

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Clinical measures of disease in adult non-CF bronchiectasis correlate with airway microbiota composition

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► Additional material is published online only. To view please visit the journal online (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/thoraxjnl-2012-203105>).

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Received 7 December 2012

Accepted 18 March 2013

Published Online First

6 April 2013

ABSTRACT

Rationale Despite the potentially important roles for infection in adult non-cystic fibrosis (CF) bronchiectasis disease progression, the bacterial species present in the lower airways of these patients is poorly characterised.

Objectives To provide a comprehensive cross-sectional analysis of bacterial content of lower airway samples from patients with non-CF bronchiectasis using culture-independent microbiology.

Methods Paired induced sputum and bronchoalveolar lavage samples, obtained from 41 adult patients with non-CF bronchiectasis, were analysed by 16S ribosomal RNA gene pyrosequencing. Assessment of species distribution and dispersal allowed 'core' and 'satellite' bacterial populations to be defined for this patient group. Microbiota characteristics correlated with clinical markers of disease.

Measurement and main results 140 bacterial species were identified, including those associated with respiratory tract infections and opportunistic infections more generally. A group of core species, consisting of species detected frequently and in high abundance, was defined. Core species included those currently associated with infection in bronchiectasis, such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Haemophilus influenzae* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, and many species that would be unlikely to be reported through standard diagnostic surveillance. These included members of the genera *Veillonella*, *Prevotella* and *Neisseria*. The comparative contribution of core and satellite groups suggested a low level of random species acquisition. Bacterial diversity was significantly positively correlated with forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV₁) and bacterial community composition similarity correlated significantly with FEV₁, neutrophil count and Leicester cough score.

Conclusions Characteristics of the lower airways microbiota of adult patients with non-CF bronchiectasis correlate significantly with clinical markers of disease severity.

INTRODUCTION

Non-cystic fibrosis (CF) bronchiectasis (hereafter referred to as bronchiectasis) is a chronic airway disease characterised by abnormal destruction and dilation of the large airways, bronchi and bronchioles.¹ As a result of the associated dysfunction of mucociliary clearance, a vicious cycle is established involving persistent bacterial colonisation, chronic inflammation of the bronchial mucosa, and

Key messages

What is the key question?

- Does the lower airway microbiota in non-cystic fibrosis bronchiectasis reflect clinical measures of disease progression?

What is the bottom line?

- There is a significant correlation between airway microbiota composition and the severity of airways disease, cough-specific symptoms and airway inflammation.

Why read on?

- We describe a relationship between airway microbiota and clinical measures that could provide a novel biomarker of disease, and also potentially indicate causal interactions

progressive tissue destruction.² Bronchiectasis is associated with chronic and frequently purulent expectoration, multiple exacerbations and progressive dyspnoea that can become disabling.¹⁻³ While bronchiectasis can result from a variety of recognised aetiologies, it is often considered idiopathic.

A number of bacterial species have been associated with lower airway infection in bronchiectasis through traditional diagnostic culture-based detection; in particular *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Moraxella catarrhalis*,⁴ with certain species having been shown to correlate strongly with clinical markers of disease. For example, *P aeruginosa*, associated with accelerated lung function decline in CF, also has a detrimental effect on prognosis in non-CF bronchiectasis.^{5 6}

Given the role of bacterial infection, in sustaining chronic disease and in the incidence of acute exacerbation, obtaining a better understanding of the relationship between airway bacterial species and bronchiectasis is important. As routinely deployed, culture-based diagnostic microbiology is well suited to the detection of certain respiratory pathogens. However, other bacterial species, particularly those that are refractory to growth under standard diagnostic conditions, may go unreported.

To cite: Rogers GB, van der Gast CJ, Cuthbertson L, et al. *Thorax* 2013;**68**:731-737.

The application of culture-independent techniques that detect and identify bacterial species based on nucleic acid sequence signatures has revealed that substantial differences may exist between species reported by culture, and the total pool of species present in lower airway samples.⁷ In particular, the introduction of next-generation sequencing approaches has led to detailed characterisation of the bacterial species associated with the lower airways in a number of respiratory contexts, including CF,^{8–14} and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.^{15–17}

Importantly, such detailed microbiological characterisation also allows the definition of the airway ‘microbiota’ for a particular condition. Here, microbiota refers to the entire pool of bacteria occupying a given body site. The characteristics of the microbiota may have clinical importance that is distinct from that of its composite species. For example, the diversity of the microbiota present in the lower airways of adult patients with CF has been shown to be correlated to lung function.⁹ Further, by assessing the distribution and dispersal of microbiota within the patient population, it is possible to categorise the species detected as either ‘core’ which are common across patients and typically abundant or ‘satellite’, which are rarer with the patient group and typically of low abundance when detected. Such meta-analytical approaches have been applied previously in the context of CF lung infections,^{9, 12} allowing the identification of a subset of bacterial species characteristic of this condition to be identified.

We hypothesised that application of culture-independent analysis to samples from the lower airways of adults with bronchiectasis would reveal the presence of a diverse bacterial microbiota, and that characteristics of the microbiota detected would correlate with clinical measures of disease.

To test these hypotheses, 16S rRNA gene 454 pyrosequencing analysis was applied to DNA extracted from bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) and induced sputum samples from 41 adults with bronchiectasis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The BLESS study was a 12-month double-blind, randomised, placebo-controlled study of low-dose erythromycin in patients with non-CF bronchiectasis with at least two infective pulmonary exacerbations in the preceding 12 months.¹⁸ At baseline, a subgroup of 41 patients who had no evidence of additional (non-bronchiectasis) chronic respiratory disease were compared with a group of healthy volunteers (full details of inclusion and exclusion criteria for the BLESS study, the current subgroup and the control group are provided in the online data supplement). Patients with bronchiectasis and control subjects were lifelong non-smokers (<2 pack-year history), aged 18–85 years with no history of asthma or atopy, recent respiratory tract infection (within 4 weeks) or conditions with the potential to impact the safe performance of bronchoscopy. Patients with bronchiectasis had no evidence of (non-bronchiectasis) acute or chronic respiratory disease and were not receiving systemic corticosteroids. All subjects were macrolide naïve and no patients in the study were receiving nebulised antibiotics.

Normal control subjects had no evidence of respiratory disease, no history of use of any bronchoactive medications and normal spirometry (forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV₁), forced vital capacity (FVC) and ratio of FEV₁:FVC all lying within the normal predicted range, no significant acute response to inhaled bronchodilator (BD) and no evidence of small airways obstruction). Full details of inclusion and exclusion criteria for both groups are provided in the online data supplement. The study was approved by the Mater Human Research Ethics

Committee, Brisbane, and all subjects provided written, informed consent. Patients’ details are summarised in table 1, with full details shown in online supplementary table S1, and diagnostic microbiology data shown in online supplementary table S2. Details of control subjects are shown in online supplementary table S3.

Lower airway sample collection

A full description of the methodology used in the collection of BAL samples is provided in the online data supplement. Sputum induction with 4.5% hypertonic saline was performed between 48 h and 5 days prior to bronchoscopy, using methods previously described.¹⁹ The first collected sample was stored at –80°C for subsequent molecular analysis, and the subsequent three samples (10, 15 and 20 min) were pooled and processed for determination of non-squamous cell counts (see online data supplement for full details). All BAL and sputum samples were frozen rapidly at –80°C and subsequently transported to King’s College London on dry ice for processing.

DNA extraction

Nucleic acid extractions were carried out using a combination of physical disruption and the phenol/chloroform extraction method, described previously.¹² Full details of the methodology used are provided in the online data supplement.

Pyrosequencing

Bacterial tag-encoded FLX amplicon pyrosequencing (bTEFAP) was performed as described previously.¹² A full description of the methodology is provided in the online data supplement. The sequence data obtained have been submitted to the Science

Table 1 Summarised characteristics of patients with non-cystic fibrosis bronchiectasis

Gender (male:female)	13:28	
	Range	Mean (± SD)
Age (years)	37–74	62.9 (± 6.9)
FEV ₁ % pre bronchodilator	35–102	72.9 (± 15.3)
FEV ₁ % post bronchodilator	41–104	76.8 (± 14.4)
Duration of bronchiectasis (years)	4–70	40.7 (± 22.9)
Pulmonary exacerbations reported in the preceding 12 months (n)	2–12	5.0 (± 2.8)
LCS	5.5–20	14.2 (± 4.0)
SGRQ total	19–80	39.4 (± 16.4)
SGRQ symptoms	24–100	59.8 (± 20.9)
C-reactive protein (mg/litre)	0–18	4.7 (± 4.8)
Sputum neutrophils (×10 ⁵ /ml)	56–611	382.8 (± 122.3)
Sputum % neutrophils	39–99	83.7 (± 15.3)
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> positive (standard culture)*	27% (11 of 41)	
<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> positive (standard culture)*	29% (12 of 41)	
ICS use		
Alone	12% (5 of 41)	
In combination with LABA	44% (18 of 41)	

Of the 41 subjects, 40 were Caucasian and one was Maori.

*Standard diagnostic microbiology performed on separate sample to that used for molecular analysis.

FEV₁ %, forced expiratory volume in 1 s as a percentage of the predicted value; ICS, inhaled corticosteroid; LABA, long-acting β agonist; LCS, Leicester Cough Score, lower scores indicate worse cough symptoms, range 3–21; SGRQ, St George’s Respiratory Questionnaire—range 1–100, lower scores indicate better quality of life, symptoms component measures the effect of respiratory symptoms; sputum % neutrophils, neutrophils in induced sputum as a percent of total non-squamous cells.

Research Associates database, hosted by the National Center for Biotechnology Information, under the study accession number SRA066194.

