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1 **Global change-driven use of onshore habitat impacts polar bear**
2 **faecal microbiota**

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24
25 **Competing interests**

26 We declare that the authors have no conflicts of interest that might be perceived to influence the results
27 and/or discussion that are reported in this article.

28
29 **Running title**

30 Land use alters polar bear faecal microbiota

34 **Abstract**

35 The gut microbiota plays a critical role in host health, yet remains poorly studied in wild species. Polar
36 bears (*Ursus maritimus*), key indicators of Arctic ecosystem health and environmental change, are
37 currently affected by rapid shifts in habitat that may alter gut homeostasis. Declining sea ice has led to
38 a divide in the southern Beaufort Sea polar bear subpopulation such that an increasing proportion of
39 individuals now inhabit onshore coastal regions during the open-water period ('onshore bears') while
40 others continue to exhibit their typical behaviour of remaining on the ice ('offshore bears'). We
41 propose that bears that have altered their habitat selection in response to climate change will exhibit a
42 distinct gut microbiota diversity and composition, which may ultimately have important consequences
43 for their health. Here, we perform the first assessment of abundance and diversity in the faecal
44 microbiota of wild polar bears using 16S rRNA Illumina technology. We find that bacterial diversity
45 is significantly higher in onshore bears compared to offshore bears. The most enriched OTU abundance
46 in onshore bears belonged to the phylum Proteobacteria, while the most depleted OTU abundance
47 within onshore bears was seen in the phylum Firmicutes. We conclude that climate-driven changes in
48 polar bear land use are associated with distinct microbial communities. In doing so, we present the first
49 case of global change mediated alterations in the gut microbiota of a free-roaming wild animal.

50

51

52 **Introduction**

53 As an apex predator with vulnerable conservation status [1], the polar bear (*Ursus maritimus*) is widely
54 acknowledged as a key indicator of Arctic ecosystem health [2], a model species for studying the
55 effects of climatic and other anthropogenic stressors in the Arctic [3–5], and a flagship for
56 environmental change [6]. As one of the most ice dependent Arctic marine mammals [7], polar bears
57 require sea ice for long-distance movements, mating and accessing prey [8]. One subpopulation of
58 polar bear, the southern Beaufort Sea subpopulation, is exhibiting a distinct behavioural response to
59 climate-driven changes in sea ice conditions. Historically, these polar bears remained year-round on
60 the sea ice (hereafter referred to as 'offshore bears'), taking advantage of the biologically-productive
61 continental shelf [9]. Since the 2000s, however, substantial declines in the spatial and temporal
62 availability of sea ice in summer and fall [10, 11], extending well beyond the continental shelf, have
63 driven a divide in polar bear behaviour whereby some continue to select the retreating ice habitat
64 ('offshore bears') while others instead adopt a novel behaviour and move to coastal onshore habitat
65 during the reduced ice period ('onshore bears')[12]. The entire subpopulation uses the sea ice during

66 the remainder of the year. Onshore bears have been associated with a range of dietary items that
67 offshore bears are unable to access, notably ‘bone piles’, the remains of locally-harvested bowhead
68 whales (*Balaena mysticetus*), along with the carcasses of fish, birds and caribou (*Rangifer tarandus*)
69 [13]. Conversely, offshore bears primarily consume a traditional diet of ringed seal (*Pusa hispida*),
70 bearded seal (*Erignathus barbatus*) and occasionally beluga whale (*Delphinapterus leucas*) [13],
71 which are inaccessible to onshore bears.

72 Changes in trophic interactions alter the exposure of polar bears to contaminants and novel parasites
73 [14, 15]. For example, ringed seals (available only to offshore bears) are considered to occupy a high
74 trophic position and so typically bioaccumulate higher levels of contaminants than species lower in
75 the trophic chain such as the filter feeders (i.e. bowhead whales) and herbivores (i.e. caribou) [16–18],
76 which are available only to onshore bears. In addition, bone piles, foraged on by onshore bears, are
77 utilised as a food resource by other terrestrial species [13, 19] and lie within comparatively close range
78 of human settlements, such as Kaktovik (70.13° N, 143.62° W) and Deadhorse (70.20° N, 148.46° W).
79 Thus, onshore bears are potentially exposed to (and therefore at greater risk of infection from) novel
80 parasites carried by terrestrial species, including humans and their domestic pets. For example, Atwood
81 *et al.* (2017) [5] found that southern Beaufort Sea polar bears exhibiting onshore behaviour have a
82 greater risk of exposure to *Toxoplasma gondii* and lower exposure to certain contaminants than
83 offshore bears. Thus, onshore bears are exposed to different biotic stressors compared to offshore bears
84 [5, 20], which have the potential to drive variation in the gut microbiota. In humans and mice, for
85 example, helminth infection is associated with significant differences in the community composition
86 of gut bacterial communities [21–23], while contaminants such as herbicides and pesticides have been
87 shown to inhibit the growth of a variety of beneficial gut bacteria [24] and even cause dysbiosis [25].

