# Normalization of the microbiota in patients after treatment for colonic lesions

Marc A Sze<sup>1</sup>, Nielson T Baxter<sup>1,2</sup>, Mack T Ruffin IV<sup>3</sup>, Mary AM Rogers<sup>2</sup>, and Patrick D Schloss<sup>1†</sup>

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

- 1 Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI
  - 2 Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI
- 3 Department of Family Medicine and Community Medicine, Penn State Hershey Medical Center, Hershey, PA

#### Co-author e-mails:

- marcsze@med.umich.med.edu
- ntbaxter@umich.edu
- mruffin@pennstatehealth.psu.edu
- maryroge@med.umich.edu

## Abstract

**Background.** Colorectal cancer is a worldwide health problem. Despite growing evidence that members of the gut microbiota can drive tumorigenesis, little is known about what happens to it after treatment for an adenoma or carcinoma. This study tested the hypothesis that treatment for adenoma or carcinoma tests whether treatment alters the abundance of bacterial populations associated with disease to those associated versus those with a normal colon. We tested this hypothesis by sequencing the 16S rRNA genes in the feces of 67 individuals before and after treatment for adenoma (N (adenoma n = 22), advanced adenoma (N n = 19), and carcinoma (N n = 26).

Results. There were small changes to the bacterial community associated with 10 adenoma or advanced adenoma and large changes associated with carcinoma. The communities from patients with carcinomas changed significantly more than those with adenoma following treatment (P-value < 0.001). Although treatment was associated with intrapersonal changes, the change in the abundance of individual OTUs in response to treatment was not consistent within diagnosis groups (P-value > 0.05). Because the distribution of OTUs across patients and diagnosis groups was irregular, we used the 16 Random Forest machine learning algorithm to identify groups of OTUs that could be 17 used to classify Random Forest models classified pre and post-treatment samples for 18 each of the diagnosis groups. Although the three models could differentiate between 19 the pre and post-treatment samples diagnosis group, there was little overlap between the OTUs that were indicative of each treatment. To determine whether individuals who 21 underwent treatment were more likely to have OTUs associated with normal colons we used Training Random Forest models on a larger cohort that contained individuals with 23 normal colonsand those with, adenomas, advanced adenomas, and carcinomas. We again built Random Forest models and measured the change in we assessed the positive probability of having one of the three diagnoses to assess whether the three diagnoses and whether the pre and post-treatment samples received the sameclassification as the
pre-treatment samples. Samples from patients were classified the same. Patients who
had carcinomas changed towards a microbial milieu that resembles the normal colon after
treatment (P-value < 0.05). Finally, we were unable to detect any significant differences
There was no significant difference in the microbiota of individuals treated with surgery
alone and those treated with chemotherapy or chemotherapy and radiation (P-value >
0.05).

Conclusions. By better understanding the response of the microbiota to treatment for adenomas and carcinomas, it is likely that biomarkers will eventually be validated that can be used to quantify the risk of recurrence and the likelihood of survival. Although it It was difficult to identify significant differences between pre and post-treatment samples from patients with adenoma and advanced adenoma, this was not the case for carcinomas. Not . However, for carcinomas, not only were there large changes in pre versus post-treatment samples for those with carcinoma, but these changes were towards a more normal microbiota.

## 42 Keywords

microbiota; colorectal cancer; polyps; treatment; risk factor

# 44 Importance

This study helps to clarify what happens to the microbiota after generalized treatment for an adenoma or carcinoma. It is a necessary first step to ultimately investigating how the microbiota changes in those with carcinoma recurrence. This is important since a large number of those treated for carcinoma will have a recurrence. Finding better ways to stratify those most and least likely to recur using the microbiota could provide a cheaper and more accurate alternative to the current status quo. Our results suggest that the microbiota could be used to stratify individuals for risk of recurrence and provides a starting point for future studies into this area.

# 53 Background

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is the third most common cause of cancer deaths in the United
States (1, 2). Disease mortality has significantly decreased, predominately due to
improvements in screening (2). Despite these improvements, there are still approximately
50,000 CRC-related deaths per year in the United States (1). Current estimates indicate
that 20-30% of those who undergo treatment will experience recurrence and 35% of all
patients will die within five years (3–5). Identification of methods to assess patients' risk of
recurrence is of great importance to reduce mortality and healthcare costs.

There is growing evidence that the gut microbiota is involved in the progression of CRC.

Mouse-based studies have identified populations of *Bacteroides fragilis*, *Escherichia coli*,
and *Fusobacterium nucleatum* that alter disease progression (6–10). Furthermore, studies
that shift the structure of the microbiota through the use of antibiotics or inoculation of
germ free mice with human feces have shown that varying community compositions can
result in varied tumor burden (11–13). Collectively, these studies support the hypothesis
that the microbiota can alter the amount of inflammation in the colon and with it the rate of
tumorigenesis (14).

