# Enterotypes are Shared by Chimpanzees and Humans

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**Summary**

The communities of microbes inhabiting the gastrointestinal tract of humans have been divided into multiple classes, termed 'enterotypes', which are each overrepresented by distinct sets of bacterial genera [1, 2]. Here, we report that the gut microbiotae of chimpanzees also assort into enterotypes and that the chimpanzee enterotypes are compositionally analogous to those of humans. Through the analysis of longitudinal samples, we show that the microbial signatures of the enterotypes themselves are stable over time, but that individual hosts switch between enterotypes over periods longer than a year. These results support the hypothesis that enterotypic variation was present in populations of great apes before the divergence of humans and chimpanzees.

**Highlights**

- Chimpanzees harbor gut enterotypes that are compositionally analogous to those identified in humans.
- The enterotype harbored by individual chimpanzee hosts changes over periods longer than one year.

**Results**

The gut microbial communities in contemporary populations of humans have been partitioned into three clusters, termed 'enterotypes', each of which is characterized by a distinct set of overrepresented bacterial genera [1]. Whereas initially no relationship was detected between enterotypes and specific features of the host (such as age, health status, body morphotype, provenance or gender), recent work has revealed associations between enterotype and long-term diet: the *Bacteroides*-dominant enterotype is prevalent in individuals whose diets are high in animal fat and protein, whereas the *Prevotella*–dominant enterotype prevails in individuals with high carbohydrate diets [2].

The assignment of the human gut microbiotae into discrete enterotypes raises several questions about the origins and evolution of these compositionally distinct microbial communities. If the formation of enterotypes is driven by the varied diets of human hosts [3], enterotypes could have arisen in the human lineage over relatively recent timescales. But if enterotypes are the product of more ancient features, such as host immune system or gut physiology, they are likely to have originated before or during the diversification of the great ape species. Therefore, characterization of the gut microbial communities within populations of non-human great apes provides insights into the origins of the human enterotypes. Given the co-diversification between gut microbiotae and their great ape hosts [4–7], the presence of compositionally similar enterotypes in humans and other great ape species, despite their present-day differences in diets and geographic distributions, would be consistent with the origination of enterotypes before the divergence of the human lineage.

To test for the presence of enterotypes in a non-human ape, we investigated the gut microbial communities within chimpanzees. One potential issue when comparing microbiotae across chimpanzees and humans is the large difference in levels of intraspecific genetic variation between the two groups: chimpanzees classify into multiple subspecies that diversified over the last 1.5 million years [8, 9, 10], whereas the ancestry of all modern humans can be traced to population bottlenecks that occurred over the last 200,000 years [11]. Therefore, we examined the gut microbial communities within a subspecies of chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes schweinfurthii*), a monophyletic clade of approximately the same age as modern humans [10].

***Detection of enterotypes in chimpanzees.*** We tested for the presence of enterotypes in the gut microbiomes of 35 chimpanzees from Gombe Stream National Park by employing the same clustering and cluster validation methods utilized by Arumugam *et al.* [1] to identify the human enterotypes. These anaylses revealed that the chimpanzee microbiotae assort based on their genus-level compositions into three distinct clusters (*i.e.*, enterotypes) that do not significantly associate with host age, genealogy or gender (**Figure 1A**). The bacterial taxa identified by between class analysis as contributing most significantly to each cluster were *Faecalibacterium* in chimpanzee enterotype 1, *Lachnospiraceae* in chimpanzee enterotype 2, and *Bulleidia* in chimpanzee enterotype 3 (**Figure 1B**).

***Correspondence between human and chimpanzee enterotypes.*** Although the gut microbial communities of the chimpanzees examined are compositionally more similar to one another (and to those of the other subspecies of chimpanzees) than they are to the gut microbial communities of humans, all eight of the bacterial genera that are uniquely overrepresented in both a human and a chimpanzee enterotype show the same abundance patterns across enterotypes in both host

species. Both human enterotype 1 and chimpanzee enterotype 1 are overrepresented by *Bacteroides, Faecalibacterium* and *Parabacteroides*; human and chimpanzee enterotype 2 are overrepresented in *Lachnospiraceae*; and human and chimpanzee enterotype 3 are overrepresented by *Dialester, Ruminococcus, Subdoligranulum* and *Collinsella* (**Figure 1A**).

