

1 **Pathogen community composition and co-infection patterns in a wild**
2 **community of rodents**

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20

21 **Abstract**

22 Rodents are major reservoirs of pathogens that can cause disease in humans and livestock. It is
23 therefore important to know what pathogens naturally circulate in rodent populations, and to
24 understand the factors that may influence their distribution in the wild. Here, we describe the
25 occurrence and distribution patterns of a range of endemic and zoonotic pathogens circulating
26 among rodent communities in northern France. The community sample consisted of 713 rodents,
27 including 11 host species from diverse habitats. Rodents were screened for virus exposure
28 (hantaviruses, cowpox virus, Lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus, Tick-borne encephalitis virus)
29 using antibody assays. Bacterial communities were characterized using 16S rRNA amplicon
30 sequencing of splenic samples. Multiple correspondence (MCA), regression and association
31 screening (SCN) analyses were used to determine the degree to which extrinsic factors contributed
32 to pathogen community structure, and to identify patterns of associations between pathogens within
33 hosts. We found a rich diversity of bacterial genera, with 36 known or suspected to be pathogenic.
34 We revealed that host species is the most important determinant of pathogen community
35 composition, and that hosts that share habitats can have very different pathogen communities.
36 Pathogen diversity and co-infection rates also vary among host species. Aggregation of pathogens
37 responsible for zoonotic diseases suggests that some rodent species may be more important for
38 transmission risk than others. Moreover, we detected positive associations between several
39 pathogens, including *Bartonella*, *Mycoplasma* species, Cowpox virus (CPXV) and hantaviruses,
40 and these patterns were generally specific to particular host species. Altogether, our results suggest
41 that host and pathogen specificity is the most important driver of pathogen community structure,
42 and that interspecific pathogen-pathogen associations also depend on host species.

43

44 **Keywords (6max)**

45 16S rRNA amplicon high throughput sequencing; Disease Ecology; Microbial Interactions;
46 Pathobiome; Rodent reservoirs; Zoonoses

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48 **1. Introduction**

49 Infectious diseases are among the most important global threats to biodiversity, wildlife and
50 human health, and are associated with potential severe socioeconomic consequences (Daszak,
51 Cunningham & Hyatt 2000; Smith, Sax & Lafferty 2006; Jones *et al.* 2008). Although combatting
52 these risks is a main worldwide priority, our understanding of the processes underlying disease
53 emergence still remains too limited for developing efficient prediction, prevention and management
54 strategies. In humans, the majority of emerging pathogens originate as zoonoses from animal host
55 populations in which they naturally circulate (Taylor, Latham & Woolhouse 2001; Jones *et al.*
56 2008). Thus, identifying the epidemiological features (e.g., prevalence, diversity, host specificity,
57 geographic distribution) of zoonotic pathogen communities in their wild hosts, and the factors that
58 influence pathogen occurrence in those communities, is as important to human health as it is to
59 understanding the fundamentals of disease ecology (Garchitorena *et al.* 2017).

60 Both extrinsic and intrinsic factors can contribute to the composition of natural pathogen
61 communities within and between wild animal species, populations and individuals. [Factors extrinsic](#)
62 [to the hosts](#) include geographic location, climate, periodicity of epidemic cycles and abiotic features
63 influencing inter-specific transmission opportunities (e.g., (Harvell *et al.* 2002; Burthe *et al.* 2006;
64 Poulin *et al.* 2012), [Factors extrinsic to the pathogens](#) such as host species identity, sex, age, and
65 body condition as well as genetic and immunogenetic features have also been intensively studied
66 (e.g., (Beldomenico *et al.* 2008; Streicker *et al.* 2010; Streicker, Fenton & Pedersen 2013; Salvador
67 *et al.* 2011; Charbonnel *et al.* 2014; Bordes *et al.* 2017)). Although less investigated, inter-specific
68 ecological interactions (e.g., competition, facilitation) among pathogens within animal hosts are
69 also likely to be an important intrinsic force in determining the composition of pathogen
70 communities. Ecological interactions between free-living species are well-known to play a part in
71 the distribution, abundance, and many other qualitative and quantitative features of populations; the
72 application of this basic tenant of community ecology to pathogen incidence and expression of
73 disease has become recognized as imperative for assessing both risks and potential benefits posed to

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79 human health, agriculture, wildlife, and conservation (Pedersen & Fenton 2007). Simultaneous
80 infection by multiple parasite species is ubiquitous in nature (Petney & Andrews 1998; Cox 2001;
81 Moutailler *et al.* 2016), and prior infections can have lasting effects on future susceptibility via e.g.,
82 changes to host condition and behavior or through immune-mediated processes (Singer 2010;
83 Quiñones-Parra *et al.* 2016; Kumar *et al.* 2018). Interactions among co-circulating parasites may
84 have important consequences for disease severity, transmission and community-level responses to
85 perturbations (Jolles *et al.* 2008; Telfer *et al.* 2010). Consequences of interaction may be life-
86 long, as exposure to pathogens circulating among juveniles have been found to be strongly
87 associated with those experienced by adults (e.g., Fountain-Jones *et al.* 2019). Such interactions
88 can also play a role in the consequences of pathogen emergence (e.g., emerging bacterial
89 infection increasing susceptibility to an endemic virus (Beechler *et al.* 2015)). Henceforth, and
90 through the advent of sequencing technologies in particular, it is now possible and essential to
91 investigate disease emergence from a multi-host / multi-pathogen perspective (Galan *et al.* 2016),
92 considering the potential influence of pathogen interactions on current and future disease
93 distributions (Cattadori, Boag & Hudson 2008; Jolles *et al.* 2008; Budischak *et al.* 2015; Abbate *et*
94 *al.* 2018).

95 Rodent communities are relevant models for developing this community ecology approach to
96 disease distribution and emergence. They harbor a wide variety of pathogenic taxa (e.g., Bordes *et*
97 *al.* 2013; Pilosof *et al.* 2015; Koskela *et al.* 2016; Diagne *et al.* 2017) and are important reservoir
98 hosts of agents of zoonoses that have severe implications for human health. Han *et al.* (2015) have
99 revealed that about 10% of the 2277 extant rodent species are reservoirs of 66 agents of zoonoses,
100 including viruses, bacteria, fungi, helminths, and protozoa. They also described 79 hyper-reservoir
101 rodent species that could be infected by multiple zoonotic agents. Strong ecological interactions
102 have been shown in wild rodent populations among some of these zoonotic agents (Telfer *et al.*
103 2010), as well as between non-zoonotic agents and zoonotic agents (e.g., helminthes and bacteria
104 (Carvalho-Pereira *et al.* 2019); helminthes and viruses (Guivier *et al.* 2014; Sweeny *et al.* 2020);

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116 | [helminthes and protozoa](#) (Knowles *et al.* 2013)). In addition, rodents share a number of habitats
117 | with humans, including urban settings, agricultural lands, and forests, providing opportunities for
118 | human-rodent contact and pathogen transmission (Davis, Calvet & Leirs, 2005). Describing the
119 | distribution and composition of natural pathogen communities in rodent populations, and
120 | determining the drivers behind pathogen associations, is imperative for understanding the risks they
121 | may pose for public health.

122 | In this study, we analyzed the pathogen communities carried by rodent communities in a rural
123 | area of northern France, a region known to be endemic for several rodent-borne diseases including
124 | nephropathia epidemica (Puumala orthohantavirus (Sauvage *et al.* 2002)) and borreliosis (*Borrelia*
125 | *sp.*, Razzauti *et al.* 2015). We investigated exposure histories (via the presence of [antiviral](#)
126 | antibodies) for several viruses (hantaviruses, cowpox virus, lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus,
127 | Tick-borne encephalitis virus) and current or recent exposure to bacterial pathogens (using high-
128 | throughput 16S metabarcoding [of host splenic tissue](#)). We described the pathogens detected, their
129 | prevalence in the community and their individual distributions among host populations. We then
130 | tested the role of extrinsic factors (e.g., habitat, host species, host age) in explaining variation in
131 | pathogen distributions, and for associations (non-random co-infection frequencies) between
132 | pathogens that might indicate intrinsic drivers (e.g., competition, facilitation) of pathogen
133 | community composition. We expected that host species and habitat would be the most important
134 | factors structuring pathogen community composition because most pathogens are largely host-
135 | specific, but those sharing habitats should also share opportunities for transmission (Davies &
136 | Pedersen 2008). After accounting for extrinsic factors, we expected to retrieve several pathogen-
137 | pathogen associations previously identified in the literature. This included i) positive associations
138 | between cowpox virus and *Bartonella* infections (*Microtus agrestis*, (Telfer *et al.* 2010)); ii)
139 | positive associations between distinct *Mycoplasma* species in mammalian hosts (Sykes *et al.* 2008;
140 | Tagawa *et al.* 2012; Fettweis *et al.* 2014; Volokhov *et al.* 2017)); iii) associations between
141 | *Bartonella* and hemotropic *Mycoplasma* species (both positive and negative associations, as well as

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149 experimental demonstration of dynamic interactions, have been described in *Gerbillus andersonii*
150 (Eidelman *et al.* 2019)). Lastly, we also expected to find previously-undescribed associations due to
151 the large bacteria and rodent dataset included in our study. All these associations were likely to
152 differ between host species, as differences in host specificity are also likely to be accompanied by
153 differences in transmission dynamics and host responses to infection (Davies & Pedersen 2008;
154 Singer 2010; Dallas, Laine & Ovaskainen 2019).

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156 **2. Materials and methods**

157 *2.1. Study area and host sampling*

158 Rodent sampling was conducted over two years (Autumn 2010 & 2011) in rural habitats
159 surrounding two villages (Boult-aux-Bois and Briquenay) in the Ardennes region of northern
160 France (previously described in (Gotteland *et al.* 2014)). Sex and age (based on precise body
161 measurements and classed as ‘adult’ for sexually mature animals and ‘juvenile’ for both juveniles
162 and sexually immature sub-adults) were recorded for each animal, a blood sample was taken for
163 serological analyses, and animals were then euthanized using isoflurane inhalation. Spleens were
164 taken and stored in RNAlater Stabilizing Solution (Invitrogen) at -20°C. Species captured from the
165 two sites included (family: Cricetidae) 195 *Arvicola scherman* (montane water vole), 10 *Microtus*
166 *agrestis* (field vole), 66 *Microtus arvalis* (common vole), 203 *Myodes glareolus* (bank vole); and
167 (family: Muridae) 43 *Apodemus flavicollis* (yellow-necked mouse), 156 *Apodemus sylvaticus* (wood
168 mouse), 32 *Rattus norvegicus* (brown rat). These seven focal host species were collected from traps

169 placed in distinct landscapes (henceforth referred to as host ‘habitats’) ([Supplemental Materials](#),
170 Figure S1): *R. norvegicus* were found uniquely on farms, *Ar. scherman* and *Mi. arvalis* were found
171 almost entirely in meadows, and the five remaining species occupied both forests and hedgerows.

172 Demographic differences between host species were observed for sex (e.g., male bias in *Ap.*
173 *sylvaticus*; Figure S2A) and age classes (e.g., relative abundance of juveniles in *Mi. arvalis* and *Ap.*

174 *sylvaticus* hosts; Figure S2B). Five *Microtus subterraneus* (European pine vole) and one each of

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178 | three additional host species (one cricetid one echimyid and one murid) were also found in these
179 | communities, but excluded from analyses due to their rarity; these rare (non-focal) hosts and their
180 | pathogens are described in Supplemental Materials Appendix 1.

