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**FoodMicrobionet: A database for the visualisation and exploration of food bacterial communities based on network analysis**

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1 FoodMicrobionet: a database for the visualisation and exploration of food bacterial  
2 communities based on network analysis

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4 Eugenio Parente<sup>1</sup>, Luca Cocolin<sup>2</sup>, Francesca De Filippis<sup>3</sup>, Teresa Zotta<sup>4</sup>, Ilario Ferrocino<sup>2</sup>, Orla  
5 O'Sullivan<sup>5</sup>, Erasmo Neviani<sup>6</sup>, Maria De Angelis<sup>7</sup>, Paul D. Cotter<sup>5</sup>, Danilo Ercolini<sup>3</sup>

6

## 7 **Affiliations**

8 1 Dipartimento di Scienze, Università degli Studi della Basilicata, Potenza, Italy

9 2 Department of Agricultural, Forest and Food Science, University of Torino, Grugliasco, Italy

10 3 Department of Agricultural Sciences, Division of Microbiology, University of Naples Federico  
11 II, Portici, Italy

12 4 Istituto di Scienze dell'Alimentazione, CNR, Avellino, Italia

13 5 Teagasc Food Research Centre, Moorepark, Fermoy and APC Microbiome Institute, Cork,  
14 Ireland

15 6 Department of Food Science, Parma University, Parco Area delle Scienze 48/A, Parma, Italy

16 7 Department of Soil, Plant and Food Science, University of Bari Aldo Moro, Bari, Italy

17

## 18 **Corresponding author**

19 Prof. Eugenio Parente

20 Dipartimento di Scienze, Università degli Studi della Basilicata, Viale dell'Ateneo Lucano, 10,

21 85100 Potenza, Italy

22 E-mail eugenio.parente@unibas.it

23 tel +390971205561

24

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26 **Abstract**

27 Amplicon targeted high-throughput sequencing has become a popular tool for the culture-  
28 independent analysis of microbial communities. Although the data obtained with this  
29 approach are portable and the number of sequences available in public databases is  
30 increasing, no tool has been developed yet for the analysis and presentation of data obtained  
31 in different studies. This work describes an approach for the development of a database for  
32 the rapid exploration and analysis of data on food microbial communities. Data from  
33 seventeen studies investigating the structure of bacterial communities in dairy, meat,  
34 sourdough and fermented vegetable products, obtained by 16S rRNA gene targeted high-  
35 throughput sequencing, were collated and analysed using Gephi, a network analysis software.  
36 The resulting database, which we named FoodMicrobionet, was used to analyse nodes and  
37 network properties and to build an interactive web-based visualisation. The latter allows the  
38 visual exploration of the relationships between Operational Taxonomic Units (OTU) and  
39 samples and the identification of core- and sample- specific bacterial communities. It also  
40 provides additional search tools and hyperlinks for the rapid selection of food groups and  
41 OTUs and for rapid access to external resources (NCBI taxonomy, digital versions of the  
42 original articles). Microbial interaction network analysis was carried out using CoNet on  
43 datasets extracted from FoodMicrobionet: the complexity of interaction networks was much  
44 lower than that found for other bacterial communities (human microbiome, soil and other  
45 environments). This may reflect both a bias in the dataset (which was dominated by  
46 fermented foods and starter cultures) and the lower complexity of food bacterial  
47 communities.

48 Although some technical challenges exist, and are discussed here, the net result is a valuable  
49 tool for the exploration of food bacterial communities by the scientific community and food  
50 industry.

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**Key words** Food bacterial communities; Network analysis; 16S rRNA amplicon-based high-throughput sequencing.