Despite the broad correspondence between chimpanzee and human enterotypes, there are several bacterial genera overrepresented in a chimpanzee enterotype that are not overrepresented in any of the human enterotypes. For example, *Anaerotruncus* and *Acetivibrio* are overrepresented in chimpanzee enterotype 1, *Anaerovibrio* and *Bifidobacterium* are overrepresented in chimpanzee enterotype 2, and *Bulleidia*, *Butyrivibrio*, *Coriobacteriaceae* and *Olsenella* are overrepresented in chimpanzee enterotype 3, but these genera are either absent from or do not significantly contribute to the human enterotypes (**Table S1**).

Similarly, several bacterial genera that contribute to a human enterotype are not overrepresented in any of the chimpanzee enterotypes. The most prominent of these is *Prevotella*, which predominates in human enterotype 2, but is recovered at very high frequencies in all three chimpanzee enterotypes, accounting for 7.3% of chimpanzee enterotype 1, 8.4% of chimpanzee enterotype 2, and 9.9% of chimpanzee enterotype 3.

***Temporal and compositional stability of enterotypes***. The human enterotypes were identified initially from individual samples from a broad spectrum of hosts, a sampling scheme that does not allow examination of the temporal stability of enterotypes within hosts. For seven of the chimpanzees the gut microbial communities were assessed at multiple time points over an eight-year period (**Figure 2**). In all of these chimpanzees, there was a change in enterotype assignment during the 8-year sampling period, with three chimpanzees showing the identical configuration,

harboring enterotype 1 in years 2000 and 2001, and enterotype 3 in 2008. Despite the replacement of enterotypes within hosts, the compositional profiles of the enterotypes are robust to the inclusion of samples from different time points, with the primary bacterial drivers of enterotypes remaining constant for each iteration of PAM clustering.

## Discussion

***Relatedness of human and chimpanzee enterotypes.*** The communities of microbes infecting the guts of chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes schweinfurthii*) from Gombe National Park assort into three compositionally distinct enterotypes that parallel those that have been recognized in human populations. All of the bacterial genera that are overrepresented in both the human and the chimpanzee enterotypes show the same compositional patterns in both host species. For example, both human enterotype 1 and chimpanzee enterotype 1 are enriched in *Bacteroides, Faecalibacterium* and *Parabacteroides,* whereas human and chimpanzee enterotype 2 are both overrepresented in *Lachnospiraceae*.

Despite the overall congruence between the human and chimpanzee enterotypes, there are differences between host species in the prevalence of several bacterial genera (**Table 1**), most notably in the distribution of *Prevotella*. Human enterotype 2 is distinguishable from the other human enterotypes by being enriched in *Lachnospiraceae* (as in chimpanzees) but also in its overrepresentation of *Prevotella.* In contrast, there are equally high frequencies of *Prevotellae* in each of the chimpanzee enterotypes. In humans, the *Prevotella*-dominant enterotype is associated with high-carbohydrate diets [2], such that the consistently high level of *Prevotella* in chimpanzees is consistent with a typical chimpanzee diet, which is dominated by carbohydrate-rich fruits.

That enterotypes are present both in humans and in chimpanzees suggests that enterotypic variation is an ancestral feature of the great ape microbiota. The compositional relatedness between the human and chimpanzee enterotypes is consistent with the origination of enterotypes before the human-chimpanzee split and the subsequent co-divergence between

enterotypes and their hosts. Although the dissemination of bacterial taxa among host species could potentially generate similarities between human and chimpanzee enterotypes, such transfers cannot fully explain the presence of bacterial taxa that distinguish enterotypes in only one of the host species (**Table 1**; **Table 2**). Moreover, the gut microbiotae of chimpanzees are always more closely related to those of conspecifics than to those of humans, which indicates that the assortment into enterotypes occurred the common ancestor, or independently, in each species. Detection of compositionally divergent enterotypes in other primates would further support the existence of enterotypes during great ape diversification; however, there is currently not sufficient sampling to characterize the intraspecific variation in microbiota composition outside the *Hominini*.

Finally, several bacterial genera were detected in only a single host species (**Table 3**). Nearly 5% of the human fecal flora is comprised of these bacterial genera, some of which have been implicated in GI diseases. For example, the mucin-degrading *Akkermansiae* have been linked to colitis [12], *Eggerthellae* are enriched in patients with Crohn's disease [13], and *Coprobacilli* are associated with certain forms of irritable bowel syndrome [14].

***Enterotype replacement within hosts.*** A standing question about human enterotypes is whether or not they are variable within an individual over time [1, 2]. We have addressed this question in chimpanzees by assessing the variability of enterotype assignment within chimpanzee hosts sampled over an eight-year period. In short, each of the chimpanzee hosts that were assayed at multiple time-points changed enterotypes over the sampling period (**Figure 2**).

