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1 **The Effect of RSV Infection on the Respiratory Microbiome of Adults**

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15 **Abstract**

16 Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) is the most common cause of acute lower
17 respiratory tract infection in infants. It is being increasingly recognised as a cause of
18 morbidity and mortality in the elderly. Microbial dysbiosis in the respiratory tract has
19 been hypothesized to predispose individuals to severe RSV infection. This study
20 explores changes in the bacterial community over the course of a controlled human
21 challenge study.

22 From 37 healthy adult patients exposed to a challenge inoculum of RSV, throat swabs
23 were collected daily for 10 days during quarantine and on days 14 and 28 post
24 quarantine. Swabs were processed for bacterial and viral quantification and 16S
25 rRNA gene sequencing.

26 Over the course of the study three clinical outcomes were observed; clinical cold (n =
27 17), asymptomatic infection (n = 6) or no infection (n = 14). These three outcome
28 groups had no significant differences in the bacterial load, diversity or community
29 composition at baseline. Over the twenty-eight days following RSV inoculation no
30 significant changes in the bacterial community were observed between the outcome
31 groups.

32 This study of healthy adults revealed no major changes in the bacterial community of
33 the respiratory tracts following RSV inoculation, suggesting that this microbial
34 community is resilient to viral perturbations.

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39 **Introduction**

40 Respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) is the most common cause of acute lower
41 respiratory tract infection in infants, resulting in regular seasonal surges in admission
42 to hospitals throughout the world [1]. In addition to its impact in childhood, it is
43 increasingly recognised as a cause of morbidity and mortality in elderly frail persons
44 [2]. RSV is highly contagious and options for control or prevention of infection are
45 limited [3].

46 In contrast to other viral infections, such as influenza and rhinovirus that induce a
47 long lasting protective immune response, reinfection with an identical RSV strain has
48 been demonstrated in adult volunteers [4]. As a result despite extensive work, a safe
49 and effective vaccine has thus far proven elusive [2].

50 Severe bronchiolitis in infants is associated with recurrent wheeze and asthma
51 diagnosis in later childhood [5]. One possible explanation is that RSV infection
52 causes durable changes in the microbial community within the lungs and that this has
53 secondary effects on physiology and immunity. However, it is also possible that
54 disordered microbial communities (dysbiosis) predispose to severe RSV disease [6].
55 Indeed, longitudinal birth cohort studies have demonstrated that propensity for
56 frequent respiratory tract infections in early life are associated with a perturbed
57 respiratory microbiota, dominated by *Moraxella*, that may precede respiratory viral
58 infections. These studies indicate associations between the respiratory commensal
59 microbiota and respiratory viral infection [7]. However, the issues of cause and effect
60 have been difficult to resolve in these observational studies that recruit symptomatic
61 cases of natural RSV infection or children with recurrent wheezing syndromes.
62 Human volunteer challenge studies enable the sequence of events to be followed
63 prospectively although they are confined to adult volunteers.

64 To determine the effect of RSV infection on the respiratory microbiome, we infected
 65 healthy adults with an established RSV challenge inoculum, Memphis 37 (RSV-A
 66 M37). We anticipated that infection during this controlled human challenge study
 67 with RSV-A M37 would result in significant changes in the bacterial community
 68 within the respiratory tract being observed.

69

70 **Results**

71 Our 37 volunteers (Table 1) showed one of three outcomes: clinical cold with RSV
 72 detection and/or virus-specific IgA production (n = 17), asymptomatic infection (n =
 73 6) or no infection (n = 14).