Statistical analysis

To avoid potential biases in comparisons of diversity between local communities due to varying number of sequences per sample,²⁰ a randomised re-sampling method, using three indices of diversity (taxa richness (S^*), Shannon–Wiener index (H') and Simpson's complement index ($1-D$)) were used as described previously.¹² To partition bacterial species detected across all samples into core and satellite species groups, the Poisson distribution test was carried out as described previously.⁹ Regression analysis, coefficients of determination (r^2), residuals and significance (p) were calculated using Minitab software (V14.20, Minitab, University Park, Pennsylvania, USA). Boxplots were generated using the XLSTAT programme (V2011, Addinsoft, Paris, France). Meta-analysis, using Hedges' d effect size measure, was performed as previously described.¹²

The Bray–Curtis quantitative index of community similarity and subsequent average linkage clustering of community profiles were performed using PAST (Paleontological Statistics programme, V2.16), available from the University of Oslo website link (<http://folk.uio.no/ohammer/past>). Similarity of percentages (SIMPER) analysis was used to determine the contribution of each species to the observed similarity between samples. SIMPER analyses were performed as previously described²⁷ using Community Analysis Package (V4, Pisces Conservation Ltd, Lymington, UK). Mantel and partial Mantel tests were performed as described previously²² using the XLSTAT programme.

RESULTS

Patients

Paired BAL and induced sputum samples were collected from 41 patients with bronchiectasis (see table 1 for demographics). Aetiologies were idiopathic (26, 63%), post infectious (10, 24%) and pink disease (4, 10%). Standard culture of sputum reported *P aeruginosa* in 11 subjects (27%), *H influenzae* in 12 (29%) and 'normal respiratory flora' in the remainder.

PCR amplification

PCR amplification was achieved for 38 of the 41 induced sputum sample DNA extracts and 15 of 41 corresponding BAL sample DNA extracts. Four out of 16 control group samples provided a positive bacterial signal by PCR. No amplification was achieved for extracts from saline controls.

16S rRNA gene pyrosequencing

An average of 2753 16S rRNA gene sequences were obtained per sample ($SD \pm 1326$), with 140 distinct bacterial species detected (see online supplementary table S4). The majority of species detected were associated with respiratory tract infections, opportunistic infections more generally, or the commensal populations of the oral cavity, and included aerobic and anaerobic species (see online supplementary table S4). The species detected included those commonly associated with chronic infection in bronchiectasis: *H influenzae* was detected in 34 of the 38 induced sputum samples (89.5%), *P aeruginosa* in 25 (65.8%), *S pneumoniae* in 31 (81.6%), *S aureus* in 7 (18.4%) and *M catarrhalis* in 10 (26.3%). Culture-based detection of *P aeruginosa* and *H influenzae* was confirmed in all cases, with culture-independent sequence-based detection in a further 15 and 22 patients, respectively.

Pyrosequencing was also performed on the four healthy control samples for which a positive bacterial PCR signal was obtained (two BAL samples and two induced sputum samples). Given the small number of control samples for which sequence data were obtained, it was not possible to compare species distribution with that obtained for bronchiectasis samples. However, the bacterial taxa identified in control samples, and their relative abundance, are shown in online supplementary table S6. In keeping with the analysis of bronchiectasis samples, substantially more sequences were obtained from the sputum sample compared with the BAL. In both sputum samples, low relative levels of *S pneumoniae/pseudopneumonia* (0.15% and

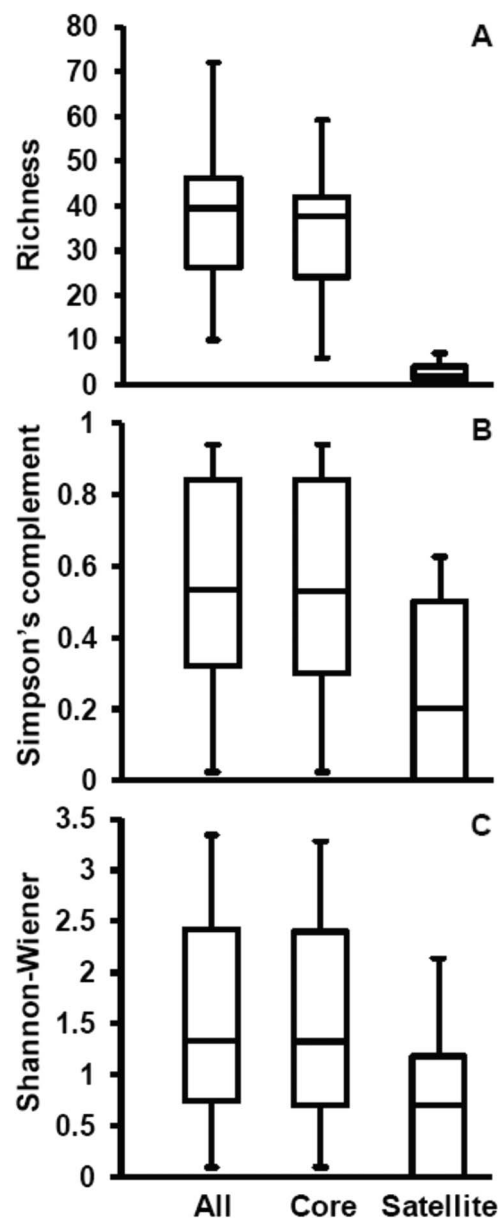


Figure 1 Boxplot comparisons of mean diversity in sputum samples for all communities and the core and satellite species groups across all patients ($n=38$). Three measures of diversity are given: (A) species richness, (B) Simpson's complement index ($1-D$), and (C) Shannon–Wiener index (H'). The top and bottom boundaries of each box indicate the 75th and 25th quartile values, respectively, and lines within each box represent the 50th quartile values. Ends of whiskers mark the lowest and highest diversity values in each instance.

1.36% of sequences, respectively), and *H influenzae/parainfluenzae* (0.59% and 3.87%, respectively) were detected. No other bronchiectasis-associated species were detected.

Identifying 'core' bacterial species

Poisson distribution tests were used to determine which species detected were non-randomly or randomly distributed across patients, based on their detection in induced sputum samples (see online supplementary figure S1). The process provided an objective basis for partitioning species into core and satellite species groups, respectively. The core group was composed of 86 species compared with 54 species in the satellite group (figure 1). The membership of the core and satellite groups is indicated for the species detected in online supplementary table S4. SIMPER analysis of bacterial community similarity between patients was used to identify those species that contributed most to the similarity observed. These species are listed, in decreasing order of contribution, in table 2. Again, these species (all core group members) represent a mixture of respiratory pathogens and species associated with the oral cavity, with the greatest contribution to the observed similarity between samples due to the presence of *H influenzae*.

Comparison of sample types

Analysis of bacterial diversity for induced sputum samples and BAL samples was performed to assess the degree to which the two sample types were comparable. Boxplot comparisons of mean diversity are shown in figure 2. Meta-analyses were used to summarise the effect of all 14 paired samples using Hedges' *d* effect size measure,¹² treating the different samples as independent of each other and the two sample types (BAL and sputum) as separate groups within samples. The overall effects of sample type on diversity showed no significant effect on any of the diversity measures used (figure 2). In addition, diversity was highly variable across individual samples, where meta-analyses of paired BAL and sputum samples revealed significant negative and positive effects on all diversity measures by sample type (see online supplementary figure S2).

Correlation of bacterial community diversity and similarity with clinical measures

Bacterial community diversity was found to have a positive linear correlation with lung function (FEV₁), as measured prior to, and

after, administration of a BD (figure 3). This relationship held true regardless of whether analysis was performed on 'all detected bacteria', 'core species' or 'satellite species'. Mantel tests were used to determine whether bacterial community composition similarity (Bray–Curtis similarity measure) correlated with differences in clinical measures of disease. A significant correlation (Mantel test) was observed between community composition similarity and FEV₁ (pre and post BD) regardless of whether analysis was performed on 'all detected bacteria', 'core species' or 'satellite species'. Significant correlations were also found between 'all' or core species with Leicester Cough Score (LCS), sputum neutrophil counts and gender, respectively. Mantel summary statistics are shown for all significant correlations in table 3. With the exception of gender, all other clinical measures were found to be co-correlated (see online supplementary table S5), reflecting their common relationship with airway disease. Partial Mantel tests revealed that FEV₁, LCS and sputum neutrophil counts, and gender maintained significant relationships with bacterial community composition when controlling for the effects of each other clinical measure (see online supplementary table S6).

DISCUSSION

The aims of this study were to characterise the bacterial microbiota associated with the lower airways of individuals with bronchiectasis, and to investigate whether a relationship exists between microbiota composition and clinical measures of disease. Before addressing these aims, it is important to consider the manner by which samples were obtained from the lower airways. Protected brush or BAL methods are often preferred due to the reduced potential acquisition of upper airway microbes. However, sputum induction is less invasive compared with bronchoscopy, and is more suitable for repeat sampling. The cross-sectional study presented here represents part of a larger, ongoing temporal study, and as such, an assessment of the relative suitability of the two sampling methods was performed. DNA extracts from induced samples were found to produce a positive PCR amplification signal significantly more frequently than extracts from corresponding BAL samples (93% compared with 37%, respectively). Comparison of the bacterial diversity reported in the respective extracts by pyrosequencing indicated that while the approaches differed in their sensitivity, their content was not significantly divergent. Given the greater coverage afforded by induced sputum, these samples were used for microbiota characterisation.

Table 2 Similarity of percentages analysis of bacterial community similarity between patients

Species	Samples detected in	Mean abundance	Mean contribution	% Contribution	Cumulative %
<i>Haemophilus influenza</i>	34	871.76	8.67	45.21	45.21
<i>Veillonella dispar</i>	37	146.03	1.78	9.29	54.49
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	25	467.08	1.65	8.62	63.12
<i>Streptococcus pneumonia</i>	31	165.00	1.01	5.29	68.41
<i>Neisseria subflava</i>	31	103.53	0.96	5.00	73.41
<i>Pseudomonas spp</i>	20	187.71	0.64	3.34	76.75
<i>Streptococcus pseudopneumoniae</i>	30	93.24	0.63	3.28	80.03
<i>Veillonella parvula</i>	36	37.45	0.47	2.48	82.51
<i>Haemophilus parainfluenzae</i>	35	37.58	0.39	2.02	84.53
<i>Fusobacterium canifelinum</i>	34	51.08	0.37	1.95	86.48
<i>Prevotella melaninogenica</i>	32	32.29	0.32	1.67	88.15
<i>Porphyromonas gingivalis</i>	25	55.45	0.22	1.14	89.28
<i>Leptotrichia trevisanii</i>	25	21.37	0.19	0.98	90.27

The table presents the number of patients a given species was detected in, and the mean abundance of sequences for a species across the samples it was observed to occupy. Mean contribution represents the average contribution of a given species to the average similarity between samples (overall mean=19.17%). Percentage contribution is the mean contribution divided by mean similarity across samples. The list of species is not complete so cumulative % value does not sum to 100%. Species level identities of detected taxa are reported here. However, given the length of the ribosomal sequences analysed, these identities should be considered putative.