**1. Introduction**

The degree of complexity of the microbiota that potentially impacts on food quality and safety is extremely variable. In both fermented and non-fermented foods, the type of contaminating microbiota can initially be rather diverse, reflecting mainly the original microbiota of the raw material, processing, handling and storage conditions and the level of good manufacture practice (Bokulich et al., 2012; Bokulich and Mills, 2013; Chaillou et al., 2015, Cocolin and Ercolini, 2015; De Filippis et al., 2013). However, depending on the storage conditions and other extrinsic factors, only a few species and strains will be able to develop sufficiently in the food matrix to significantly affect the food quality (by spoilage or fermentation) or safety. The methods employed to study microbes and microbial diversity in foods have evolved, and in turn, have also revolutionized our overall understanding of the microbial ecology of foods (Cocolin and Ercolini, 2015). The culture-independent evaluation of food microbial diversity by high-throughput rRNA gene sequencing has become an increasingly popular approach to food microbiology. After microbial nucleic acid extraction from the food, the DNA (or cDNA in cases where RNA was targeted) is used as a template to amplify variable regions within or across the rRNA genes of bacteria (16S) or fungi (internal transcribed spacer [ITS] or other target) and an amplicon library is then sequenced using high-throughput sequencing (HTS; Ercolini, 2013) platforms. The result is a food (sample)-specific profile of the microbiota where all the microbial entities are identified at variable taxonomic depth. Based on the number of sequence reads assigned to a given taxon, the relative abundance of each identified operational taxonomic unit (OTU) can be determined. Therefore, for each food sample

77 analysed, a clear understanding of the composition and relative abundances of the  
78 microorganisms populating the food at that time can be provided. The advantages and  
79 disadvantages of this methodology have been discussed elsewhere (Bokulich and Mills, 2013;  
80 Ercolini, 2013).

81 Many different sequencing technologies are available for the generation of sequence data  
82 (Glenn, 2011. <http://www.molecularecologist.com/next-gen-fieldguide-2014>). Regardless of  
83 how the data is generated, accurate data analysis tools are pivotal in any study of microbial  
84 ecology; from quality filtering to graphical representations, the software and the algorithms  
85 selected can greatly impact on the results and interpretation. Essential steps in any analysis  
86 pipeline include post-sequencing quality checking (based on both length and quality scores),  
87 clustering into OTUs, chimera removal, alignment, taxonomical assignment and diversity  
88 analysis. The choice of the pipeline has been proven to significantly affect the results in terms  
89 of estimated diversity and microbial community structure (May et al., 2014). Diversity can be  
90 calculated from both a within sample (alpha diversity) and between sample perspective (beta  
91 diversity). Numerous packages have been developed for rRNA gene amplicon data analysis,  
92 primarily designed for UNIX based operating systems. The most widely used packages are  
93 QIIME (Caporaso et al, 2010) and MOTHUR (Schloss et al., 2009). They have become popular  
94 because they provide a pre-compiled and user-friendly analysis pipeline, but also due to their  
95 constant maintenance and updates.

96 Beyond the power linked to the sensitivity and the throughput of sequencing-based  
97 microbiota analysis, a fundamental advantage is the possibility of using the raw sequence data  
98 in meta-studies. In fact, in contrast to previous culture-independent approaches, the  
99 sequencing-based tools offer the unprecedented advantage of making the results readily  
100 available for the scientific community through the deposit of the sequences in public  
101 databases (e.g. the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) of the National Center for Biotechnology

102 Information (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Traces/sra>) or the European Nucleotide Archive  
103 of the European Bioinformatics Institute (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena>). This allows researchers  
104 to easily access datasets corresponding to diverse food samples generated by different  
105 laboratories and with different scopes.

106 Network analysis (Newman et al., 2006) tools have recently been used to provide effective  
107 and information dense displays of microbial communities for several environments (de  
108 Menezes et al., 2014; Deng et al., 2012; Muegge et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2011a), including  
109 foods (Chaillou et al., 2015; De Filippis et al., 2013; De Filippis et al., 2014; Dolci et al., 2014;  
110 Ercolini et al., 2013; Oakley et al., 2013). In a network representation, objects (OTUs and/or  
111 samples) represent the nodes (or vertices), and are connected by links (edges). The edges can  
112 be directed (i.e. when the direction of the connection is of importance) or undirected and are  
113 usually associated with a weight. The latter can store information on the abundance of an OTU  
114 in a sample or the probability of a significant co-occurrence/co-exclusion relationship.