74 **Table 1. Patient demographics for the 37 patients included in the study.**

	Clinical Cold		Asymptomatic
	(Infected)	Uninfected	Infected
N	17	14	6
Age (Median (Min- Max))	20 (18 - 50)	22 (19 - 39)	20 (18-27)
Sex (Female)	6	6	3

75

76

77 **Microbial changes over time**

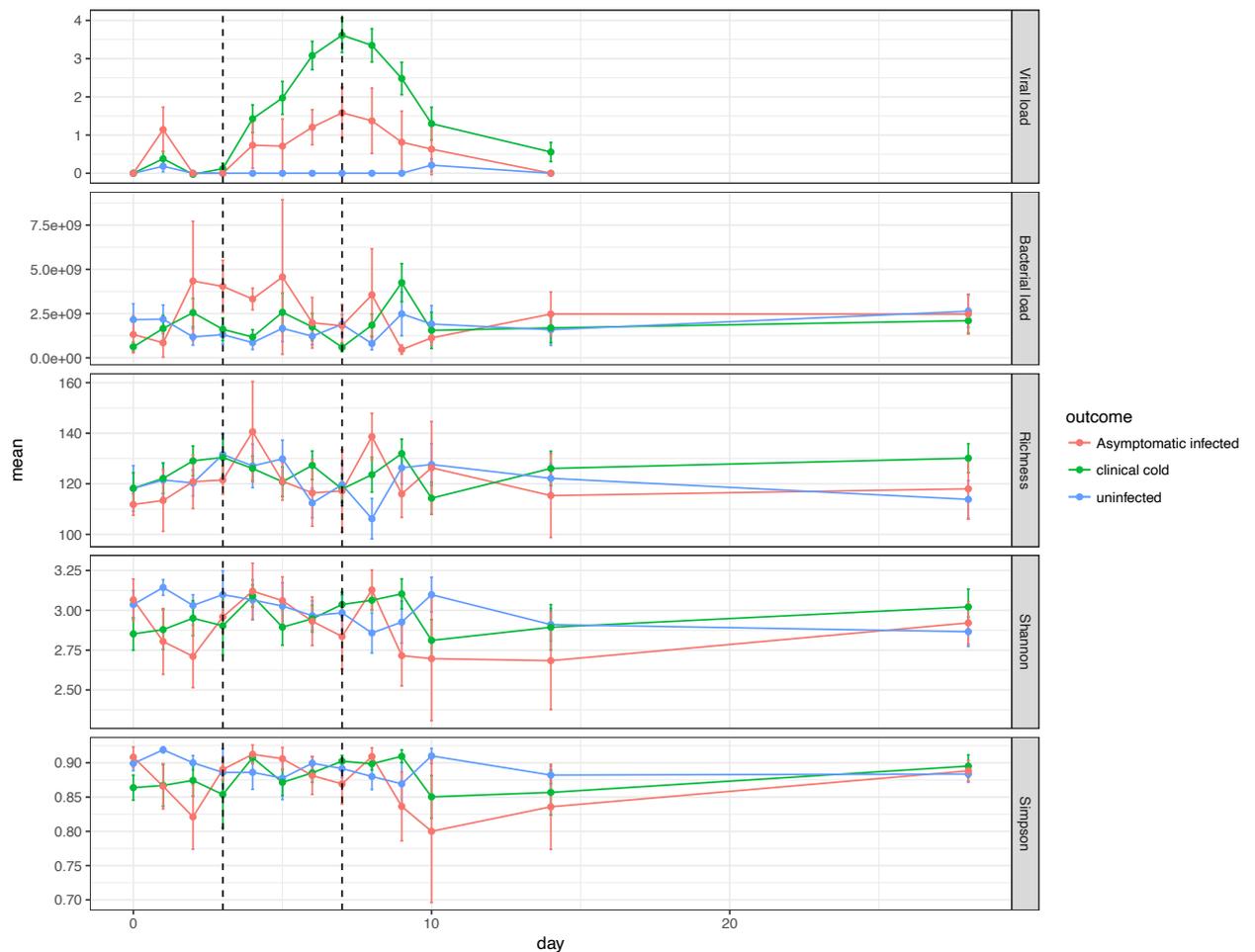
78 As previously reported, prior to viral inoculation (baseline)[8], there were no
79 significant difference in bacterial alpha diversity (Richness, $P = 0.948$; Shannon-
80 Weiner, $P = 0.263$; Simpsons, $P = 0.166$) or beta diversity (Bray-Curtis dissimilarity,
81 $R^2 = 0.055$, $P = 0.087$).