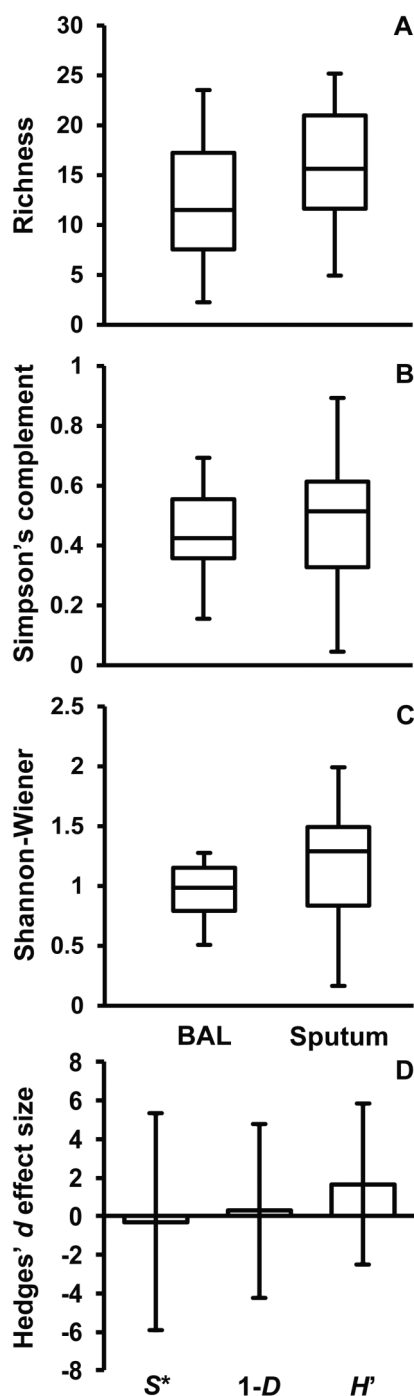


Figure 2 Boxplot comparisons and meta-analysis of diversity between a subset of paired BAL and sputum samples ($n = 14$). Given are three measures of diversity; (A) species richness, (B) Simpson's complement index (1-D), and Shannon-Wiener index (H'). The top and bottom boundaries of each box indicate the 75th and 25th quartile values, respectively, and lines within each box represent the 50th quartile (media) values. Ends of whiskers mark the lowest and highest diversity values in each instance. (D) Overall meta-analysis for the three measures of diversity using Hedge's d effect size measure between all BAL and sputum samples. Columns represent effect size and error bars represent the standard error (SE) of the effect size ($n = 14$). The SE bars that cross zero indicate no significant effect on diversity between samples types.

The pyrosequencing data presented here reveal a diverse airway microbiota, comparable to that reported in studies of other chronic respiratory diseases.⁸⁻¹⁷ Culture-based diagnostic

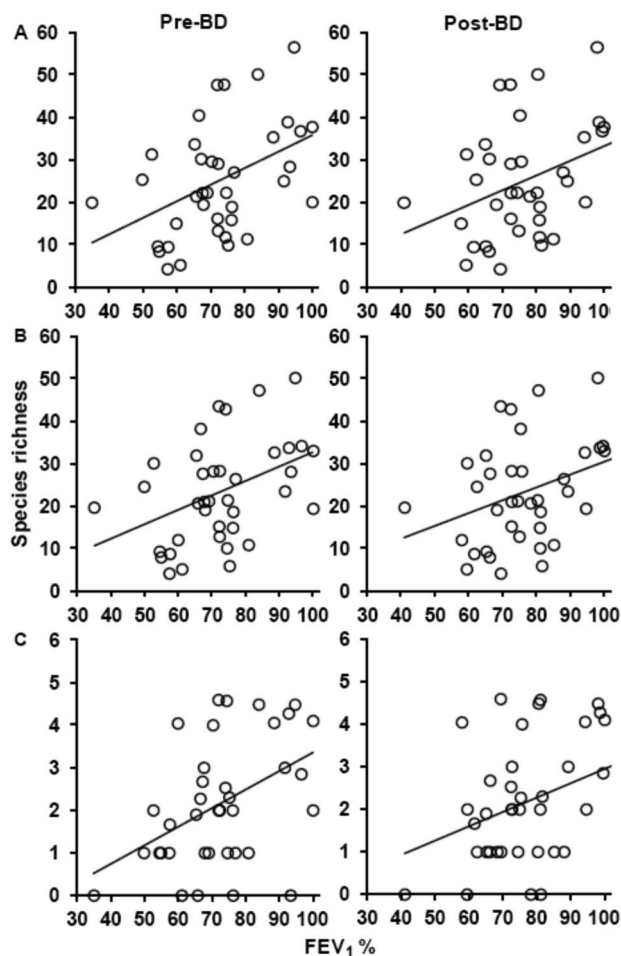


Figure 3 The relationships between bacterial species richness and lung function (forced expiratory volume in 1 s (FEV₁%) for (A) all communities, (B) the core group and (C) the satellite species group. Relationships are given for pre-bronchodilator (BD) and post-BD values. In each case linear regression lines have been fitted. For pre BD: all communities, $r^2=0.20$, $F_{1,36}=8.72$, $p=0.006$; core group, $r^2=0.18$, $F_{1,36}=7.69$, $p=0.009$; and satellite group, $r^2=0.20$, $F_{1,36}=8.87$, $p=0.005$. For post BD: all communities, $r^2=0.14$, $F_{1,36}=5.69$, $p=0.022$; core group, $r^2=0.12$, $F_{1,36}=5.09$, $p=0.030$; and satellite group, $r^2=0.11$, $F_{1,36}=4.20$, $p=0.048$.

microbiology is designed for the detection of specific pathogens of clinical significance, and as a result, the number of species reported is limited. The high frequency of detection of species traditionally associated with airway infections in patients with bronchiectasis reported here, including *P aeruginosa*, *H influenzae*, *S pneumoniae*, *S aureus* and *M catarrhalis* supports their perceived clinical importance. Further, the higher frequency of detection of *P aeruginosa* and *H influenzae* compared with culture-based diagnostic microbiology would appear to suggest that their prevalence, and their potential contribution to disease, may be yet greater than previously thought. In the case of *H influenzae*, some caution must be exercised when making comparisons between culture-based and molecular detection, as the reporting of the former was based on elevated levels compared with healthy individuals, rather than presence alone (as is the case for a number of other species, such as *S aureus* and certain streptococci). However, in the case of *P aeruginosa*, the magnitude of the difference was substantial, with its detection by molecular profiling alone in 14 of the patients studied (34%).

Table 3 Mantel summary statistics for all communities, and the core and satellite species groups.

Mantel test		All		Core		Satellite	
Parameter A	Parameter B	r	p Value	r	p Value	r	p Value
Similarity	FEV ₁ % (pre BD)	-0.167	<0.0001*	-0.167	<0.0001*	-0.087	0.007
Similarity	FEV ₁ % (post BD)	-0.182	<0.0001*	-0.182	<0.0001*	-0.089	0.006
Similarity	LCS	-0.126	<0.00018*	-0.126	<0.0001*	0.005	0.471
Similarity	Neutrophils	-0.112	0.001*	-0.113	0.001*	0.049	0.900
Similarity	Gender	-0.072	0.028	-0.072	0.027	-0.047	0.108

The Mantel statistic $r(AB)$ estimates the correlation (Pearson's correlation coefficient) between two proximity matrices, A and B, and p is used to ascertain whether Mantel regression coefficients were significantly different from 0 following 9999 Monte Carlo permutations. Mantel tests are presented between bacterial community similarity (Bray-Curtis index) and differences in clinical factors.

*p values significant after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons (0.05/10=0.005).
BD, bronchodilator; FEV₁, forced expiratory volume in 1 s; LCS, Leicester Cough Score.

The clinical implications of this are unclear, although they may be important given that our recent study suggests a particular subgroup benefit of erythromycin therapy in subjects with baseline *P. aeruginosa* infection (by standard culture based techniques).¹⁸ Furthermore, the detection by molecular methodologies of *H. influenzae* in 83% of bronchiectasis patients in this study (compared with 29% by culture) is a novel finding whose clinical significance requires further evaluation.

Within the diverse array of bacterial species reported here, it was possible, based on distribution and dispersal, to categorise species as either core or satellite within the microbiota. The core species group identified here was substantially larger than the satellite species group, with the majority of species present well conserved across the patients sampled. The relative size of the core and satellite groups' memberships also indicates a low level of random species acquisition, and potentially, a selective airway environment. The bacterial species that contributed most to the bacterial community similarity, as determined by SIMPER analysis, included a number of species that are considered to be respiratory pathogens and associated to some extent with bronchiectasis, including *H. influenzae*, *P. aeruginosa* and *S. pneumoniae*. However, interestingly, many core species, making a substantial contribution to the similarity observed, have not previously been associated with bronchiectasis. For example, members of the genera *Veillonella*, *Neisseria*, *Prevotella* all made a substantial contribution to the core microbiota membership. In each case, these species would be unlikely to be reported through standard diagnostic microbiology as it is employed in the analysis of airway samples. Further, these are species that are commonly reported in culture-independent analysis of CF lower airway infections.^{9 10 23 24}

The clinical significance of a much higher diversity of bacterial species present in the lower airways of patients with bronchiectasis than previously thought may extend beyond the pathogenicity of individual species. Bacterial diversity has been shown previously to be positively correlated with lung function in adult CF lung infections,⁹ where low diversity may reflect overgrowth by pathogens such as *P. aeruginosa*. As with these previous studies, here we report a significant correlation between bacterial diversity and bacterial community similarity and FEV₁.