Building upon this evidence, several human studies have identified unique signatures of colonic lesions (15–20). One line of research has identified community-level differences between those bacteria that are found on and adjacent to colonic lesions and have supported a role for *Bacteroides fragilis*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Fusobacterium nucleatum* in tumorigenesis (21–23). Others have proposed feces-based biomarkers that could be used to diagnose the presence of colonic adenomas and carcinomas (24–26). These studies have associated *Fusobacterium nucleatum* and other oral pathogens with colonic lesions (adenoma, advanced adenoma, and carcinoma). They have also noted that the loss of bacteria generally thought to produce short chain fatty acids, which can suppress

- inflammation, is associated with colonic lesions. This suggests that gut bacteria have a role in tumorigenesis with potential as useful biomarkers for aiding in the early detection of disease (21–26).
- Despite advances in understanding the role between the gut microbiota and colonic tumorigenesis, we still do not understand how treatments including resection, chemotherapy, and/or radiation affect the composition of the gut microbiota. If the microbial community drives tumorigenesis then one would hypothesize that treatment to remove a lesion would affect the microbiota and risk of recurrence. To test this hypothesis, we addressed two related questions: Does treatment affect the colonic microbiota in a predictable manner? If so, does the treatment alter the community to more closely resemble that of individuals with normal colons?
- We answered these questions by sequencing the V4 region of 16S rRNA genes amplified 89 from fecal samples of individuals with adenoma, advanced adenoma, and carcinomas pre and post-treatment. We used classical community analysis to compare the alpha 91 and beta-diversity of communities pre and post-treatment. Next, we generated Random Forest models to identify bacterial populations that were indicative of treatment for each diagnosis group. Finally, we measured the predictive probabilities to assess whether treatment yielded bacterial communities similar to those individuals with normal colons. 95 We found that treatment alters the composition of the gut microbiota and that, for those with carcinomas, the gut microbiota shifted more towards that of a normal colon after treatment. In the individuals with carcinomas, no difference was found by the type of treatment (surgery alone, surgery with chemotherapy, surgery with chemotherapy and radiation). Understanding how the community responds to these treatments could be a 100 valuable tool for identifying biomarkers to quantify the risk of recurrence and the likelihood 101 of survival.

## **□3 Results**

Treatment for colonic lesions alters the bacterial community structure Within our 67-person cohort we tested whether the microbiota of patients with adenoma (N = 22), 105 advanced adenoma (N = 19), or carcinoma (N = 26) had any broad differences between 106 pre and post-treatment samples [Table 1]. None of the individuals in this study had 107 any recorded antibiotic usage that was not associated with surgical treatment of their 108 respective lesion. The structure of the microbial communities of the pre and post-treatment 109 samples differed, as measured by the  $\theta_{YC}$  beta diversity metric [Figure 1A]. We found that 110 the communities obtained pre and post-treatment among the patients with carcinomas 111 changed significantly more than those patients with adenoma (P-value < 0.001). There 112 were no significant differences in the amount of change observed between the patients 113 with adenoma and advanced adenoma or between the patients with advanced adenoma 114 and carcinoma (P-value > 0.05). Next, we tested whether there was a consistent direction 115 in the change in the community structure between the pre and post-treatment samples 116 for each of the diagnosis groups [Figure 1B-D]. We only observed a consistent shift in 117 community structure for the patients with carcinoma when using a PERMANOVA test 118 (adenoma P-value = 0.999, advanced adenoma P-value = 0.945, and carcinoma P-value 119 = 0.005). Finally, we measured the number of observed OTUs, Shannon evenness, and Shannon diversity in the pre and post-treatment samples and did not observe a significant change for any of the diagnosis groups (P-value > 0.05) [Table S1].

The treatment of lesions are not consistent across diagnosis groups. We used two approaches to identify those bacterial populations that change between the two samples for each diagnosis group. First, we sought to identify individual OTUs that could account for the change in overall community structure. However, using a paired Wilcoxon test we were unable to identify any OTUs that were significantly different in the pre and post-treatment groups (P-value > 0.05). It is likely that high inter-individual variation and

the irregular distribution of OTUs across individuals limited the statistical power of the test. We attempted to overcome these problems by using Random Forest models to identify collections of OTUs that would allow us to differentiate between pre and post-treatment 131 samples from each of the diagnosis groups. To limit the likelihood that the models would 132 over-fit the data because of the relatively small number of subjects in each group, we 133 restricted our models to only incorporate 10 OTUs. Despite this restriction, the models 134 performed well. The models overall performed moderately, with the carcinoma model being 135 the best (adenoma AUC range = 0.69 0.54 - 0.920.83, advanced adenoma AUC range = 136 0.80 0.34 - 1.000.65, carcinoma AUC range = 0.82 - 0.98). Interestingly, the top 10 OTUs 137 most important OTUs by MDA that were used for each model had little overlap with each 138 other [Figure 2]. Although treatment had an impact on the overall community structure, 139 the effect of treatment was not consistent across patients and diagnosis groups. Both the 140 adenoma and carcioma treatment models had AUCs that were significantly higher than a 141 random model permutation (P-value < 0.0001). 142

Post-treatment samples from patients with carcinoma more closely resemble those 143 of a normal colon. Next, we determined whether treatment changed the microbiota in a 144 way that the post-treatment communities resembled that of patients with normal colons. 145 To test this, we used an expanded cohort of 423 individuals that were diagnosed under 146 the same protocol as having normal colons or colons with adenoma, advanced adenoma, 147 or carcinoma [Table 2]. We then constructed Random Forest models to classify the study 148 samples, with the 3 diagnosis groups (adenoma, advanced adenoma, or carcinoma), 149 or having a normal colon. The models performed well-moderately with CRC being the 150 best (adenoma AUC range = 0.62 0.50 - 0.720.62, advanced adenoma AUC range = 151  $\frac{0.68}{0.53} - \frac{0.77}{0.67}$ , carcinoma AUC range =  $\frac{0.84}{0.71} - \frac{0.90}{0.82}$ ; Figure S1). The 152 OTUs that were incorporated into in the top 10% of importance for the adenoma and 153 advanced adenoma models largely overlapped and those OTUs that were used to classify the carcinoma samples were largely distinct from those of the other two models [Figure

