

**Title:** Lung microbiota predict clinical outcomes in critically ill patients

**Authors:** Robert P. Dickson<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Marcus J. Schultz<sup>4,5</sup>, Tom van der Poll<sup>6</sup>, Laura R. Schouten<sup>4</sup>, Nicole R. Falkowski<sup>1</sup>, Jenna E. Luth<sup>1</sup>, Michael W. Sjoding<sup>1,3,7</sup>, Christopher A. Brown<sup>1</sup>, Rishi Chanderraj<sup>1,8</sup>, Gary B. Huffnagle<sup>1,2</sup>, Lieuwe D. J. Bos<sup>4,9</sup>

**Affiliations:** 1. Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 2. Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 3. Michigan Center for Integrative Research in Critical Care; Ann Arbor, Michigan; 4. Intensive Care, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. 5. Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand: Mahidol-Oxford Tropical Medicine Research Unit (MORU). 6. Centre for experimental and molecular medicine (CEMM), Amsterdam University Medical Center, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. 7. Center for Computational Medicine and Bioinformatics, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 8. Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 9. Department of Respiratory Medicine, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

**Collaborators:** Published on behalf of the BASIC Consortium:

*Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, Amsterdam, The Netherlands:* de Beer FM, Bos LD, Claushuis TA, Glas GJ, Horn J, Hoogendijk AJ, van Hooijdonk RT, Huson MA, de Jong MD, Juffermans NP, Lagrand WA, van der Poll T, Scicluna B, Schouten LR, Schultz MJ, van der Sluijs KF, Straat M, van Vught LA, Wieske L, Wiewel MA, Witteveen E.

**Corresponding Author Information:**

Robert P. Dickson, MD  
Pulmonary & Critical Care Medicine  
University of Michigan Health System  
6220 MSRB III / SPC 5642  
1150 W. Medical Center Dr.  
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-5642  
rodickso@med.umich.edu  
(734)277-1487 (mobile)  
(734)764-2655 (fax)  
(734)936-9368 (lab)  
(734)936-5010 (administrator)

**Author Contributions:** Conception and design: RPD, LDJB. Acquisition of data: MJS, LRS, TVP, LDJB. Processing of specimens and generation of data: NRF, JEL. Analysis and interpretation of data: RPD, MWS, CAB, RC, LDJB. Drafting or revising of manuscript: RPD, MJS, LRS, TVP, NRF, JEL, MWS, CAB, RC, GBH, LDJB. Final approval of manuscript: RPD, MJS, LRS, TVP, NRF, JEL, MWS, CAB, RC, GBH, LDJB.

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## 1 **At a Glance Commentary**

### 2 **Scientific Knowledge on the Subject**

3 Recent studies have revealed that the lung microbiota of critically ill patients are profoundly  
4 altered and are correlated with alveolar and systemic inflammation. Altered lung microbiota may  
5 propel and perpetuate alveolar inflammation and injury among critically ill patients. Yet to date,  
6 no study has determined whether altered lung microbiota predict disease outcomes in this  
7 population.

8

### 9 **What This Study Adds to the Field**

10 We here show that among mechanically ventilated critically ill patients, variation in lung  
11 microbiota at admission predicts ICU outcomes. Two key features of the lung microbiome,  
12 bacterial burden and community composition, predict ventilator-free days. Specifically,  
13 increased lung bacterial DNA burden and enrichment of the lung microbiome with gut-  
14 associated bacterial taxa (e.g. *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* families) were  
15 predictive both of poor ICU outcomes and the clinical diagnosis of ARDS. This correlation  
16 between gut-associated bacteria and ARDS validates prior findings, and supports the  
17 hypothesis that translocation of gut bacteria to the lungs contributes to the pathogenesis of lung  
18 injury. Our results confirm the clinical significance of lung microbiota in critically ill patients. The  
19 lung microbiome is an important and underappreciated source of clinical heterogeneity among  
20 the critically ill, and represents a novel therapeutic target for the prevention and treatment of  
21 lung injury.

## 22 **Abstract**

23 **Rationale:** Recent studies have revealed that in critically ill patients, lung microbiota are altered  
24 and correlate with alveolar inflammation. The clinical significance of altered lung bacteria in  
25 critical illness is unknown.

26 **Objectives:** To determine if clinical outcomes of critically ill patients are predicted by features of  
27 the lung microbiome at the time of admission.

28 **Methods:** We performed a prospective observational cohort study in an intensive care unit  
29 (ICU) at a university hospital. Lung microbiota were quantified and characterized using droplet  
30 digital PCR and bacterial 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Primary predictors were the bacterial  
31 burden, community diversity, and community composition of lung microbiota. The primary  
32 outcome was ventilator-free days, determined at 28 days post admission.

33 **Measurements and Main Results:** Lungs of 91 critically ill patients were sampled using  
34 miniature-bronchoalveolar lavage within 24 hours of ICU admission. Patients with increased  
35 bacterial lung bacterial burden had fewer ventilator-free days (HR 0.43, CI 0.21-0.88), which  
36 remained significant when controlled for pneumonia and severity of illness. The community  
37 composition of lung bacteria predicted ventilator-free days (P=0.003), driven by the presence of  
38 gut-associated bacteria (e.g. *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* spp.). Detection of gut-  
39 associated bacteria was also associated with the presence of the acute respiratory distress  
40 syndrome.

41 **Conclusions:** Key features of the lung microbiome (bacterial burden, enrichment with gut-  
42 associated bacteria) predict outcomes in critically ill patients. The lung microbiome is an  
43 understudied source of clinical variation in critical illness, and represents a novel therapeutic  
44 target for the prevention and treatment of acute respiratory failure.

## 45 **Body**

### 46 **Introduction**

47 In the past decade, advances in culture-independent microbiology have revealed that the lungs,  
48 previously considered sterile, harbor complex and dynamic communities of bacteria(1). Lung  
49 microbiota are detectable in health(2-4), altered in disease(5, 6), and correlate with variation in  
50 airway and alveolar immunity(2, 4, 7). In numerous chronic respiratory diseases, key features of  
51 the lung microbiome are predictive of disease outcomes. The burden of lung bacteria  
52 (measured by quantification of bacterial DNA) predicts mortality and disease progression in  
53 stable patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis(8, 9) and responsiveness to inhaled antibiotics  
54 in patients with bronchiectasis(10). The diversity of sputum microbiota predicts mortality in  
55 patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease(11), and the community composition of  
56 respiratory microbiota predicts exacerbations in bronchiectasis(12) and respiratory infections in  
57 infants(13).

58

59 The lung microbiota of critically ill patients are profoundly altered compared to those of healthy  
60 subjects(7, 14-16), and correlate with alveolar and systemic inflammation(7, 15). Specifically,  
61 among patients with the acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), the lung microbiome is  
62 enriched with gut-associated bacteria(7), and early enrichment of the lung microbiome with gut-  
63 associated bacteria (e.g. *Enterobacteriaceae* spp.) is associated with subsequent development  
64 of ARDS(15). Altered lung microbiota may propel and perpetuate alveolar inflammation and  
65 injury among critically ill patients, but to date no study has determined whether altered lung  
66 microbiota predict disease outcomes in this population.

67

68 To determine if lung microbiota at ICU admission predict clinical outcomes in critically ill  
69 patients, we performed a prospective observational cohort study on critically ill patients  
70 receiving mechanical ventilation. The primary outcome was ventilator-free days, adjudicated at

71 28 days following enrollment. We hypothesized that key features of the lung microbiome  
72 (bacterial burden, diversity, and community composition) would predict ICU outcomes, even  
73 when controlled for the presence of clinically-appreciated pneumonia.

74

## 75 **Methods**

### 76 *Study design*

77 This study was a secondary analysis of specimens collected from patients in the BASIC study  
78 (Biomarker Analysis in Septic ICU patients). This study was incorporated in the Molecular  
79 Diagnosis and Risk Stratification of Sepsis (MARS) project (NCT01905033) (17-20). The  
80 present study was conducted in the ICU of the Academic Medical Center and was approved by  
81 the institutional Medical Ethics committee; written informed consent was obtained from the  
82 patient representative prior to collection of airway samples via miniature bronchoalveolar lavage  
83 (IRB no. NL34294.018.10). Analysis was restricted to baseline specimens and data collected  
84 within 24 hours of admission.

85

### 86 *Study population*

87 All patients older than 18 years admitted to the ICU with an expected length of stay longer than  
88 24 hours were included in the MARS project. The BASIC study comprised a subset of patients  
89 included in the MARS study at the Amsterdam ICU with at least two “systemic inflammatory  
90 response syndrome” criteria, who received no antibiotics in the days preceding ICU admission.  
91 The current analysis is limited to consecutive patients who were included between September  
92 12, 2011, and November 7, 2013, receiving invasive mechanical ventilation and with informed  
93 consent for distal airway sampling. Adjudication of infection was assessed retrospectively using  
94 a four-point scale (ascending from none, possible, probable, to definite) using the Centers for  
95 Disease Control and Prevention and International Sepsis Forum consensus definitions as  
96 previously described(18). ARDS was scored on a daily basis by a team of well-trained clinical

97 researchers according to the American-European consensus criteria. After the publication of the  
98 Berlin definition, all cases were re-evaluated scored according to the new definition, as  
99 described previously(21). For the purposes of ARDS vs non-ARDS comparisons, we used  
100 adjudication at 24 hours following ICU admission. Severity of illness was quantified using the  
101 validated APACHE IV (Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation IV) (22) and SOFA  
102 (Sequential Organ Failure Assessment)(23) models.

103

#### 104 *Specimen collection and processing*

105 Miniature bronchoalveolar lavage specimens were collected using standard clinical protocol. In  
106 short, a 50 cm, 14 Fr tracheal suction catheter was introduced through the orotracheal tube and  
107 inserted until significant resistance was encountered. The catheter was then pulled back 1cm  
108 and 20 mL 0.9% saline was injected in 10 seconds and immediately aspirated, after which the  
109 catheter was removed. Specimens were stored on ice from the time of specimen collection until  
110 processing. DNA was extracted, amplified, and sequenced according to previously published  
111 protocols(24-26). Sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq platform (San Diego,  
112 CA). Bacterial DNA was quantified using a QX200 Droplet Digital PCR System (BioRad,  
113 Hercules, CA). Additional details are provided in the online data supplement.

114

#### 115 *Statistical analysis*

116 As detailed in the online data supplement, we performed microbial ecology analysis using the  
117 *vegan* package 2.4-1 and *mvabund* in *R*(27-29) following sequence processing with *mothur*(30,  
118 31). We pre-specified that key features of the microbiome (predictors) would be: 1) bacterial  
119 DNA burden (as quantified using droplet digital PCR), 2) bacterial community diversity (as  
120 calculated using the Shannon Diversity Index), and 3) community composition. We determined  
121 significance in community composition (e.g. mini-BAL specimens vs negative sequencing  
122 controls, ARDS vs non-ARDS mini-BAL specimens) using *mvabund* (model-based approach to

123 analysis of multivariate abundance data). To identify community members driving differences in  
124 community composition, we used 1) biplot analysis, 2) rank abundance analysis, and 3) a  
125 random forest ensemble learning approach (*randomForest* package in R, version 4.6-14(32)).  
126 For random forest, we determined variable importance using 100 forests. The importance  
127 parameter was set to TRUE to enable retrieval of importance metrics: mean decrease in  
128 accuracy for classification (ARDS vs. non-ARDS) or IncMSE for regression (ventilator-free  
129 days). Default settings were utilized for all other parameters. Following model creation, the  
130 unscaled feature importance metric was extracted from each forest, assembled into a  
131 dataframe, ordered by highest feature importance, and displayed in boxplots of the most  
132 important features across the 100 forests. Our primary index of feature importance was Mean  
133 Decrease in Accuracy, which ranks predictors by the relative loss in accuracy the occurs when  
134 they are removed from the predictive model. We compared means via Student's T test (when  
135 normally distributed), the Mann-Whitney U test (when non-Gaussian), and ANOVA with Holm-  
136 Sidak's multiple comparisons test as appropriate. Time-to-event analysis was performed using  
137 univariate and multivariate Cox proportional hazard models using ventilator-free days  
138 (adjudicated 28 days following enrollment) as a primary outcome; multivariate analysis adjusted  
139 for age, sex, severity of illness (APACHE IV), diagnosis of ARDS, and the presence of clinically-  
140 suspected pneumonia as determined both by the primary clinical service and via post-hoc CDC  
141 adjudication criteria. The primary outcome was the proportional hazard ratio for being alive and  
142 liberated from mechanical ventilation, as adjudicated 28 days following admission.

143

#### 144 *Role of the funding source*

145 The funding agencies had no role in the design, conduct, and analysis of the study or in the  
146 decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

147 **Results**148 Study cohort

149 We obtained mini-BAL specimens from 91 critically ill patients within 24 hours of their ICU  
 150 admission. The consort diagram is shown in the Appendix Figure E1. Patient demographics and  
 151 clinical characteristics are reported in **Table 1**.

152

**Table 1.** Demographics and Clinical Characteristics of Study Cohort

Characteristic	Study cohort (n = 91)
Mean age (SD), y	60.7 (15.4)
Male	55 (60)
Admission type	
Medical	67 (74)
Surgical (emergency)	20 (22)
Surgical (elective)	4 (4)
Severity of illness	
Mean SOFA (SD)	7.2 (4.1)
Mean APACHE IV (SD)	82.6 (28.5)
Lung injury	
ARDS at admission	17 (19)
Mean PaO <sub>2</sub> :FiO <sub>2</sub> (SD)	262.0 (104.7)
Comorbidities	
Diabetes mellitus	13 (14)
Malignancy	11 (12)
COPD	5 (5)
Immune deficiency	4 (4)
ICU outcomes	
Mean ventilator-free days (SD)	18.5 (10.5)
Mean ICU length of stay, days (SD)	5.6 (4.6)
30-day mortality	27 (30)

SOFA = Sequential Organ Failure Score. APACHE IV = Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Score IV. ARDS = Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Syndrome. Values are numbers (percentages) unless otherwise indicated.

153 The distribution of admission diagnoses is reported in **Appendix Table E1**. Bacterial  
 154 quantification and 16S rRNA gene sequencing was performed on all specimens. Details

155 regarding adequacy of sequencing and exclusion of specimens are provided in the online  
156 supplement.

157

158 The microbiota of lung specimens from critically ill patients are distinct from those of background  
159 sequencing controls

160 Low-biomass microbiome studies are vulnerable to contamination due to bacterial DNA present  
161 in reagents used in DNA extraction and library preparation(33). Our study used low-volume  
162 specimens (mini-BAL) from a low-microbial-biomass body site (the lower respiratory tract), and  
163 had their bacterial burden further decreased via a centrifugation step to remove eukaryotic  
164 cells(34). Given these concerns, we first asked whether a bacterial signal could be detected in  
165 these mini-BAL specimens that was distinct from that of negative controls. We accomplished  
166 this by comparing the bacterial DNA in mini-BAL specimens with no-template controls (N = 25),  
167 AE buffer specimens (N = 8), sterile water used in DNA extraction (N = 4), extraction control  
168 specimens (N = 9), and blank sequencing wells (N = 6).

169

170 As shown in **Supplemental Figure 2**, we found clear evidence of distinct bacterial signal in  
171 mini-BAL specimens despite their low microbial biomass. Using ultrasensitive quantification of  
172 the bacterial 16S gene (via droplet digital PCR), we found significantly more bacterial DNA in  
173 mini-BAL specimens than in no-template control specimens ( $P < 0.001$ , **Supplemental Figure**  
174 **2A**). The median bacterial DNA burden was 21,246 bacterial gene copies per mL (mean  
175 118,411 copies  $\pm$  707,438). We found a wide range of bacterial burden (6,329 - 6,713,947  
176 copies/mL), ranging from comparable to no-template controls to 1000-fold greater than  
177 background. Using bacterial community analysis (16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing), we  
178 confirmed that the identity of bacteria detected in mini-BAL specimens was distinct from that of  
179 negative control specimens ( $P < 0.0001$ , *mvabund*). Principal component analysis revealed  
180 distinct clustering of mini-BAL specimens apart from negative control specimens

181 **(Supplemental Figure 2B)**, though overlap did occur between some mini-BAL specimens and  
182 negative controls. Rank abundance analysis showed clear differences in relative abundance of  
183 taxa in negative controls and mini-BAL specimens **(Supplemental Figure 2C)**. The dominant  
184 taxonomic group in negative controls specimens (OTU008:*Pelomonas*) comprised 25.5% of  
185 bacterial sequences in negative controls, but only 2.6% of sequences in mini-BAL specimens.