By demonstrating that airway neutrophilic inflammation also relates to bacterial community similarity, our data extend the findings of prior studies that have shown relationships between airway inflammation and the bacterial load of potentially pathogenic species,²⁵ and the presence of *P. aeruginosa* in sputum.²⁶ Hence the total bacterial community, not just specific presumed

pathogenic bacteria, are related to neutrophilic airway inflammation in bronchiectasis.

Similarly, relationships recently described between the LCS and sputum bacterial load of pathogenic organisms²⁶ can now be extended to bacterial community similarity. The strong relationship seen between this marker and LCS (but not daily sputum production or St George's Respiratory Questionnaire scores) raises the intriguing possibility that cough symptoms specifically are linked to particular airway bacterial communities.

The relationships observed between airway microbiota characteristics and measures of the severity of airways disease, cough-specific symptoms and airway inflammation mirror those reported in previous studies looking at airway disease in other contexts, such as CF, for which bacterial community composition has been found to be linked to clinical markers of disease progression.^{10 13} Should such relationships be found to exist consistently in patients with non-CF bronchiectasis, analysis of airway microbiota might be informative as to the extent of disease progression, and could therefore have the potential to serve as a disease biomarker.

This study has some limitations that should be considered. The description of the core airway microbiota presented here is derived from the set of samples that was analysed, and the extent to which it represents the wider population of patients with bronchiectasis is not established. For example, analysis was based on a subset of patients willing and able to undergo bronchoscopy safely and may differ somewhat from the broader population of patients with non-CF bronchiectasis. Further, the relatively mild average airways obstruction in this patient group should be taken into consideration when comparing the microbiota data with those derived from other patient populations. In fact, given the relationship between microbiota characteristics and markers of disease described here, we would expect that similar examinations of patients with bronchiectasis, stratified according to severity, or other disease facets, might report a range of core microbiota types.

This study focused on defining the core lower airway microbiota associated with bronchiectasis, and to examine the potential role of the microbiota as a pathogenic entity. However, this is not to detract from the potential contribution to airways disease of specific pathogens, such as non-tuberculous mycobacterial species or fungi. Assessing the relative contribution of such pathogens, and that of particular microbiota compositions, to disease progression in this context must now be investigated through longitudinal studies, especially those spanning clinically important events, such as exacerbations.

The manner in which the analysis was performed should also be considered. Here, bacterial detection was based on total extracted DNA. Other studies focusing on detection of airway bacteria have used propidium monoazide treatment of samples to limit the contribution of non-viable bacteria or extracellular DNA,¹² or have based analysis on reverse transcribed rRNA.²⁷ Such approaches can be particularly useful when there is substantial challenge to the bacterial populations being studied, for example, through antibiotic therapy. It was felt here though that a total DNA-based analytical approach, as an initial cross-sectional survey of airway microbiota, would provide the best opportunity for comparison with the growing literature, focusing on the study of bronchiectasis associated bacteria and the microbiota in lower airways disease more widely.

Here, we report a significant correlation between the composition of the lower airway microbiota in individuals with non-CF bronchiectasis and clinical measures of airways disease severity. The extent to which microbiota characteristics reflect various clinical aspects of disease, and the degree to which the core microbiota varies with patient demographics, now require further investigation. In addition, it is important to define the relationship between microbiota characteristics and clinically key events, such as the onset of periods of exacerbation and resulting antibiotic therapy, or infection by particular pathogens. The potential of the microbiota to play a causal role in disease progression also warrants investigation.

Contributors All authors contributed equally to the conception, execution, analysis, and reporting of the study.

Funding CjvdG, LC and SKT are funded by the UK Natural Environment Research Council.

Competing interests None.

Provenance and peer review Not commissioned; internally peer reviewed.

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The core microbiota of non-CF bronchiectasis airways - Online Data Supplement

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In addition to their description below, details of recruitment and inclusion are provided as part of a separate publication, [1].

Non-CF bronchiectasis subject inclusion criteria:

1. Able to provide written informed consent.
2. Confirmed diagnosis of bronchiectasis by HRCT within 3 years.
3. Airways obstruction on spirometry (ratio FEV₁/ FVC <0.7) and FEV₁ ≥25% predicted.
4. Chronic productive cough with at least 5 mLs sputum production per day.
5. At least two exacerbations of bronchiectasis requiring either oral or intravenous supplemental antibiotic therapy (of at least 7 days on each occasion) in the prior 12 months.
6. Aged 20-85 inclusive.
7. Clinically stable for at least four weeks (defined as no symptoms of exacerbation, no requirement for supplemental antibiotic therapy, and FEV1 within 10% of best recently recorded value where available).

Exclusion criteria

1. Bronchiectasis as a result of CF or focal endobronchial obstruction.
2. Currently active tuberculosis or non-tuberculous mycobacterial (NTM) infection. Subjects with evidence of prior pulmonary NTM infection could be included only if they have completed a course of therapy that is deemed successful on the basis of negative NTM cultures following cessation of therapy. All subjects required a negative NTM culture prior to screening.
3. Any symptoms or signs to suggest recent deterioration in respiratory disease, including exacerbation of pulmonary disease (as previously defined) in the preceding 4 weeks.
4. Any change to medications in the preceding 4 weeks.
5. Prescription of either oral or intravenous antibiotic therapy in the preceding 4 weeks.
6. Cigarette smoking within the preceding 6 months.

7. Any history of malignant arrhythmia (unless in the immediate post-myocardial infarction period and not requiring any regular therapy) or QTc prolongation on baseline ECG.

8. Any of the following within the three (3) months prior to enrolment:

- Acute MI
- Acute CVA
- Major surgery

9. History of any of the following:

- Active malignancy (excepting non-melanoma skin malignancies that have been treated and considered cured)
- Listed for transplantation
- Any other significant active illness likely to affect the patient's survival within 12 months
- Receiving long-term domiciliary oxygen therapy

10. Allergy to macrolide antibiotics, other than minor, dose-related gastrointestinal intolerance that would not be anticipated to recur with low-dose erythromycin.

11. Any prescription or receipt of long-term macrolide antibiotics, or receipt of a treatment course within 4 weeks.

12. Predominant diagnosis of emphysema (rather than bronchiectasis) on HRCT scan of the chest.

13. Requirement for supplemental oxygen therapy.

14. Inability to complete required study procedures for whatever reason (including 6 minute walk test, hypertonic saline sputum induction).

15. Respiratory symptoms (including cough, sputum production, recurrent exacerbations) not predominantly the result of bronchiectasis in the opinion of the PI; where treatable causes for exacerbations existed, these were treated before considering trial enrolment.

Excluded medications

1. Macrolide antibiotics – long-term macrolide use was an absolute exclusion, however subjects who had received a short duration (less than 6 weeks) treatment course were eligible provided they had at least 4 weeks washout.
2. Long term oral antibiotic administration for infection prophylaxis (eg doxycycline).
3. Any other intravenous or oral antibiotic within 4 weeks.
4. While erythromycin in the current study was administered in a low dose, possible drug interactions in all patients entering the study were considered. Subjects using the following medications were not eligible for the study:
 - ergotamine or dihydroergotamine
 - triazolam/ alprazolam
 - sildenafil
 - azole antifungals (ketoconazole, itraconazole, fluconazole)
 - disopyramide
 - quinidine

Concomitant HMG-CoA reductase inhibitor ('statin') use was permitted, however subjects on high-dose statins (equivalent to 80 mgs daily of simvastatin) required dose reduction by half at study entry.

Subjects prescribed diltiazem or verapamil were screened to ensure no evidence of clinically relevant increases in levels of these medications.

The following medications were permitted, provided they had been a regular medication for at least 6 months (with the requisite number of exacerbations whilst on this therapy):

1. Inhaled antibiotics in chronic, daily, stable dose.
2. Inhaled mucolytic therapies (hypertonic saline, mannitol, dornase alpha, N-acetylcysteine).

3. Oral mucolytics or expectorants.

Additional inclusion/ exclusion criteria for bronchoscopy subjects (with non-CF bronchiectasis):

1. Never smokers.
2. No hypogammaglobulinaemia (levels performed at screening) or ciliary dysfunction.
3. Not asthmatic and without evidence of atopy on bloods (RAST/ s.IgE).
4. FEV1>40% predicted.
5. Not warfarinised or have other issues in relation to anticoagulation or bleeding diatheses that make them unsuitable for endobronchial biopsy due to bleeding risks.
6. No clinically significant ischaemic or myocardial disease that increases the risk in relation to bronchoscopy.
7. No hypercapnoea or evidence of overlap syndrome.

Assignment of aetiology of non-CF bronchiectasis:

Aetiology was assigned based on a careful consideration of patient history by the BLESS PI (DJS), who is also the CF centre director at site. This included review of all prior investigations performed (eg ciliary studies, CF testing, etc). Routine CF screening was not performed, however in subjects with phenotypic features raising the possibility of this diagnosis (eg <40 yo, malabsorption, male infertility, underweight, family history of bronchiectasis, coexistent diabetes mellitus, predominant upper lobe bronchiectasis), sweat testing +/- CFTR analysis was performed. At enrolment, all subjects also had testing for atopy (including s.IgE/ RAST testing, RAST aspergillus and aspergillus precipitins) and immunoglobulin levels. These tests were not used to assign aetiology, but rather to ensure that subjects who had any evidence of asthma or immunoglobulin deficiency were excluded from the current (bronchoscopy) substudy.

Inclusion/ exclusion criteria for the normal control subjects:

1. Age 18 – 85 years.
2. Normal subjects without any identifiable airway disease.
3. Capable of providing written, informed consent to participate.
4. Lifelong non-smokers (< or = 2 pack year history of smoking).
5. Normal spirometry (defined as values for FEV₁, FVC and ratio of FEV₁:FVC all lying

within the normal predicted range according to age and height, no significant acute response to inhaled bronchodilator and no evidence of small airways obstruction on flow-volume loops).