3A]. Among the OTUs that were shared across the three models were those populations generally considered beneficial to their host (e.g. Faecalibacterium, Lachnospiraceae, 157 Bacteroides, Dorea, Anaerostipes, and Roseburia) [Figures 3B]. Although many of these 158 OTUs important OTUs in the top 10% were also included in the model differentiating 159 between patients with normal colons and those with carcinoma, this model also included 160 OTUs affiliated with populations that have previously been associated with carcinoma 161 (Fusobacterium, Porphyromonas, Parvimonas) (24–26) [Figure S2] with some individuals 162 showing a marked decrease in relative abundance [Figure S3]. Finally, we applied 163 these three models to the pre and post-treatment samples for each diagnosis group 164 and quantified the change in the positive probability of the model. A decrease in the 165 positive probability would indicate that the microbiota more closely resembled that of a 166 patient with a normal colon. There was no significant change in the positive probability 167 for the adenoma or advanced adenoma groups (P-value > 0.05) [Figure 4]. The positive 168 probability for the pre and post-treatment samples from patients diagnosed with carcinoma significantly decreased with treatment, suggesting a shift toward a normal microbiota for 170 most individuals (P-value =  $\frac{0.020,001}{0.001}$ ). Only,  $\frac{6.7}{0.001}$  of the 26 patients ( $\frac{23.0826,92\%}{0.001}$ ) who 171 were diagnosed with a carcinoma had a higher positive probability after treatment; one of those was re-diagnosed with carcinoma on the follow up visit. These results indicate that, although there were changes in the microbiota associated with treatment, those experienced by patients with carcinoma after treatment yielded gut bacterial communities of greater similarity to that of a normal colon.

#### Difficult to identify effects of specific treatments on the change in the microbiota.

177

The type of treatment that the patients received varied across diagnosis groups. Those with adenomas and advanced adenomas received surgical resection (adenoma, N=4; advanced adenoma, N=4) or polyp removal during colonoscopy (adenoma, N=18; advanced adenoma, N=15) and those with carcinomas received surgical resection (N=12), surgical resection with chemotherapy (N=9), and surgical resection with chemotherapy

and radiation (N=5). Regardless of treatment used there was no significant difference in the effect of these treatments on the number of observed OTUs, Shannon diversity, or 184 Shannon evenness (P-value > 0.05). Furthermore, there was not a significant difference in 185 the effect of the treatments on the amount of change in the community structure (P-value 186  $= \frac{0.5320.375}{0.5320.375}$ . Finally, the change in the positive probability was not significantly different 187 between any of the treatment groups (P-value =  $\frac{0.5320.375}{0.375}$ ). Due to the relatively small 188 number of samples in each treatment group, it was difficult to make a definitive statement 189 regarding the specific type of treatment on the amount of change in the structure of the 190 microbiota. 191

# Discussion

Our study focused on comparing the microbiota of patients diagnosed with adenoma, advanced adenoma, and carcinoma before and after treatment. For all three groups of patients, we observed changes in their microbiota. Some of these changes, specifically for adenoma, may be due to normal temporal variation, however, those with advanced adenoma and carcinoma clearly had large microbiota changes. After treatment, the microbiota of patients with carcinoma changed significantly more than the other groups. This change resulted in communities that more closely resembled those of patients with a normal colon. This may suggest that treatment for carcinoma is not only successful for removing the carcinoma but also at reducing the associated bacterial communities. Understanding the effect of treatment on the microbiota of those diagnosed with carcinomas may have important implications for reducing disease recurrence. It is intriguing that it may be possible to use microbiome-based biomarkers to not only predict the presence of lesions but to also assess the risk of recurrence due to these changes in the microbiota. 

Patients diagnosed with adenoma and advanced adenoma, however, did not experience a shift towards a community structure that resembled those with normal colons. This may be due to the fundamental differences between the features of adenomas and advanced adenomas and carcinoma. Specifically, carcinomas may create an inflammatory milieu that would impact the structure of the community and removal of that stimulus would alter said structure. It is possible that the difference between the microbiota of patients with adenoma and advanced adenoma and those with normal colons is subtle. This is supported by the reduced ability of our models to correctly classify patients with adenomas and advanced adenomas relative to those diagnosed with carcinomas [Figure S1]. Given the irregular distribution of microbiota across patients in the different diagnosis groups, it is possible that we lacked the statistical power to adequately characterize the change in the communities following treatment.

There was a subset of patients (6-7 of the 26 with carcinomas) who demonstrated an elevated probability of carcinoma after treatment. This may reflect an elevated risk of recurrence. The 23.0826.92% prevalence of increased carcinoma probability from our study is within the expected rate of recurrence (20-30% (3, 4)). We hypothesized that these individuals may have had more severe tumors; however, the tumor severity of these 222 6 individuals (7 individuals (1 with Stage I, 3 with Stage II, and 3 with Stage III) was similar 223 to the distribution observed among the other 20-19 patients. We also hypothesized that we may have sampled these patients later than the rest and their communities may have 225 reverted to a carcinoma-associated state; however, there was not a statistically significant 226 difference in the length of time between sample collection among those whose probabilities increased (358 (336 331 (246 - 458358) days) or decreased (334 (256 364 (301 - 399434) 228 days) (Wilcoxon Test; P-value = 0.560.39) (all days data displayed as median (IQR)). 229 Finally, it is possible that these patients may not have responded to treatment as well as 230 the other 20-19 patients diagnosed with carcinoma and so the microbiota may not have been impacted the same way. Again, further studies looking at the role of the microbiota in 232 recurrence are needed to understand the dynamics following treatment.