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182 | 2.2. Detecting virus exposure and bacterial infection

183 | Among the 713 rodents sampled for this study, indirect fluorescent antibody tests (IFATs; see for
184 | details (Kallio-Kokko *et al.* 2006)) were successfully performed on 677 animals to detect
185 | immunoglobulin G (IgG) specific to or cross-reacting with cowpox virus (CPXV, *Orthopoxvirus*),
186 | Puumala or Dobrava-Belgrade virus (respectively PUUV and DOBV, *Orthohantavirus*, collectively
187 | referred to henceforth as “hantavirus”), lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV,
188 | *Mammarenavirus*), and Tick-borne encephalitis virus (TBEV, *Flavivirus*). We refer to these

189 | antiviral antibody tests as indicating a history of past exposure, but antibodies against hantavirus
190 | and LCMV also likely indicate continued chronic infection. In contrast, current or very recent
191 | exposure to bacterial infection was tested via 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing of splenic
192 | tissue, giving no indication of past exposure history. The spleen was chosen because this organ is

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193 | known to filter microbial cells in mammals, allowing the detection of a wide array of pathogenic
194 | and zoonotic agents. Funding was available to test for bacteria in just half of the animals, chosen

195 | haphazardly to equally represent all host species, study sites and years, resulting in successful

196 | analysis for 332 rodents, (see Figure 1 for a breakdown of number of individuals sampled per focal

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197 | host species). For each individual animal, the DNA from splenic tissue was extracted using the

198 | DNeasy Blood & Tissue kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer recommendations. Each DNA

199 | extraction was analyzed twice independently. We followed the method described in Galan *et al.*

200 | (2016) to perform PCR amplification, indexing, pooling, multiplexing, de-multiplexing, taxonomic

201 | identification using the SILVA SSU Ref NR 119 database as a reference (<http://www.arb->

202 | [silva.de/projects/ssu-ref-nr/](http://www.arb-silva.de/projects/ssu-ref-nr/)). Briefly, DNA samples were amplified by PCR using universal primers

203 | targeting the hyper variable region V4 of the 16S rRNA gene (251 bp) and sequencing via Illumina

210 MiSeq. The V4 region has been proven to have reasonable taxonomic resolution at the genus level
211 (Claesson *et al.* 2010). A multiplexing strategy enabled the identification of bacterial genera in each
212 individual sample (Kozich *et al.* 2013). Data filtering was performed as described in Galan *et al.*
213 (2016) to determine presence/absence of bacterial infections (summarized in Figure S3). Briefly, we
214 discarded all bacterial OTUs containing fewer than 50 reads in the entire dataset and animals for
215 which one or both individual PCR samples produced fewer than 500 reads. A bacterial OTU was
216 considered present in an animal if the two independent PCR samples were both above a threshold
217 number of reads, defined as the greater of either 0.012% of the total number of reads in the run for
218 that OTU (i.e., filtering using the rate of indexing leak) or the maximum number of reads for that
219 OTU in any negative control sample (i.e., filtering using the presence of reads in the negative
220 controls due to contaminations) (Galan *et al.* 2016). We removed chimera using the *Uchime*
221 program implemented in *mothur*, and manually checked OTUs representing suspected chimera not
222 identified by the program. For each OTU suspected as pathogenic, Basic Local Alignment Search
223 Tool (BLAST) searches of the most common sequences were conducted to infer species identity
224 where possible. OTUs with at least 500 reads across all animals in the dataset were considered
225 reliably detectable, allowing us to assign absent status to these OTUs in animals failing to meet the
226 criteria for OTU presence. Only OTUs for which there were at least 500 reads across all animals in
227 the dataset (for which present and absent statuses could be assigned), and where reasonable
228 certainty of pathogenicity could be established from the literature, were considered in analyses of
229 the pathogen community.

230

231 2.3. Statistical Methods

232 All statistical analyses were implemented in R version 3.2.2 (R Core Team 2015). Throughout
233 our analyses, we refer to simultaneous bacterial infections as “co-infection”, while analyses
234 involving simultaneous presence of antiviral antibodies and bacterial infection are referred to as
235 evaluating “co-exposure”. While we can only be sure that antiviral antibodies represent past

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236 [exposure, we cannot rule out simultaneous viral and bacterial “co-infection”, particularly for viruses](#)
237 [known to cause chronic infections. Likewise, detection of current \(or very recent\) bacterial](#)
238 [infection, particularly for taxa known to cause chronic infections, cannot tell us how long the](#)
239 [animal has carried the infection. Thus, we refrain from assuming sequence of infection for statistical](#)
240 [tests unless specified by an *a priori* hypothesis from the literature.](#)

241
242 *2.3.1. Testing for extrinsic drivers of pathogen community composition across the rodent*
243 *community*

244 We analyzed pathogen community composition across the whole rodent community. [We use the](#)
245 [term “pathogen community” to refer to the group of viruses and pathogenic bacteria for which we](#)
246 [had the means to include, which was not exhaustive; thus measures of diversity are to be considered](#)
247 [relative and not absolute.](#) We first estimated pathogen community richness using the Shannon
248 diversity index (alpha diversity) considering [pathogenic](#) bacterial OTUs and antiviral antibodies
249 found in each study year, study site, habitat, host species, host sex and host age group ([default](#)
250 [options \(natural logarithm Shannon index\) in ‘diversity’ function from the *vegan* package](#)). We
251 evaluated a linear regression model using analysis of deviance (‘lm’ and ‘drop1’ functions from the
252 basic *stats* package) to test for significance of differences in pathogen diversity due to the fixed
253 factors listed above after first correcting for all other factors in the model (marginal error tested
254 against the *F*-distribution). Post-hoc comparisons and correction for multiple tests were performed
255 using function ‘TukeyHSD’ from package *stats* and ‘HSD.test’ from package *agricolae* to [group](#)
256 [factor levels that were not significantly different.](#) The impact of host species diversity (Shannon
257 [diversity with Chao’s estimator correction using ‘Shannon’ in package *entropart*](#)) on pathogen
258 [species diversity was tested for by correlation \(‘cor.test’, package *stats*\) across each year x site x](#)
259 [habitat community.](#)

260 We next tested for differences in pathogen community composition (beta diversity) between host
261 species, habitats, study sites, years, age groups, and sexes [by applying a permutational multivariate](#)
262 [analysis of variance \(PERMANOVA\) on a Bray-Curtis dissimilarity matrix \(‘adonis2’ function in](#)

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268 | [the vegan package](#)). To explore how intrinsic factors (pathogen-pathogen associations) contributed
269 | [to the structure of the pathogen community](#), we used multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) to
270 | reduce variance in presence/absence of each bacterial pathogen species and antiviral antibody,
271 | implemented with the function 'MCA' in the *FactoMinR* package and visualization tools found in
272 | the *factoextra* package. This produces a set of quantitative and orthogonal descriptors (dimensions)
273 | describing the pathogen community composition, [revealing correlated variables](#). With each MCA
274 | dimension as a continuous dependent response variable, we then evaluated linear regression models
275 | using analysis of deviance with post-hoc comparisons (as detailed above) [to understand how the](#)
276 | [variation described by each MCA dimension was influenced by the extrinsic factors](#).

277

278 | 2.3.2. [Testing for associations between co-circulating pathogens](#)

279 | Because we identified a large number of pathogens, the number of potential association
280 | combinations to consider was excessively high, especially with regard to the relatively small
281 | number of rodents sampled. We therefore decided to test the significance only of those
282 | associations (i) clearly suggested by the community-wide MCA or (ii) previously described in
283 | the literature: positive association between *Bartonella* spp. and CPXV (Telfer *et al.* 2010), positive
284 | associations between *Mycoplasma* species (Sykes *et al.* 2008; Tagawa *et al.* 2012; Fettweis *et al.*
285 | 2014; Volokhov *et al.* 2017), and both positive (Kedem *et al.* 2014; Eidelman *et al.* 2019) and
286 | negative (Cohen, Einav & Hawlena 2015) associations between *Bartonella* spp. and hemotropic
287 | *Mycoplasma* species. Given the *a priori* assumption that associations would differ between host
288 | species, we analyzed each host species separately; where evidence suggested no significant
289 | differences between host species ([non-significant variation in the MCA dimension among host](#)
290 | [species or non-significant host species identity x explanatory pathogen term in logistic regressions](#)),
291 | we pooled individuals into a single analysis to gain statistical power.

292 | We tested the significance of each association using both association screening (SCN) analysis
293 | (Vaumourin *et al.* 2014) and multiple logistic regression analysis (GLMs, modeling the binomial

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301 | 'presence/absence' status of each pathogen as a function of the occurrence of other pathogens) [on](#)
302 | [the subset of host species in which the pathogens were found to circulate](#). We first performed SCN
303 | analysis, as this approach is among the most suitable for detecting pathogen associations in cross-
304 | sectional studies (Vaumourin *et al.* 2014). Briefly, given the prevalence of each pathogen species in
305 | the study population, SCN analysis generates a simulation-based 95% confidence envelope around
306 | the expected frequency of each possible combination of concurrent infection status (a total of 2^{NP}
307 | combinations, where NP = the number of pathogen species) under the null hypothesis of random
308 | pathogen associations. Observed frequencies of co-infection combinations falling above or below
309 | this envelope are considered to occur more or less frequently, respectively, than in 95% of the
310 | random simulations. Significance of the association is given as a *p*-value, calculated as the number
311 | of instances in which the simulated co-infection frequency differed (above or below the upper or
312 | lower threshold, respectively) from the observed frequency divided by the total number of
313 | simulations (Vaumourin *et al.* 2014).

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314 | The benefit of the SCN approach is a relatively high level of statistical power and the ability to
315 | identify precisely which combinations of pathogens occur outside the random expectations
316 | (Vaumourin *et al.* (2014)). However, the SCN is sensitive to heterogeneity in the data due to
317 | extrinsic factors (e.g., host specificity, or structuring in space, time, age or sex), which can both
318 | create and mask true associations. A multiple logistic regression (GLM) approach was thus also
319 | systematically employed, as it has the benefit of explicitly taking into account potentially
320 | confounding extrinsic factors. Binomial exposure (presence/absence of either bacterial infection or
321 | antiviral antibodies) to a single pathogen was set as the dependent variable with exposure to the
322 | hypothetically associated pathogen(s) treated as independent [explanatory](#) variable(s) and extrinsic
323 | factors (host sex, host age, study year, study site, and where appropriate, habitat) were specified as
324 | covariates using function 'glm' in the *stats* package with a binomial logit link. [When the multiple](#)
325 | [host species were involved, we tested an interaction term \(host species identity x explanatory](#)
326 | [pathogen\), and either \(if \$p < 0.05\$ \) performed separate analyses for each host species or \(if \$p \geq 0.05\$ \)](#)

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328 [simply added host species identity as another covariate in the model](#). When there was no *a priori*
329 assumption concerning timing of exposure (e.g., antiviral antibody presence is more likely to affect
330 current acute bacterial infection than the reverse), the occurrence of each pathogen [involved](#) in a
331 given association was set as the dependent variable in reciprocal GLMs. As for the MCA
332 dimensions above, statistical significance of the association was assessed after first correcting for all
333 covariates in the model using the ‘drop1’ function (-2 log likelihood ratio tests via single-term
334 deletions compared to the full model). Despite a large number of *a priori* hypotheses, we regarded a
335 p-value of < 0.05 as significant due to the very low number of individuals of each host species
336 sampled. Though conceivably important, we also did not have sufficient power to test for [additional](#)
337 interaction terms.

