

1 **Characterization of virus-like particles associated with the human faecal and caecal**
2 **microbiota**

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 This work represents an investigation into the presence, abundance and diversity of
26 virus-like particles (VLPs) associated with human faecal and caecal samples. Various
27 methodologies for the recovery of VLPs from faeces were tested and optimized, including
28 successful down-stream processing of such samples for the purpose of an in-depth electron
29 microscopic analysis, pulsed-field gel electrophoresis and efficient DNA recovery. The
30 applicability of the developed VLP characterization method beyond the use of faecal samples
31 was then verified using samples obtained from human caecal fluid.

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33 **Keywords:** bacteriophages; microbial ecology; gastrointestinal tract; transmission electron
34 microscopy; caecum; faeces.

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37 **1. INTRODUCTION**

38 Viruses are the most numerous biological entities within the biosphere of our planet
39 (being present at an estimated number of $\sim 10^{31}$), with bacteriophages representing the most
40 abundant group of environmental viruses [1, 2]. Bacteriophages are ubiquitous viruses that
41 infect bacterial cells and disrupt their metabolism. Multiple bacteriophage types can infect a
42 specific microbial isolate, with most bacteriophages infecting only certain species or even
43 strains of bacteria [3].

44 Although they are abundant and potentially important to microbial populations
45 indigenous to different ecological niches within the human gastrointestinal tract and to host
46 health, little attention has been paid to bacterial virus-like particle (VLP) assemblages and
47 their interactions with the gastrointestinal microbiota and/or human host until recently.

48 Various publications have highlighted the potential importance of bacteriophages in
49 inflammation states, including Crohn's disease [4, 5, 6], and as therapeutic agents [7, 8].
50 Breitbart *et al.* [9] conducted the first metagenomic study on dsDNA-containing VLPs
51 associated with the human faecal virome using a fresh sample from a healthy adult male. On
52 the basis of previous estimates of gut microbial diversity, Breitbart *et al.* [9] predicted that
53 there are two to five times more viral genotypes ($\sim 1,200$ viral genotypes) present in the
54 human gastrointestinal microbiota than the number of bacterial species, with the vast majority
55 of these VLPs representing bacteriophages and prophages. RNA viruses present in human
56 faeces have been found to be mostly associated with plant viruses, such as Pepper Mild
57 Mottle Virus, with RNA bacteriophages making a minimal contribution to the diversity of the
58 intestinal virome [10]. Using frozen samples from four adult female monozygotic twins and
59 their mothers, Reyes *et al.* [11] demonstrated that each individual harbours a unique virome
60 (ssDNA and dsDNA) regardless of their genetic relatedness to another individual, and that
61 intrapersonal virome diversity is very low, with $>95\%$ of viotypes retained over a one-year

62 period (between 71 and 2,773 viral genotypes identified among the samples). More recently,
63 Minot *et al.* [12] confirmed inter-individual variation in the virome and, similar to
64 modulation of the faecal bacteriome by foodstuffs, demonstrated that diet influences host
65 faecal virome structure. Minot *et al.* [13] also confirmed the relative stability of an
66 individual's virome, monitoring 24 faecal samples from one individual over a 2.5-year
67 period.

68 The murine virome has been used to demonstrate enrichment of bacteriophage-
69 encoded, antibiotic-resistance genes (related and unrelated to the drug used) after antibiotic
70 therapy, with the adaptive capacity of the virome (specifically its bacteriophage component)
71 suggested to protect gut bacteria, thereby preserving the microbiota's robustness during
72 antibiotic stress [14].

73 It is clear from the aforementioned studies that the virome–bacteriome community in
74 the gut is governed by complex and dynamic interactions in health, and that its balance may
75 be disturbed when under stress, e.g. during antibiotic intervention [14]. Although
76 metagenomic studies have greatly improved our understanding of the virome associated with
77 the human and murine gut microbiomes, it has been notable how little bacteriophage
78 material, and consequently DNA, has been isolated from samples when this information was
79 included in a publication. Reyes *et al.* [11] reported the isolation of ~500 ng DNA from 2 to 5
80 g of frozen faeces, whereas Thurber *et al.* [15] stated that between 500 and 3000 ng of DNA
81 could be isolated from 500 g of human faeces, though the publication they cite [9] provides
82 no information regarding the amount of DNA isolated from the 500 g faecal sample
83 examined in the original study. In addition, to the best of our knowledge, no attempts have
84 been made to enumerate bacteriophages in faecal filtrates prior to CsCl purification. The aims
85 of this study were to develop reliable and effective methods for the recovery and

86 characterization of VLPs in human samples, and to apply these methods to human faecal and
87 caecal samples to demonstrate the methods' efficiency.