221

224

227

231

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

Our final hypothesis was that the specific type of treatment altered the structure of the microbiome. The treatment to remove adenomas and advanced adenomas was either polyp removal or surgical resection whereas it was surgical resection alone or in combination with chemotherapy or with chemotherapy and radiation for individuals with carcinoma. Because chemotherapy and radiation target rapidly growing cells, these treatments would be more likely to cause a turnover of the colonic epithelium driving a more significant change in the structure of the microbiota. Although, we were able to test for an effect across these specific types of treatment, the number of patients in each treatment group was relatively small. Finally, those undergoing surgery would have received antibiotics and this may be a potential confounder. However, our pre-treatment stool samples were obtained before the surgery and the post-treatment samples were obtained long after any effects due to antibiotic administration on the microbiome would be
expected to occur (344 (266 - 408) days). We also found no difference in the community
structure of those that received surgery and those that did not as a treatment for adenoma
or advanced adenoma.

#### 49 Conclusion

This study expands upon existing research that has established a role for the microbiota in tumorigenesis and that demonstrated the utility of microbiome-based biomarkers to predict 251 the presence of colonic lesions. We were surprised by the lack of a consistent signal 252 that was associated with treatment of patients with adenomas or advanced adenomas. 253 The lack of a large effect size may be due to differences in the role of bacteria in the 254 formation of adenomas and carcinomas or it could be due to differences in the behaviors 255 and medications within these classes of patients. One of the most exciting of these future 256 directions is the possibility that markers within the microbiota could be used to potentially evaluate the effect of treatment and predict recurrence for those diagnosed with carcinoma. If such an approach is effective, it might be possible to target the microbiota as part of adjuvant therapy, if the biomarkers identified play a key role in the disease process. Our 260 data provides additional evidence on the importance of the microbiota in tumorigenesis by 26 addressing the recovery of the microbiota after treatment and opens interesting avenues 262 of research into how these changes may affect recurrence. 263

## Methods

Study Design and Patient Sampling. Sampling and design have been previously reported in Baxter, et al (24). Briefly, samples were stored on ice for at least 24h before 266 freezing. Although we cannot exclude that this sampling protocol may have impacted the 267 gut microbiota composition all samples were subjected to the same methodology. Study 268 exclusion involved those who had already undergone surgery, radiation, or chemotherapy, 269 had colorectal cancer before a baseline fecal sample could be obtained, had IBD, a known 270 hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer, or familial adenomatous polyposis. Samples 271 used to build the models for prediction were collected either prior to a colonoscopy or 272 between one and two weeks after initial colonoscopy. The bacterial community has been 273 shown to normalize back to a pre-colonoscopy community within this time period (27). Our 274 study cohort consisted of 67 individuals with an initial sample as described and a follow up 275 sample obtained between 188 - 546 days after treatment of lesion [Table 1]. Patients were 276 diagnosed by colonoscopic examination and histopathological review of any biopsies taken. 277 Patients were classified as having advanced adenoma if they had an adenoma greater 278 than 1 cm, more than three adenomas of any size, or an adenoma with villous histology. 279 This study was approved by the University of Michigan Institutional Review Board. All study 280 participants provided informed consent and the study itself conformed to the guidelines set 281 out by the Helsinki Declaration.

Treatment. For this study treatment refers specifically to the removal of a lesion with or without chemotherapy and radiation. The majority of patients undergoing treatment for adenoma or advanced adenoma were not treated surgically [Table 1] but rather via colonoscopy. All patients diagnosed with carcinomas were treated with at least surgery or a combination of surgery and chemotherapy or surgery, chemotherapy, and radiation. The type of chemotherapy used for patients with CRC included Oxaliplatin, Levicovorin, Folfox, Xeloda, Capecitabine, Avastin, Fluorouracil, and Glucovorin. These were used

individually or in combination with others depending on the patient [Table 1]. If an individual was treated with radiation they were also always treated with chemotherapy. Radiation therapy generally used 18 mV photons for treatment.

16S rRNA Gene Sequencing. Sequencing was completed as described by Kozich, et al. (28). DNA extraction used the 96-well Soil DNA isolation kit (MO BIO Laboratories) and an epMotion 5075 automated pipetting system (Eppendorf). The V4 variable region was amplified and the resulting product was split between four sequencing runs with normal, adenoma, and carcinoma evenly represented on each run. Each group was randomly assigned to avoid biases based on sample collection location. The pre and post-treatment samples were sequenced on the same run.

**Sequence Processing.** The mothur software package (v1.37.5) was used to process 300 the 16S rRNA gene sequences and has been previously described (28). The general 301 workflow using mothur included merging paired-end reads into contigs, filtering for low 302 quality contigs, aligning to the SILVA database (29), screening for chimeras using UCHIME 303 (30), classifying with a naive Bayesian classifier using the Ribosomal Database Project 304 (RDP)(31), and clustered into Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) using a 97% similarity 305 cutoff with an average neighbor clustering algorithm (32). The number of sequences for 306 each sample was rarefied to 10523 to minimize the impacts of uneven sampling. 307

Model Building. The Random Forest (33) algorithm was used to create the three models used to classify pre and post-treatment samples by diagnosis (adenoma, advanced adenoma, or carcinoma). The total number of individuals in the pre versus post-treatment models was 67 individuals. There were a total of 22 individuals in the pre versus post-treatment adenoma model, 19 individuals in the pre versus post-treatment advanced adenoma model, and 26 individuals in the pre versus post-treatment carcinoma model [Table 1].