339 [2.3.3. Evaluating false discovery](#)

340 [Given the large number of significance tests performed on this single dataset, we compiled all](#)
341 [relevant p-values \(N=77\) and applied a Benjamini-Hochberg correction procedure to estimate how](#)
342 [many of the significant results may fall within the false discovery zone \(using function ‘p.adjust’ in](#)
343 [the stats package\). Among tests of positively correlated hypotheses \(e.g., pairwise tests of intrinsic](#)
344 [pathogen-pathogen associations N=20\), only one of the p-values from the pair was included in](#)
345 [calculating the false discovery rate \(selected randomly\). SCN analysis results were not included,](#)
346 [because they were also expected to be positively correlated with the logistic regressions, and](#)
347 [because the method inherently performs correction for multiple tests. Between hypotheses, the data](#)
348 [were often composed of different non-overlapping subsets of varying sizes, and sample sizes varied](#)
349 [widely with some being very small. Thus, application of this procedure likely indicates a](#)
350 [conservative \(low\) estimate for how many null hypotheses should truly be rejected.](#)

352 **3. Results**

353 [3.1. Taxonomic identification and prevalence of pathogens](#)

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357 3.1.1. Viral exposure

358 The most abundant virus detected was CPXV, with 222 (32.8%) positive sera of the 677 animals
359 tested for anti-CPXV antibodies. It was detected in all focal host species. However, significant
360 variation in prevalence was observed between focal host species (highly prevalent (43-70%) in *Ar.*
361 *scherman*, *Mi. agrestis*, and *My. glareolus*; Figure 1; $\chi^2 = 119.5$, $df = 6$, $p < 10^{-15}$). Anti-hantavirus
362 antibodies were detected in 16 animals (2.4%), and were significantly structured among host
363 species (with exposure highest in *Mi. arvalis* (9.7%), *R. norvegicus* (3.3%) and *My. glareolus*
364 (3.1%); Figure 1; $\chi^2 = 19.4$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.0036$). Anti-LCMV antibodies were detected in two *Mi.*
365 *arvalis* individuals (Figure 1). No animals were positive for anti-TBE antibodies.

367 3.1.2. Bacterial pathogens

368 Out of 952 bacterial OTUs represented by at least 50 reads in the dataset, 498 were considered
369 positive in at least one animal after data filtering (presented in [Supplemental Materials](#) Table S1).
370 Two OTUs (00024 & 00037) identified as *Bartonella* with low bootstrap values (74 and 92
371 respectively) appeared to represent chimeric sequences between the two highly amplified genera
372 (*Bartonella* and *Mycoplasma*) in co-infected samples. Two OTUs (00009 & 00117) which were
373 unclassified but which had a large number of reads in positive animals were also found to represent
374 chimeric sequences between the two genera, despite high bootstrap values (100). Three additional
375 chimeric *Mycoplasma* OTUs with under 500 reads were also excluded (OTUs 00076, 00159, and
376 00316). Two OTUs (00002 & 00059) were found to be redundant with OTUs Myco1 and Myco3,
377 respectively, and two more (00134 & 00220) were chimera between Myco OTUs. These 11 OTUs
378 were manually removed from the database, and are not included in Table S1.

379 We identified 43 OTUs belonging to bacterial genera with members known or thought to be
380 pathogenic in mammals (Table 1). After BLAST queries, we found 16 of these OTUs (representing
381 7 distinct genera) which could be considered as reliably detectable pathogens in the focal host
382 species (Figure 1). An additional 24 OTUs were considered potentially pathogenic but excluded

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398 | from analyses because they were only observed in rare host species, because presence-absence
399 | could not be reliably established due to a low total number of reads (<500 in the dataset, e.g.,
400 | *Borrelia* spp. and *Leptospira* spp.), because we could not rule out contamination by natural sources
401 | of non-pathogenic flora during dissection (e.g., *Helicobacter* spp., *Streptococcus* spp.) or by known
402 | contaminants of sequencing reagents (e.g., *Williamsia* spp.; (Salter *et al.* 2014)), or because their
403 | identity to a pathogenic species was uncertain due to insufficient genetic variation at the 16S rRNA
404 | locus (e.g., *Yersinia* spp.) (Table 1). We also identified three OTUs belonging to the eukaryotic
405 | family Sarcocystidae (98% sequence similarity to the coccidian parasite *Sarcocystis muris*); though
406 | each OTU was represented by >500 reads, there are currently no data on the reliability of this
407 | method for detection (Table 1). Individual infection status for each of these OTUs is given in Table
408 | S2.

409 | The 16 reliably detectable pathogenic OTUs included *Bartonella* spp., 10 *Mycoplasma* spp.
410 | OTUs, *Rickettsia canadensis*, “*Candidatus* Neoehrlichia mikurensis”, *Orientia* spp., *Brevinema*
411 | *andersonii*, and *Spiroplasma* spp. Phylogenetic analysis including published sequences from
412 | BLAST queries revealed that the 10 *Mycoplasma* spp. OTUs belonged to three distinct species:
413 | *Myco. haemomuris* (Myco1-3,5,7-9), *Myco. coccoides* (Myco4 and Mco6), and “*Candidatus Myco.*
414 | *ravipulmonis*” (Myco10) (Figure S4). In general, these bacterial infections were present in all but 30
415 | of the 332 animals tested (91.0% prevalent), and were not concentrated in any particular focal host
416 | species ($\chi^2 = 9.7$, $df = 6$, $p = 0.139$). Prevalence of each pathogen in each focal host species is
417 | presented in Figure 1.

418 |

419 | 3.2. Extrinsic drivers of pathogen community diversity and composition within rodent community

420 | 3.2.1. Analyses of pathogen diversity

421 | We found evidence for the co-circulation of between 3 (in *Mi. agrestis*) and 12 (in *My.*
422 | *glareolus*) pathogen taxa per host species across the rodent community (Figure 1). Using multiple
423 | regression analysis on the Shannon diversity index, we found that marginal mean pathogen diversity

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426 differed significantly between host species ($F_{5,69} = 6.86, p < 10^{-4}$) and habitats ($F_{2,69} = 4.97, p =$
 427 0.0096), and it was significantly higher in adults than in juveniles ($F_{1,69} = 21.43, p < 10^{-4}$). Pathogen
 428 diversity did not, however, differ between study sites, years, or host sexes (Figure 2, Table S3).
 429 Post-hoc Tukey tests showed that after correcting for all other factors in the model, meadow
 430 habitats had higher diversity of pathogen exposure than forest habitats, and the diversity of

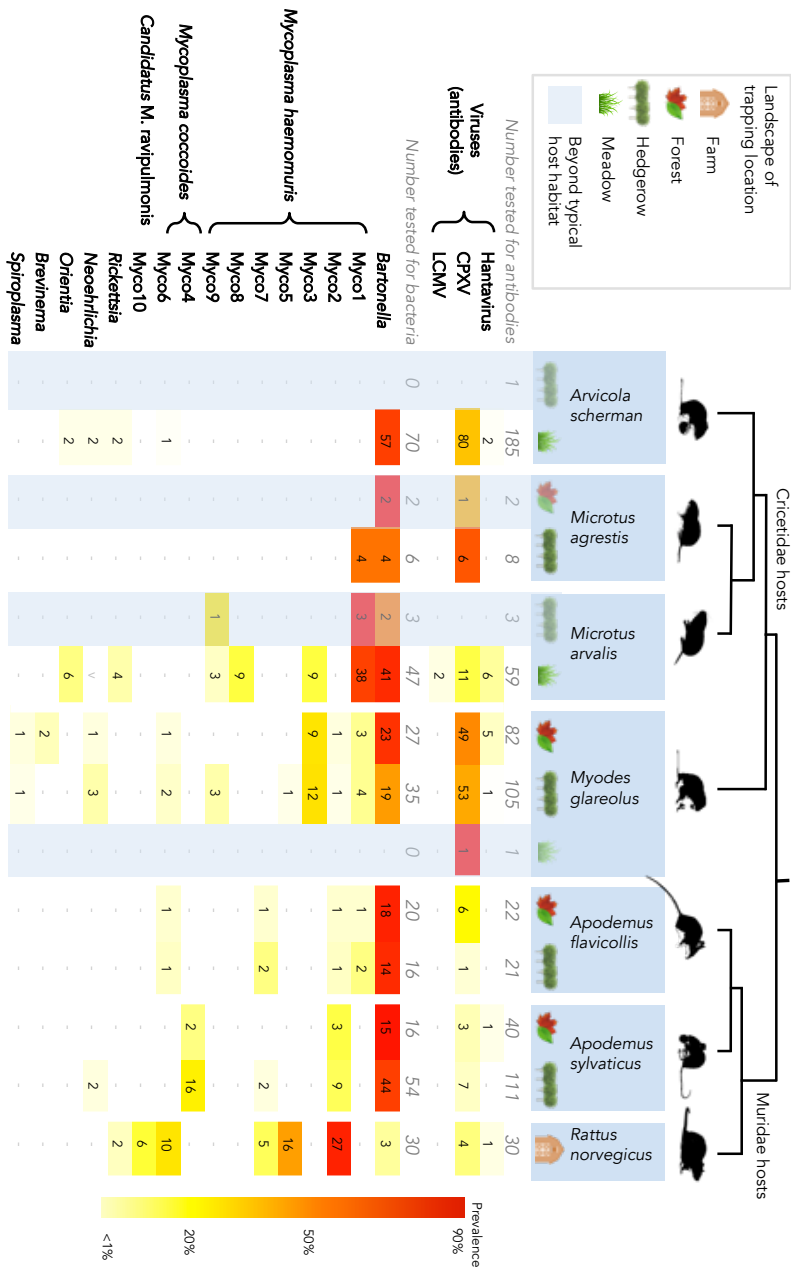


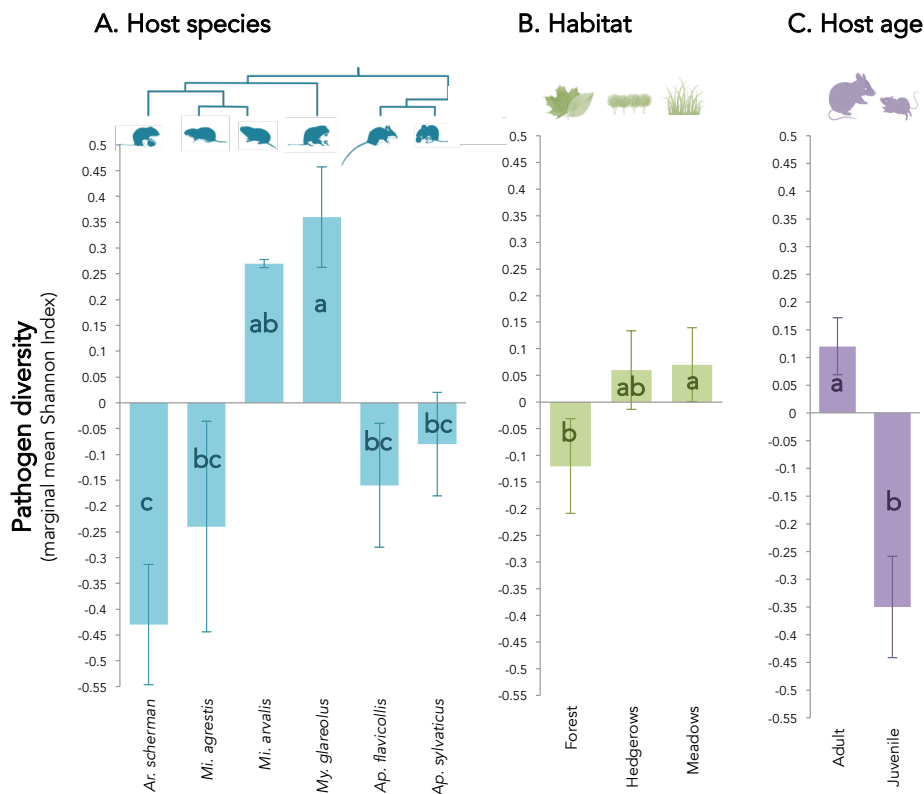
Figure 1. Pathogen occurrence across the rodent species community.