Exclusion criteria:

1. Smoking history >2 pack year history of tobacco smoking.
2. Any smoking history of other substances.
3. History of any chronic respiratory disease including asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease/ COPD, bronchiectasis, etc, or pneumonia within 8 weeks of bronchoscopy.
4. Any respiratory tract infection (including upper respiratory tract infection) within 4 weeks of bronchoscopy.
5. Medications: prescription of any antibiotic, antihistamine, corticosteroid, mast cell stabilising therapy, theophylline or any inhaled therapy within 4 weeks of bronchoscopy.
6. Any condition with the potential to increase the risks of bronchoscopy/ bronchoalveolar lavage or endobronchial biopsy, including (but not limited to) bleeding diathesis (platelet count < 150, abnormal coagulation profile, warfarin therapy), any unstable medical condition (eg acute cardiac or cerebral ischaemic event within 3 months, active malignancy), any significant illness likely to impact upon survival of the patient within 12 months, requirement for domiciliary oxygen.

7. Positive bronchial challenge test or chronic abnormalities detected on CT scan of the chest.

Leicester Cough Questionnaire

The Leicester Cough Questionnaire (LCQ) is a valid, repeatable 19 item self-completed quality of life measure of chronic cough which is responsive to change. LCQ was employed as described previously. [2]

St George's Respiratory Questionnaire

The St. George's Respiratory Questionnaire (SGRQ) is a disease-specific measure used to assess patients with mild to severe airway disease. This measure is a disease-specific instrument designed to measure impact on overall health, daily life, and perceived well-being. It was developed for use by patients with fixed and reversible airway obstruction. The measure consists of 50 (76 responses) items that produce three domain scores and one overall score measuring: Symptom (frequency and severity); Activity (activities that cause or are limited by breathlessness); and Impacts (social functioning, psychological disturbances resulting from airways disease. The SGRQ has been validated and approved as a self-administered instrument, and was applied here as described previously. [3]

CRP measurement

Subjects were asked to provide a blood sample to be analysed at Mater Pathology laboratory. CRP measurement was performed using an Architect ci16200 latex-enhanced immunoturbidimetric assay (Abbott Diagnostics, Abbott Park, IL).

Procedures

Sputum microbiology

Sputum processing for culture and sensitivity testing was performed in the Division of Microbiology, Mater Pathology. Sputum was transported to the laboratory within 60 min of collection and processed within 3 h (refrigerated at 4°C in the interim). The most purulent portion of the specimen was selected and streaked directly onto horse blood agar (HBA), MacConkey agar, chocolate agar supplemented with bacitracin (CHOC-B), Sabouraud agar, and mannitol salt agar. Plates were incubated at 37°C (HBA and CHOC-B in CO₂ and CHOC-B anaerobically and the rest in O₂) for at least 48 h and examined daily. Organism identification incorporated a combination of typical morphology, species specific manual tests (eg. catalase testing, coagulase testing, Gram stain, pigment production etc.), API, and Vitek identification.

Sputum induction procedure

Subjects were instructed to perform their usual chest physiotherapy regime on the morning of the sputum induction procedure. Prior to commencement of hypertonic saline inhalation, any spontaneous sputum expectorated was collected for standard culture. Sputum induction (SI) was performed after inhalation of 400 ug of albuterol, using 4.5% hypertonic saline nebulised from an ultrasonic nebuliser (output >1 mL/ min) for 20 minutes in 4 periods of 5 minutes each, according to the standardised protocol recommended by the European Respiratory Society taskforce [4]. Following mouth-rinsing and expectoration, sputum was collected following each nebulisation period, on each occasion preceded immediately by spirometry. The first sputum sample was refrigerated immediately following collection and frozen at -80 °C within an hour. A cold chain was maintained up until the point of DNA extraction.

Ten, 15 and 20 minute samples were pooled and an aliquot from this placed on ice immediately and transferred for inflammatory cell count processing within 60 minutes. Sputum was processed according to the methods of the US Cystic Fibrosis Therapeutics Development Network Standard

Operating Procedure.[5] Briefly, an equal volume of sterile 10% dithiothreitol (DTT) (Sputolysin; Calbiochem-Novabiochem Corp., San Diego, CA), was added to the sputum, then incubated in a shaking water bath at 37° C for 5-10 min, and mixed using a transfer pipette at 5-min intervals. A further three times the volume of both DTT and phosphate-buffered saline (Dulbecco's; Gibco BRL, Grand Island, NY) was added and the mixture incubated again in the 37° C shaking water bath for another 5-10 min. 10 µl of homogenized sputum samples, mixed with Trypan Blue, was used to calculate total cell counts using a standard hemacytometer. A further 0.25-0.50 ml of both samples was used to prepare cytospin slides for differential cell counts. After staining the slides with Wright's stain, 300 non-squamous cells were counted and cell differentials calculated.

Bronchoscopy procedure

Subjects were fully informed about the potential risks of the procedure and provide written consent. Bronchoscopy was performed as an outpatient procedure in the endoscopy unit of the operating theatres of the Mater Adult Hospital, using an Olympus flexible fibre-optic bronchoscope according to the safety standards of the Thoracic Society of Australia and New Zealand,[6] with details of the research bronchoscopy procedure adapted from prior methods.[7-9] Subjects fasted for 6 hours before the procedure. The procedure was performed transorally, under light sedation using intravenous midazolam and fentanyl to ensure patient comfort. Topical lignocaine was applied to the vocal cords and bronchi by instillation through the bronchoscope. Where possible, no suction was employed prior to performing BAL in the target lobe. After wedging in a right middle lobe bronchus, BAL was performed. In non-CF bronchiectasis subjects without significant right middle lobe bronchiectasis (on HRCT), an alternative lobe with bronchiectatic change was selected according to a hierarchy –lingula, upper lobe (right or left), apical segment lower lobe.

One hundred and forty (140) mLs of warmed sterile saline was gently instilled, followed by gentle aspiration through the bronchoscope's suction channel.

Following bronchoalveolar lavage, all subjects also had endobronchial biopsies collected before completion of the procedure, although this does not form part of the current report. Subjects were observed for 2 hours after the bronchoscopy before being allowed home.

Samples were refrigerated immediately following collection and frozen at -80 °C within an hour.

A cold chain was maintained up until the point of DNA extraction.

DNA extraction protocol

Nucleic acid extractions were performed on 100 µL portions of sputum or BAL cell pellets. Guanidinium thiocyanate–EDTA–sarkosyl (500 µL) and PBS (500 µL), pH 8.0, were added to samples. Cell disruption was achieved using a Fastprep-24 Instrument (MP Biomedicals Europe, Illkirch, France) 6.5 m/s, 60 s, followed by incubation at 90 °C for 1 min and –20 °C for 5 min. Cell debris was pelleted by centrifugation at 12 000 × g for 2 min at 4 °C. Supernatant was transferred to a fresh microfuge tube. NaCl (to a final concentration of 0.5 mol/L and polyethylene glycol (to a final concentration of 15%) were added and DNA precipitated at 4 °C for 30 min. DNA was pelleted by centrifugation at 12 000 × g for 2min at 4 °C and resuspended in 300 µL of sterile distilled water. Samples were heated at 90 °C for 30 s and vortexed. Phenol/chloroform (1:1) (300 µL) was added, and samples were vortexed for 20 s before centrifugation at 12 000 × g at 4 °C for 3min. The upper phase was then transferred to a fresh microfuge tube. Total DNA was then precipitated by the addition of an equal volume of isopropanol, a 0.1-volume 10 mol/L ammonium acetate, and 1 µL of GenElute linear polyacrylamide (Sigma-Aldrich, Gillingham, UK) and incubated at –20 °C for 25 min. DNA was pelleted by centrifugation at 12 000 × g at 4 °C for 5 min. Pelleted DNA was then washed 3 times in 70% ethanol, dried, and resuspended in 50 µL of sterile distilled water. DNA extracts were quantified using the Picodrop Microlitre Spectrophotometer (GRI, Braintree, UK).

Pyrosequencing

Bacterial tag-encoded FLX amplicon pyrosequencing (bTEFAP) was performed as described previously using Gray28F 5'-TTTGATCNTGGCTCAG-3' and Gray519r 5'-GTNTTACNGCGGCKGCTG-3'). Initial generation of the sequencing library involved a one-step PCR of 30 cycles, using a mixture of Hot Start and HotStar high fidelity Taq DNA polymerase, as described previously.[10] Tag-encoded FLX amplicon pyrosequencing analyses utilized Roche 454 FLX instrument with Titanium reagents, titanium procedures performed at the Research and Testing Laboratory (Lubbock, TX) using RTL protocols (www.researchandtesting.com).

Sequence processing pipeline

The following information is as described in protocol documentation provided by Molecular Research DNA, Texas, USA (www.mrdnalab.com). Custom software written in C# within a Microsoft H.NET (Microsoft Corp, Seattle, WA) development environment was used for all post sequencing processing. Quality trimmed sequences obtained from the FLX sequencing run were derived directly from FLX sequencing run output files. Tags were extracted from the multi-FASTA file into individual sample-specific files based upon the tag sequence. Tags which did not have 100% homology to the sample designation were not considered. Sequences which were less than 150 bp after quality trimming were not considered. All failed sequence reads, low quality sequence ends and tags and primers were removed. Sequences with ambiguous base calls, sequences with homopolymers > 6bp were removed. Further, any non-bacterial ribosomal sequences and chimeras using B2C2 [11] as described previously.[10]

Individual samples were assembled using CAP3 after parsing the tags into individual FASTA files.[12] The ace files generated by CAP3 were then processed to generate a secondary FASTA

file containing the tentative consensus (TC) sequences of the assembly along with the number of reads integrated into each consensus. TC were required to have at least 2-fold coverage.

To determine the identity of bacterial species in the remaining sequences, sequences were de-noised, assembled into OUT clusters at 97% identity, and queried using a distributed *.NET* algorithm that utilizes Blastn+ (KrakenBLAST www.krakenblast.com) against a database of high quality 16S rRNA gene bacterial sequences. Using a *.NET* and C# analysis pipeline the resulting BLASTn+ outputs were compiled, data reduction analysis performed, and sequence identity classification carried out, as described previously.[10]

Based on the described protocols, identification at the species level should only be considered putative.

