mild).

173 **Figure 5. Infection of mice with different *C. difficile* strains.** 3 strains of  
174 *C. difficile* were used to infect mice colonized with susceptible (DA00578) or  
175 resistant (DA00369, DA00430) human donor stool. A) *C. difficile* stool CFU was  
176 enumerated over 10 days. B) Percent weight loss was calculated each day for  
177 each mouse. In both plots, each mouse is a point and lines represent the mean  
178 of each cage.

179 **Supplement Table S1: Mouse day 0 communities by donor genera (avg**  
180 **+ stdev of cage)**

181 **References**