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448 pathogen communities in host species fell along a continuum between *My. glareolus* (high) and *Ar.*
 449 *scherman* (low) extremes (Figure 2, Table S3). [Host species diversity in each community \(year x](#)

Figure 2: Extrinsic drivers of pathogen diversity in a rodent species community. Differences in Shannon diversity index was tested on marginal means for each factor in the multiple regression model. Different letters signify statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$, with post-hoc Tukey adjustments for multi-level factors.

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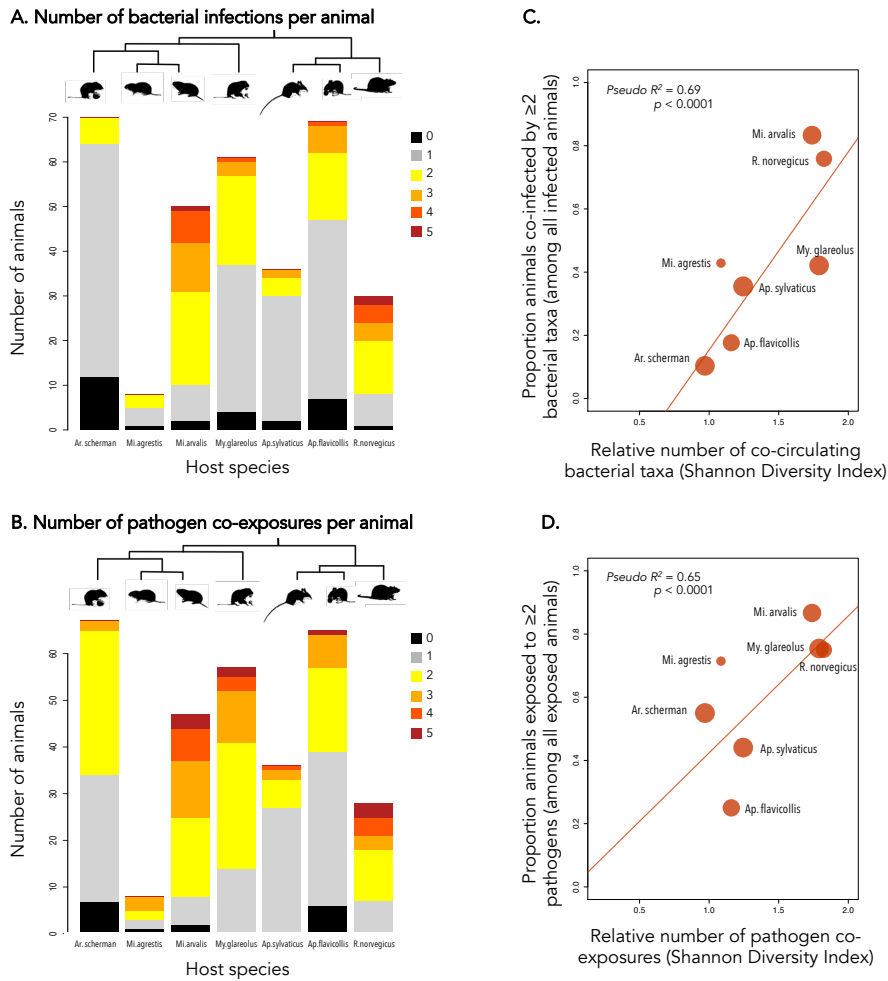
450 [site x habitat](#)) was positively correlated with pathogen diversity ($r = 0.62$, $t = 2.5$, $df = 10$, $p =$
 451 [0.032](#)).

452 To understand the relative pathogen diversity of *R. norvegicus* hosts, excluded from the model
 453 because they were entirely confounded with farm habitats, we analyzed two additional modified
 454 models; one excluding host habitat and the other excluding host species. Post-hoc Tukey tests from
 455 these models respectively showed that *R. norvegicus* hosts had the second most diverse pathogen

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457 community, and that farm habitats were thus in the same high-diversity category as meadow
 458 habitats (Table S4).

Figure 3: Bacterial co-infection and co-exposure patterns across host species.



459
 460 We also found an enormous amount of both bacterial co-infections and concurrent history of
 461 viral exposures (Figures 3A, 3B). The percentage of animals co-infected with two or more reliably
 462 detectable pathogenic bacterial OTUs among all those infected in each host species ranged between
 463 84.4% (in *Mi. arvalis*) and 10.5% (in *Ar. scherman*). This co-infection frequency was significantly
 464 correlated with the diversity (Shannon Index) of bacteria circulating in each rodent species (Figure

465 3C; [analysis of deviance](#) $Pseudo-R^2 = 0.69, p < 10^{-11}$, calculated using logistic regression weighted
 466 by the number of infected animals per species). Bacterial co-infections were more frequent than
 467 expected in *Mi. agrestis*, and less frequent than expected in *My. glareolus* (according to Cook's
 468 Distance, Figure S5A). Results were similar when co-occurrence of antiviral antibodies was
 469 considered along with bacterial OTU exposure (Figure 3D; $Pseudo-R^2 = 0.65, p < 10^{-7}$). While *Mi.*
 470 *arvalis* had both more bacterial co-infections and slightly more pathogen co-exposures than
 471 expected based on pathogen diversity, other outliers differed between the two measures (Figure
 472 S5B): *My. glareolus* co-exposure frequencies were not lower than expected, and both *Apodemus*
 473 species had lower than expected co-exposures. [Host species diversity in each community did not](#)
 474 [correlate with bacterial co-infection](#) ($r = 0.33, t = 1.11, df = 10, p = 0.29$) or pathogen co-exposure
 475 ($r = 0.022, t = 0.071, df = 10, p = 0.94$) frequencies.

477 3.2.2. Analyses of pathogen community composition

478 Many pathogen taxa were found only in a single host species (*Mycoplasma haemomuris* OTU
 479 Myco8, “*Candidatus Mycoplasma ravidulmonis*” (Myco10), *Brevinema* spp., *Spiroplasma* spp.,
 480 LCMV), and each host species had a unique combination of co-circulating pathogens (Figure 1). In
 481 order to best identify extrinsic and intrinsic factors potentially driving the composition of pathogen
 482 communities within the rodent community, we reduced the dataset to limit biases. We excluded *R.*
 483 *norvegicus* individuals due to competing a priori hypotheses that host species and habitat would be
 484 important factors (as this host species was the only one found in farm habitats, confounding these
 485 two variables; but see MCA results when *R. norvegicus* was included in Figures S6, S7). Likewise,
 486 we excluded pathogens that occurred only in one habitat type of one host species (not including *R.*
 487 *norvegicus*). Two additional individuals were excluded due to missing sex and age information.
 488 Analyses were performed on the remaining 280 individuals from six host species and their 14
 489 pathogens (*Bartonella*, Myco1, Myco2, Myco3, Myco4, Myco6, Myco7, Myco9, *Rickettsia*,
 490 *Neohhrlichia*, *Orientia*, *Spiroplasma*, and antibodies against CPXV and hantaviruses) (Figure S8).

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513 Overall, pathogen species composition was significantly structured by host species identity
 514 ($F_{5,252} = 16.23$, $p = 0.001$) and habitat type ($F_{2,252} = 2.51$, $p = 0.024$; Table S5). Out of 14
 515 orthogonal dimensions returned by the MCA, the first two captured 23.0% of the variation in
 516 pathogen and antibody occurrence, and the first seven explained a cumulative 63.4% of the total
 517 variance (Figure S9). Further dimensions captured less variance than would be expected if all
 518 dimensions contributed equally to overall inertia in the data. Dimension 1 (MCA Dim1; explaining
 519 13.1% of the variation in pathogen community and loading heavily with the presence of Myco1,
 520 Myco3 and anti-hantavirus antibodies) differed significantly between host species ($F_{5,268} = 23.83$, p
 521 < 0.0001) and age classes ($F_{1,268} = 6.27$, $p = 0.013$; Table S6). Dimension 2 (MCA Dim2;
 522 explaining 9.9% of the variation in pathogen community and primarily describing the occurrence of
 523 *Bartonella*) was also structured significantly by host species ($F_{5,268} = 3.89$, $p = 0.002$; Table S6).
 524 While these first two dimensions varied by host species (Figure S10A) and host age class (Figure
 525 S10B), variance in host habitats (Figure S10C) was not significant after accounting for the other
 526 factors. Host species was the most consistently important extrinsic driver of pathogen community
 527 composition, significantly explaining variation captured in six of the first seven dimensions, MCA
 528 Dim1 – MCA Dim7 (except for MCA Dim 5; Table S6).

529

530 3.3. Associations between pathogens

531 3.3.1. Validation of the associations detected by MCA

532 We applied SCN and GLM analyses to further characterize patterns detected using MCA. Strong
 533 and relatively equal loading of MCA Dim1 with Myco1, Myco3, and anti-hantavirus antibody
 534 presence indicated that these three pathogens were positively associated with one-another. Indeed,
 535 the six animals with anti-hantavirus antibodies were found exclusively in animals infected with
 536 Myco3, and Myco1 was found in 2/3 of hantavirus-exposed animals but in just 1/3 of those without
 537 hantavirus exposure. The MCA also revealed significant differences among host species and host
 538 age classes for Dim 1; hantavirus and Myco3 only circulated in two host species (*Mi. arvalis* and

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547 *My. glareolus*) and 34 of those 35 occurrences were in adults. To exclude positive associations
 548 arising from mutual host specificity and age-related accumulation of exposure probability, we
 549 focused our analyses on the dataset restricted to adults of the two host species in which all three
 550 pathogens co-circulated (*Mi. arvalis* and *My. glareolus*). Individual SCN analyses performed on
 551 adults of each host species revealed no associations (Table S6A). However, since values of MCA
 552 Dim 1 did not differ between the two host species (according to post-hoc tests given in Table S6),
 553 we also ran a single SCN analysis on the pooled data from adults of both species to improve
 554 statistical power (Table S7A). According to this pooled SCN analysis, the three-way co-occurrence
 555 of Myco1, Myco3 and anti-hantavirus antibodies was significantly more frequent than would be
 556 expected by random chance ($p = 0.008$), with a trend for anti-hantavirus antibodies occurring by
 557 themselves more rarely than expected (sitting on the lower bound at zero; $p = 0.13$; Table S7A,
 558 Figure S11). We also investigated this association using GLM. However, given the small number of
 559 hantavirus exposures and perfect association with Myco3 infection, there was insufficient statistical
 560 power to explicitly test for an association between all three pathogens and extrinsic factors. We
 561 therefore ran three reciprocal GLM models on the restricted dataset, one for each pathogen as a
 562 function of extrinsic factors to control for heterogeneous host groups (host species, host sex, study
 563 site, habitat, and year sampled) and exposure to the two other pathogens (Table S7B). These models
 564 showed that there remained significant unexplained positive associations between hantavirus
 565 exposure and Myco1 infection (anti-hantavirus antibodies ~ Myco1: $\chi^2 = 5.67$, $p = 0.017$; Myco1 ~
 566 anti-hantavirus antibodies: $\chi^2 = 2.89$, $p = 0.09$) and between hantavirus exposure and Myco3
 567 infection (Myco3 ~ anti-hantavirus antibodies: $\chi^2 = 12.11$, $p < 0.001$), but that there was no
 568 evidence of direct association between Myco1 and Myco3 infections (Myco1 ~ Myco3: $\chi^2 = 0.07$, p
 569 = 0.8; Myco3 ~ Myco1: $\chi^2 < 0.01$, $p = 0.96$; Figure 4A).