As observed in humans, there is no obvious association between chimpanzee enterotype and host genetics or geography. When sampled in 2000, the siblings, Sandi and Shelton, and

their mother, Sparrow, each possessed different enterotypes, and their enterotypes changed, and still differed, in later samplings. Meanwhile, three chimpanzees that are not all members of the same family or same geographic community (Darbee, Gremlin and Kris) harbored the same enterotypes at each of the three time-points sampled.

In humans, diet is likely to be a major contributor to a host's enterotype [2]. Because the availability of different foodstuffs in Gombe can fluctuate seasonally [15, 16], diet may also influence the possession of certain chimpanzee enterotypes. However, we found no consistent association between enterotype and the season in which a host was sampled. Furthermore, all three enterotypes were present during each wet season when foods were abundant and the diets among the chimpanzee hosts were the most homogenous.

That the same chimpanzee enterotypes were repeatedly recovered over the course of eight years of sampling demonstrates that enterotypes reflect ecological communities that are reproducible both within and among hosts. But because enterotypes represent divisions within a continuous character (*i.e.*, the relative frequencies of numerous bacterial taxa within hosts), hosts that have the same enterotype need not have identical microbial communities. This variation can obscure the divisions between enterotypes; for example, Wu *et al.* (2011) suggest that humans can be classified into two, not three, enterotypes, and we found support for both two and three chimpanzee enterotypes in the present study (**Figure S1**).

In sum, we have shown that chimpanzees possess enterotypes that are compositionally similar to those observed within human populations. Although the compositions of enterotypes remain stable, the particular enterotype harbored by a individual host can changes over the course

of a year. We consider the enterotypic changes observed in chimpanzees as evidence that human enterotypes are likely to vary over a host's lifetime.

**Experimental Procedures**

***Sample sources.*** Genus-level abundance distributions of bacteria present in the guts of 33 humans from diverse geographic regions (Italy, France, Japan and United States) were retrieved from [1]. Species-level abundance distributions for bacteria present in the guts of 35 chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes schweinfurthii*) from Gombe National Park were retrieved from [7] and converted into genus-level distributions to enable direct comparisons between the human and chimpanzee datasets. We decided to focus our analyses on the single chimpanzee subspecies *Pan troglodytes schweinfurthii*, a monophyletic clade of approximately the same age as humans [8, 9, 10, 11], in order to avoid the confounding effects of excessive genetic variation among hosts.

***Clustering abundance distributions.*** We applied methods described by Arumugam et al. [1] to test for the presence of enterotypes in chimpanzees and to compare enterotypes across humans and chimpanzees. In short, we applied the PAM-clustering algorithm to the genus-level abundance profiles of chimpanzees and humans, employing the same probability distribution distance metric (i.e., the square root of the Jensen-Shannon divergence) implemented by Arumugam et al. [1].

***Enumeration of enterotypes.*** To determine the optimal number of clusters (i.e. enterotypes) in each dataset, the Calinski-Harabasz (CH) index and the silhouette score were calculated for each set of clusters generated by the PAM algorithm. Because silhouette scores failed to differentiate between two and three clusters, we chose for subsequent analyses the number of clusters that maximized the CH index for each dataset (**Figure S1**). The CH index for a set of clusters is proportional to the ratio of the between-cluster sum-of-squares to the within-clusters sum-of-squares, with higher CH values indicating a better fit between the clustering and the data [17].

***Bacterial contributors to enterotypes*.** Between-class analysis (BCA) was implemented as in Arumugam et al. [1] using the *ade4* package in **R** in order to identify the bacterial genera most responsible for the observed clustering in the chimpanzee dataset. BCA is a form of principal component analysis with respect to an instrumental variable [18], which, in this case, is the cluster/enterotype assignment of each abundance distribution. Only genera with an average abundance above 0.01% across samples were considered.

***Detection of over-represented genera***. We used Fisher's exact test to identify over-represented genera in each of the chimpanzee enterotypes. As in Arumugam et al. [1], we adopted a conservative approach by considering only those genera that were overrepresented in a single cluster. Correction for multiple testing was based on the Benjamini-Hochberg False Discovery Rate, with the corrected *p*-value cutoff set at 0.05.