186

187 We thus concluded that while highly variable in their bacterial DNA burden and susceptibility to  
188 contamination, mini-BAL specimens contained a distinct bacterial signal from negative control  
189 specimens.

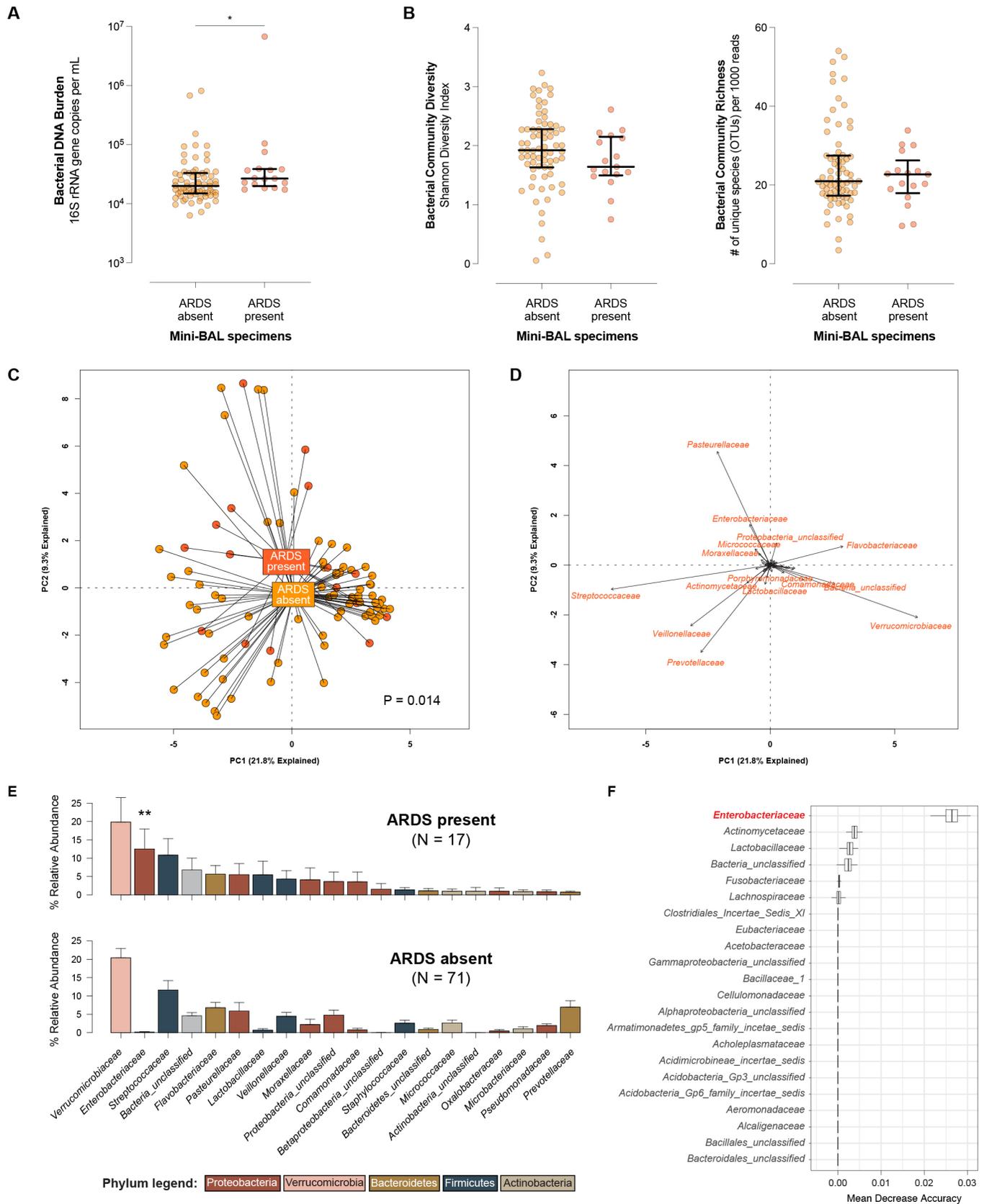
190

191 Lung microbiota of critically ill patients are altered in patients with ARDS and enriched with gut-  
192 associated bacteria (*Enterobacteriaceae* spp.)

193 We next compared the lung microbiota of critically ill patients with and without ARDS. Prior  
194 studies have demonstrated that the lung microbiota of patients with ARDS are altered and  
195 enriched with gut-associated bacteria. We compared lung bacterial communities in patients with  
196 and without physician-adjudicated ARDS. As shown in **Figure 1**, lung bacterial communities of  
197 patients with ARDS differed in the bacterial DNA burden and community composition compared  
198 to patients without ARDS.

199

200 We first compared ARDS and non-ARDS specimens in their bacterial DNA burden and  
201 community diversity. Though highly variable, the bacterial DNA burden in mini-BAL specimens  
202 was greater in patients with ARDS than without ARDS ( $P = 0.014$ , **Figure 1A**). ARDS  
203 specimens did not differ in bacterial community diversity, either measured via the Shannon  
204 Diversity Index ( $P = 0.13$ ) or community richness ( $P = 0.83$ ) (**Figure 1B**). With both comparisons  
205 (bacterial DNA burden and diversity), within-group variation far exceeded across-group  
206 differences.



**Figure 1.** Lung microbiota are altered in patients with the Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS). Compared to patients without ARDS, patients with ARDS had increased lung bacterial burden (A) but no difference in community diversity (B). Principal component analysis of bacterial communities (C) revealed that the community composition of lung bacteria was distinct in specimens from ARDS patients (C), driven by members of the Pasteurellaceae and Enterobacteriaceae families (D). Rank abundance analysis (E) identified taxa enriched in ARDS specimens (e.g. Enterobacteriaceae), and Random Forest analysis (F) confirmed that the Enterobacteriaceae family was the most discriminating taxonomic group between ARDS and non-ARDS specimens. Hypothesis testing performed using Mann-Whitney U test (A), Student's t test (B) and mvabund (C, E). A, B: median and interquartile range.

207 We next compared the community composition of bacterial communities in ARDS and non-  
208 ARDS specimens using complementary approaches. We first visualized communities using  
209 principal component analysis (**Figure 1C**). While considerable taxonomic overlap was found  
210 across ARDS and non-ARDS specimens, there was a detectable separation of specimens  
211 according to ARDS status. This collective difference in community composition was confirmed  
212 statistically via *mvabund*, and was robust to taxonomic level of comparison (P = 0.014 at the  
213 OTU level of taxonomy, P = 0.013 at the family level, P = 0.003 at the phylum level). We next  
214 used biplot analysis to identify specific taxa responsible for this collective difference in  
215 community composition (**Figure 1D**). Whereas clusters of non-ARDS specimens were defined  
216 by bacterial taxa commonly detected in healthy lungs (*Streptococcaceae* spp., *Veillonellaceae*  
217 spp., and *Prevotellaceae* spp.) and taxa detected in negative sequencing control specimens  
218 (*Verrucomicrobiaceae* spp., *Flavobacteriaceae* spp.), ARDS specimens were more commonly  
219 characterized by *Pasteurellaceae* spp. and *Enterobacteriaceae* spp..

220

221 We then used complementary techniques to identify ARDS-associated bacterial taxa. Using  
222 rank abundance visualization (**Figure 1E**), we compared the relative abundance of prominent  
223 taxa across ARDS and non-ARDS specimens. While many taxa were common to both group,  
224 the *Enterobacteriaceae* family was far more abundant ARDS specimens compared to non-  
225 ARDS specimens (12.5% of all bacterial sequences in ARDS specimens compared to 0.18% of  
226 all bacterial specimens in non-ARDS specimens). We used unbiased regression-based  
227 (*mvabund*) and ensemble-learning (*random forest*) approaches to identify ARDS-enriched taxa.  
228 *Mvabund*, which rigorously controls for multiple comparisons, identified the *Enterobacteriaceae*  
229 family as enriched in ARDS specimens (P = 0.002). *Random forest* clearly identified the  
230 *Enterobacteriaceae* family as the most important taxonomic feature discriminating ARDS from  
231 non-ARDS specimens (**Figure 1F**).

232

233 We next compared our ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* taxonomic group with that of an  
234 ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* taxon in a recently published study of mechanically  
235 ventilated trauma patients(15). We compared the most prominent *Enterobacteriaceae*-classified  
236 OTU in our data set (OTU0005, comprising 61.5% of all *Enterobacteriaceae*-classified  
237 sequences) with the ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* identified by Panzer et al.  
238 (OTU2119418). As shown in **Supplemental Figure 3A**, the representative sequence of our  
239 study's ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU was 96% aligned with that of the ARDS-  
240 associated *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU identified by Panzer et al., differing in only 3 base pairs.  
241 We compared these ARDS-associated OTUs with the taxonomic classifications of closely-  
242 aligned sequences from the SILVA ribosomal RNA database. As shown in in **Supplemental**  
243 **Figure 3B**, both OTUs were exclusively identical to *Enterobacteriaceae*-classified taxa,  
244 including *Escherichia coli*, *Enterobacter* spp., and *Klebsiella pneumoniae*.

245

246 We thus concluded that the lung microbiota of patients with ARDS differ from those of critically  
247 ill patients without ARDS, driven by relative enrichment with gut-associated *Enterobacteriaceae*  
248 spp..

249

#### 250 Lung microbiota are predictive of clinical outcomes in critically ill patients

251 We next asked if key features of the lung microbiome (*bacterial burden*, *diversity*, and  
252 *community composition*) predict clinical outcomes in critically ill patients. Our primary outcome  
253 was ventilator-free days measured at 28 days following admission.

254

255 We first asked if *bacterial burden* of mini-BAL specimens (quantified using ddPCR of the 16S  
256 rRNA gene) predicted ICU outcomes (**Table 2**). Using univariate analysis, we found that  
257 increased baseline lung bacterial DNA burden predicted fewer ventilator-free days, either when

258 analyzed continuously (hazard ratio 0.43, confidence interval 0.21 - 0.88, P = 0.022) or when  
 259 comparing tertiles defined by total lung bacterial DNA burden. In other words, for each  
 260 additional 10-fold increase in lung bacterial DNA, the Hazard Ratio for favorable outcome  
 261 (liberation from mechanical ventilation) was 0.43. As shown in **Figure 2**, the tertile of patients  
 262 with the highest baseline lung bacterial DNA burden were less likely to be extubated and alive at  
 263 7, 14, 21, and 28 days compared to patients with low bacterial DNA burden (HR 0.45,  
 264 confidence interval 0.25 - 0.81, P = 0.008).  
 265

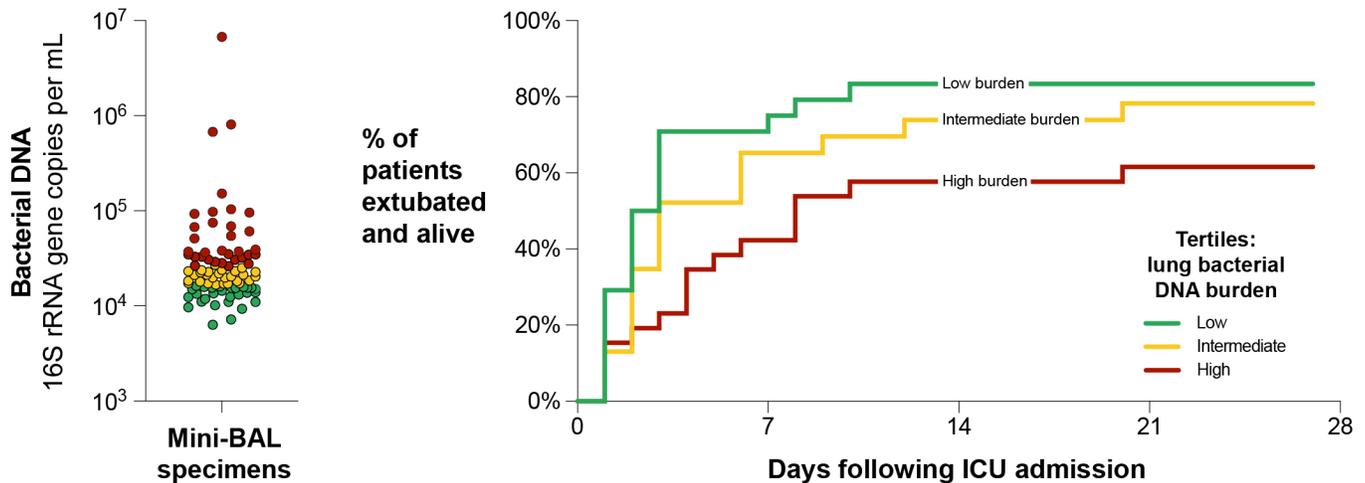
**Table 2.** Predictors of Ventilator-Free Days in Mechanically Ventilated Critically Ill Patients

Predictor	Univariate		Multivariate	
	Hazard ratio (CI)	P value	Hazard ratio (CI)	P value
Lung bacterial DNA burden (continuous)	0.43 (0.21 - 0.88)	0.022	0.40 (0.18 - 0.86)	0.019
Lung bacterial DNA burden: middle tertile*	0.87 (0.50 - 1.51)	0.62		
Lung bacterial DNA burden: highest tertile*	0.45 (0.25 - 0.81)	0.008		
Shannon diversity index <sup>†</sup>	1.27 (0.87 - 1.86)	0.21		
Age (years)	0.99 (0.98 - 1.01)	0.35	1.01 (0.99 - 1.03)	0.32
Gender (male)	1.26 (0.78 - 2.03)	0.35	0.90 (0.54 - 1.49)	0.68
SOFA	0.95 (0.90 - 1.01)	0.10		
APACHE IV	0.98 (0.98 - 0.99)	<0.001	0.98 (0.97 - 0.99)	<0.001
Suspected pneumonia	1.01 (0.60 - 1.70)	0.96	0.90 (0.53 - 1.55)	0.71
Pneumonia (post-hoc, CDC criteria)	0.48 (0.18 - 1.33)	0.16		
ARDS	0.51 (0.27 - 0.98)	0.044	0.61 (0.31 - 1.21)	0.16

CI = Confidence interval (95%). SOFA = Sequential Organ Failure Score. APACHE IV = Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Score IV. ARDS = Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome.

\*Versus lowest tertile.

<sup>†</sup>Shannon diversity index, per 1-unit increase



**Figure 2.** Lung microbiota predict 28-day outcomes in mechanically-ventilated critically ill patients. In critically ill patients receiving mechanical ventilation, the burden of bacterial DNA detected in mini-BAL specimens was predictive of total ventilator-free days. Patients with high lung burdens of bacterial DNA were less likely to be extubated and alive than patients with low bacterial DNA burden ( $P = 0.008$ ). Hypothesis testing performed using univariate Cox proportional hazard modeling.