82 Changes in viral load, bacterial load and bacterial diversity over the course of the
83 study are shown in Figure 1. Significant differences between viral loads were seen
84 between the uninfected and clinical cold groups at Days 5, 6, 7 and 8 ($P_{\text{adjusted}} <$
85 0.001).

86

87 Significant differences were also seen between the asymptomatic infected group and
88 the clinical cold group on Days 7 and 8 ($P_{\text{adjusted}} = 0.03$ and 0.04 respectively); the
89 mean viral load at day 2 was higher in the asymptomatic infected group even though
90 they did not go on to develop clinical colds.

91 Bacterial load in the asymptomatic infected group fluctuated more than in other
92 groups in the first four days of infection (Figure 1), although these changes were not
93 significant and may reflect the low number of cases in the asymptomatic group ($n =$
94 6). No significant differences in bacterial load were observed between groups over the
95 course of viral infection, and there were also no significant differences in any of the
96 alpha diversity measures (richness, Shannon-Weiner and Simpsons). We also
97 examined species turnover over time [9] but found no significant differences between
98 the three groups.



99

100 **Figure 1.** Mean change in viral load (by qPCR), bacterial load (by qPCR) and alpha
 101 diversity (three measures Richness, Shannon, Simpsons) over the course of the study
 102 for the 3 groups; Clinical Cold (Infected), Asymptomatic Infected, Uninfected.

103

104 **Correlation of bacterial diversity and cytokine measures**

105 Repeated measure correlations were carried out between bacterial diversity measures
 106 (richness, Shannon-Weiner or Simpsons) and cytokine measurements in nasal
 107 mucosal lining fluid (IFN- α , IFN- β , IFN- γ , IL-15, IL-1 β , IL-6, IP10 (CXCL10), MIG
 108 (CXCL9), and TNF- α). No significant correlations were observed when the whole
 109 data set was compared or when it was subdivided based on clinical symptoms. In
 110 addition, no significant correlations were found between bacterial diversity measures
 111 and patient symptom score or viral load (data not shown).

112

113 **Bacterial community association with viral infection**

114 RSV M37 was administered after initial baseline testing on Day 0. As shown in
115 Figure 1, between administration of virus and Day 3 little virus was detected in the
116 participants' respiratory tracts. At Day 3 viral load started to increase in patients who
117 went on to develop symptoms. Day 7 was the peak of viral infection and viral load
118 fell after this point. At Day 28 no patients had any sign of clinical infection and viral
119 load was not measured, as previously described [8].

120 Indicator species analysis and DESeq2 were used to investigate if any individual
121 OTUs were associated with the outcome of viral infection at these time points.

122 At baseline, indicator species and DESeq2 analyses identified several OTUs
123 significantly associated with outcome. Four OTUs were found to overlap between the
124 two analyses. To investigate this further, the abundance of significant OTUs were
125 compared between clinical outcomes using a Wilcoxon sign rank test with Bonferroni
126 correction for multiple testing ($n = 21$). Eleven OTUs were found to have a significant
127 difference in means ($P > 0.05$) although no OTU was significant post correction for
128 multiple testing.

129 At Day 3 no OTUs were found to be significantly different between clinical outcome
130 groups. At Day 7 however a single *Haemophilus* OTU, *Haemophilus_1650*, was
131 found to be significantly increased in the uninfected group using both indicator
132 species and DESeq2 analysis. Differences in *Haemophilus_1650* over the study time
133 course were not significant by the Wilcoxon sign rank test. At Day 7 the difference in
134 *Haemophilus_1650* did not hold up to Bonferroni correction for multiple testing
135 ($P_{\text{adjusted}} = 0.37$).