88

88 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**89 **2.1 Processing of and isolation of VLPs from faecal and caecal samples**

90 Faecal samples were obtained from six healthy adult (2 male, 4 female) donors of
91 between 23 and 52 years of age, all of whom were members of the Department of Food and
92 Nutritional Sciences, University of Reading. None of the donors had taken antibiotics,
93 prebiotics and/or probiotics in the 3 months prior to sampling, and none had any history of
94 gastrointestinal disorder. All donors gave informed oral consent for their faecal samples to be
95 used for microbiological analyses. Ethical approval for the collection of caecal effluent from
96 patients was obtained from St Thomas' Hospital Research Ethics Committee (06/Q0702/74)
97 covering Guy's and St Thomas' Hospitals and transferred by agreement to London Bridge
98 Hospital. Where available, clinical information for the colonoscopy patients is given in the
99 text. Samples were collected at Reading (faeces) or transported from St Thomas' Hospital
100 (caecum), and maintained under anaerobic conditions (faeces, MACS1000 anaerobic
101 workstation, Don Whitley Scientific, gas composition 80 % N₂, 10 % H₂, 10 % CO₂; caecum,
102 on ice in a gas jar with an anaerobic gas-generating pack; Oxoid Ltd) for a maximum of 2 h
103 before processing. Caecal samples were collected during routine colonoscopy following
104 preparation of the bowel with sodium picosulphate and a reduced fibre diet for 3 days. Liquid
105 residue in the caecum was aspirated via the colonoscope suction channel into a standard 30
106 ml trap specimen container and immediately transferred to a gas jar.

107 Faecal homogenates (20 %, w/v, from 25 g of faecal material) were prepared in sterile
108 TBT [0.1 µm filtered prior to autoclaving; 100 mM Tris/HCl, pH 8.0; 100 mM NaCl; 10 mM
109 MgCl₂.6H₂O] or sterile 0.5 % 'Lab-Lemco'/6 % NaCl (LL [16]). Caecal homogenates (20 %,
110 v/v, from 10 to 30 ml of caecal effluent) were prepared in LL. Faecal and caecal samples
111 were placed into a filter stomach bag and homogenized in a Stomacher 400 Lab System
112 (Seward) for 120 s at low speed. The bag was removed from the stomacher and massaged

113 manually to further disperse any large particles remaining in the sample; the sample was then
114 stomached for a further 120 s. The homogenate was kept on ice for 2 h to allow desorption of
115 VLPs from solid material, then centrifuged at 11,180 **g** for 30 min at 10°C. The supernatant
116 was transferred to a fresh tube and centrifuged again at 11,180 **g** for 30 min at 10°C.
117 Supernatant [herein referred to as faecal filtrate (FF) for both faecal and caecal samples] was
118 passed through sterile 0.45 µm cellulose acetate filters (Millipore) and the FF was then
119 collected in a sterile container. An aliquot (10 µl) of each of the FFs was examined by
120 epifluorescence microscopy (EFM) after viral particles had been stained with SYBR Gold
121 (see below) to confirm that the samples were free of bacteria.

122 FF prepared in LL was used for enumeration of VLPs in faeces via EFM (see below)
123 and 1 ml aliquots of FF prepared in TBT were for examination by transmission electron
124 microscopy (TEM; see below).

125 Aliquots of FF and LL (two sets of three aliquots of 100 µl each: one for aerobic
126 cultivation, one for anaerobic cultivation) were spread onto Columbia blood agar containing
127 5 % laked horse blood (Oxoid), and incubated aerobically and anaerobically. Sterility of the
128 filtrates was confirmed by the absence of microbial growth on plates following incubation for
129 2 (aerobic) and 5 (anaerobic) days. Sterile brain–heart infusion broth was inoculated with 100
130 µl of FF and LL, and incubated aerobically for 2 days: aliquots (100 µl) were spread in
131 triplicate on plates to confirm sterility of the broth cultures. In addition, 10-ml aliquots of FF
132 were stored at 4°C for 6 months after collection, and were found to be free of bacteria when
133 checked (by plating) at monthly intervals.

134 Poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG; BioUltra, 8000; Sigma) was added to 2 × 20 ml aliquots
135 of the LL-prepared 0.45 µm-filtered FFs (final concentration of PEG, 10 %, w/v). The
136 samples were shaken gently to dissolve the PEG, then left at 4°C for 16 h ([16] used 16 h as
137 they observed an improved recovery of RNA bacteriophage compared to shorter incubations;

138 [17] used 10 h, as they determined this to be longer than the minimum time required to obtain
139 a constant and stable white layer of viral precipitate). PEG-precipitated VLPs were then
140 harvested by centrifugation at 4,500 **g** for 30 min in a swing-out-bucket rotor at 4°C. The
141 supernatant was removed and the pellet resuspended in 1 ml TBT for pulsed-field gel
142 electrophoresis (PFGE) or 5 ml TBT for purification of VLPs on a CsCl gradient [15] with
143 ultracentrifugation performed at 100,000 **g** for 2 h at 10°C in a fixed-angle Type 50 Ti rotor
144 (Beckman Coulter). VLPs recovered by CsCl (1.35 and 1.5 g/cm³ fractions) were dialysed
145 (12,000 Da cut-off) twice against 400 ml sterile TBT, passed through a sterile 0.45 µm
146 cellulose acetate filter and stored at 4°C until DNA was extracted. An aliquot (5 µl) of each
147 of the CsCl-purified samples was viewed using EFM after viral particles had been stained
148 with SYBR Gold (see below) to confirm that the samples were free of bacteria.