266 Pneumonia is common among mechanically ventilated patients, and a potential source of  
 267 confounding in lung microbiome studies. In our study cohort, 27 patients (30%) had suspected  
 268 pneumonia either at admission or within 48 hours; of these, 7 patients met CDC criteria for  
 269 probable or confirmed pneumonia via post-hoc chart review. When we controlled our outcome  
 270 analysis of lung bacterial DNA burden for the presence of clinically suspected pneumonia, it did  
 271 not meaningfully change either the hazard ratio or significance of the model ( $HR = 0.43$ ,  $P =$   
 272  $0.021$ ). Similarly, controlling for post-hoc adjudicated pneumonia (using CDC criteria) also did  
 273 not influence the predictive power of lung bacterial DNA burden ( $HR = 0.43$ ,  $P = 0.019$ ). We  
 274 thus concluded that lung bacterial burden predicts poor outcomes in mechanically ventilated  
 275 critically ill patients, even when controlled for the presence of suspected or confirmed  
 276 pneumonia.

277

278 We then performed multivariate analysis to determine whether lung bacterial DNA burden is  
 279 independently predictive of poor outcomes. The relationship between increased lung bacterial  
 280 DNA burden and fewer ventilator-free days remained significant when controlled for age,

281 gender, severity of illness (APACHE IV score), the presence of suspected pneumonia, and the  
282 presence of ARDS (HR 0.40, confidence interval 0.18 - 0.86, P = 0.019). We thus concluded  
283 that lung bacterial DNA burden is an independent predictor of poor outcomes in critically ill  
284 patients.

285

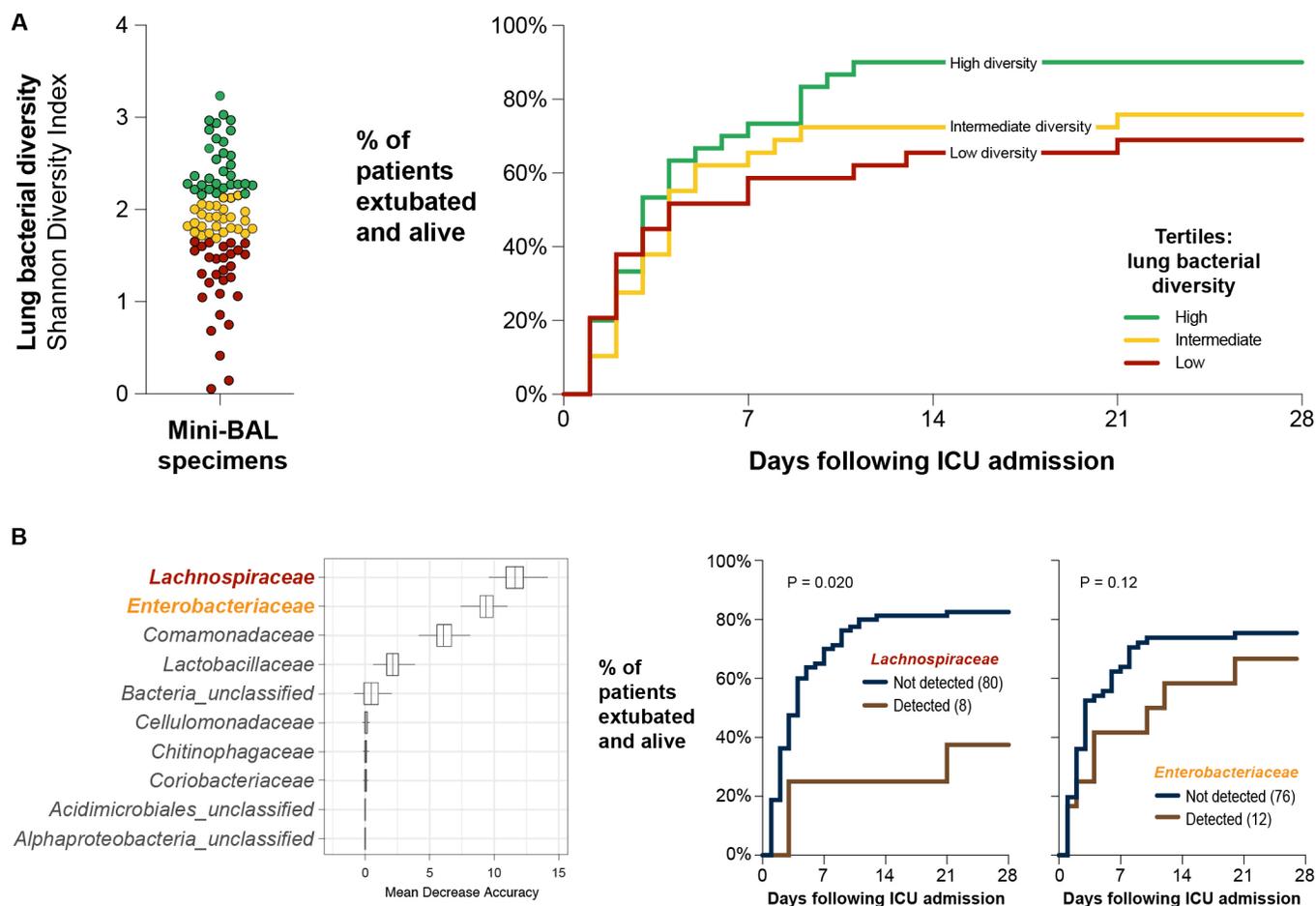
286 We next asked if *bacterial diversity* of lung bacteria predicts ICU outcomes (**Figure 3A**).  
287 Bacterial diversity of lung bacteria (as measured by the Shannon Diversity Index) did not  
288 significantly predict ICU outcomes (P = 0.22). While the most favorable ICU outcomes were  
289 observed among patients with high baseline lung bacterial diversity, followed in stepwise  
290 manner by patients with intermediate and low diversity, this difference in tertiles was not  
291 statistically significant. Other indices of lung bacterial diversity (community richness, community  
292 dominance) were also not significantly predictive of ICU outcomes (ventilator-free days, P >  
293 0.05 for all comparisons, **Appendix Table E2**).

294

295 Finally, we asked if the *community composition* of lung bacteria is predictive of ICU outcomes.

296 We compared patient ventilator-free days with lung bacterial community structure using  
297 *mvabund* (model-based approach to analysis of multivariate abundance data). The overall  
298 community composition of baseline lung microbiota was significantly predictive of patient  
299 ventilator-free days (P = 0.003 at the OTU level of taxonomy, P = 0.004 at the family level).

300 Using *random forest* to identify taxa associated with poor outcomes, we identified the gut-  
301 associated *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* families as the taxa most strongly  
302 predictive of fewer ventilator-free days (**Figure 3B**). We then tested the hypotheses that  
303 detection of these taxa predicts poor outcomes. As shown in **Figure 3B**, detection of the  
304 *Lachnospiraceae* family was significantly predictive of worse ICU outcomes (P = 0.020). The  
305 relationship between *Enterobacteriaceae* detection and ventilator-free days was not significant  
306 (P = 0.12).



**Figure 3.** Lung microbiota and 28-day outcomes in mechanically-ventilated critically ill patients. Community diversity of lung bacteria was highly variable among patients, and did not significantly predict ventilator-free days (A). Community composition of lung bacteria was significantly predictive of ventilator-free days ( $P = 0.003$ , mvabund). Random forest identified the gut-associated *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* families as the strongest predictors of ventilator-free days (B). Hypothesis testing performed using Cox proportional hazard model.

307 We thus concluded that in the lung microbiota of critically ill patients, poor ICU outcomes are  
 308 predicted both by increased bacterial burden and by community composition (specifically,  
 309 enrichment with gut-associated taxa).

310

### 311 Discussion

312 The core finding of this study is that among mechanically ventilated critically ill patients,  
 313 variation in lung microbiota at admission predicts ICU outcomes. Two key features of the lung  
 314 microbiome, bacterial burden and community composition, predicted ventilator-free days.

315 Specifically, increased lung bacterial DNA burden and enrichment of the lung microbiome with

316 gut-associated bacterial taxa (e.g. *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* families) were  
317 predictive of poor ICU outcomes and the clinical diagnosis of ARDS.

318

319 Our study is the first to demonstrate that variation in lung microbiota is predictive of clinical  
320 outcomes in critically ill patients. This key finding is compatible with broader (non-ICU) lung  
321 microbiome studies, which have found that lung microbiota are predictive of disease outcomes  
322 in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis(8, 9), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease(11),  
323 bronchiectasis(10, 12), and infants susceptible to respiratory infections(13). While these  
324 findings, robust across disease states, confirm that the lung microbiome is a risk factor for  
325 disease progression, a crucial and unanswered question is whether lung microbiota are a  
326 *modifiable* risk factor. Animal studies using germ-free and antibiotic-exposed mice suggest that  
327 manipulation of the microbiome does influence host susceptibility to lung inflammation, injury,  
328 and mortality(9, 35). Yet the precise role of gut and lung microbiota in the pathogenesis of acute  
329 and chronic lung injury has yet to be elucidated. Future studies should interrogate whether the  
330 microbiome's role in lung disease is more attributable to remote (gut-lung) or local (lung-lung)  
331 host-microbiome interactions(2).

332

333 Our findings both validate several recent studies and provide new insight into the importance of  
334 the lung microbiome in critical illness. We have previously reported that the lung microbiome is  
335 enriched with gut-associated bacteria in ARDS and correlated with the severity of systemic and  
336 alveolar inflammation(7). In a subsequent study of mechanically ventilated trauma patients, the  
337 presence of gut-associated bacteria in endotracheal aspirates (*Enterobacteriaceae* spp.) was  
338 associated with ARDS onset(15). In our current study, we found that the lung microbiota of  
339 patients with ARDS was distinct from patients without ARDS, again driven by the presence of  
340 gut-associated bacteria (*Enterobacteriaceae* spp.). Indeed, the bacterial taxon most strongly  
341 correlated with ARDS status in our study (OTU0005:*Enterobacteriaceae*) was nearly identical to

342 that of the ARDS-associated bacterial taxon found by Panzer and colleagues(15). These  
343 multiple findings, now robust across cohorts, sequencing platforms, laboratories, and  
344 continents, all provide indirect support for the hypothesis that gut-lung translocation of bacteria  
345 contributes to the pathogenesis of lung injury in critically ill patients.

346

347 Importantly, our core findings remained significant when controlled for the clinical suspicion or  
348 post-hoc adjudication of pneumonia. While this may seem paradoxical (increased lung bacterial  
349 burden predicts poor outcomes, and pneumonia is a condition of high lung bacterial burden),  
350 recent culture-independent studies have revealed both the complexity of lung bacterial  
351 communities in mechanically ventilated patients(14, 16, 36) and the inadequacy of our  
352 conventional understanding of pneumonia(37). The lack of concordance between our molecular  
353 characterization of lung bacteria and clinical assessment of pneumonia likely reflects several  
354 key issues in the microbiology of injured lungs: 1) clinical adjudication of pneumonia, especially  
355 in mechanically ventilated patients, is imprecise and unreliable(38), 2) a dichotomous  
356 adjudication of pneumonia is too simplistic and reductionistic to meaningfully describe the  
357 complex ecologic spectrum of respiratory microbiota, and 3) the lung microbiome may play a  
358 role in the pathogenesis of disease processes not classically considered infectious (e.g.  
359 perpetuating inflammation and injury in ARDS). Our results highlight the need for improved  
360 molecular diagnostics to provide clinicians with a more accurate and comprehensive  
361 assessment of lung microbiota, as well as a more refined ecologic understanding of respiratory  
362 infections in critically ill patients.

363

364 Our study has several limitations that should prompt further validation and study. While we  
365 detected a distinct bacterial signal in our specimens, the bacterial biomass in these cell-free  
366 mini-BAL specimens was low, and in many specimens overlapped with background “sequencing  
367 noise.” Future studies, using larger volumes of whole BAL, may find stronger bacterial signal.

368 Our mini-BAL sampling approach was non-directional; thus the anatomic site of sampling was  
369 not standardized across patients. While our findings remained significant when controlled for  
370 important clinical confounders, we could not control for all potential exposures (e.g. ICU  
371 antibiotic exposure or pre-ICU medications), and residual confounding is likely. Finally, while our  
372 findings provide indirect support for the hypothesis of gut-lung translocation contributing to lung  
373 injury in critically ill patients, our lack of paired gut specimens precludes our determining  
374 whether gut-associated taxa (e.g. *Enterobacteriaceae* and *Lachnospiraceae* spp.) were  
375 derived from the lower gastrointestinal tract or via another route (e.g. aspiration of altered  
376 pharyngeal microbiota). Future prospective studies of critically ill patients, in addition to  
377 sampling the lower respiratory tract, should collect time-matched specimens from the lower and  
378 upper gastrointestinal tract.

379

380 In conclusion, in this prospective observational cohort study of mechanically ventilated critically  
381 ill patients, variation in baseline lung microbiota predicted ICU outcomes. Increased lung  
382 bacterial burden and lung enrichment with gut-associated bacteria were predictive of worse  
383 outcomes. The lung microbiome is an important and understudied source of variation among  
384 critically ill patients, and may represent a novel therapeutic target for the prevention and  
385 treatment of lung injury.

386 **Data availability**

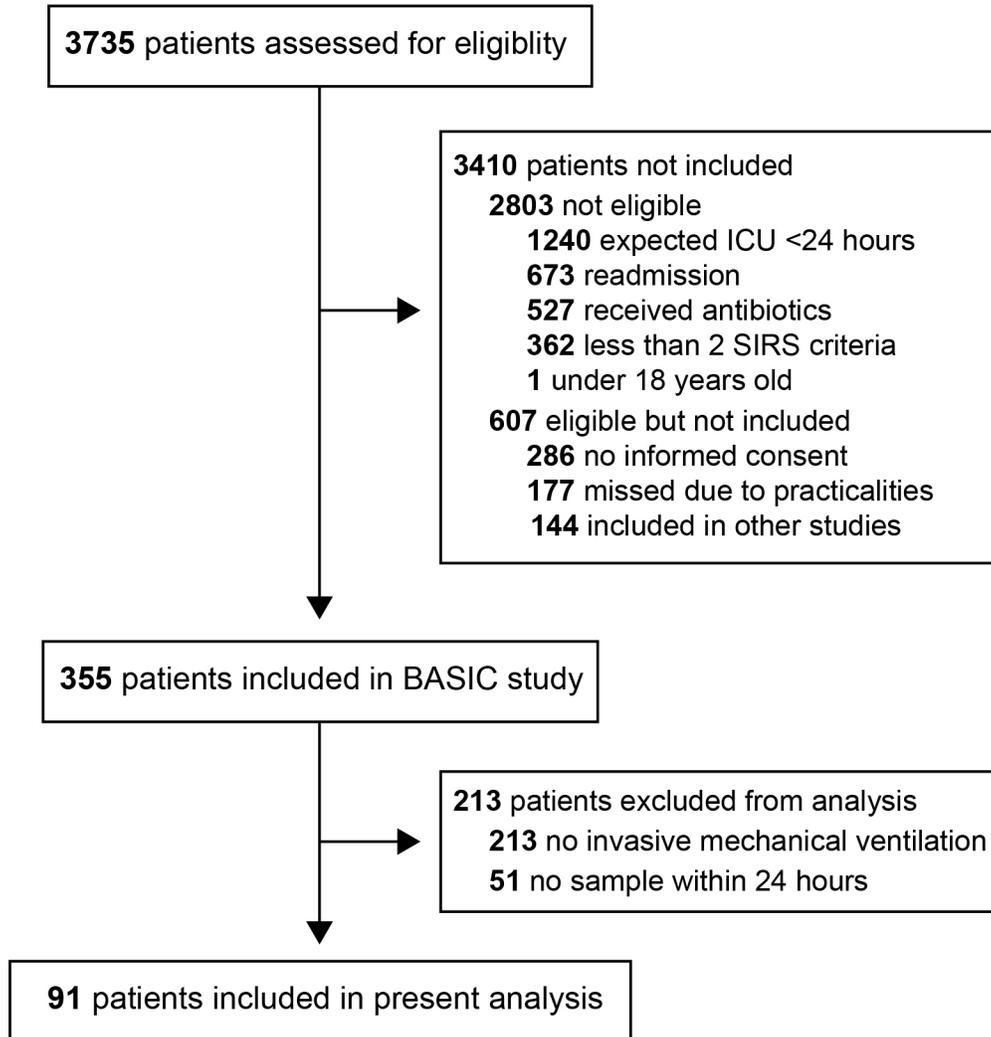
387 Sequences are available via the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (accession number  
388 PRJNA553560). OTU tables, taxonomy classification tables, and metadata tables are available  
389 at [https://github.com/dicksonlunglab/MARS\\_lung\\_microbiome](https://github.com/dicksonlunglab/MARS_lung_microbiome).