136 Throat swabs were collected from all patients at Day 28 and whilst indicator species
137 analysis found no significant OTUs associated with viral outcome, DESeq2 analysis
138 indicated 15 OTUs of interest. Fourteen of these OTUs were significantly associated
139 with the uninfected group whilst only a single OTU was found to be associated with
140 those recently recovered from clinical cold. All identified OTUs however, were found
141 to be in low abundance and were not significant under further testing (e.g. Wilcoxon
142 sign rank test).

143

144 **Discussion**

145 Analysis of the respiratory microbiome in healthy adults revealed that, contrary to
146 results reported in children, no significant changes in the bacterial community were
147 seen over the course of RSV infection.

148 After inoculation with RSV-A M37, seventeen of the 37 patients in the study went on
149 to develop clinical symptoms. In the asymptomatic population the majority of these
150 participants cleared the viral infection within 3 days ($n = 14$), however there were a
151 small number of asymptomatic infected individuals ($n = 6$). Throat swabs, collected
152 daily during the quarantine period of 10 days and then further swabs taken post
153 quarantine at Days 14 and 28, revealed no significant differences in the bacterial load
154 or diversity associated with patient groups over the viral infection cycle.

155 Initial investigation of differences in the bacterial community at baseline revealed no
156 significant differences in bacterial load, diversity or community composition
157 suggesting that the bacterial community at baseline did not have a significant effect
158 on the course of viral infection. A post- hoc power analysis based on the effect size
159 seen in the baseline samples ($f = 0.23$) suggested that using the conventional power of

160 0.80, n = 62 per group would be required to identify significant differences in
161 Shannon-Weiner diversity between the 3 groups. A larger study may be able to detect
162 more subtle changes in the respiratory bacterial community.

163 Indicator species analysis and DESeq2 were used to investigate OTUs that may
164 influence the outcome of viral infection. This analysis was carried out at the key time
165 points in the viral infection, these being baseline, days 3 (the start of concerted viral
166 replication), 7 (peak viral replication) and 28. Although several OTUs were
167 statistically significant by these analyses, none stood up to further analysis with
168 control for multiple testing.

169 No significant correlations between changes in the microbial community and changes
170 in cytokine measurements were seen, suggesting that the microbial community within
171 the respiratory tract is resilient to RSV mediated changes in inflammatory
172 environment of the upper respiratory tract. This result may however also be due to the
173 small number of participants within the study.

174 Previous studies have focused on exploring the microbiome in infants, showing a
175 positive association between *Haemophilus*, *Moraxella* and *Streptococcus* dominated
176 nasal microbiota and infection severity [10-12]. Our study of healthy adults did not
177 confirm these reported microbial changes. This may be due to the maturity and
178 relative stability of the immune system and microbial community in these individuals,
179 unlike those of the infant population. However, these studies had larger sample sizes
180 than the current study, a larger study would be required to confirm the resilience of
181 the bacterial community in the adult population during RSV infection.

182 Controlled human infection challenges are essential to understand disease
183 pathogenesis and underpin eventual vaccine development. However, there are

184 substantial ethical issues associated with exposing healthy individuals to infectious
185 risk. As a result, these studies must be conscientiously designed to minimise risks,
186 while participants volunteers must be fully indemnified against any potential harm
187 [13]. When considering these parameters, sample sizes are necessarily limited. This
188 provides a challenge for the analysis of highly variable microbiome data, making
189 interpretation difficult.

190 Despite these limitations, the present study provides important information about the
191 resilience of the microbiome in healthy adults to viral perturbations and suggests that
192 co-morbidities may have an important effect on the bacterial community within the
193 lungs of vulnerable individuals, as observed in studies of natural infections.

194

195 **Methods**

196 **Study design and sampling**

197 Thirty-seven healthy non-smoking individuals aged between 18 and 50 years old were
198 recruited into the study (Table 1) [14]. Participants were screened for
199 immunodeficiencies, respiratory diseases and medications [8].