Patient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Age	73	56	65	62	62	67	56	53	58	63	69	48	57	65	62	60	37	68	69	71	67
Gender	F	F	F	F	F	F	M	F	M	F	F	F	M	M	M	M	F	F	M	M	F
FEV1 % pre-BD	66.5	71.9	49.8	76.1	94.6	83.9	70.3	73.9	76.2	54.8	100.0	75.3	34.9	102.0	69.0	76.9	101.8	54.4	61.0	72.2	67.2
FEV1% post-BD	75.2	69.3	62.3	81.0	98.1	80.5	75.6	72.3	81.1	66.1	94.6	77.9	40.9	101.4	74.4	88.0	103.2	65.2	59.3	72.6	66.2
Sputum weight (g)	15	24	12	5	12	5	11	3	12	18	32	1.3	44.9	7	0.7	23.7	6.5	22.8	17.8	21.9	23.6
Leicester cough score	10.8	11.9	16.6	13.7	8.3	12.3	16.8	10.3	19.7	18.1	9.3	18.8	19.2	18.8	19.8	13.7	15.4	19.2	16.5	8.8	17.7
SGRQtotal	62.8	46.2	34.8	46.4	63.9	25.3	22.3	59.7	20.3	31.9	29.2	24.1	22.0	30.4	18.6	30.4	20.7	19.2	53.7	53.3	20.4
SGRQ symptoms	68.7	77.0	74.8	63.4	92.8	53.8	60.7	79.5	26.1	58.6	57.3	23.8	54.0	49.9	36.2	39.6	39.6	33.0	73.4	90.5	41.9
CRP	0	2.4	15	8.8	3.5	0	3.1	3.9		0.8	4.2		10	0	1.4	0	0.8	8.7	0.8	10	5.6
Neuts - induced	236	403	479	590	472	314	446	515	177	401	286	476	86	515	442	396		390	408	254	410
Neuts % - induced	83.4	96.9	91.4	98.5	89.2	73.4	91.2	96.8	39.2	89.7	69.9	91.7	97.7	82.9	87.4	84.3		93.8	76.0	58.3	85.4
Aetiology - idiopathic	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
- post infective			✓	✓					✓			✓								✓	✓
- pink disease													✓								
- 'burnt-out' ABPA																					
* <i>P. aeruginosa</i> (standard culture)																✓					
* <i>H. influenzae</i>										✓					✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
454 pyrosequencing analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓

Patient	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41
Age	64	65	67	64	63	62	73	65	57	59	67	67	66	74	57	67	65	66	61	60
Sex	F	F	F	F	M	F	F	F	M	M	F	F	M	F	F	F	F	F	F	M
FEV1 % pre-BD	59.8	88.4	91.6	96.5	74.6	58.2	52.6	92.8	65.7	75.2	72.0	57.4	93.4	67.6	57.3	67.8	73.7	74.4	72.2	65.3
FEV1% post-BD	57.8	94.2	89.2	99.6	80.3	58.7	59.4	98.6	78.2	81.6	72.5	61.5	104.3	72.6	69.4	68.3	76.0	81.0	74.9	65.0
Sputum weight (g)	37.7	27.1	6	15.1	24.1	14.3	25.4	0.9	16.4	17.1	44.9	22.1	19.8	20.5	10.3	15.5	6.2	3	18.5	25.1
Leicester cough score	15.6	8.7	7.7	15.2	12.2	17.4	13.5	20.3	14.8	15.4	9.9	5.5	7.5	13.9	10.5	15.7	18.7	17.8	15.7	11.2
SGRQtotal	45.8	64.4	55.4	25.8	43.7	31.5	58.9	23.8	53.3	31.0	49.3	79.6	48.5	59.6	52.6	19.6	31.8	21.0	31.6	51.9
SGRQ symptoms	32.7	77.1	100.0	23.8	93.5	55.9	57.9	42.2	74.3	66.7	48.5	64.0	79.1	85.7	85.8	26.1	58.3	42.0	68.3	75.4
CRP	18	1.5	9.4	1.4	5	7.6	14	1.5	0	1.6		6.5	0.6	2.3	0.6	0	8.2	13	5.3	2.8
Neuts - induced	402	56		399	399		498	331	231	441	439	611	477	437	373	319		246	375	432
Neuts % - induced	92.4	41.8		93.2	90.1		92.2	77.2	53.1	95.7	91.1	95.8	90.0	91.0	93.0	74.7		60.6	93.5	94.7
Aetiology - idiopathic	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓			✓	✓		✓	✓				✓
- post infective			✓			✓								✓			✓			
- pink disease										✓								✓	✓	
- 'burnt-out' ABPA											✓									
* <i>P. aeruginosa</i> (standard culture)											✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
* <i>H. influenzae</i>	✓		✓				✓			✓							✓			
454 pyrosequencing analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓

Table S1. Patient data. FEV₁% – forced expiratory volume in 1 second as a percentage of the predicted value; SGRQ – St George’s Respiratory Questionnaire – range 1-100, lower scores indicate better quality of life, symptoms component measures the effect of respiratory symptoms; CRP – C reactive protein, sputum % neutrophils – neutrophils in induced sputum as a percent of total non-squamous cells; ICS – inhaled corticosteroid; LABA – long-acting β-agonist, BD – bronchodilator.

Patient	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Induced sputum*																				
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>																✓	✓			
<i>H. influenzae</i>															✓			✓	✓	✓
<i>S. aureus</i>																				
<i>P. multocida</i>																				
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>																				
<i>A. xylooxidans</i>																				
<i>S. maltophilia</i>																				
<i>M. catarrhalis</i>																				
<i>Aspergillus spp.</i>																				
<i>Candida albicans</i>																				
<i>Penicillium spp</i>																				
BAL**																				
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>											✓					✓				
<i>H. influenzae</i>									✓						✓			✓	✓	✓
<i>S. aureus</i>				✓	✓															
<i>P. multocida</i>				✓									✓							
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>																				✓
<i>A. xylooxidans</i>																				
<i>S. maltophilia</i>																				
<i>M. catarrhalis</i>																				
<i>Aspergillus spp.</i>																				
<i>Candida albicans</i>																				
<i>Penicillium spp</i>																				

Patient	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41
Induced sputum*																					
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>				✓				✓			✓	✓			✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
<i>H. influenzae</i>	✓			✓				✓			✓							✓			
<i>S. aureus</i>																					
<i>P. multocida</i>																					
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>																					
<i>A. xylooxidans</i>														✓							
<i>S. maltophilia</i>																					
<i>M. catarrhalis</i>													✓			✓					
<i>Aspergillus spp.</i>																					
<i>Candida albicans</i>																					
<i>Penicillium spp</i>																					
BAL**																					
<i>P. aeruginosa</i>				✓				✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
<i>H. influenzae</i>	✓			✓				✓		✓	✓							✓			
<i>S. aureus</i>					✓			✓													
<i>P. multocida</i>																					
<i>S. pneumoniae</i>									✓												
<i>A. xylooxidans</i>									✓												
<i>S. maltophilia</i>																					
<i>M. catarrhalis</i>													✓								
<i>Aspergillus spp.</i>					✓																
<i>Candida albicans</i>											✓										
<i>Penicillium spp</i>											✓										

Table S2. Diagnostic culture analysis of induced sputum and BAL samples. *-Samples collected directly concurrently with those analysed by pyrosequencing. **-Samples from the same sample as analysed by pyrosequencing.

Subject	FEV1 % pre-BD	FEV1% post-BD	Age	Gender
1	93.4	96.8	25	F
2	85.5	88.0	37	F
3*	96.1	96.8	40	M
4	96.6	97.9	51	M
5	97.1	96.1	40	M
6	124.6	125.9	32	F
7	93.5	99.3	42	F
8**	85.8	89.4	23	F
9**	85.0	90.9	59	F
10	108.2	109.8	29	F
11*	129.5	129.1	51	F
12	103.6	102.2	22	M
13	107.9	110.8	26	M
14	97.9	104.2	49	M
15	100.9	101.2	26	F
16	92.5	100.0	26	M
mean	99.9	102.4	36.1	F:M ratio 9:7
std. dev.	12.8	11.7	11.7	

Table S3. Control subject data. FEV₁% – forced expiratory volume in 1 second as a percentage of the predicted value. BD – bronchodilator.

Class	Order	Family	Taxon name	Code		
Actinobacteria	Actinomycetales	Actinomycetaceae	<i>Actinomyces odontolyticus</i>	C, Ae, O		
			<i>Actinomyces oris</i>	C, Ae		
			<i>Actinomyces urogenitalis</i>	C, Ae		
		Corynebacteriaceae	<i>Corynebacterium durum</i>	S, Ae, O		
			<i>Corynebacterium freneyi</i>	S, Ae		
			<i>Corynebacterium macginleyi</i>	S, Ae		
			<i>Corynebacterium matruchotii</i>	S, Ae, O		
			<i>Corynebacterium riegelii</i>	S, Ae		
			<i>Blastococcus aggregatus</i>	S, Ae		
		Gordoniaceae	<i>Gordonia terrae</i>	S, Ae		
		Micrococcaceae	<i>Rothia aeria</i>	C, Ae, O		
			<i>Rothia dentocariosa</i>	S, Ae, O		
			<i>Rothia mucilaginoso</i>	C, Ae, O		
		Nocardioideae	<i>Propionibacterium acnes</i>	C, Ae, O		
			Bifidobacteriaceae	<i>Scardovia inopinata</i>	S, An, O	
				Coriobacteriales	Coriobacteriaceae	<i>Atopobium parvulum</i>
		<i>Collinsella aerofaciens</i>	S, An			
		Bacteroidia	Bacteroidales			Bacteroidaceae
				<i>Bacteroides coprophilus</i>	C, An	
<i>Bacteroides plebeius</i>	C, An					
Porphyromonadaceae	<i>Dysgonomonas mossii</i>			S, Ae		
	<i>Parabacteroides gordonii</i>			C, An		
	<i>Porphyromonas endodontalis</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Porphyromonas gingivalis</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Tannerella forsythia</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella baroniae</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella copri</i>			C, An		
	<i>Prevotella histicola</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella intermedia</i>			S, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella melaninogenica</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella nanceiensis</i>			C, An		
	<i>Prevotella nigrescens</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella oris</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella oulorum</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella pallens</i>			C, An, O		
	<i>Prevotella ruminicola</i>			C, An		
<i>Prevotella tanneriae</i>	C, An, O					
<i>Prevotella veroralis</i>	C, An, O					
Flavobacteria	Flavobacteriales	Flavobacteriaceae	<i>Capnocytophaga ochracea</i>	S, Ae, O		
			<i>Capnocytophaga sputigena</i>	C, Ae, O		
			<i>Flavobacterium frigidarium</i>	C, Ae		
			<i>Riemerella anatipestifer</i>	S, Ae, O		
			<i>Zhouia amylolytica</i>	S, Ae		
Bacilli	Bacillales	Bacillaceae	<i>Bacillus cereus</i>	C, Ae		
		Paenibacillaceae	<i>Aneurinibacillus thermoaerophilus</i>	S, Ae		
		Staphylococcaceae	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	C, Ae, O, P		
	<i>Staphylococcus epidermidis</i>		C, Ae, O			
	Gemellales	Gemellaceae	<i>Gemella sanguinis</i>	C, Ae, O		
		Lactobacillales	Aerococcaceae	<i>Abiotrophia defectiva</i>	S, Ae, O	
	Carnobacteriaceae		<i>Granulicatella adiacens</i>	C, Ae, O		
			<i>Granulicatella elegans</i>	S, Ae, O		
	Lactobacillaceae		<i>Lactobacillus iners</i>	S, Ae, O		
Streptococcaceae	<i>Streptococcus anginosus</i>	S, Ae, O, P				