149

150 **2.2 Epifluorescence microscopy (EFM)**

151 A combination of the methods of Thurber and Patel [15, 18] was used to prepare FFs
152 (faecal only) for EFM. VLPs present in FF were not fixed in paraformaldehyde prior to
153 enumeration, as Wen *et al.* [19] showed that aldehyde fixation leads to a rapid loss in viral
154 abundance. The SYBR Gold concentration of 1–5× recommended by [15] did not work with
155 FFs; therefore, the 400× concentration recommended by [18] for use with planktonic aquatic
156 samples was used in this study.

157 The filtration system (see [15] for specifics of the set-up employed), including a
158 glass-graduated column, for collecting VLPs on filters was cleaned using 5 ml of 0.1 µm-
159 filtered, sterile H₂O and 5 ml of 0.1 µm-filtered ethanol. A sterile pair of flat-tipped forceps
160 was used to remove a 0.02-µm white Anodisc 25 membrane (Whatman) from its box, and the
161 filter was fitted to the glass frit of the filtration system under a low vacuum [<10 psi (~ 62
162 kPa)]. Duplicate 2 ml aliquots of 0.1 µm filtered, sterile H₂O and 10 µl of sterile LL in 2 ml

163 0.1 µm filtered, sterile H₂O were used as negative controls (to assess whether there was any
164 contamination in the water, the LL, the filter tower or the filter surface) and passed through
165 filters under low vacuum before any of the FF aliquots were filtered in duplicate. For each
166 sample, a 10 µl aliquot of 0.45 µm-filtered FF was added to 2 ml of the 0.1 µm filtered,
167 sterile H₂O and the suspension gently mixed. The diluted sample was then introduced into the
168 filter system with the low vacuum maintained. The liquid was passed through the filter, and
169 VLPs were collected on the filter. The clip and glass column were carefully removed from
170 the filtration system and the filter was gently removed from the glass frit (still under
171 vacuum). While holding the filter with a forceps, the back of the filter was gently blotted dry
172 on a clean Kimwipe; the filter was then left to dry on a Kimwipe in a sterile Petri dish for 10
173 min in a dark box. The filtration system was cleaned with 5 ml of 0.1 µm-filtered, sterile H₂O
174 and 5 ml of 0.1 µm-filtered ethanol, and the next sample processed.

175 Filters were stained with 100 µl droplets of 400× SYBR Gold and dried as described
176 by [18], prior to being applied in pairs to sterile glass slides. The mountant (20 µl per
177 coverslip) ProLong® Gold antifade reagent (Invitrogen) was added to 25 mm glass coverslips.
178 Coverslips were picked up with sterile forceps, inverted and placed on the Anodisc filters on
179 the microscope slides. Slides were then left at room temperature in the dark for 16 h to allow
180 the antifade to cure. Slides prepared in this manner can be stored at room temperature for 1
181 week or at 4°C for 2 months.

182 Slides were viewed at 1000× magnification under a Nikon Microphot-SA microscope
183 fitted with a B-2A (blue excitation) filter and attached to a CoolSNAP-Pro MONOCHROME
184 (Media Cybernetics Inc.) camera. Images were captured using Image-Pro PLUS version
185 4.5.0.19 (Media Cybernetics Inc.), and VLPs in 25 fields of view were enumerated by eye.
186 The number of VLPs per millilitre of FF was calculated using the following equation: mean
187 number of VLPs in 25 fields of view × 100 × 25760.205; where 100 represents taking the

188 sample back to per millilitre FF and 25760.205 represents the number of fields of view on a
189 filter. To give an estimate of the number of VLPs per gram of faeces, results were multiplied
190 by a factor of 5. The detection limit of the method was 1.03×10^5 VLPs/ml FF or 5.15×10^5
191 VLPs/g faeces.

192

193 **2.3 TEM of FFs (faecal and caecal)**

194 Aliquots (1 ml) of FF prepared in TBT (faeces) or LL (caecum) were used for TEM
195 analysis within 1 week of collection: these filtrates had not been concentrated using PEG.
196 Carbon films (~3×3 mm in size) were floated from mica-sheets into a drop of filtrate (100
197 µl). After an adsorption time of 5–10 min, samples were transferred into a drop of 1 % (v/v)
198 of EM-grade glutaraldehyde (20 min) and subsequently into a drop of 2 % (w/v) uranyl
199 acetate for negative staining (1–2 min). After two washes for a few seconds in drops of
200 distilled water, samples were picked up with 400-mesh copper grids (Plano, Wetzlar, D).
201 Electron micrographs were taken in a Tecnai 10 transmission electron microscope (FEI
202 Company, Eindhoven, the Netherlands) at an accelerating voltage of 80 kV. Digital
203 micrographs were taken with a Megaview G2 CCD camera (Olympus SIS, Münster,
204 Germany). For estimation of VLP titers on the EM grids, a freshly prepared *Lactococcus*
205 *lactis* bacteriophage preparation with defined titer and unique morphology (i.e. prolate-
206 headed bacteriophage P001 [20]) was added in concentrations of 10^7 and 10^8 plaque-forming
207 units (pfu) per ml to the faecal sample of donor 2 (with highest bacteriophage titer according
208 to TEM analysis).