115 Two types of displays have been used in microbial ecology. In OTU - sample nets, the network  
116 is bipartite i.e. two types of nodes exist, sample and OTU nodes, and connections occur only  
117 between samples and associated OTUs. Conversely, co-occurrence/co-exclusion networks,  
118 which show significant positive or negative interactions among members of microbial  
119 communities have rarely (Chaillou et al., 2015; Mounier et al., 2008; Oakley et al., 2013) been  
120 used in food microbial ecology, but have been successfully applied to the study of the  
121 microbial communities of a variety of environments (miscellaneous environments: Deng et al.,  
122 2012; water: Liu et al., 2014; soil: Zhou et al., 2011a) and for the human microbiome (Faust et  
123 al., 2012). The methods and models used to derive interaction networks have been reviewed  
124 by Faust and Raes (2012) and, although they are riddled by pitfalls related to the structure of  
125 the data and to the sensitivity to the methods and parameters selected in the analysis (Faust  
126 and Raes, 2012; Kuczynski et al., 2010), they offer significant advantages with respect to

127 detecting biologically and ecologically relevant relationships among members of microbial  
128 communities.  
129 The number of HTS studies of food microbial communities has been increasing steadily in  
130 recent years (Mayo et al., 2014), but the information is dispersed in a large number of papers,  
131 each analysing a single or a limited range of foods. It is therefore tempting and timely to  
132 collect and integrate data from several studies in such a way that the results can be readily  
133 searched and visualized, even by relatively inexperienced users. With the aim of providing  
134 flexible means for meta-studies in food microbial ecology, here we present FoodMicrobionet,  
135 a database and visualisation tool based on network analysis, and some examples of the  
136 potential of the tool in terms of data display and analysis.

137

## 138 **2. Material and methods**

### 139 *2.1. Data sources*

140 FoodMicrobionet 1.0 includes data from 17 studies, on dairy products, dairy starter cultures,  
141 raw and fermented meat, doughs and sourdoughs, or fermented vegetables. The list of studies,  
142 with information on the sequencing platforms, software employed for bioinformatics analysis,  
143 and the databases used for OTU assignment is shown in Table 1.

### 144 *2.2 Data tables*

145 Abundance tables, including taxonomic lineages for each OTU, were obtained from each  
146 contributor and transformed in tab-delimited nodes and edges tables, which were collated  
147 and curated to remove duplicates. The node and edge tables and their specifications are  
148 provided in section 1 of Supplementary Material.

### 149 *2.3. Network analysis*

#### 150 *2.3.1. OTU - Food network*

151 The edges tables were imported in Gephi 0.8.2-beta (<http://gephi.github.io/>; Bastian and  
152 Jacomy, 2009) using the "Import spreadsheet" feature. Nodes tables were then imported to  
153 retrieve the metadata for each node. Statistics (degree and weighted degree, centrality  
154 statistics, network diameter, graph density, average path length) were then calculated for  
155 each node and for the network using the statistical module of Gephi. A glossary of terms for  
156 node and network statistics is provided in Table 2. Styles were then applied to the nodes to  
157 enhance the display: the colour of the node was attributed on the basis of a custom field  
158 containing families for OTUs and Food subgroup for samples; the size of the nodes was made  
159 proportional to the weighted degree of the node; edge thickness was made proportional to the  
160 weight of the connection. A Yfan Hu force based layout algorithm was finally applied (Hu,  
161 2006). Simplified versions of the networks were obtained by filtering. The whole network was  
162 then exported for web visualisation using the Sigmajs exporter plugin of Gephi.