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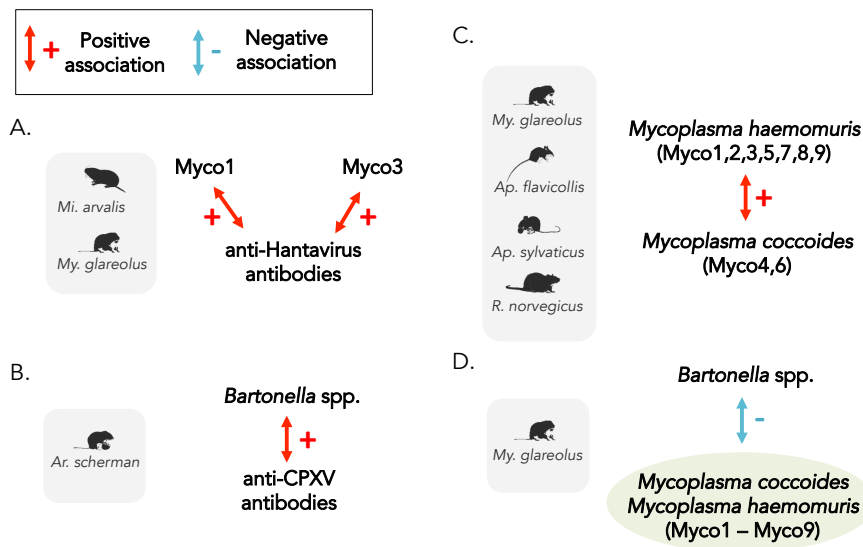
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Figure 4: Associations between pathogens in a community of rodents. Association hypotheses were generated by multiple correspondence analysis (A) or previously noted in the literature (B, C, D). Only associations supported by significant statistical tests ($p < 0.05$) are illustrated. Red arrows represent positive associations, blue arrows represent negative associations.

582



583

584

585 The third MCA dimension also presented a clear hypothesis with sufficient statistical power to
 586 be tested. MCA Dim3 was characterized by co-variation in Myco2 (*Myco. haemomuris*) and Myco4
 587 (*Myco. coccoides*) infections suggesting a positive association between members of these two
 588 *Mycoplasma* species. Myco2 and Myco4 OTUs co-circulated only in *Ap. sylvaticus* hosts, thus we
 589 limited our analysis to this host species. There was no significant association between the two
 590 OTUs detected by SCN analysis (Table S8A), and after correcting for all extrinsic factors, there
 591 remained only a non-significant trend (Myco2 ~ Myco4: $\chi^2 = 2.47$, $p = 0.12$; Myco4 ~ Myco2: $\chi^2 =$
 592 2.47, $p = 0.12$; Table S8B) for a positive association between the two OTUs. No additional
 593 associations with sufficient variance for statistical tests were clearly suggested by the MCA
 594 analysis.

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599 3.3.2. Validation of associations described in the literature

600 We tested the *a priori* hypothesis that seropositivity to CPXV would be positively associated
601 with *Bartonella* infection, previously detected in *Mi. agrestis* (Telfer *et al.* 2010). The whole dataset
602 was considered as these two pathogens co-circulated in all host species (Figure 1). SCN analyses
603 performed independently for each host species revealed no associations (Table S9A), and the MCA
604 results suggested that pooling data across host species would be inappropriate. After correcting for
605 extrinsic factors using GLM, we found reciprocal evidence for a positive association in *Ar.*
606 *scherman* hosts (*Bartonella* ~ anti-CPXV antibodies: $\chi^2 = 5.37, p = 0.020$; anti-CPXV antibodies ~
607 *Bartonella*: $\chi^2 = 5.21, p = 0.022$; Figure 4B), but not in any other host species (Table S9B). It is of
608 note that there were only eight *Mi. agrestis* individuals, rendering statistical power to test for the
609 association while controlling for extrinsic factors insufficient in this host species where the
610 association was previously described. While prevalence of both pathogens in *Mi. agrestis* was
611 relatively high compared to other host species, one of the two animals without *Bartonella* infection
612 was positive for anti-CPXV antibodies, also precluding evidence for a within-species trend.

613 We next focused on the potential associations between OTUs identified as belonging to two
614 different species of hemotropic *Mycoplasma*, *Myco. haemomuris* (HM) and *Myco. coccoides* (HC),
615 within the four host species in which they both circulated (*My. glareolus*, *Ap. flavicollis*, *Ap.*
616 *sylvaticus*, *R. norvegicus*; Figure 1; Figure S4). We found no significant associations using
617 independent SCN analyses for each host species (Table S10A). However, after controlling for
618 extrinsic factors using GLM, a significant positive association was detected (HM ~ HC: $\chi^2 = 9.5, p$
619 $= 0.0021$; HC ~ HM: $\chi^2 = 9.59, p = 0.002$), and did not differ between host species (non-significant
620 interaction term between host species by explanatory pathogen occurrence in each reciprocal model,
621 Table S10B; Figure 4C). We note that only one *R. norvegicus* animal was uninfected with *Myco.*
622 *haemomuris*, and that animal also had no *Myco. coccoides* infection; thus the trend for the
623 association in this host species was also positive but lacked sufficient variance for independent
624 statistical analysis.

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635 Finally, we tested for associations between *Bartonella* spp. and hemotropic *Mycoplasma* species,
636 grouping the occurrence of different OTUs of the latter (Myco1 – Myco9) into a single presence-
637 absence variable. There was no association detected by SCN analyses (Table S11A), and marginal
638 evidence that any association may differ by host species after correcting for extrinsic factors using
639 GLM (Table S11B). After controlling for extrinsic factors using independent GLMs for each host
640 (where possible), we found a negative association between the two pathogen groups only in *My.*
641 *glareolus* hosts (*Bartonella* ~ *Mycoplasma*: $\chi^2 = 5.73$, $p = 0.017$; *Mycoplasma* ~ *Bartonella*: $\chi^2 =$
642 5.65 , $p = 0.017$, Table S11B, Figure 4D).

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644 3.4. Evaluating false discovery

645 Benjamini-Hochberg correction of p-values from hypothesis tests throughout the study suggested
646 that those above ~0.01 may lie above the false discovery cutoff for statistical significance (Figure
647 S12), and that null hypotheses rejected with smaller p-values have been rejected with confidence.

649 **4. Discussion**

650 Rodents have long been recognized as important reservoirs of infectious agents, with a high
651 transmission potential to humans and domestic animals (Kruse, Kirkemo & Handeland 2004).
652 Europe is identified as a hotspot of rodent reservoir diversity and one third of rodent species are
653 considered hyper-reservoirs, carrying up to 11 zoonotic agents (Han *et al.* 2015). Nevertheless,
654 associations between these pathogens have still only rarely been investigated (but see, for example,
655 studies from field voles in the UK (Telfer *et al.* 2010) and in Poland (Pawelczyk *et al.* 2004),
656 gerbils in Israel (Cohen *et al.* 2015), across a rodent community in North America (Dallas *et al.*
657 2019), and co-infection frequencies of zoonotic pathogens from rodents in Croatia (Tadin *et al.*
658 2012)).

659 In this study, we confirmed that rodent communities in northern France may harbor a large
660 diversity of potential zoonotic pathogens, with at least 10 bacterial genera and antibodies against at

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666 | [least](#) four genera of viruses. Some of these pathogens have already been reported in [the study](#) region
667 | or in geographic proximity, including viruses (*Orthohantavirus*, *Orthopoxvirus*, *Mammarenavirus*
668 | (Charbonnel *et al.* 2008; Salvador *et al.* 2011)), and bacteria (e.g., *Bartonella*, *Mycoplasma*,
669 | *Rickettsia*, “*Candidatus Neohrlichia*”, *Orientia*, *Spiroplasma*, *Treponema*, *Leptospira*, *Borrelia*,
670 | *Neisseria*, *Pasteurella*; see (Vayssier-Taussat *et al.* 2012; Razzauti *et al.* 2015)). [A previously](#)
671 | [undetected](#), relative of the putatively pathogenic spirochaete *Brevinema andersonii* that infects
672 | short-tailed shrews and white-footed mice in North America (Defosse *et al.* 1995) [was among our](#)
673 | [findings, and TBEV is not known to circulate this far east](#) (Lindquist & Vapalahti 2008). [The high](#)
674 | prevalence of anti-hantavirus antibodies in *Mi. arvalis* [is likely](#) explained by cross-reactivity
675 | between the anti-PUUV antibodies used in our assay and those elicited against the related *Tula*
676 | *orthohantavirus* (TULA) virus common to European voles (Deter *et al.* 2007; Tegshduuren *et al.*
677 | 2010).

678 | [Three zoonotic pathogens were particularly prevalent: Orthopoxvirus, Bartonella spp., and](#)
679 | [Mycoplasma spp. The wide range of hosts with anti-Orthopoxvirus antibodies corroborates prior](#)
680 | evidence that cowpox virus could be widespread in European rodents, particularly voles (Bennett *et*
681 | *al.* 1997; Essbauer, Pfeffer & Meyer 2010; Forbes *et al.* 2014). An astounding 77% of all
682 | individuals in the study were infected by *Bartonella* [spp.](#), a diverse group of hemotrophs known to
683 | commonly infect rodents and other mammals (Breitschwerdt & Kordick 2000; Bai *et al.* 2009) and
684 | which have also been implicated in both zoonotic and human-specific disease (Iralu *et al.* 2006;
685 | Breitschwerdt 2014; Vayssier-Taussat *et al.* 2016). We could not assess the specific diversity of
686 | *Bartonella* [spp.](#) circulating in these rodent communities because accurate resolution in this genus
687 | requires additional genetic markers (Matar *et al.* 1999; Guy *et al.* 2013). Hemotropic and
688 | pneumotropic *Mycoplasma* spp. were also highly prevalent [across all host species, though](#)
689 | [surprisingly lower than expected](#), in *Ar. scherman* (Villette *et al.* 2017). These *Mycoplasma* species
690 | are also known pathogens of humans and rodents (Harwick, Kalmanson & Guze 1972; Baker 1998).
691 | Here, we found [two distinct hemotropic Mycoplasma species \(Myco. haemomuris and Myco.](#)

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Deleted: with *R. norvegicus* being the notable exception (with only 10% infected, leaving an average of 84% prevalence in all other species). The bacterial genus *Bartonella* is
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Deleted: collectively infecting 43% of all hosts, with nearly all *R. norvegicus* and *Mi. arvalis* samples infected. On the contrary, we found just one *Mycoplasma* infection in *Ar. scherman*, despite ample sampling (70 animals tested) and its previous detection
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723 | *coccoides*) and the pneumotropic *Mycoplasma* species *Myco. pulmonis* and “*Candidatus Myco.*
724 | *ravipulmonis*”. The former two are both hemotropic mycoplasmas responsible for vector-
725 | transmitted infectious anaemia of wild mice, rats, and other rodent species (Neimark *et al.* 2001,
726 | 2005; Messick 2004). In contrast, *Myco. pulmonis* and “*Candidatus Myco. ravipulmonis*” cause
727 | respiratory infections, are more closely related to other pneumotropic mycoplasmas, and
728 | “*Candidatus Myco. ravipulmonis*” has only ever before been described in laboratory mice (formerly
729 | termed Grey Lung virus (Andrews & Glover 1945; Neimark, Mitchelmore & Leach 1998; Graham
730 | & Schoeb 2011; Piasecki, Chrzastek & Kasprzykowska 2017)).