209

210 **2.4 PFGE**

211 Aliquots (40 µl) of PEG-precipitated samples resuspended in 1 ml TBT were used for
212 PFGE. These were heated at 60 or 75°C as appropriate. An aliquot (25 µl) of each heated

213 (viscous) suspension and loading dye (5 µl) were combined and loaded into wells, which
214 were sealed with molten agarose. Run conditions for PFGE were as described by Fuhrman *et*
215 *al.* [21]: a 1 % agarose gel (SeaKem LE agarose) was made in 0.5× TBE [250 ml of 5× TBE
216 buffer (27 g Sigma 7–9, 13.75 g boric acid, 5 ml 0.5 M EDTA, 500 ml of H₂O) added to 2.25
217 1 H₂O] and a CHEF DR II apparatus (Bio-Rad) was run for 18 h at 6 V and 14°C in 0.5×
218 TBE, with a 1–10 s switch time. Gels were stained with ethidium bromide (5 µg/ml) for 20
219 min and destained in distilled H₂O for 10 min, or with 1× SYBR Gold (Molecular Probes)
220 made in 0.5× TBE. Bands of DNA were visualized under UV light (ethidium bromide) or
221 using a Dark Reader DR89X Transilluminator (Integrated Scientific Solutions Inc.) (SYBR
222 Gold).

223

224 **2.5 Isolation of DNA from CsCl-purified VLPs**

225 DNA was extracted from 500 µl portions of CsCl-purified VLP samples according to
226 [15]. Prior to extracting DNA from purified VLPs, samples were treated with 20 µl of 1
227 mg/mL DNase I (from bovine pancreas, 552 Kunitz/mg protein; made in water passed
228 through a 0.1 µm filter prior to autoclaving) for 1 h at 37°C, and were then heated at 80°C for
229 10 min to inactivate the DNase prior to DNA extraction. DNA was air-dried and
230 resuspended in 50 µl of TE buffer. Sterility of samples (i.e. absence of bacterial DNA) was
231 confirmed by negative PCR from samples (10 µl) with universal primers [22]. DNA from an
232 in-house strain of *Bifidobacterium longum* (4-FAA1; [23]) was used as a positive control;
233 sterile water was used as the negative control.

234

234 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**235 **3.1 Examination of VLPs in FFs (faeces) by using EFM**

236 Previous studies examining the faecal virome have used 0.22 µm filters to prepare
237 samples [9, 11, 12, 13]. Preliminary work performed with 0.45 µm-filtered faecal samples
238 and 0.45 µm-filtered samples originating from *in vitro* fermentation systems inoculated with
239 faeces stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) and viewed under an
240 epifluorescence microscope suggested that the abundance of dsDNA VLPs in intestinal
241 samples was high, and that these particles can be enumerated (unpublished observations).

242 Contamination by bacteria was not observed in any of these samples, and confirmed by an
243 absence of cultivable bacteria and no bacteria in TEM analyses, so we decided to continue
244 using larger-pore filters for processing samples. Kliewe & Swain [24] had previously used
245 0.45 µm-filtered samples to characterize VLPs present in rumen contents, and reported no
246 problems with contamination by bacteria.

247 To examine the VLPs present in FFs (faeces) by EFM, the method described by [9]
248 and [15] was used initially. However, it was found that we were unable to visualize many, if
249 any, VLPs present in the samples using 1–5× SYBR Gold as the DNA/RNA stain. Increasing
250 the concentration of SYBR Gold to 400×, as used by [18] for planktonic aquatic samples,
251 allowed us to enumerate and detect VLPs present in the FFs prepared from faecal samples of
252 six donors (Fig. 1 and Fig. 2). The samples were extracted in LL, though the method worked
253 as well with samples extracted in TBT (data not shown). To determine the relative abundance
254 of the predominant VLP morphologies in FFs, samples were not concentrated by CsCl
255 centrifugation (Fig. 1). All FFs were found to be free of bacteria by EFM (Fig. 2), with the
256 number of VLPs present in samples ranging from 2.4×10^8 to 1.12×10^9 VLPs/ml FF (mean
257 5.58×10^8 VLPs/ml FF) (equivalent to $\sim 1.2 \times 10^9$ to 5.58×10^9 VLPs/g faeces, mean 2.94×10^9).
258 Lepage *et al.* [4] enumerated VLPs in gut mucosal samples from 14 healthy individuals and

259 19 Crohn's disease patients and found on average 1.2×10^9 VLPs/biopsy (range 4.4×10^7 –
260 1.7×10^{10}), in agreement with the mean value we present here for faecal VLPs. Of note,
261 Crohn's disease patients harboured significantly ($P = 0.024$) more VLPs than healthy
262 individuals (2.9×10^9 vs 1.2×10^8 VLPs/biopsy) in the study of Lepage *et al.* [4].