Similarly, the Random Forest (33) algorithm was also used to create the three models used to classify normal versus diagnosis. These samples were obtained using the same methodology as described earlier in this section. All samples used for this component of model training were from pre-treatment samples only. The total number of individuals in the normal versus diagnosis models was 423 individuals [Table 2]. There were a total of 239 individuals in the normal versus adenoma model, 262 individuals in the normal versus advanced adenoma model, and 266 individuals in the normal versus carcinoma model [Table 2].

All models included only OTU data obtained from 16S rRNA sequencing and were 323 processed and cleaned using the R package caret (v6.0.76). Optimization of the mtry hyper-parameter involved making 100 different 80/20 (train/test) splits of the data where the same proportion was present within both the whole data set and the 80/20 split. For each of the different splits, 20 repeated 10-fold cross validation was performed on the 80% component to optimize the mtry hyper-parameter by maximizing the AUC (Area Under 328 the Curve of the Receiver Operator Characteristic). The resulting model was then tested 329 on the hold out data obtained from the 20% component. For all adenoma pre versus 330 post-treatment models the optimized mtry was mtrys were 2 and for all (n = 42), 42 (n = 331 26), and 914 (n = 32) for adenoma. For advanced adenoma the mtrys were 2 (n = 26), 52 332 (n = 14), and 1353 (n = 60). For carcinoma the mtrys were 2 (n = 36), 41 (n = 54), and 333 863 (n = 10). For the normal versus diagnosis models the optimized mtry was 2. mtrys 334 were 2 (n = 16), 37 (n = 44), and 707 (n = 40) for adenoma. For advanced adenoma 2 335 (n = 33), 37 (n = 50), and 696 (n = 17). For carcinoma 36 (n = 96) and 649 (n = 4). The 336 hyper-parameter, mtry, defines the number of variables to investigate at each split before a 337 new division of the data was created with the Random Forest model 33. (33). 338

For each of the pre versus post-treatment models assessment of the most important OTUs was then made by taking the top 10 OTUs by mean decrease in accuracy (MDA).

These were then used to build each respective reduced OTU pre versus post-treatment model by diagnosis group to help avoid model over-fitting. These reduced The treatment models were then put through the same process mentioned in the previous paragraph and were what was used for the final pre versus post-treatment models. For the normal versus 344 diagnosis models the important OTUs were obtained by counting the number of times an 345 OTU was present in the top 10of MDA for each of the 100 different splits. This was then 346 followed with filtering of this list to variables that were only present in more than 50of 347 these assessed for their strength to classify whether individuals had obtained treatment. 348 We also assessed whether the models performed better than random by creating 100 349 runs. These corresponding reduced OTU normal versus diagnosis models were then 350 put through the same process mentioned in the previous paragraph and were what was 351 used for the final normal versus diagnosis models. For the pre versus post-treatment 352 models the final optimized mtry was 2 and for the normal versus diagnosis models the 353 final optimized mtry was 2. permutations of a data set in which the labels were randomly 354 assigned. To assess similarity of the treatment models we looked for overlap between 355 their top 10 most important OTUs. 356

Each For the diagnosis models that were trained on a completely independent sample 357 set, each model was then applied to our 67-person cohort [Table 1] based on diagnosis: 358 adenoma (pre-treatment adenoma (adenoma n = 22 and disease free n = 0) versus 359 post-treatment adenoma (adenoma n = 0 and disease free n = 22)), advanced adenoma 360 pre-treatment advanced adenoma (advanced adenoma n = 19 and disease free n = 0) 361 versus post-treatment advanced adenoma (advanced adenoma n = 0 and disease free 362 n = 19), and carcinoma (pre-treatment carcinoma (carcinoma n = 26 and disease free n 363 = 0) versus post-treatment carcinoma (carcinoma n = 1 and disease free n = 25)). The 364 application of the pre versus post-treatment models generated the probabilities that the 365 sample was a pre-treatment sample. The application of the normal versus diagnosis 366 models generated the probabilities that the sample was that specific diagnosis (adenoma,

advanced adenoma, or carcinoma). We also looked at similarities between the models by looking for overlap in the top 10% of important OTUs to each respective model.

Statistical Analysis. The R software package (v3.4.1) was used for all statistical analysis. 370 Comparisons between bacterial community structure utilized PERMANOVA (34) in the 371 vegan package (v2.4.3). Comparisons between probabilities as well as overall differences 372 in the median relative abundance of each OTU between pre and post-treatment samples 373 utilized a paired Wilcoxon ranked sum test. Comparisons between different treatment for 374 lesions utilized a Kruskal Wallis test. Where multiple comparison testing was appropriate, a 375 Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction was applied (35) and a corrected P-value of less than 0.05 was considered significant. The P-values reported are those that were BH corrected. Model rank importance was determined by obtaining the median MDA from the 100, 20 repeated 10-fold cross validation and then ranking from largest to smallest MDA.

Reproducible Methods. A detailed and reproducible description of how the data were processed and analyzed can be found at https://github.com/SchlossLab/Sze\_FollowUps\_
Microbiome\_2017. Raw sequences have been deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRP062005 and SRP096978) and the necessary metadata can be found at https:
//www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/study/ and searching the respective SRA study accession.

# **Declarations**

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

The University of Michigan Institutional Review Board approved this study, and all subjects provided informed consent. This study conformed to the guidelines of the Helsinki Declaration.

#### 390 Consent for publication

Not applicable.

## 92 Availability of data and material

A detailed and reproducible description of how the data were processed and analyzed can be found at https://github.com/SchlossLab/Sze\_followUps\_2017. Raw sequences have been deposited into the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRP062005 and SRP096978) and the necessary metadata can be found at https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/study/ and searching the respective SRA study accession.