731 | Our results also corroborated the status of hyper-reservoir (more than two zoonotic pathogens
732 | carried by a reservoir species) for all seven of the focal rodent species studied here (Han *et al.*
733 | 2015). Even the rare host species *Mi. subterraneus* also carried two potentially zoonotic pathogens
734 | (*Bartonella* spp. and *Brevinema* spp.; Appendix 1). Overall, we found a high variability in the
735 | number of pathogens circulating in each species despite correction for sampling effort, with low
736 | levels observed in *Apodemus* species and *Arvicola scherman*, and high levels detected in *Mi.*
737 | *arvalis*, *My. glareolus*, and *R. norvegicus*. While physiology, genetics, and behavior can contribute
738 | to the number of pathogen species able to infect a given host species, larger geographic range size is
739 | highly correlated with higher pathogen species diversity (Morand 2015); this explanation matches
740 | the pattern among hosts in the communities sampled here (i.e., *Ar. scherman* and *Apodemus* spp.
741 | have small geographic ranges compared to those of *Mi. arvalis*, *My. glareolus*, and *R. norvegicus*).

742 | Several studies have emphasized the influence of host habitat specialization on parasite species
743 | richness, low habitat specialization being associated with both high species richness of macro- and
744 | micro-parasites (e.g., (Morand & Bordes 2015)). Our results did not fully corroborate this
745 | association; while the grassland-specific *Ar. scherman* had the lowest pathogen diversity and the
746 | multi-habitat spanning *My. glareolus* had the highest pathogen diversity, entirely farm-dwelling *R.*
747 | *norvegicus* had high pathogen diversity nearly equal to that of *My. glareolus*, and the two
748 | *Apodemus* hosts (neither with significantly higher pathogen diversity than *Ar. scherman*) were

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761 [found across both meadows and hedgerows. Instead, we found that more diverse host species](#)
762 [communities hosted more diverse pathogen communities. However, the implications of that result](#)
763 [are complex because while exposure to diverse \(i.e., potentially novel\) pathogens is a risk for](#)
764 [disease emergence, diverse host species communities are thought to keep individual pathogen](#)
765 [prevalence low due to the dilution effect – which should limit risk of zoonoses](#) (Keesing *et al.*
766 2010).

767 The search for factors that drive parasite species richness, diversity and community composition
768 has been at the core of numerous studies (Poulin 1995; Poulin & Morand 2000; Nunn *et al.* 2003;
769 Mouillot *et al.* 2005; Krasnov *et al.* 2010; Sallinen *et al.* 2020). Here, we emphasized that both
770 pathogen diversity and community composition was mainly structured by host species identity,
771 despite both shared habitats and shared pathogen taxa. [Pathogen beta diversity was also structured](#)
772 [by habitat, which could result from particular environmental suitability \(e.g., for vectors\) or](#)
773 [opportunities for cross-species transmission.](#) We found no evidence that any specific pathogen-
774 pathogen associations were likely to be as important as host species identity in determining
775 pathogen distributions across the community of rodents. The strong influence of host characteristics
776 (Cohen *et al.* 2015) and host species identity (Dallas *et al.* 2019) on pathogen community
777 composition has recently been described in comparison to intrinsic pathogen-pathogen associations
778 in other rodents. Moreover, the pathogen community composition provided a unique signature [for](#)
779 each rodent species, even among those most closely related (e.g., *Ap. flavicolis* and *Ap. sylvaticus*).
780 This result is in line with the conclusions of [meta-analyses showing that phylogeny, over other host](#)
781 [traits, has](#) a minimal impact on pathogen diversity in rodent species (Luis *et al.* 2013; Guy *et al.*
782 2019).

783 The importance of host species identity in shaping pathogen community composition may not
784 stem from strict host-pathogen specificity, as most pathogens were found to infect multiple host
785 species – a broad result echoed across animal communities (Taylor *et al.* 2001; Woolhouse, Taylor
786 & Haydon 2001; Cleaveland, Laurenson & Taylor 2001; Pedersen *et al.* 2005; Streicker *et al.*

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795 2013). However, we might be cautious as more precise molecular analyses are necessary to test
 796 whether different species of a bacteria genus or divergent populations of the same bacteria species
 797 may circulate independently in different rodent host species, with little or no transmission. For
 798 example, two genera seemed to be largely shared among the rodent species studied here, *Bartonella*
 799 and *Mycoplasma*. But previous studies have shown strong host-specificity when considering the
 800 genetic variants of *Bartonella* (Buffet *et al.* 2013; Withenshaw *et al.* 2016; Brook *et al.* 2017)
 801 Evidence in the literature for host specificity of *Mycoplasma* species has led to a mix of conclusions
 802 (Pitcher & Nicholas 2005), as cases of cross-species transmission are commonly reported –
 803 particularly in humans – despite a general consensus that most species are highly host-specific. We
 804 found that some *Mycoplasma* taxa were dominant contributors to prevalence in a single host
 805 species, and that when shared, they were shared with just a few other specific host species. Rare
 806 infections in unexpected host species (e.g., Myco6 in *Ar. scherman* and Myco1 in *Ap. flavicollis*)
 807 were represented by fewer sequence reads compared to positive samples in host species where they
 808 were more prevalent, suggesting a low potential for amplification and sustained transmission from
 809 these occasional hosts (Figure S4). On the other hand, while the Cricetidae appeared to be
 810 susceptible only – with rare exception – to taxa within the *Myco. haemomuris* group, host species in
 811 the Muridae family were susceptible to all three distinct *Mycoplasma* species detected. The biggest
 812 exception to this pattern was that three of 62 *Myodes glareolus* (sister to all other sampled
 813 Cricetidae in the study) animals were found to be infected by both hemotropic *Mycoplasma* species.
 814 These results both support the observation that cross-species transmission naturally occurs among
 815 wild rodents and suggest that the degree of host specificity may be driven by both host and
 816 pathogen factors.

817 Concurrent exposure to multiple pathogens within individuals was also frequent, as high as 89 %
 818 (in *Mi. arvalis* hosts), in line with recent studies that have shown that co-infections by multiple
 819 pathogens are common in natural populations (e.g., in mammals, birds, amphibians, ticks, humans
 820 (Telfer *et al.* 2010; Griffiths *et al.* 2011; Moutailler *et al.* 2016; Clark *et al.* 2016; Stutz *et al.*

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Deleted: Several studies have emphasized the influence of host habitat specialization on parasite species richness, low habitat specialization being associated with both high species richness of macro- and micro-parasites (e.g. (Morand & Bordes 2015)). Our results did not fully corroborate this association; while the grassland-specific *Ar. scherman* had the lowest pathogen diversity and the multi-habitat spanning *My. glareolus* had the highest pathogen diversity, entirely farm-dwelling *R. norvegicus* had high pathogen diversity nearly equal to that of *My. glareolus*, and the two *Apodemus* hosts (neither with significantly higher pathogen diversity than *Ar. scherman*) were found across both meadows and hedgerows. We also found no influence of sampling sites or years on pathogen diversity at the small spatio-temporal scale considered here. Hence, further research is required to decipher the eco-epidemiological features that explain this strong influence of rodent species on pathogen community composition, such as host densities, home ranges, behaviours, or genetics (e.g. (Morand 2015)).

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Deleted: We found that a large proportion of rodents from Northern France were co-infected with two or more bacterial pathogens (max = 5 bacterial pathogens in *Mi. arvalis* and *R. norvegicus* hosts), and also had concurrent histories of exposure to multiple viruses (max = 5 bacterial and/or viral co-exposures in *Mi. arvalis*, *My. glareolus*, *Ap. sylvaticus*, and *R. norvegicus* hosts). The percentage of pathogen co-exposed hosts was as high as 89% (in *Mi. arvalis* hosts), dropping only to 83% when considering only presently co-infecting bacterial taxa. These results are

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864 | 2018)). [Variation in the frequency of](#) pathogen co-exposure was highly correlated to the diversity of
865 | pathogens circulating in each host species, suggesting the dominance of a random process of
866 | pathogen exposure for each individual. However, there were a few intriguing outliers: *My. glareolus*
867 | hosts were less co-infected than expected based on diversity of bacterial taxa, but not when viral
868 | antibodies were included; conversely, *Ar. scherman* hosts were more co-exposed when viruses were
869 | considered, but not when only bacteria were considered; and *Mi. arvalis* hosts had consistently
870 | higher proportions of co-exposures whether viruses were or were not considered along with
871 | bacteria. The non-random grouping of pathogen exposures within individuals (as in *Mi. arvalis*)
872 | may result from heterogeneity in extrinsic transmission, environmental, or susceptibility factors
873 | (Cattadori *et al.* 2006; Swanson *et al.* 2006; Beldomenico *et al.* 2008; Fenton, Viney & Lello 2010;
874 | Beldomenico & Begon 2010) or from intrinsic interactions between pathogens (e.g., facilitation
875 | mediated by hosts immune response). Differences in the pattern of co-exposure frequencies when
876 | including or excluding antiviral antibodies (as with *My. glareolus* and *Ar. scherman*) could result
877 | from different mechanisms (e.g., bacterial manipulation of innate immunity (Diacovich & Gorvel
878 | 2010)) affecting pathogen community assemblage. However, a lack of deviance from the expected
879 | co-exposure frequency does not exclude the possibility that both extrinsic and intrinsic processes
880 | may be occurring.

881 | [We found evidence in support of three previously identified pathogen-pathogen](#) associations
882 | (positive association between *Myco. haemomuris* and *Myco. coccoides* infections; positive
883 | association between *Bartonella spp.* infection and the presence of [anti-CPXV](#) antibodies; negative
884 | association between *Bartonella spp.* and hemotropic *Mycoplasma spp.* infections), and
885 | characterized one set of associations not previously described (positive associations between the
886 | presence of [anti-hantavirus](#) antibodies and infections by two specific *Myco. haemomuris* OTUs) –
887 | each in a unique subset of host species. *Mycoplasma spp.* blood infections [are likely transmitted](#)
888 | through bites of blood-sucking arthropod vectors (Voloikhov *et al.* 2017), [meaning vectors could](#)
889 | [prefer some individuals over others](#). [Positive associations detected between *Myco. haemomuris* and](#)

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Deleted: Here, we also observed high variability in the percentage of individuals with evidence of multiple current or prior infections between the rodent species investigated. This v

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Deleted: Here, we tested for pathogen-pathogen associations suggested by multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) of the structure of pathogen exposures in this specific rodent community, as well as those previously described in the literature. We used multiple logistic regression analyses (via analysis of deviance on generalized linear models (GLMs)) to determine whether pathogen-pathogen associations were present after extrinsic factors creating heterogeneity among hosts were taken into account.