390

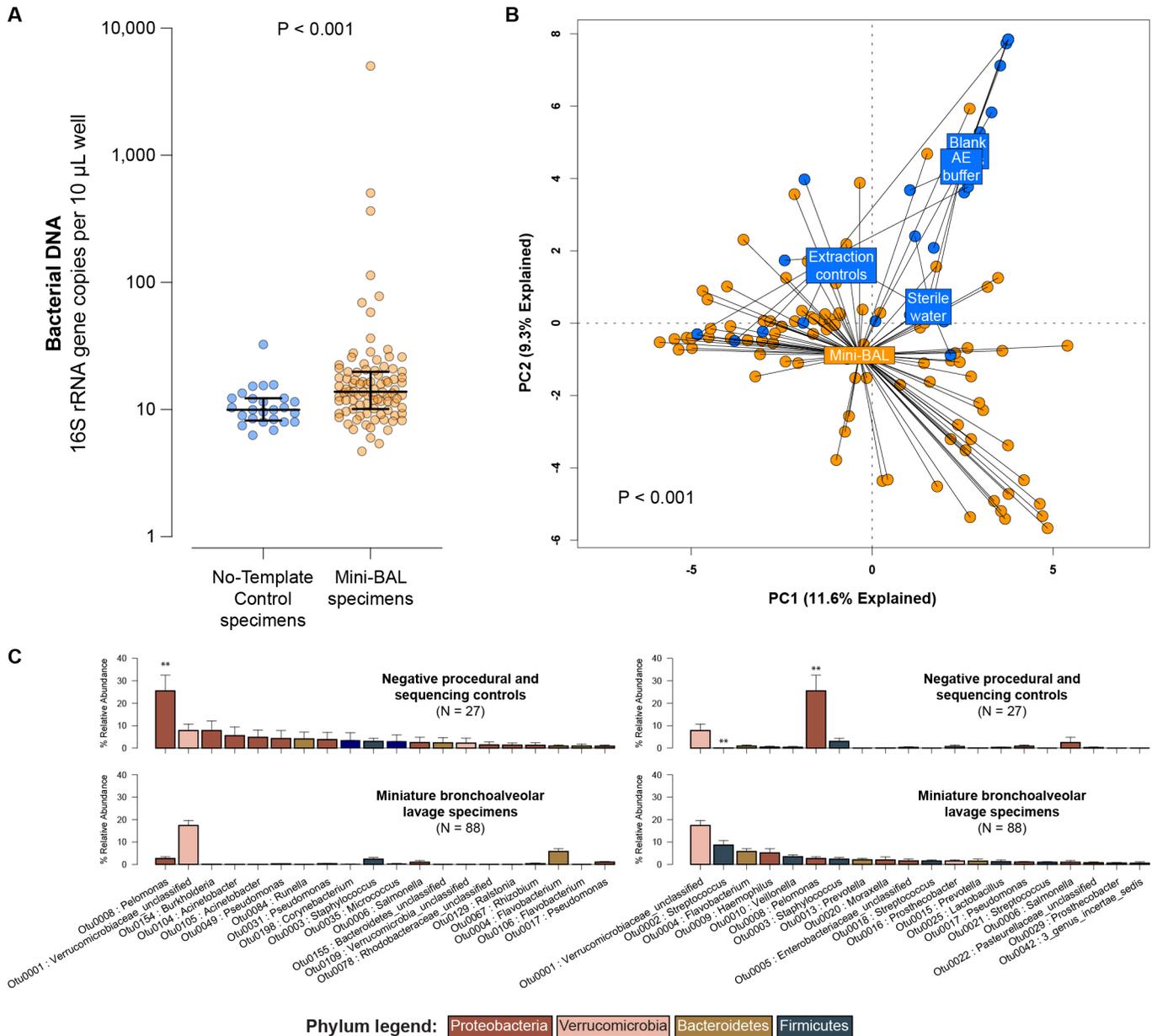
391 **Acknowledgements**

392 The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the  
393 official views of the National Institutes of Health. The authors thank Carolyn Calfee, Ariane  
394 Panzer, and Susan Lynch for sharing the representative sequence of  
395 OTU2119418:*Enterobacteriaceae*.

396



**Supplemental Figure 1.** CONSORT flow diagram of patient screening, inclusion, and analysis. The BASIC study (Biomarker Analysis in Septic Intensive Care patients) was a prospective, observational cohort study, of which the current study is a sub-analysis.



**Supplemental Figure 2.** Evidence of distinct bacterial signal in mini-bronchoalveolar lavage specimens compared to negative control specimens. Bacterial DNA in miniature-bronchoalveolar lavage (mini-BAL) specimens was quantified and identified using droplet digital PCR (A) and 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing (B, C), respectively. (A) The bacterial burden of mini-BAL specimens, while highly variable, was significantly greater than that of negative control specimens. (B) The community composition of bacteria identified in mini-BAL specimens was significantly distinct from that of bacteria detected in negative control specimens. (C) Rank abundance comparison of prominent taxa detected in negative controls (left) and mini-BAL (right) specimens. For each comparison, the twenty most abundant taxa in each group are displayed in decreasing order of relative abundance (mean  $\pm$  SD). Asterisks indicated taxa identified as significantly distinct across groups. Hypothesis testing performed using Mann-Whitney U test (A) and *mvabund* (B,C). A: median and interquartile range. B: mean and standard deviation.

A

Otu0005:Enterobacteriaceae (current study) TACGGAGGGTGAACGCTTAATCGGAATTACTGGCGTAAAGCGCACGACGGCGGTTGTGAGTCTGTAGAGGGGGTGAAGATCCAGGTGTAGCGGTGAAATGCGTAGAGATCTGGAGGAATACCGGTGGCGAAGGCGGCCCTGGACGAAAGCTGACGCTCAGGTGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAACACAGG

Otu2119418:Enterobacteriaceae (Panzer 2018) TACGGAGGGTGAACGCTTAATCGGAATTACTGGCGTAAAGCGCACGACGGCGGTTGTGAGTCTGTAGAGGGGGTGAAGATCCAGGTGTAGCGGTGAAATGCGTAGAGATCTGGAGGAATACCGGTGGCGAAGGCGGCCCTGGACGAAAGCTGACGCTCAGGTGCGAAAGCGTGGGGAGCAACACAGG

B



**Supplemental Figure 3.** (A) In our study, the presence of ARDS was associated with enrichment of an operational taxonomic unit (OTU) classified as *Enterobacteriaceae* (Otu0005, orange). This sequence of bacterial DNA was 96% aligned with an ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU from a prior study of the lung microbiome in critically ill patients (Panzer *AJRCCM* 2018) (Otu2119418, light blue). (B) For each *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU, we identified the 20 most closely-aligned sequences identified via the SILVA database project and compared these OTUs with their neighbors, each other, and other prominent taxa from our data set (classified as *Streptococcus*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Haemophilus*).

**Table E1.** Documented Admission Diagnoses of Study Cohort

Diagnosis	Study cohort (n = 91)
Cardiac arrest	19 (21)
Cerebral vascular accident (ischemic or hemorrhagic)	9 (10)
Pneumonia	7 (8)
Congestive heart failure/cardiomyopathy	6 (7)
Aortic aneurysm (rupture or dissection)	5 (5)
Sepsis	5 (5)
Meningitis	4 (4)
Pulmonary embolism	3 (3)
Bowel perforation	3 (3)
Gastrointestinal hemorrhage	2 (2)
Other	28 (31)

"Other" includes: arrhythmia, cholangitis, elective surgery, hemoptysis, hypoglycemia, obtundation, pyelonephritis, rhabdomyolysis, seizures, soft tissue infection, trauma.

**Table E2.** Diversity Indices as Predictors of Ventilator-Free Days in Mechanically Ventilated Critically Ill Patients

Predictor	Univariate	
	Hazard ratio (CI)	P value
Shannon diversity index*	1.27 (0.87 - 1.86)	0.21
Community richness†	1.01 (0.98 - 1.00)	0.09
Community dominance‡	1.02 (1.00 - 1.04)	0.10

CI = Confidence interval (95%).

\* per 1-unit increase.

† Unique OTUs per 1000 sequences, per OTU

‡ Relative abundance of most dominant OTU, per % relative abundance

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**Online Data Supplement** for “Lung microbiota predict clinical outcomes in critically ill patients”

**Authors:** Robert P. Dickson<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Marcus J. Schultz<sup>4,5</sup>, Tom van der Poll<sup>6</sup>, Laura R. Schouten<sup>4</sup>, Nicole R. Falkowski<sup>1</sup>, Jenna E. Luth<sup>1</sup>, Michael W. Sjoding<sup>1,3,7</sup>, Christopher A. Brown<sup>1</sup>, Rishi Chanderraj<sup>1,8</sup>, Gary B. Huffnagle<sup>1,2</sup>, Lieuwe D. J. Bos<sup>4,9</sup>

**Affiliations:** 1. Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 2. Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 3. Michigan Center for Integrative Research in Critical Care; Ann Arbor, Michigan; 4. Intensive Care, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. 5. Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand: Mahidol-Oxford Tropical Medicine Research Unit (MORU). 6. Centre for experimental and molecular medicine (CEMM), Amsterdam University Medical Center, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. 7. Center for Computational Medicine and Bioinformatics, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 8. Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 9. Department of Respiratory Medicine, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

## 1 **Supplemental Materials and Methods**

### 2 **Specimen processing**

3 Cells were separated via centrifugation (15g for 15 min at 4 °C) and the cell-free supernatant was  
4 frozen at -80 °C for subsequent assays. Cell-free supernatants were subsequently centrifuged  
5 (22,500g for 30 min), and the resulting pellet was used for DNA isolation. Acellular mini-BAL pellets  
6 resuspended in 360µl ATL buffer (Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit). Sterile laboratory water and  
7 AE buffer used in DNA isolation were collected and analyzed as potential sources of contamination,  
8 as were extraction controls (empty isolation tubes) and blank sequencing wells.

9

### 10 **Bacterial DNA isolation**

11 Genomic DNA was extracted from mini-BAL pellets (Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit, Qiagen,  
12 Hilden, Germany) using a modified protocol previously demonstrated to isolate bacterial DNA(1).  
13 Sterile laboratory water and AE buffer used in DNA isolation were collected and analyzed as  
14 potential sources of contamination. Specimens were processed in a randomized order to minimize  
15 the risk of false pattern formation due to reagent contamination(2).

16

### 17 **16s rRNA gene sequencing**

18 The V4 region of the 16s rRNA gene was amplified using published primers(3) and the dual-  
19 indexing sequencing strategy developed by the laboratory of Patrick D. Schloss(4). Sequencing was  
20 performed using the Illumina MiSeq platform (San Diego, CA), using a MiSeq Reagent Kit V2 (500  
21 cycles), according to the manufacturer's instructions with modifications found in the Schloss  
22 SOP(5). Accuprime High Fidelity Taq was used in place of Accuprime Pfx SuperMix. Primary PCR  
23 cycling conditions were 95°C for two minutes, followed by 20 cycles of touchdown PCR (95°C 20  
24 seconds, 60°C 20 seconds and decreasing 0.3 degrees each cycle, 72°C 5 minutes), then 20 cycles

25 of standard PCR (95°C for 20 seconds, 55°C for 15 seconds, and 72°C for 5 minutes), and finished  
26 with 72°C for 10 minutes.

27

### 28 **Bacterial DNA quantification**

29 Bacterial DNA was quantified using a QX200 Droplet Digital PCR System (BioRad, Hercules, CA).

30 Primers and cycling conditions were performed according to a previously published protocol(6).

31 Specifically, primers were 5'- GCAGGCCTAACACATGCAAGTC-3' (63F) and 5'-

32 CTGCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT-3' (355R). The cycling protocol was 1 cycle at 95°C for 5 minutes,

33 40 cycles at 95°C for 15 seconds and 60°C for 1 minute, 1 cycle at 4°C for 5 minutes, and 1 cycle at

34 90°C for 5 minutes all at a ramp rate of 2°C/second. The BioRad C1000 Touch Thermal Cycler was

35 used for PCR cycling. Droplets were quantified using the Bio-Rad Quantisoft software. Two

36 replicates were used per sample. No-template control specimens were used and were run alongside

37 mini-BAL specimens.

38

### 39 **Statistical analysis**

40 Sequence data were processed and analyzed using the software mothur v.1.39.5 according to the

41 Standard Operating Procedure for MiSeq sequence data using a minimum sequence length of 250

42 basepairs(5, 7). For each experiment and sequencing run, a shared community file and a

43 phylotyped (genus-level grouping) file were generated using operational taxonomic units (OTUs)

44 binned at 97% identity generated using the dist.seqs, cluster, make.shared and classify.otu

45 commands in mothur. OTU numbers were arbitrarily assigned in the binning process and are

46 referred to throughout the manuscript in association with their most specified level of taxonomy.

47 Classification of OTUs was carried out using the mothur implementation of the Ribosomal Database

48 Project (RDP) Classifier and the RDP taxonomy training set 14 (Trainset14\_032015.rdp), available

49 on the mothur website. Sequences are available via the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (accession

50 number PRJNA553560. OTU, taxonomy, and metadata tables are available at  
51 [https://github.com/dicksonlunglab/MARS\\_lung\\_microbiome](https://github.com/dicksonlunglab/MARS_lung_microbiome).

52

53 We performed microbial ecology analysis using the *vegan* package 2.4-1 and *mvabund* in *R*(8-10).  
54 For relative abundance and ordination analysis, samples were normalized to the percent of total  
55 reads and we restricted analysis to OTUs that were present at greater than 1% of the sample  
56 population. All OTUs were included in diversity analysis. Direct community similarity comparisons  
57 were performed using the Bray-Curtis similarity index. We performed ordinations using Principal  
58 Component Analysis on Hellinger-transformed normalized OTU tables generated using Euclidean  
59 distances(11). We determined significance of differences in community composition using  
60 PERMANOVA (*adonis*) with 10,000 permutations using Euclidean distances. We performed all  
61 analyses in *R* and GraphPad Prism 6. We compared means via Student's T test and ANOVA with  
62 Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test as appropriate.

63

#### 64 **Adequacy of sequencing and exclusion of specimens**

65 Bacterial community analysis (using 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing) was performed on all  
66 specimens. We obtained 1,690,680 16S rRNA gene copies ( $18,578 \pm 9,139$  reads per specimen).  
67 Three specimens had inadequate amplification (<1000 16S rRNA gene copies) and were excluded  
68 from sequencing analysis (though included in ddPCR analysis). No bacterial taxa were excluded  
69 from analysis.