263 It is generally accepted that there are around 10 bacteriophages for every microbial
264 cell in environmental samples investigated to date [25]. Extrapolating this figure to the gut
265 microbiota, from fluorescence *in situ* hybridization studies it is estimated that the faecal
266 microbiota harbours $\sim 10^{11}$ bacteria/g faeces in healthy adults [26]. Consequently, one would
267 expect the presence of at least 10^{12} VLPs/g faeces. Enumerating VLPs in faeces via FFs (or
268 any liquid medium) by EFM is highly subjective as a dot of very intense fluorescence may in
269 fact represent a cluster of VLPs (Fig. 2), a phenomenon frequently encountered during this
270 study. Patel *et al.* [18] stated that, to accurately enumerate VLPs by EFM, micro-adjustments
271 using the fine focus of the microscope have to be made to ensure that all viruses in a
272 particular grid-reticle box are counted. We agree with this statement, and furthermore add
273 that many VLPs have very likely been lost during the preparation and filtering of samples,
274 either by association with debris in the initial centrifugations or by being caught in the filters
275 because of clogging or because the VLPs are too big to pass through the pores (e.g. members
276 of the order *Megavirales* [27]). Even after centrifugation, the supernatants from several of the
277 samples, while appearing relatively translucent, were highly viscous (perhaps due to host
278 mucins) and clogged the 0.45 μm filters with less than 2 ml of sample being filtered.
279 Consequently, the values we provide for the numbers of VLPs in FFs and faecal samples are
280 a conservative estimate. We believe the true number of VLPs present in faeces to be higher,
281 possibly between 10^{10} and 10^{12} VLPs/g faeces. Lepage *et al.* [4] determined there to be 10^{10}
282 VLPs/mm³ tissue in their study of mucosal VLPs.

283

284 **3.2 Examination of VLP diversity in FFs by the use of TEM**

285 VLPs were readily detected in the TBT-extracted faecal samples from all donors by
286 TEM. Bacterial cells were never observed in any samples examined by TEM (limit of
287 detection 10^6 per ml). It was striking how visibly different/distinct the VLP assemblages were
288 between the donors, with no two donors sharing the same VLPs, at least on the basis of
289 morphological appearance (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4; Supplementary Fig. 1). The vast majority of
290 VLPs present in the samples appear to represent bacteriophages. Donor 1's VLP assemblage
291 was predominated by small and large isometric-headed *Siphoviridae* with various tail length
292 sizes (approx. 120 nm, 350 nm, 650 nm, or, in one extreme case, 1220 nm), with some small
293 and large isometric-headed *Myoviridae* also present (Fig. 3a). Notably, donor 2's VLP
294 assemblage was more diverse, predominated by numerous different morphotypes of
295 *Myoviridae* with *Siphoviridae* also present (Fig. 3b). Interestingly, two detached *Myoviridae*
296 tails of extreme length (480 nm) and thickness of the sheaths (40 nm) indicated the presence
297 of giant *Myoviridae* phages (Fig. 3b). Sime-Ngando *et al.* [28] have reported isolation of
298 bacteriophages with tails of 400 nm in length (heads 50–130 nm) from hypersaline lake
299 samples, though images of these large bacteriophages are unavailable for direct comparison
300 of the tails' structures with those found in this study. Donor 2's faecal sample contained
301 distinct small isometric-headed *Myoviridae* phages with uncommon radial fibers (approx 150
302 nm in length) attached to the capsids (~70 nm diameter) (Fig. 4). These fibers are clearly
303 extending the 110-nm tails of these phages, suggesting a primary role in bacteriophage
304 adsorption. This unique bacteriophage morphotype was also documented in low numbers in
305 Donor 4's faecal sample (not shown), and in caecal samples L16 (not shown) and L18
306 (Supplementary Fig. 2d). Fig. 4 also illustrates the apparent clustering of *Myoviridae* phages
307 in samples. VLPs of various morphotypes derived from Donors 3, 4, 5, and 6 are shown in
308 Supplementary Figure 1a–d. “Zeppelin”-like VLPs of constant thickness (56 nm) but

309 different lengths (370–630 nm) were detected in Donor 5 (Supplementary Fig. 1c) and Donor
310 6's samples (Supplementary Fig. 1d). Donor 6's sample was predominated by these
311 "zeppelin"-like VLPs, with only a few bacteriophages detected. Sime-Ngando et al. [28]
312 reported the presence of rods of up to 22–24 × 1000 nm: similar to the 'zeppelins' identified
313 in the present study, these rods had no visible internal or external structures. The largest
314 *Myoviridae* phages found in this study were documented for the sample of Donor 5
315 (Supplementary Fig. 1c), with the phages having prolate heads of 150 × 115 nm and tails of
316 400 nm in length. The sample from Donor 6 did not reveal the same level of diversity as seen
317 for the other faecal samples and the reason for this is not known (Supplementary Fig. 1d).
318 Enumeration of VLPs in the sample of Donor 2 (highest number of VLPs as detected by
319 TEM) demonstrated there to be approx. 5×10^7 VLPs/ml FF.