Table S4 Continued

Class	Order	Family	Taxon name	Code
			<i>Streptococcus constellatus</i>	S, Ae, O, P
			<i>Streptococcus cristatus</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Streptococcus gordonii</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Streptococcus infantis</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Streptococcus mutans</i>	S, Ae, O
			<i>Streptococcus oralis</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Streptococcus parasanguinis</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i>	C, Ae, O, P
			<i>Streptococcus pseudopneumoniae</i>	C, Ae
			<i>Streptococcus salivarius</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Streptococcus sanguinis</i>	C, Ae, O
Clostridia	Clostridiales	Clostridiaceae	<i>Fingoldia magna</i>	S, An, O
			<i>Peptoniphilus asaccharolyticus</i>	S, An, O
		Lachnospiraceae	<i>Blautia producta</i>	S, An
			<i>Catonella sp.</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Moryella indoligenes</i>	C, An
			<i>Oribacterium sinus</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Pseudobutyrvibrio ruminis</i>	S, An
			<i>Ruminococcus gnavus</i>	S, An
		Peptostreptococcaceae	<i>Peptostreptococcus anaerobius</i>	S, An, O
		Ruminococcaceae	<i>Ruminococcus flavefaciens</i>	C, An
		Veillonellaceae	<i>Acidaminococcus intestini</i>	S, An
			<i>Dialister invisus</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Dialister microaerophilus</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Dialister pneumosintes</i>	S, An, O
			<i>Mitsuokella multacida</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Selenomonas noxia</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Selenomonas sputigena</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Veillonella dispar</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Veillonella parvula</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Veillonella ratti</i>	S, An
Fusobacteria	Fusobacteriales	Fusobacteriaceae	<i>Fusobacterium canifelinum</i>	C, An
			<i>Leptotrichia buccalis</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Leptotrichia hofstadii</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Leptotrichia trevisanii</i>	C, An
			<i>Sebaldella termitidis</i>	S, An
Alphaproteobacteria	Rhizobiales	Bradyrhizobiaceae	<i>Afipia genosp. 1</i>	C, Ae
			<i>Bradyrhizobium elkanii</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Nitrobacter vulgaris</i>	C, Ae
	Rhodobacterales	Rhodobacteraceae	<i>Paracoccus yeei</i>	S, Ae
	Sphingomonadales	Sphingomonadaceae	<i>Sphingobium yanoikuyae</i>	S, Ae
			<i>Sphingomonas asaccharolytica</i>	S, Ae
Betaproteobacteria	Burkholderiales	Alcaligenaceae	<i>Bordetella hinzii</i>	S, Ae
			<i>Bordetella petrii</i>	C, Ae
		Burkholderiaceae	<i>Burkholderia vietnamiensis</i>	S, Ae, P
			<i>Lautropia mirabilis</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Methylibium petroleiphilum</i>	S, Ae
			<i>Roseateles depolymerans</i>	C, Ae
		Oxalobacteraceae	<i>Massilia timonae</i>	S, Ae
	Neisseriales	Neisseriaceae	<i>Bergeriella denitrificans</i>	C, Ae
			<i>Conchiformibius kuhniae</i>	S, Ae
			<i>Eikenella corrodens</i>	C, Ae, O

Table S4 Continued

Class	Order	Family	Taxon name	Code
			<i>Kingella oralis</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Neisseria bacilliformis</i>	S, Ae, O
			<i>Neisseria cinerea</i>	C, Ae
			<i>Neisseria meningitidis</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Neisseria subflava</i>	C, Ae, O
Epsilonproteobacteria	Campylobacterales	Campylobacteraceae	<i>Campylobacter concisus</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Campylobacter gracilis</i>	S, Ae, O
			<i>Campylobacter mucosalis</i>	C, Ae
			<i>Campylobacter rectus</i>	S, Ae, O
			<i>Campylobacter showae</i>	S, Ae, O
Gammaproteobacteria	Enterobacteriales	Enterobacteriaceae	<i>Enterobacter hormaechei</i>	S, Ae, O
			<i>Enterobacter sp.</i>	S, Ae, O
			<i>Escherichia fergusonii</i>	S, Ae
			<i>Klebsiella oxytoca</i>	C, Ae
			<i>Proteus mirabilis</i>	S, Ae, O
	Legionellales	Legionellaceae	<i>Legionella pneumophila</i>	S, Ae, P
	Pasteurellales	Pasteurellaceae	<i>Actinobacillus porcitonillarum</i>	S, Ae
			<i>Aggregatibacter aphrophilus</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Aggregatibacter segnis</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	C, Ae, O, P
			<i>Haemophilus parainfluenzae</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Haemophilus parahaemolyticus</i>	C, Ae, O
			<i>Pasteurella multocida</i>	C, Ae
	Pseudomonadales	Moraxellaceae	<i>Acinetobacter schindleri</i>	S, Ae
			<i>Moraxella catarrhalis</i>	C, Ae
		Pseudomonadaceae	<i>Pseudomonas sp.</i>	C, Ae
			<i>Pseudomonas geniculata</i>	S, Ae
			<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	C, Ae, O, P
			<i>Pseudomonas stutzeri</i>	S, O
	Xanthomonadales	Xanthomonadaceae	<i>Stenotrophomonas acidaminiphila</i>	S, Ae
Spirochaetes	Spirochaetales	Spirochaetaceae	<i>Treponema denticola</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Treponema lecithinolyticum</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Treponema medium</i>	C, An, O
			<i>Treponema socranskii</i>	C, An, O
Mollicutes	Mycoplasmatales	Mycoplasmataceae	<i>Mycoplasma arthritis</i>	C, Ae

Table S4. Bacterial species sampled across the 38 sputum samples. Ae, denotes aerobe; An, Anaerobe¹; O, taxa associated with the oral microbiome²; P, species with populations reported to be pathogenic in the context of respiratory infections. Also given are indications of core (C) and satellite (S) species group membership.

¹ Only strict anaerobes were classified as anaerobes, whereas aerobes, facultative anaerobes, and microaerophiles were classified as aerobes, as described previously.[13]

² Classification of oral taxa was according to the Human Oral Microbiome Database.[14]

Class	Order	Family	Taxon name	BAL1 (161)	BAL2 (10)	Sputum 1 (2049)	Sputum 2 (1474)	
Rubrobacteridae	Solirubrobacterales	Solirubrobacteraceae	Solirubrobacter sp.	14.3				
Actinobacteria	Actinomycetales	Actinomycetaceae	Actinomyces odontolyticus			1.07	0.61	
			Actinomyces oris			0.05		
			Actinomyces urogenitalis			4.49	0.14	
		Corynebacteriaceae	Corynebacterium tuberculostearicum				0.07	
		Nocardioideaceae	Propionibacterium acnes	1.2				
		Micrococcaceae	Rothia dentocariosa				0.47	
			Rothia mucilaginosa				0.14	
	Coriobacteriales	Coriobacteriaceae	Atopobium parvulum			0.49	0.20	
Actinomycetales	Corynebacterineae	Mycobacteriaceae	Mycobacterium celatum	6.8				
			Frankineae	Geodermatophilaceae	Modestobacter sp.	7.5		
			Propionibacterineae	Nocardioideaceae	Marmoricola sp.	1.9		
			Pseudonocardineae	Pseudonocardiaceae	Actinomycetospora sp.	0.6		
Flavobacteria	Flavobacteriales	Flavobacteriaceae	Capnocytophaga sputigena				0.27	
			Flavobacterium succinicans			0.05	0.07	
Mollicutes	Mycoplasmatales	Mycoplasmataceae	Mycoplasma arthritidis			0.05	0.07	
			Bacteroidia	Bacteroidales	Bacteroidaceae	Bacteroides coprophilus		0.05
		Porphyromonadaceae	Porphyromonas gingivalis					
			Porphyromonas levii			0.05	0.20	
			Prevotella copri			0.05	0.20	
			Prevotella histicola			0.93	1.97	
			Prevotella melaninogenica			37.77	14.45	
			Prevotella nanceiensis				0.20	
			Prevotella nigrescens			0.05		
			Prevotella oris			0.05	0.14	
			Prevotella oulorum			1.61		
			Prevotella pallens			3.27	0.88	
			Prevotella tanneriae				0.07	
			Prevotella veroralis			0.15	0.81	
Bacilli	Bacillales	Staphylococcaceae	Staphylococcus aureus	0.6				
			Staphylococcus epidermidis	41.6				
	Gemellales	Gemellaceae	Gemella sanguinis				0.20	
	Lactobacillales	Carnobacteriaceae	Granulicatella adiacens			0.10	0.61	
Streptococcaceae			Streptococcus anginosus				0.20	