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**Title:** Lung microbiota predict clinical outcomes in critically ill patients

**Authors:** Robert P. Dickson<sup>1,2,3</sup>, Marcus J. Schultz<sup>4,5</sup>, Tom van der Poll<sup>6</sup>, Laura R. Schouten<sup>4</sup>, Nicole R. Falkowski<sup>1</sup>, Jenna E. Luth<sup>1</sup>, Michael W. Sjoding<sup>1,3,7</sup>, Christopher A. Brown<sup>1</sup>, Rishi Chanderraj<sup>1,8</sup>, Gary B. Huffnagle<sup>1,2</sup>, Lieuwe D. J. Bos<sup>4,9</sup>

**Affiliations:** 1. Division of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 2. Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 3. Michigan Center for Integrative Research in Critical Care; Ann Arbor, Michigan; 4. Intensive Care, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. 5. Mahidol University, Bangkok, Thailand: Mahidol-Oxford Tropical Medicine Research Unit (MORU). 6. Centre for experimental and molecular medicine (CEMM), Amsterdam University Medical Center, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands. 7. Center for Computational Medicine and Bioinformatics, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 8. Division of Infectious Diseases, Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan Medical School, Ann Arbor, Michigan; 9. Department of Respiratory Medicine, Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, University of Amsterdam, Infection and Immunity, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

**Collaborators:** Published on behalf of the BASIC Consortium:

*Amsterdam University Medical Centers, location AMC, Amsterdam, The Netherlands:* de Beer FM, Bos LD, Claushuis TA, Glas GJ, Horn J, Hoogendijk AJ, van Hooijdonk RT, Huson MA, de Jong MD, Juffermans NP, Lagrand WA, van der Poll T, Scicluna B, Schouten LR, Schultz MJ, van der Sluijs KF, Straat M, van Vught LA, Wieske L, Wiewel MA, Witteveen E.

**Corresponding Author Information:**

Robert P. Dickson, MD  
Pulmonary & Critical Care Medicine  
University of Michigan Health System  
6220 MSRB III / SPC 5642  
1150 W. Medical Center Dr.  
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-5642  
rodickso@med.umich.edu  
(734)277-1487 (mobile)  
(734)764-2655 (fax)  
(734)936-9368 (lab)  
(734)936-5010 (administrator)

**Author Contributions:** Conception and design: RPD, LDJB. Acquisition of data: MJS, LRS, TVP, LDJB. Processing of specimens and generation of data: NRF, JEL. Analysis and interpretation of data: RPD, MWS, CAB, RC, LDJB. Drafting or revising of manuscript: RPD, MJS, LRS, TVP, NRF, JEL, MWS, CAB, RC, GBH, LDJB. Final approval of manuscript: RPD, MJS, LRS, TVP, NRF, JEL, MWS, CAB, RC, GBH, LDJB.

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**Running Head:** Lung microbiota predict ICU outcomes

**Descriptor:** 10.9 Pathogen/Host Cell Interactions

**Word Count: 3495**

1 **At a Glance Commentary**

2 **Scientific Knowledge on the Subject**

3 Recent studies have revealed that the lung microbiota of critically ill patients are profoundly  
4 altered and are correlated with alveolar and systemic inflammation. Altered lung microbiota may  
5 propel and perpetuate alveolar inflammation and injury among critically ill patients. Yet to date,  
6 no study has determined whether altered lung microbiota predict disease outcomes in this  
7 population.

8

9 **What This Study Adds to the Field**

10 We here show that among mechanically ventilated critically ill patients, variation in lung  
11 microbiota at admission predicts ICU outcomes. Two key features of the lung microbiome,  
12 bacterial burden and community composition, predict ventilator-free days. Specifically,  
13 increased lung bacterial DNA burden and enrichment of the lung microbiome with gut-  
14 associated bacterial taxa (e.g. *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* families) were  
15 predictive both of poor ICU outcomes and the clinical diagnosis of ARDS. This correlation  
16 between gut-associated bacteria and ARDS validates prior findings, and supports the  
17 hypothesis that translocation of gut bacteria to the lungs contributes to the pathogenesis of lung  
18 injury. Our results confirm the clinical significance of lung microbiota in critically ill patients. The  
19 lung microbiome is an important and underappreciated source of clinical heterogeneity among  
20 the critically ill, and represents a novel therapeutic target for the prevention and treatment of  
21 lung injury.

22 **Abstract**

23 **Rationale:** Recent studies have revealed that in critically ill patients, lung microbiota are altered  
24 and correlate with alveolar inflammation. The clinical significance of altered lung bacteria in  
25 critical illness is unknown.

26 **Objectives:** To determine if clinical outcomes of critically ill patients are predicted by features of  
27 the lung microbiome at the time of admission.

28 **Methods:** We performed a prospective observational cohort study in an intensive care unit  
29 (ICU) at a university hospital. Lung microbiota were quantified and characterized using droplet  
30 digital PCR and bacterial 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Primary predictors were the bacterial  
31 burden, community diversity, and community composition of lung microbiota. The primary  
32 outcome was ventilator-free days, determined at 28 days post admission.

33 **Measurements and Main Results:** Lungs of 91 critically ill patients were sampled using  
34 miniature-bronchoalveolar lavage within 24 hours of ICU admission. Patients with increased  
35 bacterial lung bacterial burden had fewer ventilator-free days (HR 0.43, CI 0.21-0.88), which  
36 remained significant when controlled for pneumonia and severity of illness. The community  
37 composition of lung bacteria predicted ventilator-free days (P=0.003), driven by the presence of  
38 gut-associated bacteria (e.g. *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* spp.). Detection of gut-  
39 associated bacteria was also associated with the presence of the acute respiratory distress  
40 syndrome.

41 **Conclusions:** Key features of the lung microbiome (bacterial burden, enrichment with gut-  
42 associated bacteria) predict outcomes in critically ill patients. The lung microbiome is an  
43 understudied source of clinical variation in critical illness, and represents a novel therapeutic  
44 target for the prevention and treatment of acute respiratory failure.

45 **Body**46 **Introduction**

47 In the past decade, advances in culture-independent microbiology have revealed that the lungs,  
48 previously considered sterile, harbor complex and dynamic communities of bacteria[4](1). Lung  
49 microbiota are detectable in health[2-4](2-4), altered in disease(5, 6)[5-6], and correlate with  
50 variation in airway and alveolar immunity[2, 4, 7](2, 4, 7). In numerous chronic respiratory  
51 diseases, key features of the lung microbiome are predictive of disease outcomes. The burden  
52 of lung bacteria (measured by quantification of bacterial DNA) predicts mortality and disease  
53 progression in stable patients with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis(8, 9)[8, 9]and responsiveness  
54 to inhaled antibiotics in patients with bronchiectasis(10). The diversity of sputum microbiota  
55 predicts mortality in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease(11)[10], and the  
56 community composition of respiratory microbiota predicts exacerbations in bronchiectasis(12)  
57 [11] and respiratory infections in infants(13)[12].

58  
59 The lung microbiota of critically ill patients are profoundly altered compared to those of healthy  
60 subjects(7, 14-16), and correlate with alveolar and systemic inflammation(7, 15). Specifically,  
61 among patients with the acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS), the lung microbiome is  
62 enriched with gut-associated bacteria(7), and early enrichment of the lung microbiome with gut-  
63 associated bacteria (e.g. *Enterobacteriaceae* spp.) is associated with subsequent development  
64 of ARDS(15). Altered lung microbiota may propel and perpetuate alveolar inflammation and  
65 injury among critically ill patients, but to date no study has determined whether altered lung  
66 microbiota predict disease outcomes in this population.

67  
68 To determine if lung microbiota at ICU admission predict clinical outcomes in critically ill  
69 patients, we performed a prospective observational cohort study on critically ill patients  
70 receiving mechanical ventilation. The primary outcome was ventilator-free days, adjudicated at

71 28 days following enrollment. We hypothesized that key features of the lung microbiome  
72 (bacterial burden, diversity, and community composition) would predict ICU outcomes, even  
73 when controlled for the presence of clinically-appreciated pneumonia.

74

## 75 **Methods**

### 76 *Study design*

77 This study was a secondary analysis of specimens collected from patients in the BASIC study  
78 (Biomarker Analysis in Septic ICU patients). This study was incorporated in the Molecular  
79 Diagnosis and Risk Stratification of Sepsis (MARS) project (NCT01905033) (17-20). The  
80 present study was conducted in the ICU of the Academic Medical Center and was approved by  
81 the institutional Medical Ethics committee; written informed consent was obtained from the  
82 patient representative prior to collection of airway samples via miniature bronchoalveolar lavage  
83 (IRB no. NL34294.018.10). Analysis was restricted to baseline specimens and data collected  
84 within 24 hours of admission.

85

### 86 *Study population*

87 All patients older than 18 years admitted to the ICU with an expected length of stay longer than  
88 24 hours were included in the MARS project. The BASIC study comprised a subset of patients  
89 included in the MARS study at the Amsterdam ICU with at least two “systemic inflammatory  
90 response syndrome” criteria, who received no antibiotics in the days preceding ICU admission.  
91 The current analysis is limited to consecutive patients who were included between September  
92 12, 2011, and November 7, 2013, receiving invasive mechanical ventilation and with informed  
93 consent for distal airway sampling. Adjudication of infection was assessed retrospectively using  
94 a four-point scale (ascending from none, possible, probable, to definite) using the Centers for  
95 Disease Control and Prevention and International Sepsis Forum consensus definitions as  
96 previously described(18). ARDS was scored on a daily basis by a team of well-trained clinical

97 researchers according to the American-European consensus criteria. After the publication of the  
98 Berlin definition, all cases were re-evaluated scored according to the new definition, as  
99 described previously(21). [For the purposes of ARDS vs non-ARDS comparisons, we used](#)  
100 [adjudication at 24 hours following ICU admission.](#) Severity of illness was quantified using the  
101 validated APACHE IV (Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Evaluation IV) (22) and SOFA  
102 (Sequential Organ Failure Assessment)(23) models.

103

#### 104 *Specimen collection and processing*

105 Miniature bronchoalveolar lavage specimens were collected using standard clinical protocol. In  
106 short, a 50 cm, 14 Fr tracheal suction catheter was introduced through the orotracheal tube and  
107 inserted until significant resistance was encountered. The catheter was then pulled back 1cm  
108 and 20 mL 0.9% saline was injected in 10 seconds and immediately aspirated, after which the  
109 catheter was removed. Specimens were stored on ice from the time of specimen collection until  
110 processing. DNA was extracted, amplified, and sequenced according to previously published  
111 protocols(24-26). Sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq platform (San Diego,  
112 CA). Bacterial DNA was quantified using a QX200 Droplet Digital PCR System (BioRad,  
113 Hercules, CA). Additional details are provided in the online data supplement.

114

#### 115 *Statistical analysis*

116 As detailed in the online data supplement, we performed microbial ecology analysis using the  
117 *vegan* package 2.4-1 and *mvabund* in R(27-29) following sequence processing with *mothur*(30,  
118 31). We pre-specified that key features of the microbiome (predictors) would be: 1) bacterial  
119 DNA burden (as quantified using droplet digital PCR), 2) bacterial community diversity (as  
120 calculated using the Shannon Diversity Index), and 3) community composition. We determined  
121 significance in community composition (e.g. mini-BAL specimens vs negative sequencing  
122 controls, ARDS vs non-ARDS mini-BAL specimens) using *mvabund* (model-based approach to

123 analysis of multivariate abundance data). To identify community members driving differences in  
124 community composition, we used 1) biplot analysis, 2) rank abundance analysis, and 3) a  
125 random forest ensemble learning approach (*randomForest* package in R, version 4.6-14(32)).  
126 For random forest, we determined variable importance using 100 forests. The importance  
127 parameter was set to TRUE to enable retrieval of importance metrics: mean decrease in  
128 accuracy for classification (ARDS vs. non-ARDS) or IncMSE for regression (ventilator-free  
129 days). Default settings were utilized for all other parameters. Following model creation, the  
130 unscaled feature importance metric was extracted from each forest, assembled into a  
131 dataframe, ordered by highest feature importance, and displayed in boxplots of the most  
132 important features across the 100 forests. Our primary index of feature importance was Mean  
133 Decrease in Accuracy, which ranks predictors by the relative loss in accuracy the occurs when  
134 they are removed from the predictive model. For random forest, we determined variable  
135 importance using 100 forests and default settings for all parameters. We compared means via  
136 Student's T test (when normally distributed), the Mann-Whitney U test (when non-Gaussian),  
137 and ANOVA with Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test as appropriate. Time-to-event analysis  
138 was performed using univariate and multivariate Cox proportional hazard models using  
139 ventilator-free days (adjudicated 28 days following enrollment) as a primary outcome;  
140 multivariate analysis adjusted for age, sex, severity of illness (APACHE IV), diagnosis of ARDS,  
141 and the presence of clinically-suspected pneumonia as determined both by the primary clinical  
142 service and via post-hoc CDC adjudication criteria. The primary outcome was the proportional  
143 hazard ratio for being alive and liberated from mechanical ventilation, as adjudicated 28 days  
144 following admission.

145

#### 146 *Role of the funding source*

147 The funding agencies had no role in the design, conduct, and analysis of the study or in the  
148 decision to submit the manuscript for publication.

149  
150  
151  
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153 M, Geeminne PC, Chalmers JD. Airway Bacterial Load and Inhaled Antibiotic  
154 Response in Bronchiectasis. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2019; 200: 33-41.  
155

156 **Results**157 Study cohort

158 We obtained mini-BAL specimens from 91 critically ill patients within 24 hours of their ICU  
 159 admission. [The consort diagram is shown in the Appendix Figure E1.](#) Patient demographics and  
 160 clinical characteristics are reported in **Table 1.**

161

**Table 1.** Demographics and Clinical Characteristics of Study Cohort

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Study cohort (n = 91)</b>
Mean age (SD), y	60.7 (15.4)
Male	55 (60)
Admission type	
Medical	67 (74)
Surgical (emergency)	20 (22)
Surgical (elective)	4 (4)
Severity of illness	
Mean SOFA (SD)	7.2 (4.1)
Mean APACHE IV (SD)	82.6 (28.5)
Lung injury	
ARDS at admission	17 (19)
Mean PaO <sub>2</sub> :FiO <sub>2</sub> (SD)	262.0 (104.7)
Comorbidities	
Diabetes mellitus	13 (14)
Malignancy	11 (12)
COPD	5 (5)
Immune deficiency	4 (4)
ICU outcomes	
Mean ventilator-free days (SD)	18.5 (10.5)
Mean ICU length of stay, days (SD)	5.6 (4.6)
30-day mortality	27 (30)

SOFA = Sequential Organ Failure Score. APACHE IV = Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Score IV. ARDS = Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Syndrome. Values are numbers (percentages) unless otherwise indicated.

**Table 1.** Demographics and Clinical Characteristics of Study Cohort

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Mean age (SD), y	60.7 (15.4)

Male	55 (60)
Admission-type	
Medical	67 (74)
Surgical (emergency)	20 (22)
Surgical (elective)	4 (4)
Severity-of-illness	
Mean-SOFA (SD)	7.2 (4.1)
Mean-APACHE-IV (SD)	82.6 (28.5)
Lung-injury	
ARDS-at-admission	17 (19)
Mean-PaO <sub>2</sub> :FiO <sub>2</sub> (SD)	262.0 (104.7)
Comorbidities	
COPD	5 (5)
Immune-deficiency	4 (4)
ICU-outcomes	
Mean-ventilator-free-days (SD)	18.5 (10.5)
Mean-ICU-length-of-stay, days (SD)	5.6 (4.6)
30-day-mortality	27 (30)

SOFA = Sequential Organ Failure Score. APACHE-IV = Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Score IV. ARDS = Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome. COPD = Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Syndrome. Values are numbers (percentages) unless otherwise indicated.

162 The distribution of admission diagnoses is reported in **Appendix Table E1**. Bacterial  
163 quantification and 16S rRNA gene sequencing was performed on all specimens. Details  
164 regarding adequacy of sequencing and exclusion of specimens are provided in the online  
165 supplement.  
166  
167 The microbiota of lung specimens from critically ill patients are distinct from those of background  
168 sequencing controls  
169 Low-biomass microbiome studies are vulnerable to contamination due to bacterial DNA present  
170 in reagents used in DNA extraction and library preparation(33). Our study used low-volume  
171 specimens (mini-BAL) from a low-microbial-biomass body site (the lower respiratory tract), and  
172 had their bacterial burden further decreased via a centrifugation step to remove eukaryotic  
173 cells(34). Given these concerns, we first asked whether a bacterial signal could be detected in

174 these mini-BAL specimens that was distinct from that of negative controls. We accomplished  
175 this by comparing the bacterial DNA in mini-BAL specimens with no-template controls (N = 25),  
176 AE buffer specimens (N = 8), sterile water used in DNA extraction (N = 4), extraction control  
177 specimens (N = 9), and blank sequencing wells (N = 6).