320 For the majority of the caecal samples, a lower extent of viral biodiversity was
321 documented. Sample L10 (no clinical data) was unique, containing exclusively small
322 isometric-headed *Podoviridae* (50 nm diameter) and ~20-nm long appendages (Fig. 5b).
323 Samples L08 (healthy) (Fig. 5a), and L02 and L03 (both IBD) (Suppl. Fig. 5b, c) appeared to
324 exclusively contain *Myoviridae* phages. The greatest extent of morphological variation and
325 the highest bacteriophage numbers were seen in caecal samples L16 (no clinical data) and
326 L17 (no clinical data) (Fig. 5c, d) and – to a lesser extent – in samples L01 (diverticulosis)
327 and L18 (no clinical data) (Supplementary Fig. 2a, d). A new type of a giant *Myoviridae*
328 bacteriophage was exclusively found in sample L16 (Fig. 5c) with isometric heads of 125 nm
329 in diameter, with tails of 340 nm in length and unique "curled" tail fibers of ~70-nm in
330 length.

331 Lepage *et al.* [4] demonstrated that gut mucosal samples were predominated by
332 morphotypes consistent with *Siphoviridae*, *Myoviridae* and *Podoviridae*, and that each

333 individual appeared to be colonized by one dominant bacteriophage family. Our TEM results
334 for faecal and caecal VLP assemblages are consistent with these results.

335

336 **3.3 PFGE of VLPs present in FFs**

337 It was clear from the EFM and TEM analyses that, based on the number of VLPs
338 present in our samples, it should be possible to isolate large amounts of VLP-derived DNA
339 from faeces. Attempts to recover abundant VLP DNA from samples using the centrifugation
340 method of Thurber *et al.* [15], and which was used by [9] and [11] to isolate VLP DNA from
341 faecal samples, proved disappointing in terms of the recovered DNA yield. However,
342 increasing the centrifugation speed to 100,000 *g*, routinely used in the laboratory to purify
343 lactococcal bacteriophages for preparation of high-quality DNA and used by Kulikov *et al.*
344 [29] to recover bacteriophages from horse faeces, markedly improved recovery of faecal
345 VLPs.

346 To concentrate VLPs from 20-ml quantities of FF so that they could be applied to
347 CsCl gradients in 5 ml aliquots, it was decided to use PEG precipitation. This method of
348 recovery has previously been used with, for example, marine samples and faecal samples to
349 improve detection of F-specific coliphages in faecal material [16, 17], and allows large
350 starting volumes of sample to be used for recovering VLPs from human faeces. The method
351 can be scaled easily so that the VLPs from larger volumes of FF are precipitated for
352 collection by centrifugation: we used 20 ml of FF from each donor here to demonstrate the
353 efficacy of the method, but the entire FF derived for each donor's 25 g of starting material
354 could have been used for PEG precipitation of VLPs.

355 PEG-precipitated samples resuspended in 1 ml TBT were examined using PFGE.
356 Aliquots (40 µl) of the resuspended pellets were heated at 60°C [9] or 75°C ([24] used this
357 temperature to inactivate nucleases) before PFGE. Profiles containing one or more bands

were observed for samples from all donors (Fig. 6). Following treatment at 60°C, Donor 1's sample produced a faint band at 105 kb, with this band being more prominent following sample treatment at 75°C; at the higher temperature, bands were also observed at 135 kb and just below 48.5 kb, with the most prominent band at 79 kb. Donor 2's 60°C-treated sample produced a profile with a faint smear and a thin band at 84 kb; with the 75°C-treated sample, the smear was more pronounced, with a thick band observed between 75 and 84 kb. Similar to Donor 2, the smear in Donor 4's sample became more pronounced following treatment at the higher temperature. For Donor 3's 60°C-treated sample, two strong bands (at 66 and 97 kb) were observed; in the 75°C-treated samples, bands were observed at 57 kb, 75 kb and 97 kb. The profile of Donor 5 was most affected by changing the temperature at which samples were treated prior to loading on the gel: the 60°C-treated sample had three bands visible (most prominent at 100 kb, fainter bands at 48.5 kb and 66 kb), whereas the 75°C-treated sample had these three bands with at least another 8 bands visible between 48.5 and 97.0 kb. Donor 6's sample had a faint band just below 48.5 kb after heating at 60°C, whereas the sample heated at the higher temperature produced two prominent bands that were smaller than 48.5 kb. The results from the gel were reproducible (triplicate gels run; data not shown). It is unsurprising that heating at 75°C produced more complex banding patterns, as we would expect the higher temperature to disassemble (some of) the capsids of VLPs resistant to heating at 60°C, thereby releasing packaged DNA.

Using this method, it was possible to visualize VLP DNA when stained with SYBR Gold (Fig. 6) or ethidium bromide (Supplementary Fig. 3). It was clear that increasing the temperature at which the samples were heated prior to loading onto the gel revealed greater diversity in the samples, and that each individual harboured a unique VLP assemblage (Fig. 4). This is in agreement with the findings of the metagenomic studies of [11] and [12]. The sample from Donor 6 did not reveal the same level of diversity as seen for the other donors,

383 in agreement with the results shown by TEM (Supplementary Fig. 1d). This donor's sample
384 was predominated by “zeppelin”-like VLPs that may not have released their nucleic acids by
385 the conditions employed here.