#### **Competing Interests**

<sup>399</sup> All authors declare that they do not have any relevant competing interests to report.

## 400 Funding

This study was supported by funding from the National Institutes of Health to P. Schloss (R01GM099514, P30DK034933) and to the Early Detection Research Network (U01CA86400).

#### 404 Authors' contributions

All authors were involved in the conception and design of the study. MAS analyzed the data. NTB processed samples and analyzed the data. All authors interpreted the data. MAS and PDS wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed and revised the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

## 409 Acknowledgements

The authors thank the Great Lakes-New England Early Detection Research Network for providing the fecal samples that were used in this study. We would also like to thank Amanda Elmore for reviewing and correcting code error and providing feedback on manuscript drafts. We would also like to thank Nicholas Lesniak for providing feedback on manuscript drafts.

# References

- 1. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. 2016. Cancer statistics, 2016. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians . 2016;66:7–30.
- 2. Haggar FA, Boushey RP. 2009. Colorectal cancer epidemiology: Incidence, mortality, survival, and risk factors. Clinics in Colon and Rectal Surgery . 2009;22:191–7191–197.
- 3. Hellinger MD, Santiago CA. 2006. Reoperation for recurrent colorectal cancer. Clinics in Colon and Rectal Surgery . 2006;19:228–36228–236.
- 4. Ryuk JP, Choi G-S, Park JS, Kim HJ, Park SY, Yoon GS, et al. Jun SH, Kwon YC. 2014.
- Predictive factors and the prognosis of recurrence of colorectal cancer within 2 years after
- curative resection. Annals of Surgical Treatment and Research . 2014;86:143-51143-151.
- 5. Institute NC. SEER Cancer Stat Facts: Colon and Rectum Cancer Internet. cited 2017

  Apr 27. Available from:
- 6. Goodwin AC, Destefano Shields CE, Wu S, Huso DL, Wu X, Murray-Stewart TR, et al. Hacker-Prietz A, Rabizadeh S, Woster PM, Sears CL, Casero RA. 2011. Polyamine catabolism contributes to enterotoxigenic Bacteroides fragilis-induced colon tumorigenesis.

  Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America -
- <sup>431</sup> 2011;108:<del>15354</del>-915354-15359.
- 7. Abed J, Emgård JEM, Zamir G, Faroja M, Almogy G, Grenov A, et al. Sol A, Naor
- R, Pikarsky E, Atlan KA, Mellul A, Chaushu S, Manson AL, Earl AM, Ou N, Brennan CA,
- 434 Garrett WS, Bachrach G. 2016. Fap2 Mediates Fusobacterium nucleatum Colorectal
- 435 Adenocarcinoma Enrichment by Binding to Tumor-Expressed Gal-GalNAc. Cell Host &
- 436 Microbe <u>. 2016;</u>20:<u>215–25215–225</u>.
- 8. Arthur JC, Gharaibeh RZ, Mühlbauer M, Perez-Chanona E, Uronis JM, McCafferty J,

- et al. Fodor AA, Jobin C. 2014. Microbial genomic analysis reveals the essential role of inflammation in bacteria-induced colorectal cancer. Nature Communications . 2014;5:4724.
- 9. Kostic AD, Chun E, Robertson L, Glickman JN, Gallini CA, Michaud M, et al.
- Clancy TE, Chung DC, Lochhead P, Hold GL, El-Omar EM, Brenner D, Fuchs CS,
- 442 Meyerson M, Garrett WS. 2013. Fusobacterium nucleatum potentiates intestinal
- tumorigenesis and modulates the tumor-immune microenvironment. Cell Host & Microbe -
- 444 <del>2013;</del>14:<del>207–15</del>207–215.
- 10. Wu S, Rhee K-J, Albesiano E, Rabizadeh S, Wu X, Yen H-R, et al. Huso DL,
- Brancati FL, Wick E, McAllister F, Housseau F, Pardoll DM, Sears CL. 2009. A human
- colonic commensal promotes colon tumorigenesis via activation of T helper type 17 T cell
- responses. Nature Medicine . 2009;15:1016-221016-1022.
- 11. Zackular JP, Baxter NT, Chen GY, Schloss PD. 2016. Manipulation of the Gut Microbiota
- Reveals Role in Colon Tumorigenesis. mSphere . 2016;1.
- 12. Zackular JP, Baxter NT, Iverson KD, Sadler WD, Petrosino JF, Chen GY, et
- 452 al. Schloss PD. 2013. The gut microbiome modulates colon tumorigenesis. mBio -
- 453 **2013**;4:e00692–00613.
- 13. Baxter NT, Zackular JP, Chen GY, Schloss PD. 2014. Structure of the gut microbiome
- following colonization with human feces determines colonic tumor burden. Microbiome -
- 456 <del>2014;</del>2:20.
- 14. Flynn KJ, Baxter NT, Schloss PD. 2016. Metabolic and Community Synergy of Oral
- Bacteria in Colorectal Cancer. mSphere . 2016;1.
- 15. Wang T, Cai G, Qiu Y, Fei N, Zhang M, Pang X, et al. Jia W, Cai S, Zhao L. 2012.
- 460 Structural segregation of gut microbiota between colorectal cancer patients and healthy