### 163 2.3.2. Microbial interaction networks

164 Microbial interaction networks were generated for selected groups of samples extracted from  
165 FoodMicrobionet using the CoNet app (Faust et al., 2012) of Cytoscape 3.2.1. OTU abundance  
166 (as number of sequences per sample) tables were then imported using CoNet, and five  
167 methods (Pearson, Spearman, Mutual information, Bray Curtis, Kullback-Leibler) were used  
168 to mine for significant co-occurrence/co-exclusion relationships. Null distributions were  
169 generated using the edge-scores routine and random distributions using the bootstrap  
170 routine. Brown's method was used to merge method specific p-values and the Benjamini  
171 Hochberg method was used to adjust the p-values for multiple testing. Interactions were  
172 evaluated for both low level taxa and high level taxa, but a parent child exclusion filter was  
173 used to avoid interactions between a high level taxon and its members (e.g. between  
174 *Lactobacillaceae* and members of the genus *Lactobacillus*). To simplify network visualisations,  
175 interactions with high level taxa were included only if they did not duplicate interaction due



176 to a lower level taxon (i.e. if *Lactobacillales* and *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* shared the same  
177 interactions, the former node was removed). Topological properties of the interaction  
178 networks were evaluated using the NetworkAnalyzer tool of Cytoscape.

179

### 180 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 181 *3.1. Building FoodMicrobionet: a bipartite OTU-sample network for food bacterial communities.*

182 The main purpose of FoodMicrobionet is to provide a user-friendly tool to explore multiple  
183 datasets generated by 16S rRNA gene amplicon HTS studies of food bacterial communities.

184 The flowchart for the development of FoodMicrobionet and of its products (visualisations,  
185 tables, graphs) is shown in Fig. 1. Data from seventeen published and unpublished studies  
186 (Table 1) on dairy and meat products, starter cultures, sourdoughs or fermented vegetable  
187 products (olives) were assembled in a database and a network was generated using Gephi  
188 0.8.2-beta. The network has 964 OTU nodes and 552 sample nodes, with 18,115 edges  
189 (sample-OTU relationships), and is by far the largest such collection of data of food bacterial  
190 microbiota.

191 Network analysis software packages such as Gephi or Cytoscape (edges and nodes files  
192 provided in supplementary material can be easily imported in Cytoscape) offer a wide range  
193 of filtering, statistical analysis and graphical representation options but require some  
194 informatics skills. Therefore an interactive network visualisation  
195 ([http://www.foodmicrobionet.org/fmbn1\\_0\\_3web/](http://www.foodmicrobionet.org/fmbn1_0_3web/)) was created using a publicly available  
196 plugin. This visualisation allows even inexperienced users to explore FoodMicrobionet, to  
197 select individual sample or OTU nodes, or to carry out group selections for sample and OTU  
198 nodes. Relevant properties for both OTU and food sample nodes can be visualised by either  
199 clicking on nodes or by selecting them using a search field. A user manual for the web  
200 visualisation is provided in section 2 of Supplementary material.

201 Because of the high number of sample and OTU nodes, the information cannot be easily  
202 presented into a readable graph. Therefore, simplified, filtered and node-labelled sub-  
203 networks for meats, sourdoughs and dairy foods are shown in Fig. 2. The common features  
204 found in OTU-sample networks previously published (De Filippis et al., 2013; De Filippis et al.,  
205 2014; Dolci et al., 2014; Ercolini et al., 2013) are evident: sample nodes with similar  
206 microbiota occupy defined areas of the graph and are close to the OTU nodes that dominate  
207 their microbiota. This allows to identify easily the dominant, core and minor OTUs, that can be  
208 clearly distinguished by their position and by their node size.

209 Taxon specific sub-networks can be easily extracted. Examples for members of the families  
210 *Pseudomonadaceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* are presented in Supplementary Fig. S1 and S2. In  
211 this version of the display the size of sample nodes is related to the cumulative abundance of  
212 the taxon and the size of the OTU nodes is related to the cumulative abundance of the OTU in  
213 the sub network. Edge thickness gives an estimate of the abundance of a given OTU in each  
214 sample, while colours can be used to estimate the relative abundance of food groups in which  
215 the selected taxon is found.