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Deleted: is not yet well understood, but given a lack of support for density-dependent transmission and high incidence of spill-over events, it is

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915 *Myco. coccoides* could also result from similarities in rodent susceptibility. Indeed *Mycoplasma*
916 *spp.* infection can lead to acute or chronic infection, and the establishment of chronic bacteremia
917 seems to occur in immunosuppressed or immunocompromised individuals (Cohen *et al.* 2018). Co-
918 infections with multiple *Mycoplasma spp.* might therefore be more likely to be detected in these
919 immunocompromised rodents with chronic infections. The existence of chronic infections might
920 also lead to additional co-infections and positive associations as a result of disease-induced changes
921 in population dynamics, immune system function, or through direct pathogen-pathogen interactions
922 (Fenton 2008; Aivelo & Norberg 2018; Fountain-Jones *et al.* 2019).

923 Whether through the accumulation of exposure probabilities or increased susceptibility, the
924 previously-undocumented positive association we found here between *Myco. haemomuris* OTUs
925 (Myco1 and Myco3) and *anti-hantavirus* antibodies may similarly be explained by the chronic
926 nature of both *Mycoplasma spp.* and hantavirus infections in rodents (e.g., for Puumala hantavirus
927 in bank voles (Yanagihara, Amyx & Gajdusek 1985; Meyer & Schmaljohn 2000; Vaheri *et al.*
928 2013)). This positive association was found in both host species where the majority of hantavirus
929 exposures occurred (*Microtus arvalis* and *Myodes glareolus*), consistent with the generality of
930 association between *Mycoplasma* species across host taxa detailed above, suggesting the intrinsic
931 ecology of these pathogens contributes to shaping variation in the pathogen community. Curiously,
932 we found no evidence for direct associations between OTUs of the same *Mycoplasma* species, thus
933 facilitation interactions are unlikely to explain the high diversity of *Mycoplasma* taxa both within
934 and between host species.

935 Infections by *Bartonella* species are also known to often result in subclinical and persistent
936 bacteremia in mammals, including rodents (Birtles *et al.* 2001; Kosoy *et al.* 2004). The positive
937 association detected in *Ar. scherman* between *Bartonella spp.* and *anti-CPXV* antibodies might
938 therefore be explained by, for example, joint accumulation of both chronic bacterial infections and
939 long-lived *antiviral* antibodies used to test for prior exposure to relatively short-lived CPXV
940 infections. However, if the same processes governing association of the chronic infections described

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945 above were at play here, we would have expected to find both pathogens implicated in positive
946 associations (i) with other chronic infections, and (ii) across host species given their ubiquitous
947 prevalence. While the failure to recover the association in *Mi. agrestis* (previously described (Telfer
948 *et al.* 2010)) was likely due to low statistical power, the lack of a general pattern across other host
949 species despite adequate sampling suggests a more specific, and potentially immune-mediated,
950 ecological process between these two pathogens. Indeed, pox virus infections, including CPXV,
951 have been shown to induce immunomodulation that increases host susceptibility to other parasites
952 (Johnston & McFadden 2003). These interactions could be of variable intensities according to the
953 rodent species considered, due to potential differences in impacts of CPXV infection on immunity
954 across host species, or to the influence of other infections not examined here on host immune
955 responses during pox infections (e.g., helminths (Cattadori, Albert & Boag 2007), protozoa (Telfer
956 *et al.* 2010)). Furthermore, *Bartonella spp.* infection was negatively associated with *Mycoplasma*
957 *spp.* infections in *My. glareolus*, corroborating negative interactions reported in co-infection
958 experiments in gerbils (Eidelman *et al.* 2019). This association may therefore originate from an
959 interaction mediated by specific (immune) genetic features of *My. glareolus*, and not ecological
960 conditions as proposed by Eidelman *et al.* (2019). The antagonistic and host-specific nature of this
961 association lends further support to the interpretation that *Bartonella spp.* infections do not behave
962 in similar ways to other chronic infections in the community. However, few studies have
963 investigated the robustness of within-host interactions across different host species (e.g., (Lello *et*
964 *al.* 2018)), and this question deserves further investigation.

965 Our results suggest that intrinsic ecological interactions could help shape the composition of the
966 pathogen community within hosts. However, this suggestion provides only a hypothesis that
967 requires further investigation. Interpretation of associations can be misleading, as they may arise
968 from unmeasured co-factors such as exposure to shared transmission routes, and may even run
969 counter to the underlying ecological process (Fenton *et al.* 2014). The associations we found here
970 were not visible (or even misleading, in the case of a 3-way interaction between hantavirus, Mycol

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980 | and Myco3), for instance, when ignoring extrinsic factors, using the SCN analysis, despite the
981 | increased statistical power it offered. Evidence for interactions between pathogens within hosts
982 | initially came from laboratory studies (e.g., in the development of vaccines, reviewed in
983 | (Casadevall & Pirofski 2000)), and until recently, many studies conducted in the wild could not
984 | detect such interactions (e.g., (Behnke 2008)). Developments of statistical approaches have
985 | contributed to improve sampling designs and analyses, in particular by better controlling for
986 | confounding factors, enabling the detection of associations resulting from these within-host
987 | interactions (e.g., (Lello *et al.* 2004; Telfer *et al.* 2010)). However, it is unlikely any statistical
988 | approach can ever solve the problem of an unmeasured explanatory variable. Experiments
989 | conducted in semi-controlled environments have been used to confirm the importance of
990 | interactions suggested by the associations (e.g., (Knowles *et al.* 2013)). Both facilitation mediated
991 | by immune responses (e.g., (Ezenwa *et al.* 2010)) and competition mediated by shared resources
992 | (e.g., (Brown 1986; Budischak *et al.* 2018)) have been emphasized.

993 | There remain additional important limits to the interpretation of snapshot observational studies
994 | from wild populations such as ours. For instance, they can not provide information about the
995 | sequence or duration of infection, although these features strongly affect the outcome of within-host
996 | interactions (Eidelman *et al.* 2019). Moreover, both the 16S metabarcoding approach and
997 | serological antibody tests can only be interpreted in terms of presence/absence of exposure to
998 | pathogens, although co-infection may rather impact parasite abundance (e.g., (Thumbi *et al.* 2013;
999 | Gorsich, Ezenwa & Jolles 2014)). Lastly, we also acknowledge several caveats to consider with our
1000 | methods. We removed animals from which fewer than 500 reads were amplified in one or both
1001 | bacterial metabarcoding PCR replicates. While 16 of these samples removed were due to random
1002 | failure of PCR amplification from just one of the two replicates, 12 of the animals had poor
1003 | amplification in both PCR replicates. In the absence of an internal positive control, e.g., a spike-in
1004 | standard (Zemb *et al.* 2020), we were unable to verify whether a lack of reads was due to poor DNA
1005 | extraction or a true lack of infections. Although this has a risk of artificially inflating prevalence

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1010 rates by selectively removing uninfected individuals, it is unlikely to have had a qualitative effect
1011 on our results. Similarly, limiting our analyses to OTUs with 500 reads or more in the entire dataset
1012 may select against detection of very rare or low-burden infections. We also removed many OTUs
1013 corresponding to bacteria normally occurring in external or internal microbiomes of healthy
1014 animals, some of which were represented by a high abundance of reads in positive animals. [This
1015 was due mainly to the fact that 16S data cannot often distinguish between pathogenic and
1016 commensal taxa of many such genera.](#) We know that, for instance, *Helicobacter* species are
1017 naturally found in the digestive tract, but can also cause pathogenic infections. Parasitism can affect
1018 host microbiome composition (Gaulke *et al.* 2019), and this in turn can have impacts on host health
1019 and disease susceptibility (reviewed in (Murall *et al.* 2017; Rosshart *et al.* 2017)). Thus, our choice
1020 to ignore OTUs corresponding to microbes typical of healthy flora contributes to the problem of
1021 missing data, such as information on intestinal helminth infections [or other viruses](#), which may
1022 explain or alter the associations we were able to detect. [Furthermore, the evaluation of diversity
1023 measures \(e.g., Shannon diversity index\) based only on a selection of taxa violates the assumption
1024 that all species are represented in the sample; thus, patterns of diversity could also be influenced by
1025 missing data.](#) These caveats are common problems for disease surveillance and community ecology
1026 studies, irrespective of the diagnostic methods, and it is difficult to speculate about their overall
1027 impacts on the present study. Finally, it is well-understood that this bias towards detection of
1028 common pathogens and difficulty in interpreting evidence for the absence of a pathogen in a given
1029 individual or population can make testing for negative associations driven by antagonistic
1030 ecological interactions incredibly difficult, if not impossible (Weiss *et al.* 2016; Cougoul *et al.*
1031 2019).

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1034 **Conclusions**

1035 Our results add to a growing number of studies finding that (i) rodents host many important
1036 zoonotic human pathogens and (ii) pathogen communities are shaped primarily by host species

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1038 | identity. We also detected a number of previously undescribed associations among pathogens
1039 | within these rodent communities, and we also confirmed previously identified associations,
1040 | sometimes in other rodent species than those in which they were previously described. These
1041 | associations can be considered in the future as hypotheses for pathogen-pathogen interactions
1042 | within rodent hosts, and that participate in shaping the community of pathogens in rodent
1043 | communities. Long-term survey and experimental studies are now required to confirm these
1044 | interactions and understand the mechanisms underlying the patterns of co-infection detected. In
1045 | addition to these biological results, we have identified several methodological caveats, with regard
1046 | to both pathogen and association detection, that deserves further investigation to improve our ability
1047 | to make robust inference of pathogen interactions.

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1052 **Acknowledgements**

1053 We would like to thank all collaborators and research assistants that previously helped with the field
1054 work (Yannick Chaval, Cécile Gotteland, Marie-Lazarine Poulle). This study was partly funded by
1055 the INRA Metaprogram MEM Hantagulumic, and by the European programme FP7-261504
1056 EDENext. The manuscript is registered with the EDENext Steering Committee as EDENext409.

1057 None of the rodent species investigated here has protected status (see list of the International Union
1058 for Conservation of Nature). All procedures and methods were carried out in accordance with
1059 relevant regulations and official guidelines from the American Society of Mammalogists. All
1060 protocols presented here were realized with prior explicit agreement from relevant institutional
1061 committee (Centre de Biologie pour la Gestion des Populations (CBGP): 34 169 003).

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1066 **Data Accessibility**

1067 Supplementary data deposited in Dryad (<https://doi.org/XXXXXXXXXXXX>) include the following
1068 16S metabarcoding data: (i) raw sequence reads (fastq format), (ii) raw output files generated by the
1069 mothur program (iii) raw abundance table, (iv) filtered occurrence table, [and \(v\) scripts and data files](#)
1070 [for statistical analyses. Items iii-v are also provided in Supplemental Materials Appendix 2, to](#)
1071 [directly accompany this publication.](#)

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Table 1. BLAST search results for OTUs suspected of belonging to pathogenic genera.