***Detection of bacterial genera specific to a host species*.** Arumugam et al. [1] generated taxonomic assignments for their "Sanger metagenome" dataset by assigning reads to a database of 1,511 bacterial genomes, whereas the taxonomic classification for the 16s rRNA dataset of chimpanzees were assigned by the RDP database, which contains a greater breadth of bacterial taxa than the database employed by Arumugam et al. [1]. To circumvent the potentially confounding effects that this difference in taxonomic assignment might have on the identification of bacterial genera unique to each host species, we retrieved the 16s rRNA dataset of Turnbaugh et al. [19] and assigned taxonomy using RDP with the default confidence threshold of 80%. We then identified bacterial genera unique to each host species by comparing the taxonomic assignments of the sequence reads from the chimpanzee faecal samples to those of humans generated from Turnbaugh et al. [19] and reported by Arumugam et al. [1].

*Testing for the stability of enterotypes.* The longitudinal samples from seven chimpanzees reported previously [7] were used to evaluate the temporal stability of gut enterotypes. We detected enterotypic changes via two approaches. First, we established the enterotype for each host in the most recent (i.e., 2008) sample for each individual and then repeated the analysis after substituting a single sample from an earlier time point (2000 or 2001), such that only one abundance distribution differed between any two iterations of the PAM clustering. Second, we clustered all samples from all individuals simultaneously in one iteration of PAM clustering. The two approaches for detecting enterotypic change produced identical results, which are displayed in **Figure 2**.

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**Table 1**: Frequencies of bacterial taxa uniquely overrepresented within each chimpanzee enterotype.

| **Taxa overrepresented in Chimpanzee Enterotype 1** | **Frequency in Enterotype 1** | **Enterotype 2** | **Enterotype 3** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Faecalibacterium | 0.0189 | 0.0031 | 0.0016 |
| Parabacteroides | 0.0110 | 0.0065 | 0.0074 |
| Bacteroides | 0.0054 | 0.0011 | 0.0001 |
| Anaerotruncus | 0.0022 | 0.0003 | 0.0005 |
| Acetivibrio | 0.0013 | 0.0002 | 0.0008 |

| **Taxa overrepresented in Chimpanzee Enterotype 2** | **Frequency in Enterotype 1** | **Enterotype 2** | **Enterotype 3** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Unclassified Lachnospiraceae | 0.0703 | 0.1623 | 0.0701 |
| Anaerovibrio | 0.0029 | 0.0090 | 0.0029 |
| Bifidobacterium | 0.0009 | 0.0042 | 0.0007 |

| **Taxa overrepresented in Chimpanzee Enterotype 3** | **Frequency in Enterotype 1** | **Enterotype 2** | **Enterotype 3** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Bulleidia | 0.0140 | 0.0291 | 0.0899 |
| Dialister | 0.0156 | 0.0453 | 0.0708 |
| Butyrivibrio | 0.0018 | 0.0071 | 0.0288 |
| Unclassified Coriobacteriaceae | 0.0077 | 0.0117 | 0.0225 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Ruminococcus | 0.0115 | 0.0117 | 0.0201 |
| Olsenella | 0.0031 | 0.0027 | 0.0139 |
| Subdoligranulum | 0.0056 | 0.0029 | 0.0098 |
| Collinsella | 0.0017 | 0.0018 | 0.0035 |

**Table 2**: Bacterial taxa predominating within each chimpanzee enterotype.

| Enterotype 1 | Frequency* | Enterotype 2 | Frequency | Enterotype 3 | Frequency |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ruminococcaceae** | 0.077 | Lachnospiraceae** | 0.162 | Prevotella | 0.099 |
| Prevotella | 0.073 | Prevotella | 0.084 | Bulleidia | 0.090 |
| Lachnospiraceae** | 0.070 | Ruminococcaceae** | 0.047 | Dialister | 0.071 |
| Oscillibacter | 0.051 | Dialister | 0.045 | Lachnospiraceae** | 0.070 |
| Acholeplasma | 0.022 | Acholeplasma | 0.035 | Ruminococcaceae** | 0.065 |
| Acidaminococcus | 0.019 | Oscillibacter | 0.035 | Oscillibacter | 0.044 |
| Faecalibacterium | 0.019 | Bulleidia | 0.029 | Butyrivibrio | 0.029 |
| Dorea | 0.016 | Subdivision5 | 0.017 | Coriobacteriaceae** | 0.023 |
| Porphyromonadaceae** | 0.016 | Acidaminococcus | 0.017 | Ruminococcus | 0.020 |
| Dialister | 0.016 | Porphyromonadaceae** | 0.016 | Acholeplasma | 0.015 |

*Listed in order of abundance. Only the ten most abundant taxa are listed.