			Streptococcus infantis			1.02
			Streptococcus oralis		0.49	2.10
			Streptococcus parasanguinis	10	0.24	1.29
			Streptococcus pneumoniae			0.14
			Streptococcus pseudopneumoniae		0.15	1.22
			Streptococcus salivarius		1.17	2.24
			Streptococcus sanguinis		0.05	
Clostridia	Clostridiales	Clostridiaceae	Clostridium phytofermentans			
			Clostridium sp.		0.15	0.07
Negativicutes	Selenomonadales	Veillonellaceae	Dialister invisus			0.07
		Lachnospiraceae	Moryella indoligenes		0.24	0.34
			Oribacterium sinus		0.10	0.20
			Ruminococcus flavefaciens			0.14
		Veillonellaceae	Selenomonas noxia		1.56	0.14
			Veillonella dispar	10	36.41	7.19
			Veillonella parvula		4.69	49.32
		Veillonellaceae	Anaeroglobus sp.		1.76	0.20
Fusobacteria	Fusobacteriales	Fusobacteriaceae	Fusobacterium canifelinum	0.6	0.83	2.71
			Leptotrichia buccalis		0.15	
			Leptotrichia trevisanii		0.20	0.20
Alphaproteobacteria	Rhizobiales	Bradyrhizobiaceae	Afipia felis	11.2		
Betaproteobacteria	Burkholderiales	Burkholderiaceae	Roseateles depolymerans	0.6		
			Ralstonia mannitolilytica	8.7		
			Ralstonia solanacearum	3.1		
		Comamonadaceae	Comamonas aquatica		20	
			Delftia sp.		30	
	Neisseriales	Neisseriaceae	Eikenella corrodens		0.10	0.07
			Kingella oralis			0.27
			Neisseria subflava		0.39	0.41
Epsilonproteobacteria	Campylobacterales	Campylobacteraceae	Campylobacter concisus		0.44	0.14
Gammaproteobacteria	Pasteurellales	Pasteurellaceae	Aggregatibacter segnis			3.39
			Haemophilus parainfluenzae		0.59	3.87
	Pseudomonadales	Pseudomonadaceae	Pseudomonas geniculata	1.2	30	0.14
			Pseudomonas nitroreducens		0.05	
Tm7 candidate division						0.61

Table S5. Bacterial taxa identified through 16S rRNA gene pyrosequencing analysis in samples from healthy control subjects. Total numbers of sequences obtained are shown in brackets. Sequences identification is expressed as a percentage of species obtained.

	FEV ₁ % (Pre-BD)	FEV ₁ % (Post-BD)	LCS	Neutrophils	Gender
FEV ₁ % (Pre-BD)	-	0.868	0.152	0.122	-0.025
FEV ₁ % (Post-BD)	<0.0001*	-	0.134	0.150	0.020
LCS	<0.0001*	0.001*	-	0.116	-0.005
Neutrophils	0.0001*	0.0001*	0.002*	-	0.003
Gender	0.507	0.593	0.897	0.930	-

Table S6. Mantel tests for co-correlations between clinical factors. Given for each test are the Mantel statistic (r) and significance (P) to ascertain whether the Mantel regression coefficients (Pearson's correlation coefficient) were significantly different following 9,999 Monte Carlo permutations. Values for r and P are given in the upper and lower triangles of the matrix, respectively. Asterisks denote P -values significant after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons ($0.05/5 = 0.01$). LCS denotes Leicester Cough Score and BD denotes bronchodilator.

Parameter	Control for	All		Core	
		<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>
FEV ₁ %	Gender	-0.169	<0.0001*	-0.170	<0.0001*
FEV ₁ %	Leicester Cough Score	-0.151	<0.0001*	-0.151	<0.0001*
FEV ₁ %	Neutrophils	-0.156	<0.0001*	-0.156	<0.0001*
Gender	FEV ₁ %	-0.078	0.020	-0.077	0.021
Gender	Leicester Cough Score	-0.074	0.025	-0.073	0.026
Gender	Neutrophils	-0.073	0.027	-0.072	0.028
Leicester Cough Score	FEV ₁ %	-0.103	0.003*	-0.103	0.003*
Leicester Cough Score	Gender	-0.126	0.0001*	-0.127	0.0001*
Leicester Cough Score	Neutrophils	-0.114	0.001*	-0.114	0.001*
Neutrophils	FEV ₁ %	-0.094	0.004*	-0.094	0.0006*
Neutrophils	Gender	-0.112	0.001*	-0.113	0.001*
Neutrophils	Leicester Cough Score	-0.099	0.004*	-0.099	0.004*

Table S7. Summary statistics for partial Mantel tests. The partial Mantel statistic $r(AB.C)$ estimates the correlations (Pearson’s correlation coefficient) between two proximity matrices, A and B whilst controlling for the effects of C . Given are the bacterial community (Bray-Curtis) similarities for whole communities (All) and the core group members, and also differences in clinical factors. Also given is P to ascertain whether the Mantel regression coefficients were significantly different from zero following 9,999 Monte Carlo permutations. Asterisks denote P -values significant after Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons ($0.05/12 = 0.0042$). Satellite group members are excluded from these analyses. FEV₁% pre-bronchodilator is presented here.

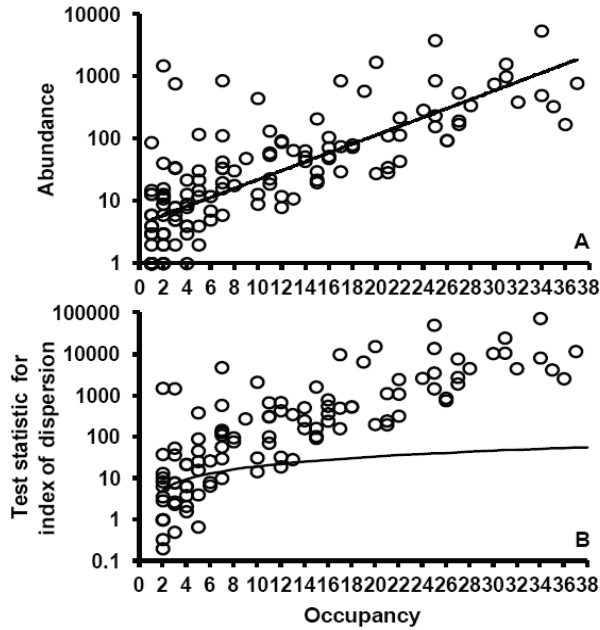


Figure S1. Distribution and dispersal of bacterial species across patients. (A) The number of samples for which each bacterial species was observed, plotted against its maximum abundance (log₁₀ scale) across all 38 samples ($r^2 = 060$, $F_{1,138} = 203.12$, $P < 0.0001$). (B) Random and non-random dispersal through space visualised by decomposing the overall distribution using an index of dispersion based on the ratio of variance to the mean abundance for each bacterial species from the 38 samples. The line depicts the 2.5 % confidence limit for the χ^2 distribution. The 97.5% confidence limit was not plotted, as no species fell below that line.

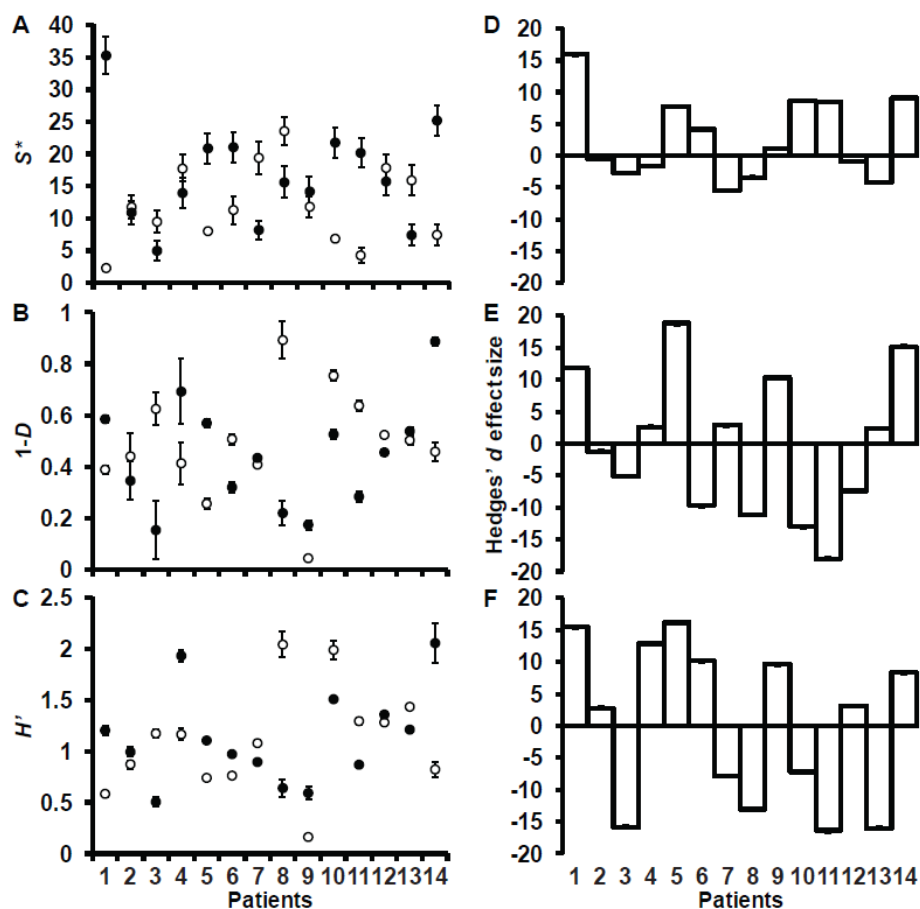


Figure S2. Comparisons of diversity and the effects of sample type between paired BAL and sputum samples. Given are (A) species richness (S^*), (B) Simpson's complement index ($1-D$), and (C) Shannon-Wiener index (H') for paired BAL (open circles) and sputum samples (closed circles). Diversity measures were calculated with a uniform re-sample size of 809 sequences following 1000 iterations in each instance. Error bars represent the SD of the mean ($n = 1000$). Meta-analysis of (D) S^* , (E) $1-D$, and (F) H' using Hedges' d effect size measure between paired BAL and sputum samples. Columns represent effect size and error bars represent the SE of the effect size ($n = 2000$). The SE bars that cross zero indicate no significant effect on diversity by sample type.

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