200 Baseline samples (Nasosorption [15], nasal lavage fluid, blood and throat swabs) were
201 collected prior to participant inoculation with 10^4 plaque-forming units of RSV A
202 Memphis 37 (RSV-A M37) by intranasal drops. Subjects were quarantined for 10
203 days post infection and sampled daily. Subjects returned for further sampling at days
204 14 and 28 post infection. The study was approved by the UK National Research
205 Ethics Services (study numbers 10/H0711/94 and 11/LO/1826) and performed in
206 accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, written informed consent was provided
207 by all subjects.

208

209 **Antibody assay**

210 Endpoint titre of IgA against RSV lysate was determined from nasal wash samples as
211 previously described [14].

212 Cytokine and chemokine inflammatory mediators (IFN- α , IFN- β , IFN- γ , IL-15, IL-
213 1 β , IL-6, IP10 (CXCL10), MIG (CXCL9), TNF- α) within nasosorption eluates were
214 quantified by multiplex high sensitivity immunoassay (MesoScale Discovery,
215 Rockville, USA). Nasosorption samples were eluted as previously described [15] and
216 stored at -80°C prior to analysis.

217

218 **DNA extraction**

219 DNA extraction was performed on throat swabs using the MPBio FastDNATM spin kit
220 for soil as per the manufacturer's instructions. Blank swabs were extracted and
221 sequenced to control for any contamination as previously described [16].

222

223 **Quantitative PCR**

224 Viral infection was quantified by qPCR of nasal lavage fluid as previously described
225 [17]. Bacterial load was quantified by SYBR green qPCR as previously described
226 [16]. All qPCR reactions were performed in triplicate.

227

228 **Bacterial sequencing**

229 16S rRNA gene sequencing was performed on the Illumina MiSeq platform using
230 dual barcode fusion primers targeting the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene as
231 described previously [16]. Extraction controls, PCR negative and mock communities
232 were included on all sequencing runs. Sequences were submitted to the European
233 Nucleotide Database, project number PRJEB28323.

234 Sequence processing was carried out using QIIME and UCLUST to assign taxonomic
235 identification to operational taxonomic units (OTU) using the Silva 115 NR database,
236 as previously described [16]. OTU and tree files were output into R for further
237 analysis.

238

239 **Statistics**

240 All further analysis was carried out in R, version 3.3.2 using Phyloseq, version 1.22.3.
241 Permutational multivariate analysis of variance using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix
242 was carried out in Vegan, version 2.4-6. Changes over time were investigated using
243 ANOVA with Tukey HSD post hoc testing. Repeated measures correlations were
244 carried out using rmcrr, version 0.3.0.

245

246 OTU differences were explored using indicator species analysis (Indicspecies, version
247 1.7.6) and DESeq2 (DESeq2, version 1.18.1). Indicator species analysis, with 10,000
248 iterations, was performed on the rarefied data, while DESeq2 used un-rarefied data
249 due to internal normalization within the package.

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259 **References**

260

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333

334

335 **Author contributions**

336 P.J.M.O., C.C., and M.F.M conceived the study, with input from W.O.C.C.. M.S.H.,
337 A.P., and C.C. performed volunteer infections and collected samples. M.S.H., R.S.T.,
338 L.C., P.J. and C.C. collected human antibody and microbial data. Microbiome data
339 was analyzed by L.C. and P.J. The manuscript was written by L.C. with input from all
340 authors.

341

342 **Competing interests**

343 The author declare no competing interests.

344

345 **Data availability**

346 Sequences were submitted to the European Nucleotide Database and fully available
347 under project number PRJEB28323.