**Unclassified bacterial genera within listed family

**Table 3**. Frequencies of bacterial genera recovered only from humans or chimpanzees.

| Genus | Chimpanzees | Humans |
|---|---|---|
| Eggerthela | 0.0016 | — |
| Oscillibacter | — | 0.0426 |
| Bulleidia | — | 0.0410 |
| Coriobacteraiceae | — | 0.0134 |
| Subdivision5_genera_incertae_sedis | — | 0.0131 |
| Butyrivibrio | — | 0.0112 |
| Hallella | — | 0.0075 |
| Olsenella | — | 0.0059 |
| Anaerovibrio | — | 0.0052 |
| Butyricimonas | — | 0.0045 |
| Barnesiella | — | 0.0033 |
| Spirochaeta | — | 0.0029 |
| Papillibacter | — | 0.0027 |
| Hydrogenoanaerobacterium | — | 0.0016 |

**Figure Legends.**

**Figure 1: Identification of chimpanzee enterotypes.** **A**. Assortment of gut microbial communities into enterotypes in chimpanzees and humans. Shown are BCA visualizations of enterotypes (colored ellipses), as identified by PAM clustering, with black dots representing abundance distributions of bacterial genera from an individual host and numbered white rectangles marking the center of each enterotype. Panel (right) showing human gut enterotypes modifed from [1]. Bacterial taxa uniquely overrepresented in the corresponding chimpanzee and human enterotypes are listed. **B**. Relative abundances of the three bacterial taxa that are principally responsible for the separation of chimpanzee enterotypes. Shown are means, ranges and first and third quartiles. Color coding of enterotypes follows that in **A**.

**Figure 2: Chimpanzee enterotypes vary within individuals over time.** Enterotype assignments in individual chimpanzee hosts sampled longitudinally in 2000, 2001, and 2008. Color coding of enterotypes follows that of **Figure 1**, with empty capsules indicating years when samples for a particular host were not analyzed. Hosts are arranged by Gombe community affiliation (MT or MK), with gender and genealogy indicated (such that Sparrow is the mother of Sandi and Sheldon, and Tubi and Darbee are siblings).