216 The node degree distribution for OTU nodes is shown in Supplementary Fig. S3. The  
217 distribution fits, albeit with a relatively low  $R^2$  (0.832), a power law distribution with an  
218 exponent ( $\gamma$ ) of  $1.12 \pm 0.04$ . Node degree power law distributions are indicative of a scale-free  
219 network (Dunne et al., 2002; Newman et al., 2006). Such networks are widely distributed in  
220 all fields (social networks, internet networks, power grids, bibliographic networks) and share  
221 several properties. They are usually large and complex, highly connected (large average  
222 degree), with a high number of nodes with low degree (in the case of FoodMicrobionet OTUs  
223 which are found only in one or few food samples) but with a small numbers of OTUs  
224 connected to a large number of samples (i.e. the 'signature' OTUs which make the core  
225 microbiota of a given group of food samples). Because FoodMicrobionet 1.0 includes different

226 food groups, several signature OTUs with high degree are found, and this may affect the fit of  
227 the power law distribution.

228 FoodMicrobionet can also be used to obtain further information on distribution of taxa in  
229 different food groups by filtering and recalculation from nodes and edges tables. Information  
230 on dominating OTUs can be gathered by plots showing the weighted degree distribution (i.e.  
231 how abundant an OTU is in the whole dataset or in a subset) as a function of relative  
232 occurrence (i.e. the fractions of samples in which an OTU is found). An example for raw meat  
233 is shown in Fig. 3. Further examples for raw milk and mozzarella are shown in Supplementary  
234 Fig. S4 and S5. More traditional plots for OTU distribution can also be obtained. An example of  
235 the distribution of OTU belonging to different phyla in different food groups is shown in  
236 Supplementary Fig. S6.

237

### 238 *3.2. Microbial interaction networks.*

239 Microbial interaction networks may help in formulating inferences on the phenomena  
240 underlying the structure of food microbial communities, from co-occurrence or co-exclusion  
241 patterns due to the occupation of different niches or to selective conditions allowing the  
242 growth of a subset of taxa, to relationships such as amensalism, commensalism, symbiosis,  
243 etc. The inference of microbial interactions is still affected by pitfalls: the results may be  
244 strongly affected by the level of coverage of the microbial community, by the bioinformatics  
245 pipelines used with specific options for clustering of the sequences and taxonomic  
246 assignment, by the procedures used in normalization and by the methods used to estimate the  
247 relationships, etc. However, robust methods have been developed to perform this analysis  
248 (Faust et al., 2012). Since OTU abundance tables were available for all datasets included in  
249 FoodMicrobionet, we explored co-occurrence/mutual exclusion patterns for all datasets for  
250 which a high enough number of samples was available. Statistics for all interaction networks

251 are shown in Table 3 but a detailed discussion of microbial interactions is beyond the scope of  
252 this paper and only two examples are discussed below.

253 A microbial interaction network for the kefir dataset (Marsh et al., 2013) is shown in Fig. 4.  
254 The dataset included milk kefir and grains from different sources. Due to the very simple  
255 structure of bacterial communities in kefir and kefir grains only a few interactions were  
256 significant. The network has a very low complexity (7 nodes, average degree 3.41 and average  
257 path length 2.19), with a clustering coefficient of 0.714, and no fit of the power law for the  
258 node degree distribution. The occurrence of *Acetobacter* was negatively related with the  
259 occurrence of *Lactobacillales* and that of *Lactobacillus* with *Leuconostoc*, *Lactococcus* and  
260 *Streptococcus*. In fact, while *Lactobacillus* dominated the kefir grain microbiota, the latter  
261 genera showed a better ability to grow in milk kefir. Members of the family *Lachnospiraceae*, a  
262 minor group in the kefir microbiota, also systematically occurred in kefir grains, while they  
263 were almost always absent in milk kefir. On the other hand, the co-exclusion relationship with  
264 *Acetobacter* was observed in both grains and milk and may reflect conditions for storage and  
265 production of kefir.