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Figures

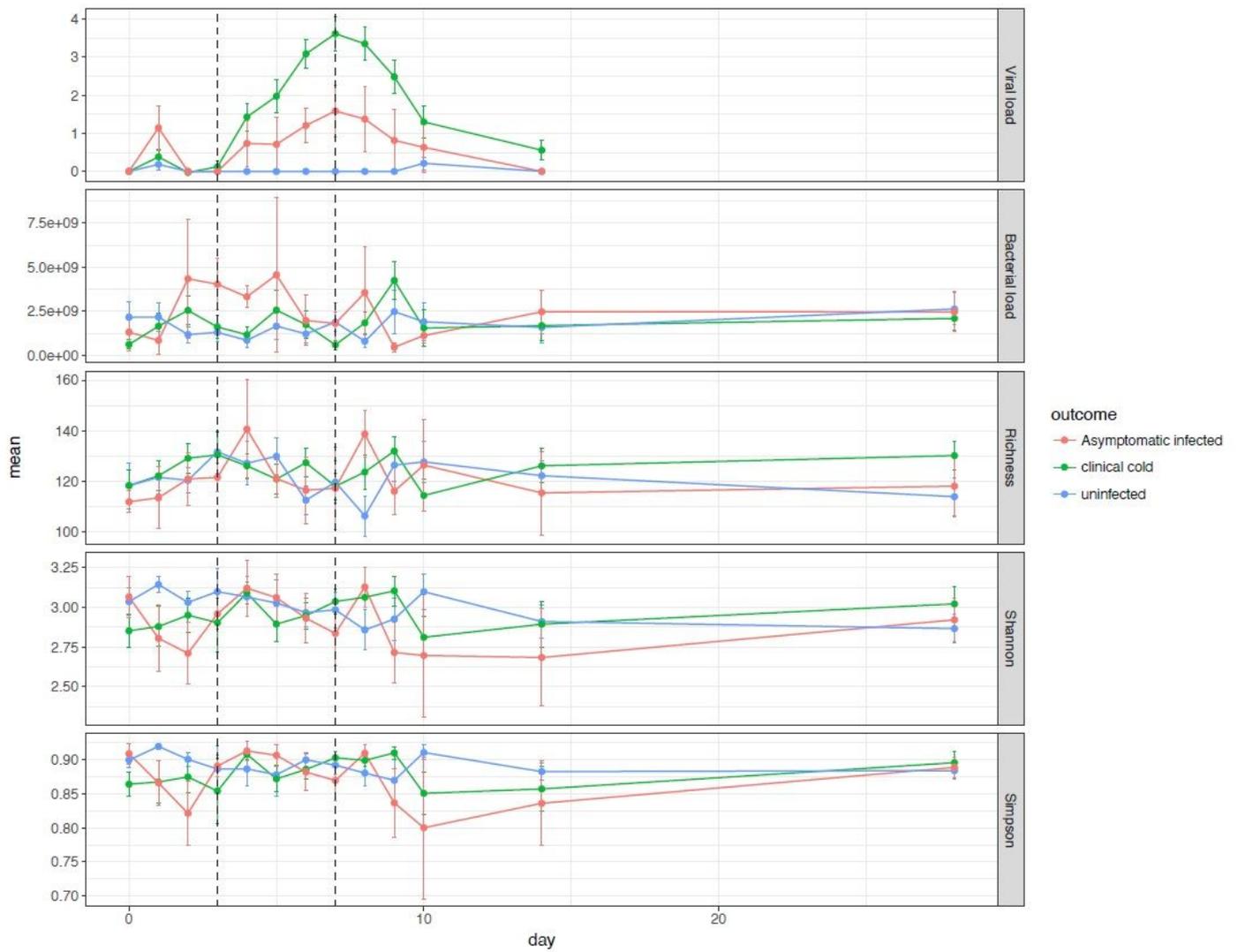


Figure 1

Mean change in viral load (by qPCR), bacterial load (by qPCR) and alpha diversity (three measures Richness, Shannon, Simpsons) over the course of the study for the 3 groups; Clinical Cold (Infected), Asymptomatic Infected, Uninfected.