Infecting species identity	OTU Number	Number of Reads	Genbank Accession Number	BLAST results (% identity)	Pathogen Code
Pathogenic taxa, reliably detectable					
<i>Bartonella</i> spp.	Otu00001	635372	MT027154	100% <i>Bartonella grahamii</i> (AB426637) from wild North America rodents; 99%-100% identity to many other pathogenic <i>Bartonella</i> species.	Bartonella
<i>Brevinema</i> spp.	Otu00123	5603	MT027155	97% <i>Brevinema andersonii</i> (NR_104855) type sequence, infectious spirochaete of short-tailed shrew and white-footed mouse in North America	Brevinema
<i>Candidatus</i> <i>Neoehrlichia</i> <i>mikurensis</i>	Otu00039	18358	MT027156	100% <i>Candidatus</i> <i>Neoehrlichia mikurensis</i> (KF155504) tick-borne rodent disease, opportunistic in humans	Neoehrlichia
<i>Mycoplasma</i> <i>ravipulmonis</i>	Otu00054	6086	MT027164	100% <i>Mycoplasma ravipulmonis</i> (AF001173), grey lung disease agent in <i>Mus musculus</i> ; 88% <i>M. orale</i> from humans (LR214940)	Myc010
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00004	845971	MT027157	99% identity to uncultured <i>Mycoplasma</i> species (KU697344) from small rodents in Senegal and uncultured eubacterium (AJ292461) from Ixodes ticks; 95% (KM538694) and 94% (MK353834) identity to uncultured hemotropic <i>Mycoplasma</i> species in European and South American bats	Myc01
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00003	426034	MT027158	99% <i>Mycoplasma haemomuris</i> (AB758439) from <i>Rattus rattus</i>	Myc02
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00006	106443	MT027159	99% uncultured <i>Mycoplasma</i> spp. (KP843892) from leopards in South Korea; 99% identity to uncultured <i>Mycoplasma</i> (KT215637) from rodents in Brazil	Myc03
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00010	72724	MT027160	99% <i>Mycoplasma coccoides</i> comb. nov. (AY171918); 97% <i>Candidatus</i> <i>Mycoplasma turicensis</i> (KJ530704) from Indian mongoose	Myc04
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00005	165095	MT027161	100% <i>Mycoplasma haemomuris</i> -like undescribed species (KJ739312) from <i>Rattus norvegicus</i>	Myc05
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00007	92237	MT027162	99% uncultured <i>Mycoplasma</i> spp. (KC863983) from <i>Micromys minutus</i> (eurasian harvest mouse) in Hungary; 98% <i>M. coccoides</i> comb. nov. (AY171918)	Myc06
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00012	39767	MT027163	93% uncultured <i>Mycoplasma</i> species (KU697341) of mice in Senegal; 92% <i>Mycoplasma</i> spp. (KP843892) from leopards in South Korea, 91% <i>Mycoplasma haemomuris</i> (AB820289) in rats	Myc07
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00015	31528	MT027165	98% uncultured <i>Mycoplasma</i> spp. (KT215632) from wild rodent spleen in Brazil; 95% uncultured <i>Mycoplasma</i> spp. (KF713538) in little brown bats	Myc08
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu00049	40125	MT027166	96% uncultured <i>Mycoplasma</i> spp. from Brazilian rodents (KT215638) and S. Korean leopard (KP843892)	Myc09
<i>Orientia</i> spp.	Otu00111	876	MT027167	97% <i>Orientia tsutsugamushi</i> (KY583502) from humans in India, zoonotic Rickettsial pathogen (causes scrub typhus)	Orientia
<i>Rickettsia</i> spp.	Otu00008	72098	MT027168	98% <i>Rickettsia japonica</i> (MF496166) which causes Japanese spotted fever, <i>R. canadensis</i> (NR_029155) & <i>R. rhipicephali</i> (NR_074473) type strains	Rickettsia
<i>Spiroplasma</i> spp.	Otu00093	4738	MT027169	95% uncultured <i>Spiroplasma</i> spp. (KT983901) from Ixodes tick on a dog; 94% identity to type strain of <i>Spiroplasma mirum</i> (NR_121794), the agent of suckling mouse cataract disease; <i>Spiroplasma ixodetis</i> causes similar disease in humans.	Spiroplasma
Pathogenic taxa, not reliably detectable					
<i>Arcobacter</i> <i>cryaerophilus</i>	Otu00296	403	MT027170	100% <i>Arcobacter cryaerophilus</i> (CP032825) emerging enteropathogen in humans, zoonotic, pathogenic in rats	Arcobacter
<i>Borrelia</i> <i>miyamotai</i>	Otu00318	419	MT027171	100% <i>Borrelia miyamotai</i> (CP010308) in humans and Ixodes, zoonotic pathogen	Borrelia1
<i>Borrelia</i> spp.	Otu00514	206	MT027172	96% <i>Borrelia</i> sp. nov "Lake Gaillard" in <i>Peromyscus leucopus</i> (AY536513), 95% <i>B. hermsii</i> (MF066892) from tick (<i>Ornithodoros hermsi</i>) bites in humans	Borrelia2
<i>Borrelia</i> <i>afzelii</i>	Otu00071	78	MT027173	100% <i>Borrelia afzelii</i> (CP009058) human pathogen closely related (98%) to <i>B burgdorferii</i> (positive control sequence)	Borrelia3
<i>Leptospira</i> spp.	Otu01015	257	MT027174	100% several pathogenic <i>Leptospira</i> species from mammals, e.g., <i>L. interrogans</i> (LC474514) in humans	Leptospira
<i>Mycoplasma</i> <i>pulmonis</i>	Otu00771	255	MT027175	100% <i>Mycoplasma pulmonis</i> (NR_041744) chronic respiratory pathogen of mice and rats	Myc0771
<i>Mycoplasma</i> spp.	Otu04125	164	MT027176	90% <i>Mycoplasma ravipulmonis</i> (AF001173), grey lung disease agent in <i>Mus musculus</i> ; 80% <i>M. phocidae</i> from California sea lions (DQ521594)	Myc04125
Eukaryotic family Sarcocystidae	Otu00056	8684	XXXXXX	97% similar to plastid small ribosomal unit of <i>Hyaloklossia lieberkuehni</i> (AF297120), a parasitic protozoa of European green frog; 96% <i>Noespara canim</i> (MK770339) & <i>Sarcocystis muris</i> (AF255924); 95% <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> (TGU28056)	Sarcocystidae1
Eukaryotic family Sarcocystidae	Otu00191	3678	XXXXXX	92% <i>Neospora caninum</i> (MK770339) parasite; 90% <i>Toxoplasma gondii</i> (U87145) zoonotic pathogen	Sarcocystidae2
Eukaryotic family Sarcocystidae	Otu00254	1219	XXXXXX	98% <i>Sarcocystis muris</i> (AF255924) coccidian parasite first found in mice	Sarcocystidae3

Table 1 (continued). BLAST search results for OTUs suspected of belonging to pathogenic genera.

Infecting species identity	OTU Number	Number of Reads	Genbank Accession Number	BLAST results (% identity)	Pathogen Code
Uncertain pathogenicity, reliably detectable					
<i>Corynebacterium xerosis</i>	Otu00050	1853	MT027177	100% <i>Corynebacterium xerosis</i> (MH141477), only opportunistic infections identified	Corynebacterium
<i>Dietzia</i> spp.	Otu00102	2626	MT027178	100% <i>Dietzia</i> spp. e.g., <i>D. aurantiaca</i> (MK25331); common contaminant; opportunistic in humans; thought to out-compete <i>Trypanosomes</i>	Dietzia
<i>Helicobacter</i> spp.	Otu00013	34894	MT027179	96% homology to <i>Helicobacter suncus</i> (AB006147) isolated from shrews with chronic gastritis; 95% identity to type specimen for <i>H. mustelae</i> (NR_029169) which causes gastritis in ferrets; but could be normal gut flora	Helico1
<i>Helicobacter</i> spp.	Otu00025	8702	MT027180	97% similar to <i>Helicobacter trogontum</i> (AY686609) and <i>H. sencus</i> (AB006147), both enterohepatic <i>Helicobacter</i> spp. associated with intestinal diseases	Helico2
<i>Helicobacter</i> spp.	Otu00087	2303	MT027181	99% identical to <i>Helicobacter aurati</i> (NR_025124.1), a pathogen of Syrian hamsters; 98% identical to <i>H. fennelliae</i> (GQ867176), a human pathogen	Helico3
<i>Helicobacter</i> spp.	Otu00128	1178	MT027182	99% <i>Helicobacter winghamensis</i> (AF363063), associated with gastroenteritis in humans; however, minor sequences were 100% identical to <i>H. rodentium</i> (AY631957) which is only associated to gastritis in rodents when coinfecting with other <i>Helicobacter</i> strains	Helico4
<i>Neisseria</i> spp.	Otu00612	780	MT027183	97% uncultured <i>Neisseria</i> spp. associated with human prostatitis (HM080767) and cataracts (MG696979), but undistinguishable from environmental samples and healthy flora (e.g., JF139578)	Neisseria1
Pasteurellaceae	Otu00129	1430	MT027184	100% uncultured bacterium (MN095269) of mouse oral flora; 99% <i>Muribacter muris</i> (KP278064) of unknown pathogenicity, water fowl pathogen <i>Avibacterium gallinarum</i> (AF487729), and cattle respiratory disease agent <i>Mannheimia haemolytica</i> (CP017491)	Pasteurella1
Pasteurellaceae	Otu00203	521	MT027185	99% <i>Aggregatibacter aphrophilus</i> (LR134327) and <i>Haemophilus parainfluenzae</i> (CP035368) opportunistic pathogens but otherwise part of normal flora	Pasteurella2
<i>Rickettsiella</i> spp.	Otu00187	592	MT027186	99%-100% identity to several endosymbionts of insects, eg. uncultured <i>Diplarickettsia</i> spp. in sand flies (KX363696), <i>Rickettsiella</i> spp. in Ixodes ticks (KP994859); 99% identity to <i>Rickettsiella agriotidis</i> (HQ640943) pathogen of wireworms	Rickettsiella
<i>Streptococcus</i> spp.	Otu00115	1681	MT027187	99% <i>Streptococcus hyointestinalis</i> from intestines of swine (KR819489)	Streptococcus
<i>Yersinia</i> spp.	Otu00041	7420	MT027188	A heterogeneous OTU some major sequences 100% <i>Yersinia</i> spp. and <i>Serratia</i> spp., including pathogenic zoonotic bacteria (e.g., <i>Y. pestis</i> NR_025160) and non-pathogenic endosymbionts of plants (NR_157762); some major sequences 100% <i>Pantoea agglomerans</i> (MN515098) opportunists	Yersinia
Uncertain pathogenicity, not reliably detectable					
<i>Fusobacterium</i> spp.	Otu00791	108	MT027189	100% <i>Fusobacterium ulcerans</i> (CP028105) from tropical foot ulcers in humans; but also 100% identity with other fecal isolates of unknown pathogenicity in mammals (e.g., <i>F. varium</i> LR134390)	Fusobacterium
<i>Neisseria</i> spp.	Otu00454	148	MT027190	98% uncultured microbiota of bat mating organs (KY300287), 98% <i>Simonsiella muelleri</i> commensal from human saliva (AF328145); 97% <i>Kingella kingae</i> (MF073277) pathogen in humans	Neisseria2
<i>Treponema</i> spp.	Otu00235	348	MT027191	93% uncultured rumen <i>Treponema</i> spp. (AB537611)	Treponema
<i>Williamsia</i> spp.	Otu00614	274	MT027192	100% <i>Williamsia phyllosphaerae</i> (MG205541) and <i>Williamsia maris</i> (NR_024671), closely related to opportunistic pathogens in humans	Williamsia

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