266 A very complex interaction network was obtained for the beef dataset (De Filippis et al.,  
267 2013). The dataset included swabs from different points of bovine carcasses cuts and  
268 beefsteaks obtained thereof, sampled at 0 days and after 7 days of aerobic storage at 4°C, for  
269 two different samplings. The full network is shown in Supplementary Fig. S7, while a  
270 simplified version, including only the most abundant taxa, is shown in Fig. 5A, together with  
271 the interaction network inferred for spoiled beef steak samples (Fig. 5B). The complexity of  
272 co-occurrences and mutual exclusions in fresh raw meat mainly reflects the high diversity of  
273 bacterial communities (Fig. S7, Fig. 5A). Significant interactions among the most abundant  
274 taxa (*Moraxellaceae*, *Pseudomonadaceae*, *Aerococcaceae*, *Staphylococcaceae*,  
275 *Flavobacteriaceae*, *Rhodobacteriaceae* and *Corynebacteriaceae* on carcass swabs and freshly

276 cut beefsteaks; *Pseudomonaceae*, *Listeriaceae*, *Moraxellaceae* and *Enterobacteriaceae* on  
277 spoiled steaks) confirm the co-occurrence and mutual exclusion patterns due to different  
278 samplings, different cuts, and spoilage described by De Filippis et al. (2013). Spoilage  
279 dramatically reduced diversity (De Filippis et al., 2013) and simplified the microbial  
280 interaction network (Fig. 5B). The co-occurrence relationship between *Acinetobacter*  
281 *guillouiae* (a species occurring at low abundance) and *Enterobacteriaceae* is independent of  
282 the sampling and of the cut. On the other hand the mutual exclusion relationship between  
283 *Staphylococcus equorum* and *Serratia* is clearly related to the contamination patterns of the  
284 beef cuts, with the former species occurring systematically in thick flank cuts and members of  
285 the genus *Serratia* occurring in brisket and chuck cuts. The last set of interactions reflects  
286 different spoilage environments. In fact, the dominating spoilage organism was *Pseudomonas*  
287 in sampling 1 and *Brochothrix* in sampling 2 (De Filippis et al., 2013). *Carnobacterium*,  
288 *Acinetobacter johnsonii*, *Chryseobacterium* and members of the class *Actinobacteria* also  
289 occurred more frequently in beef steaks from sampling 1.

290 The interaction networks inferred in our study (Table 3) are less complex (sometimes  
291 dramatically) than those inferred for environmental bacterial communities (Deng et al., 2012)  
292 or for the human microbiome (Faust et al., 2012). In addition, they do not show any fit of the  
293 power law for either the node degree distribution or the clustering coefficient/degree  
294 relationship, showing that they are neither scale-free nor show a hierarchical structure.  
295 However, the average clustering coefficient is often higher than that of random networks with  
296 the same size and average degree. In general, interaction networks for fermented or spoiled  
297 foods show the lowest complexity, and a high correlation ( $r=0.92$ ) was found between the  
298 number of OTUs detected in the dataset and the number of nodes in the interaction network.  
299 More complex networks, with >20 nodes were obtained when raw foods (milk, meat) were  
300 included in the dataset or when the dataset reflected different environments (milk and