- volunteers. The ISME journal <u>-2012</u>;6:320-9320-329.
- 16. Chen H-M, Yu Y-N, Wang J-L, Lin Y-W, Kong X, Yang C-Q, et al. Yang L, Liu Z-J,
- Yuan Y-Z, Liu F, Wu J-X, Zhong L, Fang D-C, Zou W, Fang J-Y. 2013. Decreased dietary
- fiber intake and structural alteration of gut microbiota in patients with advanced colorectal
- adenoma. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition . 2013;97:1044-521044-1052.
- 466 17. Chen W, Liu F, Ling Z, Tong X, Xiang C. 2012. Human intestinal lumen
- and mucosa-associated microbiota in patients with colorectal cancer. PloS One -
- 468 <del>2012;</del>7:e39743.
- 18. Shen XJ, Rawls JF, Randall T, Burcal L, Mpande CN, Jenkins N, et al. Joyov B, Abdo
- <sup>470</sup> Z, Sandler RS, Keku TO. 2010. Molecular characterization of mucosal adherent bacteria
- and associations with colorectal adenomas. Gut Microbes <u>2010</u>;1:<del>138-47</del>138-147.
- 19. Kostic AD, Gevers D, Pedamallu CS, Michaud M, Duke F, Earl AM, et al. Ojesina
- 473 Al, Jung J, Bass AJ, Tabernero J, Baselga J, Liu C, Shivdasani RA, Ogino S, Birren BW,
- Huttenhower C, Garrett WS, Meyerson M. 2012. Genomic analysis identifies association
- of Fusobacterium with colorectal carcinoma. Genome Research . 2012;22:292-8292-298.
- 20. Feng Q, Liang S, Jia H, Stadlmayr A, Tang L, Lan Z, et al. Zhang D, Xia H, Xu X, Jie Z,
- Su L, Li X, Li X, Li J, Xiao L, Huber-Schönauer U, Niederseer D, Xu X, Al-Aama JY, Yang
- 478 H, Wang J, Kristiansen K, Arumugam M, Tilg H, Datz C, Wang J. 2015. Gut microbiome
- development along the colorectal adenoma-carcinoma sequence. Nature Communications
- 480 <del>. 2015;</del>6:6528.
- 21. Dejea CM, Wick EC, Hechenbleikner EM, White JR, Mark Welch JL, Rossetti BJ,
- et al. Peterson SN, Snesrud EC, Borisy GG, Lazarev M, Stein E, Vadivelu J, Roslani
- 483 AC, Malik AA, Wanyiri JW, Goh KL, Thevambiga I, Fu K, Wan F, Llosa N, Housseau F,
- Romans K, Wu X, McAllister FM, Wu S, Vogelstein B, Kinzler KW, Pardoll DM, Sears

- <sup>485</sup> CL. 2014. Microbiota organization is a distinct feature of proximal colorectal cancers.
- Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America -
- 487 <del>2014;</del>111:<del>18321–6</del>18321–18326.
- 22. Mima K, Sukawa Y, Nishihara R, Qian ZR, Yamauchi M, Inamura K, et al. Kim SA,
- 489 Masuda A, Nowak JA, Nosho K, Kostic AD, Giannakis M, Watanabe H, Bullman S, Milner
- DA, Harris CC, Giovannucci E, Garraway LA, Freeman GJ, Dranoff G, Chan AT, Garrett
- WS, Huttenhower C, Fuchs CS, Ogino S. 2015. Fusobacterium nucleatum and T Cells in
- 492 Colorectal Carcinoma. JAMA oncology . 2015;1:653-61653-661.
- 23. Arthur JC, Perez-Chanona E, Mühlbauer M, Tomkovich S, Uronis JM, Fan T-J, et
- 494 al. Campbell BJ, Abujamel T, Dogan B, Rogers AB, Rhodes JM, Stintzi A, Simpson
- 495 KW, Hansen JJ, Keku TO, Fodor AA, Jobin C. 2012. Intestinal inflammation targets
- cancer-inducing activity of the microbiota. Science (New York, N.Y.) . 2012;NY)
- 497 338:<del>120-3</del>120-123.
- <sup>498</sup> 24. Baxter NT, Ruffin MT, Rogers MAM, Schloss PD. 2016. Microbiota-based model
- improves the sensitivity of fecal immunochemical test for detecting colonic lesions. Genome
- 500 Medicine . 2016;8:37.
- 25. Zeller G, Tap J, Voigt AY, Sunagawa S, Kultima JR, Costea PI, et al. Amiot A, Böhm
- J, Brunetti F, Habermann N, Hercog R, Koch M, Luciani A, Mende DR, Schneider MA,
- 503 Schrotz-King P, Tournigand C, Tran Van Nhieu J, Yamada T, Zimmermann J, Benes V,
- Kloor M, Ulrich CM, Knebel Doeberitz M von, Sobhani I, Bork P. 2014. Potential of fecal
- microbiota for early-stage detection of colorectal cancer. Molecular Systems Biology -
- 506 <del>2014;</del>10:766.
- <sup>507</sup> 26. Zackular JP, Rogers MAM, Ruffin MT, Schloss PD. 2014. The human gut microbiome
- as a screening tool for colorectal cancer. Cancer Prevention Research (Philadelphia, Pa.).