178

179 As shown in **Supplemental Figure 42**, we found clear evidence of distinct bacterial signal in  
180 mini-BAL specimens despite their low microbial biomass. Using ultrasensitive quantification of  
181 the bacterial 16S gene (via droplet digital PCR), we found significantly more bacterial DNA in  
182 mini-BAL specimens than in no-template control specimens ( $P < 0.001$ , **Supplemental Figure**  
183 **4A2A**). The median bacterial DNA burden was 21,246 bacterial gene copies per mL (mean  
184 118,411 copies  $\pm$  707,438). We found a wide range of bacterial burden (6,329 - 6,713,947  
185 copies/mL), ranging from comparable to no-template controls to 1000-fold greater than  
186 background. Using bacterial community analysis (16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing), we  
187 confirmed that the identity of bacteria detected in mini-BAL specimens was distinct from that of  
188 negative control specimens ( $P < 0.0001$ , *mvabund*). Principal component analysis revealed  
189 distinct clustering of mini-BAL specimens apart from negative control specimens  
190 (**Supplemental Figure 4B2B**), though overlap did occur between some mini-BAL specimens  
191 and negative controls. Rank abundance analysis showed clear differences in relative  
192 abundance of taxa in negative controls and mini-BAL specimens (**Supplemental Figure 4C2C**).  
193 The dominant taxonomic group in negative controls specimens (OTU008:*Pelomonas*)  
194 comprised 25.5% of bacterial sequences in negative controls, but only 2.6% of sequences in  
195 mini-BAL specimens.

196

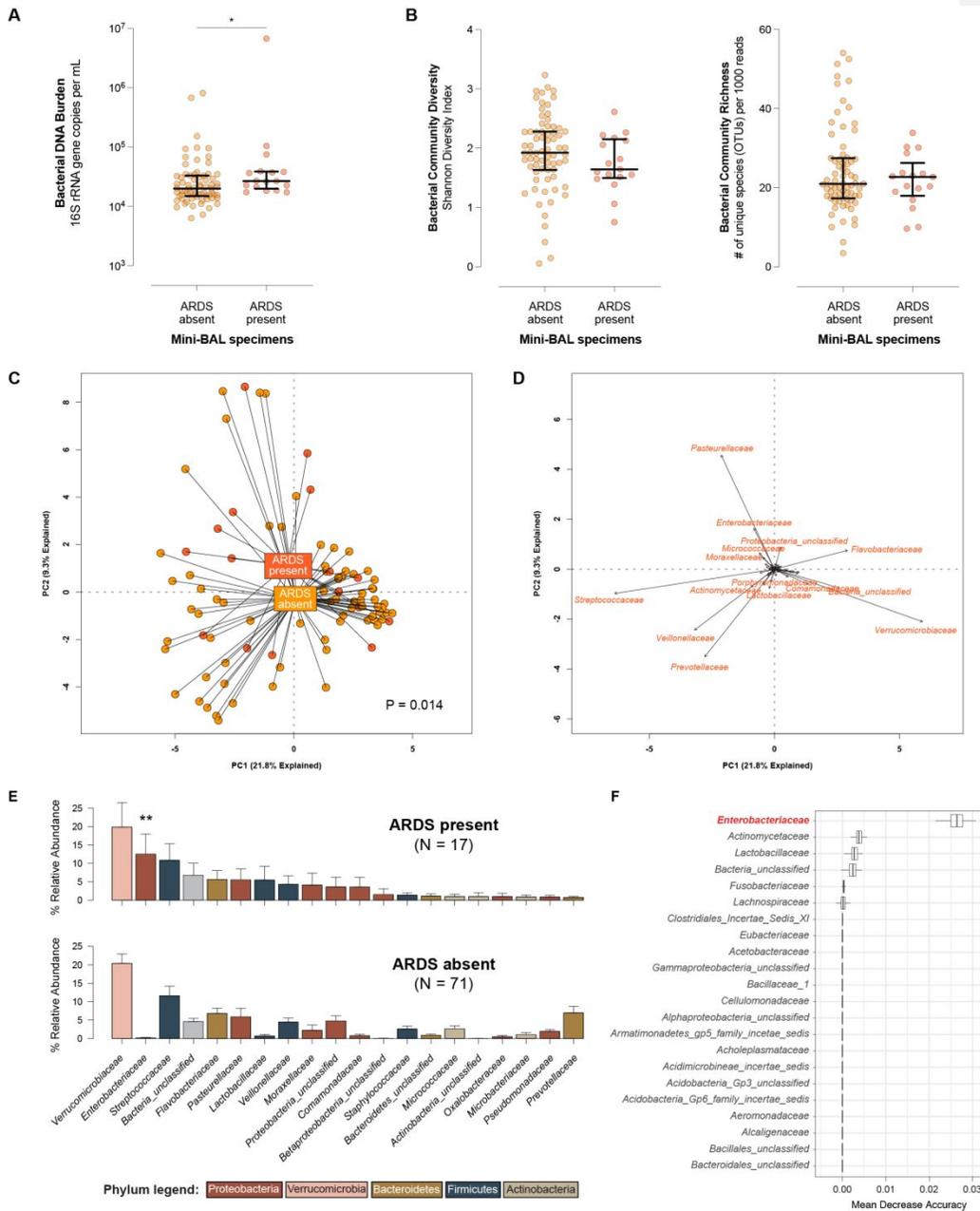
197 We thus concluded that while highly variable in their bacterial DNA burden and susceptibility to  
198 contamination, mini-BAL specimens contained a distinct bacterial signal from negative control  
199 specimens.

200  
201 Lung microbiota of critically ill patients are altered in patients with ARDS and enriched with gut-  
202 associated bacteria (*Enterobacteriaceae* spp.)

203 We next compared the lung microbiota of critically ill patients with and without ARDS. Prior  
204 studies have demonstrated that the lung microbiota of patients with ARDS are altered and  
205 enriched with gut-associated bacteria. We compared lung bacterial communities in patients with  
206 and without physician-adjudicated ARDS. As shown in **Figure 1**, lung bacterial communities of  
207 patients with ARDS differed in the bacterial DNA burden and community composition compared  
208 to patients without ARDS.

209  
210 We first compared ARDS and non-ARDS specimens in their bacterial DNA burden and  
211 community diversity. Though highly variable, the bacterial DNA burden in mini-BAL specimens  
212 was greater in patients with ARDS than without ARDS ( $P = 0.014$ , **Figure 1A**). ARDS  
213 specimens did not differ in bacterial community diversity, either measured via the Shannon  
214 Diversity Index ( $P = 0.13$ ) or community richness ( $P = 0.83$ ) (**Figure 1B**). With both comparisons  
215 (bacterial DNA burden and diversity), within-group variation far exceeded across-group  
216 differences.

217



**Figure 1.** Lung microbiota are altered in patients with the Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome (ARDS). Compared to patients without ARDS, patients with ARDS had increased lung bacterial burden (A) but no difference in community diversity (B). Principal component analysis of bacterial communities (C) revealed that the community composition of lung bacteria was distinct in specimens from ARDS patients (C), driven by members of the Pasteurellaceae and Enterobacteriaceae families (D). Rank abundance analysis (E) identified taxa enriched in ARDS specimens (e.g. Enterobacteriaceae), and Random Forest analysis (F) confirmed that the Enterobacteriaceae family was the most discriminating taxonomic group between ARDS and non-ARDS specimens. Hypothesis testing performed using Mann-Whitney U test (A), Student's t test (B) and mvabund (C, E). A, B: median and interquartile range.

218 We next compared the community composition of bacterial communities in ARDS and non-  
219 ARDS specimens using complementary approaches. We first visualized communities using  
220 principal component analysis (**Figure 1C**). While considerable taxonomic overlap was found  
221 across ARDS and non-ARDS specimens, there was a detectable separation of specimens  
222 according to ARDS status. This collective difference in community composition was confirmed  
223 statistically via *mvabund*, and was robust to taxonomic level of comparison ( $P = 0.014$  at the  
224 OTU level of taxonomy,  $P = 0.013$  at the family level,  $P = 0.003$  at the phylum level). We next  
225 used biplot analysis to identify specific taxa responsible for this collective difference in  
226 community composition (**Figure 1D**). Whereas clusters of non-ARDS specimens were defined  
227 by bacterial taxa commonly detected in healthy lungs (*Streptococcaceae* spp., *Veillonellaceae*  
228 spp., and *Prevotellaceae* spp.) and taxa detected in negative sequencing control specimens  
229 (*Verrucomicrobiaceae* spp., *Flavobacteriaceae* spp.), ARDS specimens were more commonly  
230 characterized by *Pasteurellaceae* spp. and *Enterobacteriaceae* spp..

231  
232 We then used complementary techniques to identify ARDS-associated bacterial taxa. Using  
233 rank abundance visualization (**Figure 1E**), we compared the relative abundance of prominent  
234 taxa across ARDS and non-ARDS specimens. While many taxa were common to both group,  
235 the *Enterobacteriaceae* family was far more abundant ARDS specimens compared to non-  
236 ARDS specimens (12.5% of all bacterial sequences in ARDS specimens compared to 0.18% of  
237 all bacterial specimens in non-ARDS specimens). We used unbiased regression-based  
238 (*mvabund*) and ensemble-learning (*random forest*) approaches to identify ARDS-enriched taxa.  
239 *Mvabund*, which rigorously controls for multiple comparisons, identified the *Enterobacteriaceae*  
240 family as enriched in ARDS specimens ( $P = 0.002$ ). *Random forest* clearly identified the  
241 *Enterobacteriaceae* family as the most important taxonomic feature discriminating ARDS from  
242 non-ARDS specimens (**Figure 1F**).

243

244 We next compared our ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* taxonomic group with that of an  
245 ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* taxon in a recently published study of  
246 mechanically ventilated trauma patients(15). We compared the most prominent  
247 *Enterobacteriaceae*-classified OTU in our data set (OTU0005, comprising 61.5% of all  
248 *Enterobacteriaceae*-classified sequences) with the ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae*  
249 identified by Panzer et al. (OTU2119418). As shown in **Supplemental Figure 2A3A**, the  
250 representative sequence of our study's ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU was 96%  
251 aligned with that of the ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU identified by Panzer et al.,  
252 differing in only 3 base pairs. We compared these ARDS-associated OTUs with the taxonomic  
253 classifications of closely-aligned sequences from the SILVA ribosomal RNA database. As  
254 shown in in **Supplemental Figure 2B3B**, both OTUs were exclusively identical to  
255 *Enterobacteriaceae*-classified taxa, including *Escherichia coli*, *Enterobacter* spp., and *Klebsiella*  
256 *pneumoniae*.

257  
258 We thus concluded that the lung microbiota of patients with ARDS differ from those of critically  
259 ill patients without ARDS, driven by relative enrichment with gut-associated *Enterobacteriaceae*  
260 spp..

#### 262 Lung microbiota are predictive of clinical outcomes in critically ill patients

263 We next asked if key features of the lung microbiome (*bacterial burden*, *diversity*, and  
264 *community composition*) predict clinical outcomes in critically ill patients. Our primary outcome  
265 was ventilator-free days measured at 28 days following admission.

266  
267 We first asked if *bacterial burden* of mini-BAL specimens (quantified using ddPCR of the 16S  
268 rRNA gene) predicted ICU outcomes (**Table 2**). Using univariate analysis, we found that  
269 increased baseline lung bacterial DNA burden predicted fewer ventilator-free days, either when

270 analyzed continuously (hazard ratio 0.43, confidence interval 0.21 - 0.88, P = 0.022) or when  
 271 comparing tertiles defined by total lung bacterial DNA burden. In other words, for each  
 272 additional 10-fold increase in lung bacterial DNA, the Hazard Ratio for favorable outcome  
 273 (liberation from mechanical ventilation) was 0.43. As shown in **Figure 2**, the tertile of patients  
 274 with the highest baseline lung bacterial DNA burden were less likely to be extubated and alive at  
 275 7, 14, 21, and 28 days compared to patients with low bacterial DNA burden (HR 0.45,  
 276 confidence interval 0.25 - 0.81, P = 0.008).

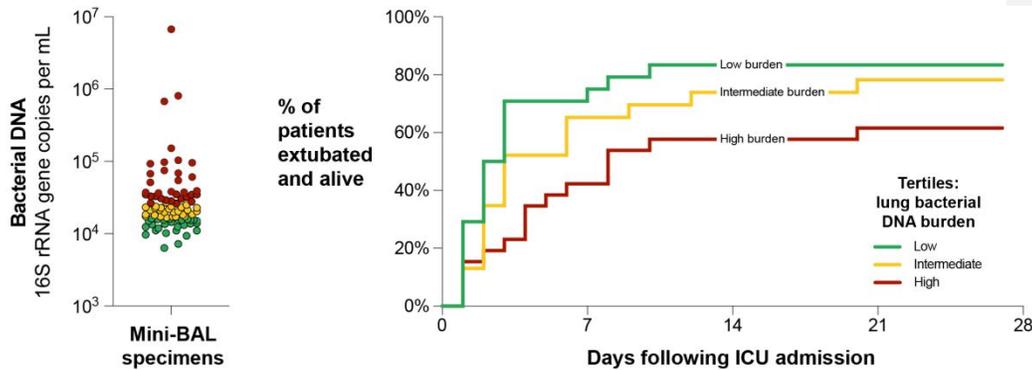
**Table 2.** Predictors of Ventilator-Free Days in Mechanically Ventilated Critically Ill Patients

Predictor	Univariate		Multivariate	
	Hazard ratio (CI)	P value	Hazard ratio (CI)	P value
Lung bacterial DNA burden (continuous)	0.43 (0.21 - 0.88)	0.022	0.40 (0.18 - 0.86)	0.019
Lung bacterial DNA burden: middle tertile*	0.87 (0.50 - 1.51)	0.62		
Lung bacterial DNA burden: highest tertile*	0.45 (0.25 - 0.81)	0.008		
Shannon diversity index†	1.27 (0.87 - 1.86)	0.21		
Age (years)	0.99 (0.98 - 1.01)	0.35	1.01 (0.99 - 1.03)	0.32
Gender (male)	1.26 (0.78 - 2.03)	0.35	0.90 (0.54 - 1.49)	0.68
SOFA	0.95 (0.90 - 1.01)	0.10		
APACHE IV	0.98 (0.98 - 0.99)	<0.001	0.98 (0.97 - 0.99)	<0.001
Suspected pneumonia	1.01 (0.60 - 1.70)	0.96	0.90 (0.53 - 1.55)	0.71
Pneumonia (post-hoc, CDC criteria)	0.48 (0.18 - 1.33)	0.16		
ARDS	0.51 (0.27 - 0.98)	0.044	0.61 (0.31 - 1.21)	0.16

CI = Confidence interval (95%). SOFA = Sequential Organ Failure Score. APACHE IV = Acute Physiology and Chronic Health Score IV. ARDS = Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome.

\*Versus lowest tertile.

†Shannon diversity index, per 1-unit increase



**Figure 2.** Lung microbiota predict 28-day outcomes in mechanically-ventilated critically ill patients. In critically ill patients receiving mechanical ventilation, the burden of bacterial DNA detected in mini-BAL specimens was predictive of total ventilator-free days. Patients with high lung burdens of bacterial DNA were less likely to be extubated and alive than patients with low bacterial DNA burden ( $P = 0.008$ ). Hypothesis testing performed using univariate Cox proportional hazard modeling.