386 Heating PEG-precipitated samples allowed us to generate PFGE images that
387 demonstrated that each individual harbours a unique VLP assemblage, and encouraged us to
388 continue with studies to improve recovery of VLP DNA from human faeces. It also showed
389 that our method of recovery of VLPs present in faeces was superior to that used previously
390 by [9] to generate a viral assemblage fingerprint. In that study, the authors stated that the
391 limited amount of DNA recovered using tangential flow filtration with a 500 g faecal sample
392 from a 33-year-old made it necessary to enhance the sample bands on the gel relative to the
393 ladder. In contrast, no enhancement of the bands detected by SYBR Gold (Fig. 6) or ethidium
394 bromide (Supplementary Fig. 3) was required using the methodology described herein,
395 although SYBR Gold was, as expected, far more sensitive than ethidium bromide. PEG
396 precipitation of VLPs present in 20 ml of FF, as used in this study, equates to the extraction
397 of VLPs from ~4 g faeces (sample losses are seen during filtration, and vary from donor to
398 donor due to the differences in viscosity of faecal supernatant obtained after removal of most
399 bacteria and debris from samples after centrifugation), with 50 µl of the resuspended PEG
400 precipitate representing VLPs isolated from ~200 mg of faeces.

401 The current study used a crude method of extracting DNA for PFGE. Using the
402 method of Rohozinski *et al.* [30], in which VLPs are embedded in agarose blocks, with CsCl-
403 purified VLPs prior to heating may allow better ‘fingerprinting’ of VLPs in faecal samples.
404 This could, for example, be used as an inexpensive means of determining the effect of
405 freeze–thawing faecal samples prior to the recovery of VLPs from faecal samples. All of the
406 metagenomic studies conducted to date on the human faecal virome have used samples that
407 have been frozen prior to recovery of VLPs from samples.

408

409 **3.4 Isolation of high-quality DNA from FFs**

410 Reyes *et al.* [11] and Thurber *et al.* [15] (based on the work of [9]) have reported
411 recovery of ~500 ng (from 2–5 g of frozen faeces) and 500–3000 ng (from 500 g of fresh
412 faeces), respectively. The method of Reyes *et al.* [11] is closest to that presented herein for
413 the recovery of VLPs from faeces [i.e. they hand-filtered samples, whereas Breitbart *et al.* [9]
414 used tangential flow filtration to process their sample]. As stated above, 20 ml of FF equates
415 to ~4 g faeces. We processed 500 µl portions of 3.5–4 ml CsCl-purified VLPs for DNA
416 extraction, and resuspended the DNA in 50 µl of TE (Fig. 7). If we had processed the entire
417 PEG-precipitated, CsCl-purified VLP sample for each donor, we would have recovered
418 between ~1000 and 1800 ng from ~4 g of faeces (theoretically ~6000–11000 ng from 25 g of
419 faeces). This increase in recovery of DNA is thought to be mainly due to the use of 0.45 µm
420 filters rather than 0.22 µm filters to process samples, supported by our observation that
421 passing FFs through 0.22 µm filters led to VLP counts by EFM that were approximately half
422 of those of the 0.45 µm-filtered samples. Increasing filter size and using PEG precipitation to
423 increase the volume of sample that can be processed would allow greater sampling of the
424 faecal virome in future metagenomics studies.

425 In addition to demonstrating the utility of the method with faecal samples, we have
426 successfully isolated VLP DNA from human caecal effluent (Fig. 7). For each of the samples,
427 20 ml of 0.45 µm-filtered caecal filtrate prepared in LL was PEG-precipitated, with the VLPs
428 then purified on CsCl gradients. These 20-ml aliquots equated to ~4 ml caecal effluent from
429 each of the three samples examined. We started with 30, 30 and 10 ml, respectively, of
430 effluent from caecal samples L07 (healthy), L08 (no clinical data) and L10 (no clinical data).
431 Therefore, if the filtrate from entire homogenates of these samples had been processed, we
432 would have expected to isolate between ~600 and 8000 ng VLP DNA from caecal effluent.

433 Consequently, it should be possible to conduct metagenomics studies of the VLP
434 assemblages associated with the human caecum using the methods described herein.

435

436 **3.5 Conclusions**

437 We have presented a series of methods for enumerating and characterizing VLPs
438 present in human faecal and caecal samples. On the basis of enumeration of VLPs using
439 EFM, there are $\sim 10^8$ VLPs/ml FF, with faeces thought contain up to 10^{12} VLPs per gram of
440 sample. TEM analysis of faecal VLPs indicates that an individual is colonized by one
441 dominant bacteriophage family, with *Myoviridae* and *Siphoviridae* representing the main
442 families of bacteriophage detected in faeces. PFGE analysis of PEG-concentrated samples
443 has demonstrated that each individual harbours a unique VLP population, and that the
444 temperature at which samples are treated greatly affects diversity observed. Using 0.45 μm
445 filters to prepare samples, it is possible to isolate twice as much DNA as reported previously
446 from ~ 4 g of faeces. The inclusion of PEG precipitation in the methodology means that VLPs
447 from large volumes of FF can be concentrated, allowing recovery of microgram quantities of
448 VLP DNA from faecal samples. In addition, PEG precipitation and CsCl purification can be
449 used to recover VLPs from human caecal samples, with nanogram quantities of VLP DNA
450 being recovered from the processed samples.