- 509 <del>2014;</del>) 7:<del>1112–21</del>1112–1121.
- <sup>510</sup> 27. O'Brien CL, Allison GE, Grimpen F, Pavli P. <u>2013</u>. Impact of colonoscopy bowel preparation on intestinal microbiota. PloS One <u>. 2013</u>;8:e62815.
- 28. Kozich JJ, Westcott SL, Baxter NT, Highlander SK, Schloss PD. 2013. Development of a dual-index sequencing strategy and curation pipeline for analyzing amplicon sequence data on the MiSeq Illumina sequencing platform. Applied and Environmental Microbiology 2013;79:5112–205112–5120.
- <sup>516</sup> 29. Pruesse E, Quast C, Knittel K, Fuchs BM, Ludwig W, Peplies J, et al. Glöckner <sup>517</sup> FO. 2007. SILVA: A comprehensive online resource for quality checked and aligned <sup>518</sup> ribosomal RNA sequence data compatible with ARB. Nucleic Acids Research -<sup>519</sup> 2007;35:7188–967188–7196.
- 30. Edgar RC, Haas BJ, Clemente JC, Quince C, Knight R. 2011. UCHIME improves sensitivity and speed of chimera detection. Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) 2011;27:2194-2002194-2200.
- 31. Wang Q, Garrity GM, Tiedje JM, Cole JR. 2007. Naive Bayesian classifier for rapid assignment of rRNA sequences into the new bacterial taxonomy. Applied and Environmental Microbiology . 2007;73:5261–75261–5267.
- 32. Schloss PD, Westcott SL. 2011. Assessing and improving methods used in operational taxonomic unit-based approaches for 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis. Applied and Environmental Microbiology . 2011;77:3219–263219–3226.
- 33. Breiman L. 2001. Random Forests. Machine Learning 2001;45:5-32.
- 34. Anderson MJ, Walsh DCI. <u>2013.</u> PERMANOVA, ANOSIM, and the Mantel test in the face of heterogeneous dispersions: What null hypothesis are you testing? Ecological

- 532 Monographs 2013;83:557-74557-574.
- 35. Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. 1995. Controlling the false discovery rate: A practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B (Methodological) 1995;57:289–300.

Table 1: Demographic data of patients in the pre and post-treatment cohort

-				
	Adenoma Advance	ed Adenoma	Carcinoma	
n		22	19	26
Age (Mean ± SD)		61.68 ± 7.2	63.11 ± 10.9	61.65 ± 12.9
Sex (%F)		36.36	36.84	42.31
BMI (Mean ± SD)		26.86 ± 3.9	25.81 ± 4.7	28.63 ± 7.2
Caucasian (%)		95.45	84.21	96.15
Days Between Colonoscopy (Mean ± SD)		255.41 ± 42	250.16 ± 41	350.85 ± 102
Surgery Only		4	4	12
Surgery & Chemotherapy		0	0	9
Surgery, Chemotherapy, & Radiation		0	0	5

7 Table 2: Demographic data of training cohort

_	Normal	Adenoma	Advanced Ade	enoma	Carcinoma	- l -
n		172	67	9	0	94
Age (Mean ±	SD) 54.2	29 ± 9.9 63	3.01 ± 13.1	64.07	± 11.3	64.37 ± 12.9
Sex (%F)	6	4.53	46.27	37.	78	43.62
BMI (Mean ±	SD) 26.9	97 ± 5.3 2	25.69 ± 4.8	26.66	± 4.9	29.27 ± 6.7
Caucasian (%	s) 8	7.79	92.54	92.	22	94.68

- Figure 1: General differences between adenoma, advanced adenoma, and carcinoma groups after treatment. A)  $\theta_{YC}$  distances from pre versus post sample within each individual. A significant difference was found between the adenoma and carcinoma group (P-value = 5.36e-05). Solid black points represent the median value for each diagnosis group. B) NMDS of the pre and post-treatment samples for the adenoma group. C) NMDS of the pre and post-treatment samples for the advanced adenoma group. NMDS of the pre and post-treatment samples for the carcinoma group.
- Figure 2: The top 10 most important OTUs used to classify treatment for adenoma, advanced adenoma, and carcinoma. A) Adenoma OTUs. B) Advanced Adenoma OTUs. C) Carcinoma OTUs. The darker circle highlights the median log10 MDA value obtained from 100 different 80/20 splits while the lighter colored circles represents the value obtained for a specific run.
- Figure 3: Top 10% most important OTUs common to those models used to differentiate between patients with normal colons and those with adenoma, advanced adenoma, and carcinoma. A) Venn diagram showing the OTU overlap between each model. B) For each common OTU the lowest taxonomic identification and importance rank for each model run is shown.
- Figure 4: Treatment response based on models built for adenoma, advanced adenoma, or carcinoma. A) Positive probability change from initial to follow up sample in those with adenoma. B) Positive probability change from initial to follow up sample in those with advanced adenoma. C) Positive probability change from initial to follow up sample in those with carcinoma.

Figure S1: ROC curves of the adenoma, advanced adenoma, and carcinoma models. A) Adenoma ROC curve: The light green shaded areas represent the range of 561 values of a 100 different 80/20 splits of the test set data and the dark green line represents the model using 100% of the data set and what was used for subsequent classification. B) 563 Advanced Adenoma ROC curve: The light yellow shaded areas represent the range of 564 values of a 100 different 80/20 splits of the test set data and the dark yellow line represents 565 the model using 100% of the data set and what was used for subsequent classification. C) 566 Carcinoma ROC curve: The light red shaded areas represent the range of values of a 100 567 different 80/20 splits of the test set data and the dark red line represents the model using 568 100% of the data set and what was used for subsequent classification. 569

Figure S2: Summary of top 10% of important OTUs for the adenoma, advanced adenoma, and carcinoma models. A) MDA of the most important variables in the adenoma model. The dark green point represents the mean and the lighter green points are the value of each of the 100 different runs. B) Summary of Important Variables in the advanced adenoma model. MDA of the most important variables in the SRN model. The dark yellow point represents the mean and the lighter yellow points are the value of each of the 100 different runs. C) MDA of the most important variables in the carcinoma model. The dark red point represents the mean and the lighter red points are the value of each of the 100 different runs.

Figure S3: Pre and post-treatment relative abundance of CRC associated OTUs within the carcinoma model.