278 Pneumonia is common among mechanically ventilated patients, and a potential source of  
 279 confounding in lung microbiome studies. In our study cohort, 27 patients (30%) had suspected  
 280 pneumonia either at admission or within 48 hours; of these, 7 patients met CDC criteria for  
 281 probable or confirmed pneumonia via post-hoc chart review. When we controlled our outcome  
 282 analysis of lung bacterial DNA burden for the presence of clinically suspected pneumonia, it did  
 283 not meaningfully change either the hazard ratio or significance of the model ( $HR = 0.43$ ,  $P =$   
 284  $0.021$ ). Similarly, controlling for post-hoc adjudicated pneumonia (using CDC criteria) also did  
 285 not influence the predictive power of lung bacterial DNA burden ( $HR = 0.43$ ,  $P = 0.019$ ). We  
 286 thus concluded that lung bacterial burden predicts poor outcomes in mechanically ventilated  
 287 critically ill patients, even when controlled for the presence of suspected or confirmed  
 288 pneumonia.

289

290 We then performed multivariate analysis to determine whether lung bacterial DNA burden is  
 291 independently predictive of poor outcomes. The relationship between increased lung bacterial  
 292 DNA burden and fewer ventilator-free days remained significant when controlled for age,

293 ~~gender, severity of illness (APACHE IV score), the presence of suspected pneumonia, and the~~  
294 ~~presence of ARDS (HR 0.40, confidence interval 0.18 - 0.86, P = 0.019). We thus concluded~~  
295 ~~that lung bacterial DNA burden is an independent predictor of poor outcomes in critically ill~~  
296 ~~patients.~~

297

298 We next asked if *bacterial diversity* of lung bacteria predicts ICU outcomes (**Figure 3A**).  
299 Bacterial diversity of lung bacteria (as measured by the Shannon Diversity Index) did not  
300 significantly predict ICU outcomes (P = 0.22). While the most favorable ICU outcomes were  
301 observed among patients with high baseline lung bacterial diversity, followed in stepwise  
302 manner by patients with intermediate and low diversity, this difference in tertiles was not  
303 statistically significant. Other indices of lung bacterial diversity (community richness, community  
304 dominance) were also not significantly predictive of ICU outcomes (ventilator-free days, P >  
305 0.05 for all comparisons, **Appendix Table E4E2**).

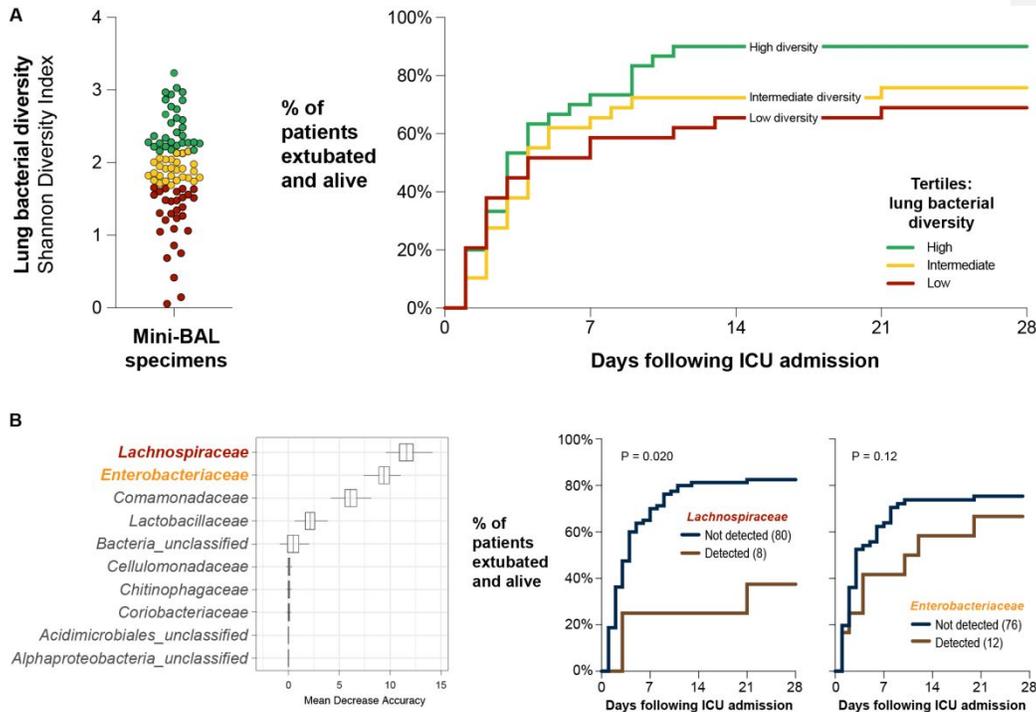
306

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~~311 presence of ARDS (HR 0.40, confidence interval 0.18 - 0.86, P = 0.019). We thus concluded~~  
~~312 that lung bacterial DNA burden is an independent predictor of poor outcomes in critically ill~~  
~~313 patients.~~

314

315 Finally, we asked if the *community composition* of lung bacteria is predictive of ICU outcomes.  
316 We compared patient ventilator-free days with lung bacterial community structure using  
317 *mvabund* (model-based approach to analysis of multivariate abundance data). The overall  
318 community composition of baseline lung microbiota was significantly predictive of patient

319 ventilator-free days ( $P = 0.003$  at the OTU level of taxonomy,  $P = 0.004$  at the family level).  
320 Using *random forest* to identify taxa associated with poor outcomes, we identified the gut-  
321 associated *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* families as the taxa most strongly  
322 predictive of fewer ventilator-free days (**Figure 3B**). We then tested the hypotheses that  
323 detection of these taxa predicts poor outcomes. As shown in **Figure 3B**, detection of the  
324 *Lachnospiraceae* family was significantly predictive of worse ICU outcomes ( $P = 0.020$ ). The  
325 relationship between *Enterobacteriaceae* detection and ventilator-free days was not significant  
326 ( $P = 0.12$ ).



**Figure 3.** Lung microbiota and 28-day outcomes in mechanically-ventilated critically ill patients. Community diversity of lung bacteria was highly variable among patients, and did not significantly predict ventilator-free days (A). Community composition of lung bacteria was significantly predictive of ventilator-free days ( $P = 0.003$ , mvabund). Random forest identified the gut-associated *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* families as the strongest predictors of ventilator-free days (B). Hypothesis testing performed using Cox proportional hazard model.

327 We thus concluded that in the lung microbiota of critically ill patients, poor ICU outcomes are  
 328 predicted both by increased bacterial burden and by community composition (specifically,  
 329 enrichment with gut-associated taxa).

330

### 331 Discussion

332 The core finding of this study is that among mechanically ventilated critically ill patients,  
 333 variation in lung microbiota at admission predicts ICU outcomes. Two key features of the lung  
 334 microbiome, bacterial burden and community composition, predicted ventilator-free days.  
 335 Specifically, increased lung bacterial DNA burden and enrichment of the lung microbiome with

336 gut-associated bacterial taxa (e.g. *Lachnospiraceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* families) were  
337 predictive of poor ICU outcomes and the clinical diagnosis of ARDS.

338

339 Our study is the first to demonstrate that variation in lung microbiota is predictive of clinical  
340 outcomes in critically ill patients. This key finding is compatible with broader (non-ICU) lung  
341 microbiome studies, which have found that lung microbiota are predictive of disease outcomes  
342 in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis(8, 9), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease(11),  
343 bronchiectasis(10, 12), and infants susceptible to respiratory infections(13). While these  
344 findings, robust across disease states, confirm that the lung microbiome is a risk factor for  
345 disease progression, a crucial and unanswered question is whether lung microbiota are a  
346 *modifiable* risk factor. Animal studies using germ-free and antibiotic-exposed mice suggest that  
347 manipulation of the microbiome does influence host susceptibility to lung inflammation, injury,  
348 and mortality(9, 35). Yet the precise role of gut and lung microbiota in the pathogenesis of acute  
349 and chronic lung injury has yet to be elucidated. Future studies should interrogate whether the  
350 microbiome's role in lung disease is more attributable to remote (gut-lung) or local (lung-lung)  
351 host-microbiome interactions(2).

352

353 Our findings both validate several recent studies and provide new insight into the importance of  
354 the lung microbiome in critical illness. We have previously reported that the lung microbiome is  
355 enriched with gut-associated bacteria in ARDS and correlated with the severity of systemic and  
356 alveolar inflammation(7). In a subsequent study of mechanically ventilated trauma patients, the  
357 presence of gut-associated bacteria in endotracheal aspirates (*Enterobacteriaceae* spp.) was  
358 associated with ARDS onset(15). In our current study, we found that the lung microbiota of  
359 patients with ARDS was distinct from patients without ARDS, again driven by the presence of  
360 gut-associated bacteria (*Enterobacteriaceae* spp.). Indeed, the bacterial taxon most strongly  
361 correlated with ARDS status in our study (OTU0005:*Enterobacteriaceae*) was nearly identical to

362 that of the ARDS-associated bacterial taxon found by Panzer and colleagues(15). These  
363 multiple findings, now robust across cohorts, sequencing platforms, laboratories, and  
364 continents, all provide indirect support for the hypothesis that gut-lung translocation of bacteria  
365 contributes to the pathogenesis of lung injury in critically ill patients.

366  
367 Importantly, our core findings remained significant when controlled for the clinical suspicion or  
368 post-hoc adjudication of pneumonia. While this may seem paradoxical (increased lung bacterial  
369 burden predicts poor outcomes, and pneumonia is a condition of high lung bacterial burden),  
370 recent culture-independent studies have revealed both the complexity of lung bacterial  
371 communities in mechanically ventilated patients(14, 16, 36) and the inadequacy of our  
372 conventional understanding of pneumonia(37). The lack of concordance between our molecular  
373 characterization of lung bacteria and clinical assessment of pneumonia likely reflects several  
374 key issues in the microbiology of injured lungs: 1) clinical adjudication of pneumonia, especially  
375 in mechanically ventilated patients, is imprecise and unreliable(38), 2) a dichotomous  
376 adjudication of pneumonia is too simplistic and reductionistic to meaningfully describe the  
377 complex ecologic spectrum of respiratory microbiota, and 3) the lung microbiome may play a  
378 role in the pathogenesis of disease processes not classically considered infectious (e.g.  
379 perpetuating inflammation and injury in ARDS). Our results highlight the need for improved  
380 molecular diagnostics to provide clinicians with a more accurate and comprehensive  
381 assessment of lung microbiota, as well as a more refined ecologic understanding of respiratory  
382 infections in critically ill patients.

383  
384 Our study has several limitations that should prompt further validation and study. While we  
385 detected a distinct bacterial signal in our specimens, the bacterial biomass in these cell-free  
386 mini-BAL specimens was low, and in many specimens overlapped with background "sequencing  
387 noise." Future studies, using larger volumes of whole BAL, ~~will likely find even may find~~ stronger

388 bacterial signal. Our mini-BAL sampling approach was non-directional; thus the anatomic site of  
389 sampling was not standardized across patients. While our findings remained significant when  
390 controlled for important clinical confounders, we could not control for all potential exposures  
391 (e.g. ICU antibiotic exposure or pre-ICU medications), and residual confounding is likely. Finally,  
392 while our findings provide indirect support for the hypothesis of gut-lung translocation  
393 contributing to lung injury in critically ill patients, our lack of paired gut specimens precludes our  
394 determining whether gut-associated taxa (e.g. *Enterobacteriaceae* and *Lachnospiraceae* spp.)  
395 were derived from the lower gastrointestinal tract or via another route (e.g. aspiration of altered  
396 pharyngeal microbiota). Future prospective studies of critically ill patients, in addition to  
397 sampling the lower respiratory tract, should collect time-matched specimens from the lower and  
398 upper gastrointestinal tract.

399

400 In conclusion, in this prospective observational cohort study of mechanically ventilated critically  
401 ill patients, variation in baseline lung microbiota predicted ICU outcomes. Increased lung  
402 bacterial burden and lung enrichment with gut-associated bacteria were predictive of worse  
403 outcomes. The lung microbiome is an important and understudied source of variation among  
404 critically ill patients, and may represent a novel therapeutic target for the prevention and  
405 treatment of lung injury.

406 **Data availability**

407 Sequences are available via the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (accession number  
408 PRJNA553560). OTU tables, taxonomy classification tables, and metadata tables are available  
409 at [https://github.com/dicksonlunglab/MARS\\_lung\\_microbiome](https://github.com/dicksonlunglab/MARS_lung_microbiome).

410

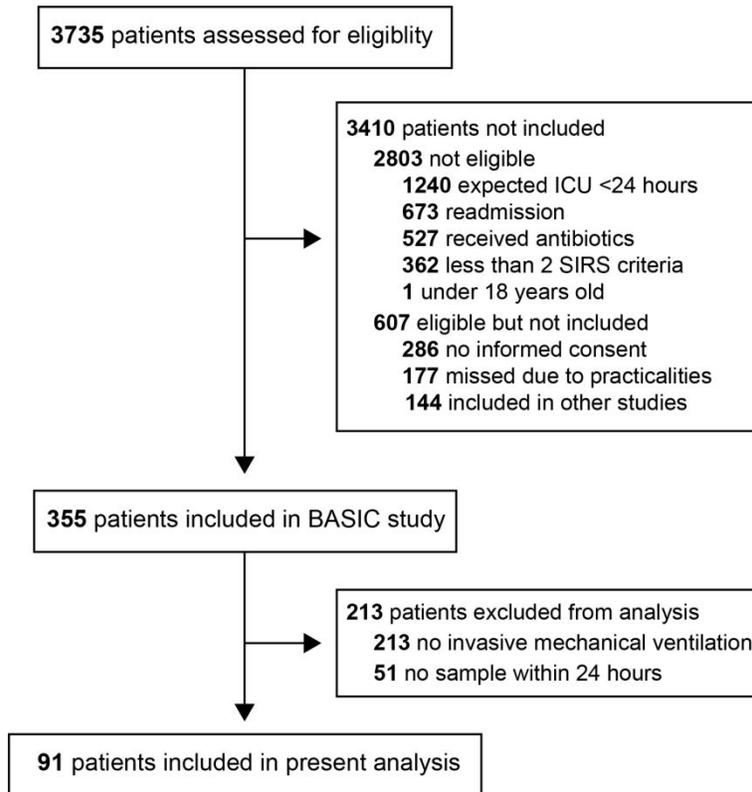
411 **Acknowledgements**

412 The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the

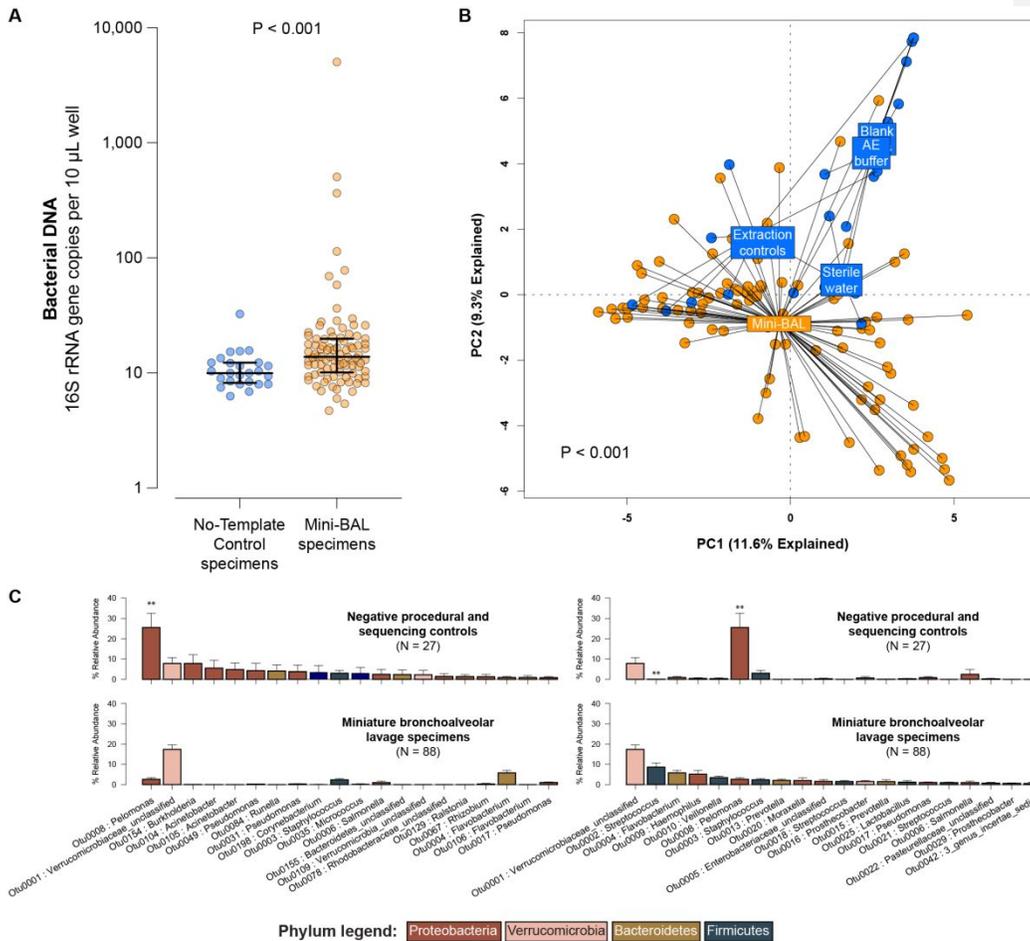
413 official views of the National Institutes of Health. [The authors thank Carolyn Calfee, Ariane](#)