301 cheese, Dolci et al., 2014; Mozzarella produced with different acidification methods, Guidone  
302 et al., 2015; raw and spoiled meat, different cuts and samplings, De Filippis et al., 2013). In  
303 contrast, Deng et al. (2012) published figures on a wide range of complex bacterial interaction  
304 networks from environmental or human sources: the network size ranged from 107 to 254  
305 nodes, the node degree distribution showed a good fit of the power law for all networks and  
306 the modularity (which measures the occurrence of modules which are strongly  
307 interconnected) was significantly higher than that of random networks, while the occurrence  
308 of a hierarchical structure was variable. Moreover, the bacterial interaction network of the  
309 human microbiome (Faust et al., 2012) included 197 phylotypes with 3005 significant  
310 interactions. The network showed a good fit of the power law model for the node degree  
311 distribution but did not show a strong hierarchical structure, although the occurrence of body  
312 site modules was found. Several factors may contribute to the lower complexity of microbial  
313 interaction networks for food. Food microbial communities, and fermented food communities  
314 in particular, are dramatically less complex than those found in environmental samples or in  
315 the human or animal microbiome, and therefore a lower number of sequences is generally  
316 sufficient to obtain a high coverage as it can be predicted by alpha rarefaction analyses  
317 (Ercolini, 2013). This may prevent the detection of significant interactions for minor OTUs.  
318 Finally, the interactions detected in this study mainly reflect co-occurrence and mutual  
319 exclusion patterns in different food environments, and although they in some cases may  
320 suggest true positive (commensalism, mutualism) or negative (competition, amensalism)  
321 interactions (Gram et al., 2002; Ivey et al., 2013), these should be confirmed in independent  
322 experiments.

323

324 *3.3. Future perspectives.*

325 Both the web visualisation and the full or filtered networks obtained from Gephi, although  
326 visually pleasing and informative, are somewhat naïve and should be interpreted with  
327 caution. The meta-analyses based on sequencing data published by different laboratories  
328 carry some inevitable bias due to differences in data generation and processing. These include  
329 possible differences from sample handling through nucleic acid extraction, variable 16S  
330 region chosen as target, library purification and preparation, sequencing technology and  
331 parameters, sequencing depth / sample coverage (Ercolini, 2013). Furthermore, it is  
332 important to underline that the exact bioinformatics path chosen for the analysis can have a  
333 strong impact too (May et al., 2014), and will have to be taken into account for a possible  
334 standardization of the data handling and usage. In addition, detection of rare OTUs might be  
335 affected by biases and reproducibility and repeatability issues (Benson et al., 2014; Guidone et  
336 al., 2015; Pinto and Raskin, 2012; Zhou et al., 2011b). To take this into account it may be  
337 advisable to compare different studies at a lower taxonomic resolution and exclude rare OTU  
338 from the comparisons. This can be easily done by processing data tables from  
339 FoodMicrobionet. An example of a filtered network is shown in Supplementary Fig. S8. In this  
340 case, OTUs belonging to the same genus were merged, and the interactive web visualisation is  
341 available at [http://www.foodmicrobionet.org/fmbn1\\_0\\_3gweb/](http://www.foodmicrobionet.org/fmbn1_0_3gweb/).  
342 Therefore, for a future larger scale meta-analysis it would be advisable to, as a minimum  
343 requirement, process the sequences with the same standardized flow in order to limit at least  
344 the post-sequencing bias of the analysis. Unfortunately an optimized bioinformatics pipeline  
345 is still not available for food microbial communities. Most studies in FoodMicrobionet were  
346 carried out using the same sequencing platform and similar or identical bioinformatics  
347 pipelines (Table 1) and direct comparisons among studies can be carried out with a good  
348 degree of confidence.

349 With these limitations in mind, the approach used here provides an appealing means for  
350 microbiologists and food scientists dealing with food microbial community metadata analysis  
351 by (a) providing access to a large set of curated data on the occurrence of different taxa in  
352 foods most of which were obtained from studies published in peer reviewed journals, thus  
353 facilitating the process of formulating and validating hypotheses on the structure and  
354 dynamics of food bacterial communities and writing original articles and reviews; (b)  
355 fostering open access to microbial ecology data by making curated nodes and edges tables  
356 publicly available; (c) improving our understanding of the ecology of spoilage-associated and  
357 beneficial microorganisms; and (d) providing information on the structure of bacterial  
358 communities in raw materials, fermented and spoiled foods which can be used for food  
359 process development.