**Figure 1: Identification of chimpanzee enterotypes.**

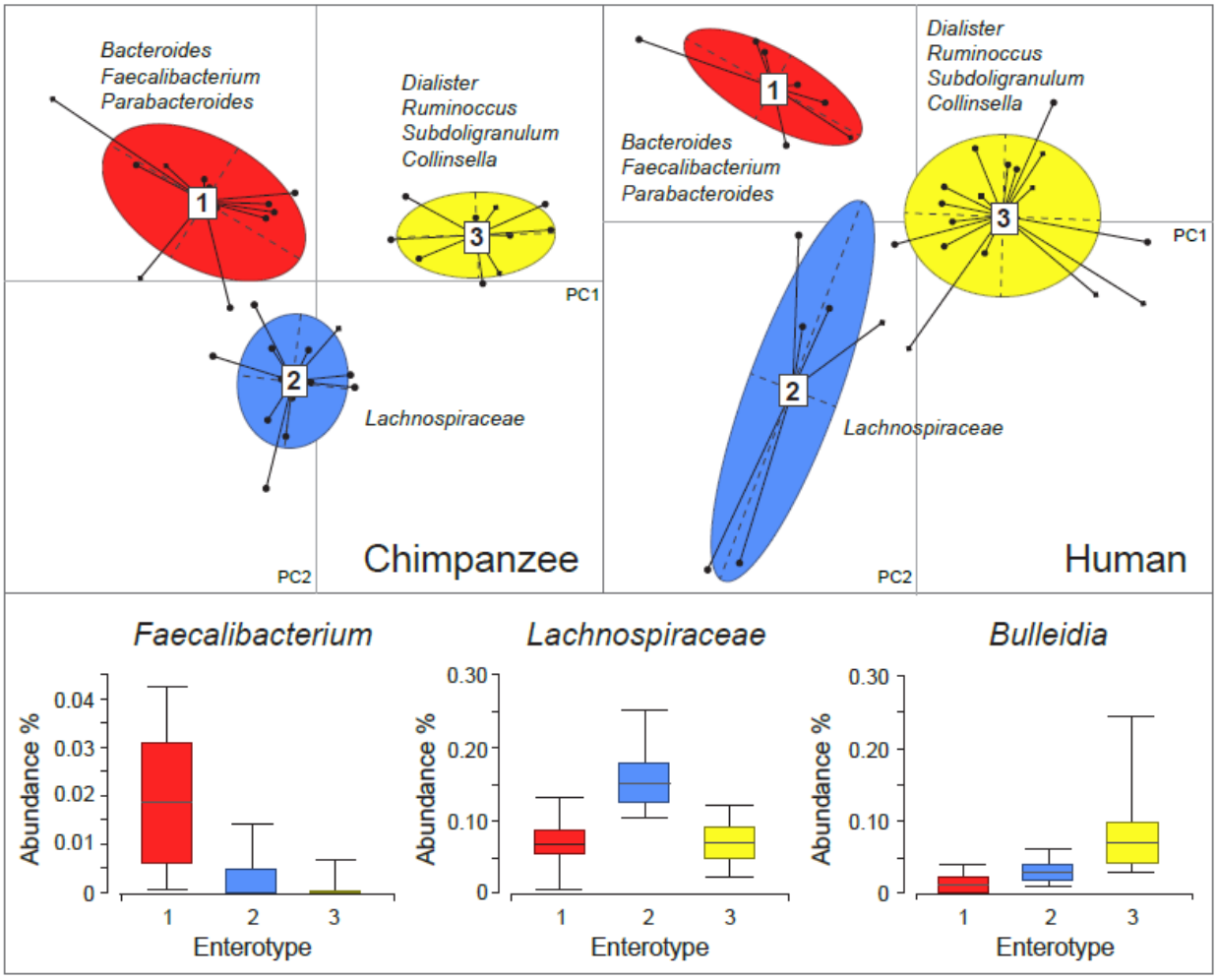
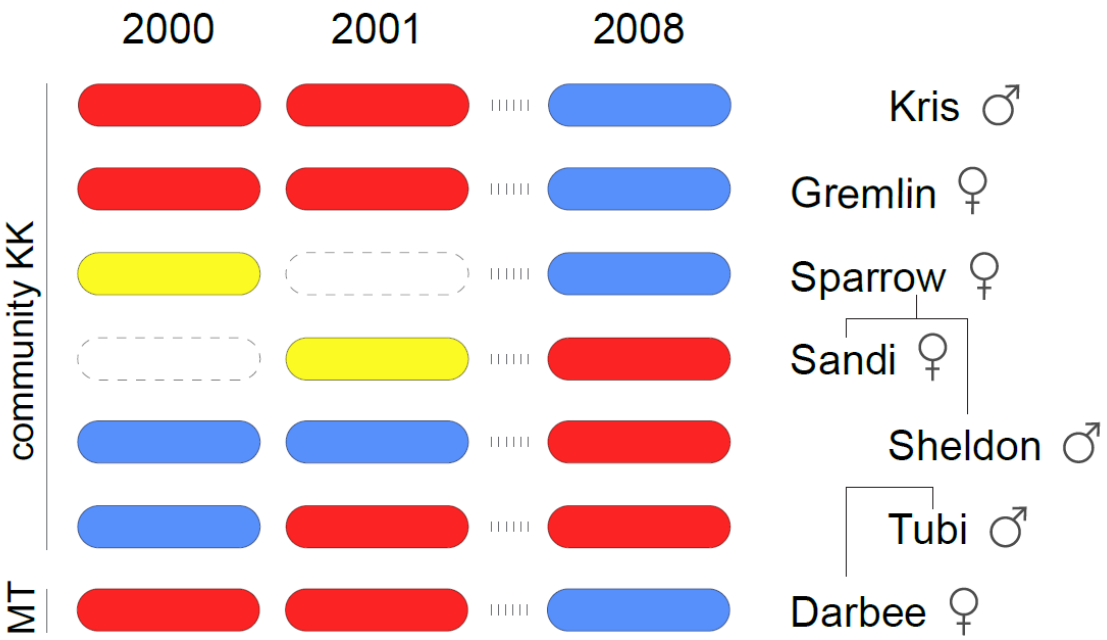


**Figure 2: Chimpanzee enterotypes vary within individuals over time.**



**Supplemental Figure Legend**

**Figure S1: Support for three chimpanzee enterotypes.** Shown are levels of support in the Gombe chimpanzee dataset, as measured by the CH index, for clustering schemes generated by PAM clustering. The CH index was maximized when chimpanzee microbial communities were assigned into three clusters (i.e. enterotypes).