451

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453

453 **4. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

454 Dr Bernard M. Mackey (University of Reading) is thanked for the use of
455 epifluorescence microscopy facilities, as is Angela Back (MRI Kiel) for her expert technical
456 support in electron microscopy.

457

458

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- 531

531 **Fig. 1.** Number of VLPs detected in FFs by using EFM. Values are shown as mean + SD ($n =$
532 2 per donor). Passing samples through a 0.22 μm filter reduced the number of VLPs present
533 in samples by approximately half (data not shown). White bars, per ml FF (faeces); grey bars,
534 per g faeces.

535

536

536 **Fig. 2.** Image showing faecal VLPs as they appear under an epifluorescence microscope
537 ($\times 1000$ magnification). Bacteriophages appear as ‘pinpricks’ of light when stained with
538 SYBR Gold. The brightest ‘pinpricks’ (black arrows) represent clusters of up to 30 VLPs.
539 The black dot (shown in the white circle) on the images is due to a scratch on the microscope
540 lens. (a) Contamination on filter, which gives an idea of the size and appearance of a
541 bacterium in comparison with VLPs. (b) Negative control, 0.1 μm -filtered, autoclaved H₂O.
542 (c) Negative control, sterile 0.5 % ‘Lab-Lemco’/6 % NaCl. (d) Donor 1, 0.22 μm -filtered
543 sample; (e) Donor 1 0.45 μm -filtered sample. (f) Donor 2, 0.22 μm -filtered sample; (g)
544 Donor 2, 0.45 μm -filtered sample. Scale bar, 10 μm .

545

545 **Fig. 3.** Transmission electron micrographs revealing the diversity of VLPs found in faeces.
546 (a) Donor 1 (female, 41 years) and (b) Donor 2 (female, 36 years) after extraction of VLPs in
547 TBT buffer.

548

548 **Fig. 4.** Transmission electron micrographs of VLPs found in faeces of Donor 2 (female, 36
549 years) after extraction of VLPs in TBT buffer showing *Myoviridae* phages with radial
550 whiskers attached to the capsids (top) and clusters of *Myoviridae* phages adsorbing to
551 membrane vesicle material (bottom).

552

552 **Fig. 5.** Transmission electron micrographs revealing the diversity of VLPs found in caecal
553 effluents. Sample (a) L08, (b) L10, (c) L16 and (d) L17 after extraction of VLPs in LL. No
554 clinical data were available for these individuals.

555

555 **Fig. 6.** Use of PFGE to examine VLP populations in PEG-precipitated FFs (faeces), and
556 demonstration that increasing the temperature at which samples are heated prior to loading
557 onto the gel can affect the diversity uncovered. The gel was stained with SYBR Gold and
558 visualized as described in Methods. This is a crude (but inexpensive) method of examining
559 VLP populations in human faeces, and demonstrates that each individual harbours a unique
560 VLP profile. Ladder, lambda ladder (#340; New England Biolabs).

561

561 **Fig. 7.** Isolation of high-quality DNA from CsCl-purified samples of human gastrointestinal
562 VLPs. VLP preparations were CsCl-purified and DNA extracted as described in Methods.
563 Aliquots (10 µl) of sample were run on a 0.8 % agarose gel at 90 V for 30 min. Lane 1,
564 molecular size ladder; lane 2, φKPLN1 positive control (a bacteriophage isolated from the
565 human caecum that infects *Klebsiella pneumoniae* subsp. *pneumoniae* K2 strains; L. Hoyles,
566 unpublished data), 63 ng DNA/µl; lane 3, VLP extract from faeces of Donor 4, 3.1 ng
567 DNA/µl; lane 4, VLP extract from faeces of Donor 3, 4.5 ng DNA/µl; lane 5, VLP extract
568 from caecal sample L07 (healthy), 0.2 ng DNA/µl; lane 6, VLP extract from caecal sample
569 L08 (no clinical data), 2.7 ng DNA/µl; lane 7, VLP extract from caecal sample L10 (no
570 clinical data), 3.8 ng DNA/µl. The two black arrows highlight the presence of RNA in the
571 sample from Donor 3, confirmed by treating the CsCl-purified sample with 20 µl of 1 mg/mL
572 RNase A (bovine pancreas, ≥70 Kunitz/mg protein, prepared in 0.1 µm-filtered, sterile H₂O)
573 with the DNase in a second DNA extraction (not shown). VLPs and DNA were extracted
574 from human caecum samples (1:4 LL, v/v) as described in Methods as part of a study
575 examining the microbiota associated with the human caecum (L. Hoyles, unpublished data).
576 With the exception of the sample in lane 5, DNA visible to the naked eye was extracted from
577 all samples of gastrointestinal origin.

578