414 [Panzer, and Susan Lynch for sharing the representative sequence of](#)

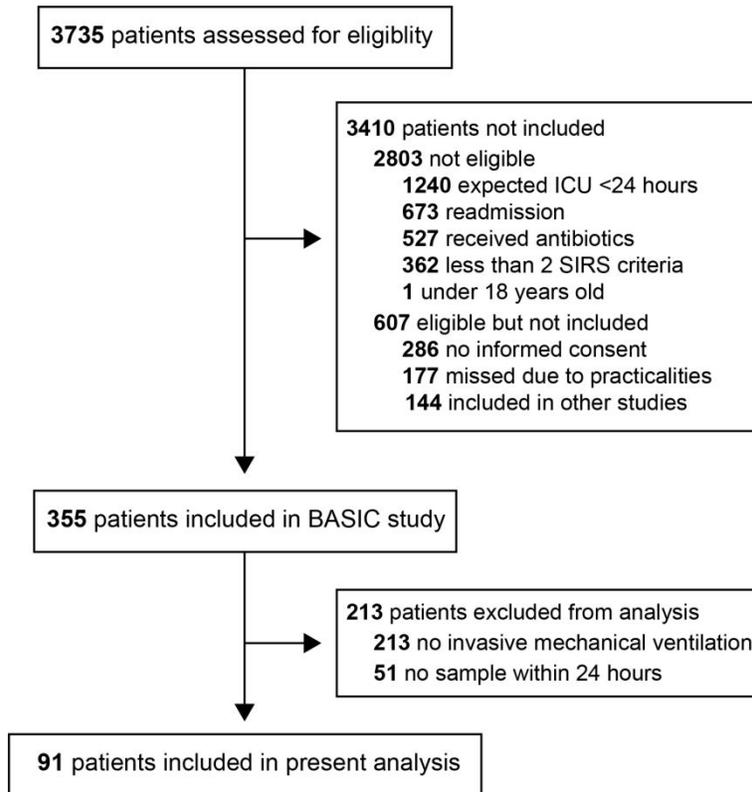
415 [OTU2119418:Enterobacteriaceae](#).



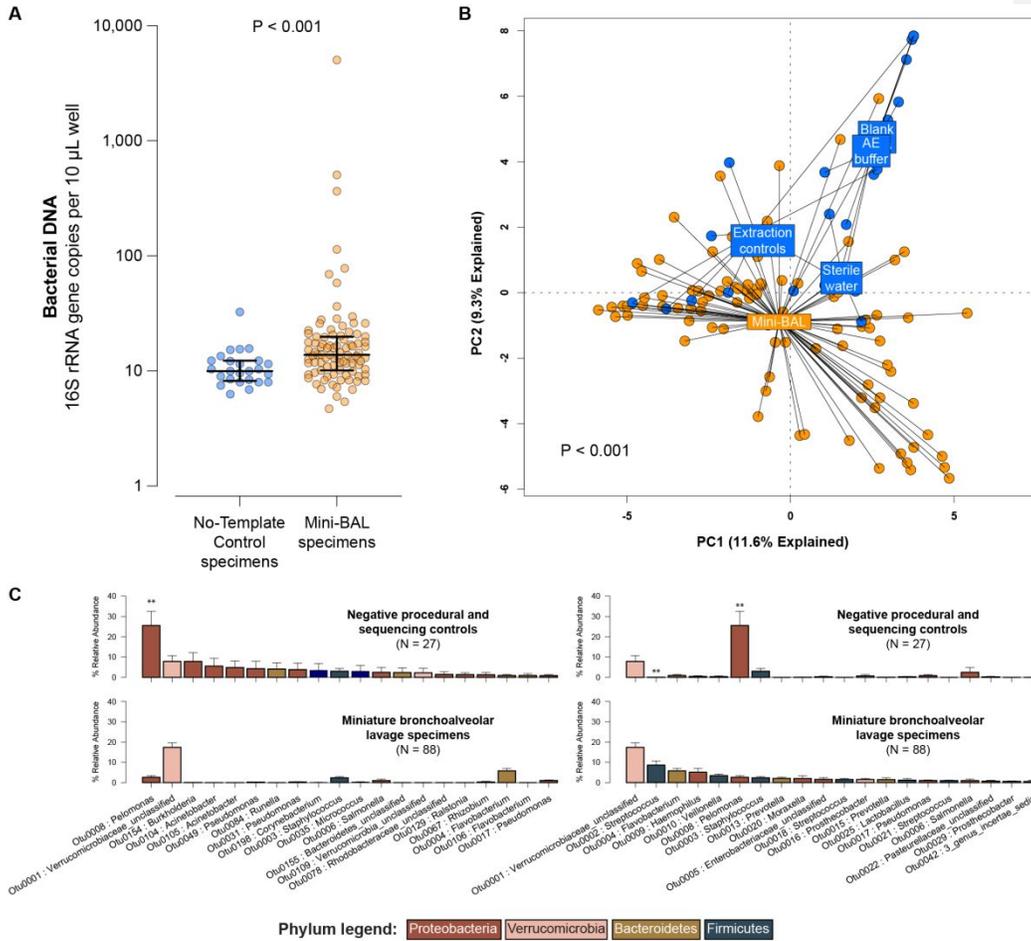
**Supplemental Figure 1.** CONSORT flow diagram of patient screening, inclusion, and analysis. The BASIC study (Biomarker Analysis in Septic Intensive Care patients) was a prospective, observational cohort study, of which the current study is a sub-analysis.



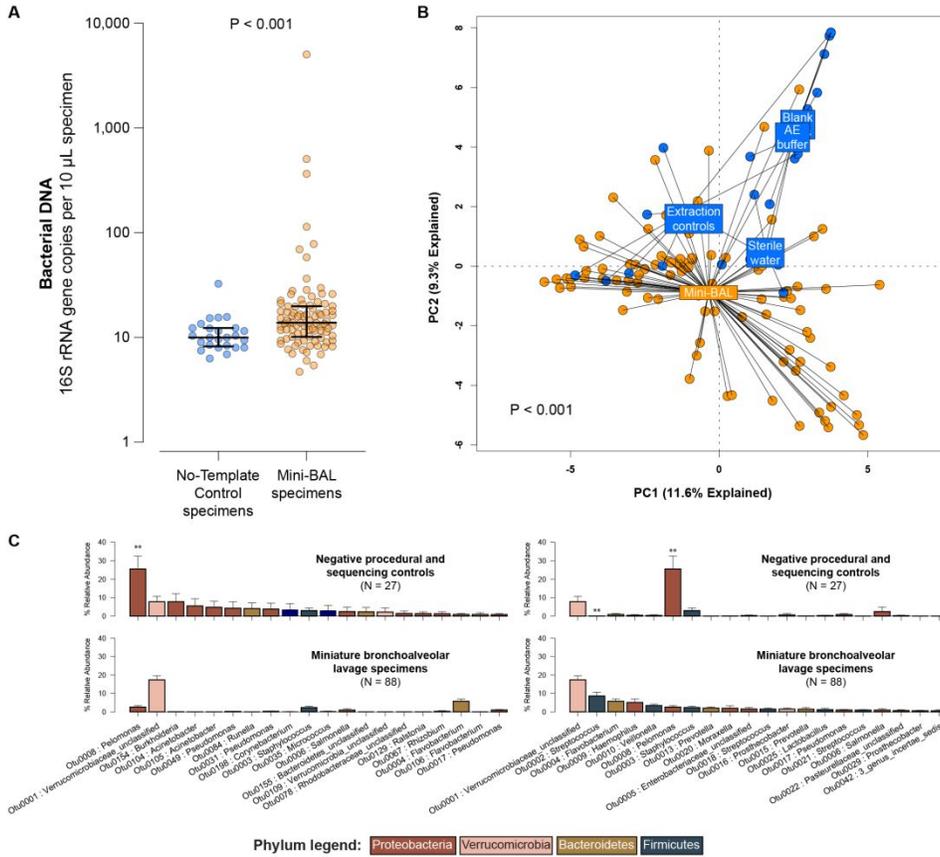
**Supplemental Figure 2.** Evidence of distinct bacterial signal in mini-bronchoalveolar lavage specimens compared to negative control specimens. Bacterial DNA in miniature-bronchoalveolar lavage (mini-BAL) specimens was quantified and identified using droplet digital PCR (A) and 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing (B, C), respectively. (A) The bacterial burden of mini-BAL specimens, while highly variable, was significantly greater than that of negative control specimens. (B) The community composition of bacteria identified in mini-BAL specimens was significantly distinct from that of bacteria detected in negative control specimens. (C) Rank abundance comparison of prominent taxa detected in negative controls (left) and mini-BAL (right) specimens. For each comparison, the twenty most abundant taxa in each group are displayed in decreasing order of relative abundance (mean  $\pm$  SD). Asterisks indicated taxa identified as significantly distinct across groups. Hypothesis testing performed using Mann-Whitney U test (A) and *mvabund* (B,C). A: median and interquartile range. B: mean and standard deviation.



**Supplemental Figure 1.** CONSORT flow diagram of patient screening, inclusion, and analysis. The BASIC study (Biomarker Analysis in Septic Intensive Care patients) was a prospective, observational cohort study, of which the current study is a sub-analysis.



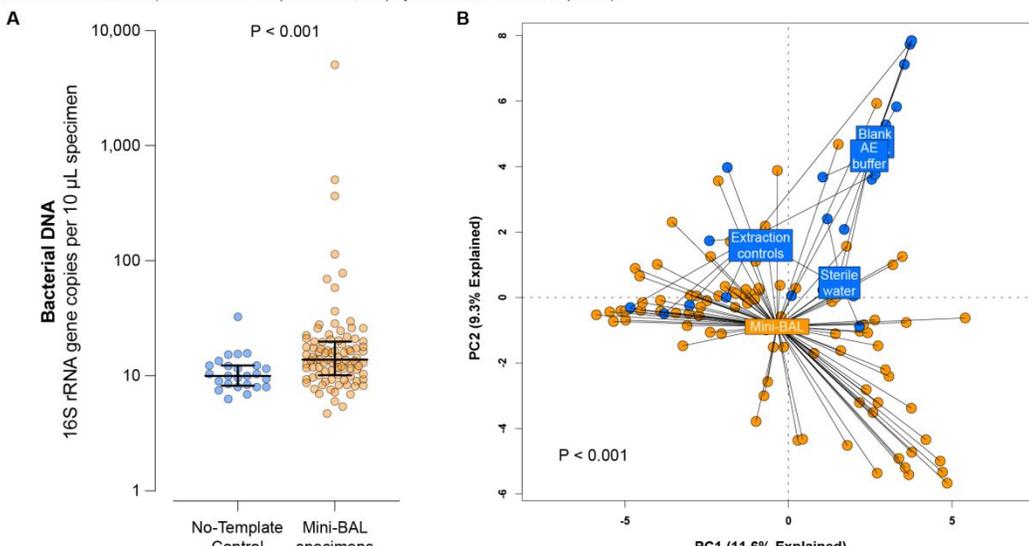
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**Figure 2.** (A) In our study, the presence of ARDS was associated with enrichment of an operational taxonomic unit (OTU) classified as *Enterobacteriaceae* (Otu0005, orange). This bacterial DNA was 96% aligned with an ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU from a prior study of the lung microbiome in critically ill patients (Panzer *AJRCCM* 2018) (Otu2119418). For each *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU, we identified the 20 most closely-aligned sequences identified via the SILVA database project and compared these OTUs with their neighbors, each of the most prominent taxa from our data set (classified as *Streptococcus*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Haemophilus*).



**Table E1.** Diversity Indices as Predictors of Ventilator-Free Days in Mechanically Ventilated Critically Ill Patients

Predictor	Univariate	
	Hazard ratio (CI)	P value
Shannon diversity index <sup>‡</sup>	1.27 (0.87–1.86)	0.21
Community richness <sup>‡</sup>	1.01 (0.98–1.00)	0.09
Community dominance <sup>‡</sup>	1.02 (1.00–1.04)	0.10

CI = Confidence interval (95%).

<sup>‡</sup>per 1-unit increase.

<sup>‡</sup>Unique OTUs per 1000 sequences, per OTU

<sup>‡</sup>Relative abundance of most dominant OTU, per % relative abundance



**Supplemental Figure 2.** (A) In our study, the presence of ARDS was associated with enrichment of an operational taxonomic unit (OTU) classified as *Enterobacteriaceae* (Otu0005, orange). This sequence of bacterial DNA was 96% aligned with an ARDS-associated *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU from a prior study of the lung microbiome in critically ill patients (Panzer *AJRCCM* 2018) (Otu2119418, light blue). (B) For each *Enterobacteriaceae* OTU, we identified the 20 most closely-aligned sequences identified via the SILVA database project and compared these OTUs with their neighbors, each other, and other prominent taxa from our data set (classified as *Streptococcus*, *Staphylococcus*, and *Haemophilus*).

**Commented [LB1]:** Should change to supplemental figure 3

**Table E1.** Documented Admission Diagnoses of Study Cohort

<b>Diagnosis</b>	<b>Study cohort (n = 91)</b>
Cardiac arrest	19 (21)
Cerebral vascular accident (ischemic or hemorrhagic)	9 (10)
Pneumonia	7 (8)
Congestive heart failure/cardiomyopathy	6 (7)
Aortic aneurysm (rupture or dissection)	5 (5)
Sepsis	5 (5)
Meningitis	4 (4)
Pulmonary embolism	3 (3)
Bowel perforation	3 (3)
Gastrointestinal hemorrhage	2 (2)

**Table E2.** Diversity Indices as Predictors of Ventilator-Free Days in Mechanically Ventilated Critically Ill Patients

<b>Predictor</b>	<b>Univariate</b>	
	<b>Hazard ratio (CI)</b>	<b>P value</b>
Shannon diversity index <sup>‡</sup>	1.27 (0.87 - 1.86)	0.21
Community richness <sup>†</sup>	1.01 (0.98 - 1.00)	0.09
Community dominance <sup>‡</sup>	1.02 (1.00 - 1.04)	0.10

CI = Confidence interval (95%).

\* per 1-unit increase.

† Unique OTUs per 1000 sequences, per OTU

‡ Relative abundance of most dominant OTU, per % relative abundance

Other 28 (31)

"Other" includes: arrhythmia, cholangitis, elective surgery, hemoptysis, hypoglycemia, obtundation, pyelonephritis, rhabdomyolysis, seizures, soft tissue infection, trauma.

|

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