360 While only part of this information is available through the online visualisation, the latter  
361 provides a simple interactive interface to explore the microbial ecology of the food  
362 environments included in FoodMicrobionet 1.0. Experienced users can import the nodes and  
363 edges files provided as supplementary material in a variety of spreadsheet, statistical or  
364 network analysis software packages to carry out graphical and statistical analyses or to  
365 generate their own networks.

366 Future plans include (a) expanding the network to other food matrices and food  
367 environments; (b) implementing an optimized data analysis pipeline to standardize the  
368 treatment of the raw data; and (c) the addition of metadata describing food properties in  
369 order to speculate on relevant ecological factors driving microbial interactions and to allow  
370 the selection of FoodMicrobionet sub networks with defined range of specific ecological  
371 factors. Contributions from other research groups will be welcome. Details on the submission  
372 procedure are provided in section 3 of Supplementary Materials.



373 Ultimately, FoodMicrobionet will allow all researchers in the food microbiology to benefit  
374 from the significant advances that HTS is providing in this key field of research.

375

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516

517 **Figure legends**

518

519 **Figure 1.** Flowchart of the development of FoodMicrobionet v 1.0. FoodMicrobionet is a  
520 curated database of HTS studies on food bacterial communities which is implemented in  
521 Gephi 0.8.2, a network analysis software. The network file can then be used to generate a  
522 variety of products for visual and statistical analysis.

523 **Figure 2.** Filtered (only OTU nodes with a cumulative abundance >5% are shown) for raw  
524 meat (A) sourdough samples (B) and dairy products and starters (C) extracted from  
525 FoodMicrobionet 1.0. Node colour (grey scale for food subgroups for sample nodes or  
526 bacterial family of OTU nodes) is used to highlight different sample and OTU nodes. Style  
527 features are used to enhance the graph: node size is related to the weighted degree (i.e.  
528 cumulative abundances for OTUs) while edge thickness is proportional to the abundance of an  
529 OTU in a given sample. Areas of the graph in which samples belonging to a given group are  
530 more abundant are enclosed by dashed lines.

531 **Figure 3.** Relative occurrence/ weighted degree scatterplot for OTU nodes in raw meat  
532 samples (De Filippis et al., 2013). Only nodes with and weighted degree >1 are shown.  
533 Different symbols are used for members of different phyla and the identity of nodes with a  
534 weighted degree >5 is shown.

535 **Figure 4.** Microbial interaction network for the kefir dataset (Marsh et al., 2013). Each node  
536 represents an OTU. Interactions were evaluated at different taxonomic levels. Only significant  
537 interactions are shown ( $p < 0.0004$ ;  $q < 4 \times 10^{-4}$ ). Edges showing negative interactions (co-  
538 exclusion) are coloured red, those for positive interactions in green. The colour of nodes  
539 corresponds to the class. The thickness of the edges reflect the level of significance of the  
540 supporting evidence for the association (as q-values,  $0-4 \times 10^{-4}$ ), while the size of the nodes is  
541 proportional to their degree.

542 **Figure 5.** Microbial interaction network for the beef dataset (De Filippis et al., 2013). A  
543 simplified network for all samples (non-spoiled and spoiled, A) and the full interaction  
544 network for spoiled beefsteaks (B) are shown. Each node represents an OTU (only low level  
545 taxa are shown). Interactions were evaluated at different taxonomic levels. Only significant  
546 interactions are shown ( $p < 0.0004$ ;  $q < 4 \times 10^{-4}$ ). Edges showing negative interactions (co-  
547 exclusion) are coloured red, those for positive interactions in green. The colour of nodes  
548 corresponds to the class. The thickness of the edges reflect the level of significance of the  
549 supporting evidence for the association (as q-values,  $0-4 \times 10^{-4}$ ), while the size of the nodes is  
550 proportional to their degree. Actinobacteriac refers to the class *Actinobacteria*.

551