88 The gut microbiota, a diverse community of bacteria that resides within the gastrointestinal tract, has
89 a long co-evolutionary association with its host [26], carrying out vital nutritional and physiological
90 roles [26–28]. In effect, the regular intestinal development and function of an individual is attributed
91 to an array of specific bacterial groups or species, the composition and diversity of which are a function
92 of complex interactions between host and environment [29]. Despite the importance of the gut
93 microbiota to health, little is understood of the composition or community structure of the gut
94 microbiota of wild fauna [30]. In brown bears (*U. arctos*) however, we know a distinct gut microbiota
95 profile is associated with active bears compared to those in hibernation phase – this specific community
96 of bacteria is thought to play a role promoting adiposity while still maintaining normal gut metabolism
97 [31]. A paucity of knowledge on wild microbiota is particularly concerning considering that in the face
98 of rapid climate change tight host-gut microbiota associations could quickly become decoupled,

99 negating millions of years of co-evolutionary adaptation [26], and yet this too remains poorly
100 understood.

101 A number of studies provide support for an association between host microbial communities and
102 environmental fluctuations. Cold acclimated laboratory mice, for example, harbour a dramatically
103 different gut microbiota composition to those raised at higher temperatures [32], while experimentally
104 induced temperature increases of 2–3 °C cause a 34% loss of microbiota diversity in the common lizard
105 (*Zootoca vivipara*)[33]. Outside a laboratory setting, variations in weather events have been linked to
106 the increased occurrence of gastrointestinal illness in residents of Nunatsiavut, Canada [34]. To the
107 best of our knowledge, however, no study has demonstrated a climate change mediated alteration in
108 the gut microbiota of free-roaming wildlife.

109 The gut microbiota has been examined once before in wild polar bears, specifically those from the
110 Svalbard archipelago belonging to the Barents Sea subpopulation [35]. The authors found a low
111 bacterial diversity, dissimilar to that reported in other Arctic carnivores [36] and wild ursids [31, 37,
112 38], possibly attributed to the methodologies employed (having used 16S rRNA clone libraries as
113 opposed to next generation sequencing techniques) and small sample size [35, 39]. Here we use high-
114 throughput sequencing techniques to conduct the first detailed investigation of the gut microbiota
115 composition of a large sample ($n=112$) of wild southern Beaufort Sea polar bears and to establish the
116 diversity, abundance, and composition of gut bacteria associated with on- and offshore bears. In doing
117 so, we are able to evaluate the effect of a climate driven change in habitat use on microbial
118 composition. Reflecting methods widely used in other gut microbiota studies [40], we use faeces as a
119 proxy of gut microbiota, herein referred to as the faecal microbiota.

120 **Materials and methods**

121 **Polar bear capture and sampling**

122 Polar bears were captured under the United States Geological Survey (USGS) Polar Bear Research
123 Program (Marine Mammal Permit MA690038 to T.C.A.) in an area ranging approximately from
124 Utqiagvik, Alaska (156°W) in the west to Demarcation Point (140°W) at the US-Canada border in the
125 east, and extending from the shoreline to approximately 135 km north on sea ice (with the exception
126 of one individual; Figure 1). In the spring and fall of 2008 and 2009, and the spring of 2010 and 2013,
127 polar bears were encountered via helicopter and immobilized with a remote injection of zolazepam-
128 tiletamine (Telazol®, Fort Dodge Animal Health, Fort Dodge, Iowa, USA, and Warner-Lambert Co.,
129 Groton, Connecticut, USA). A single faecal sample was collected directly from the rectum of each

130 polar bear using a sterile latex glove and immediately transferred to a sterile Whirl-pak bag (Nasco,
131 Fort Atkinson, Wisconsin, USA) for storage. In total, samples were taken from 112 individuals,
132 including 89 adults and 23 subadults, (51 males and 61 females). All samples were stored at -20°C for
133 the duration of the field season (approx. 5 weeks) before being stored at -80°C at the US Geological
134 Survey, Alaska Science Center (Anchorage, Alaska, USA), and subsequently shipped on dry ice to the
135 Fondazione Edmund Mach, Italy (CITES permit IT/IM/2015/MCE/01862 to S.W.).

136 Age of subadults and adults was estimated by extracting and analysing the cementum annuli of a
137 vestigial premolar tooth [41]. In total, 85 of the 112 bears were known to be either onshore or offshore
138 (onshore $n = 46$; offshore $n = 39$; Supplementary Table 1). Individuals were categorised as either
139 'onshore bears' or 'offshore bears' as described in [5]. Briefly, location data collected from satellite
140 collars were used to identify adult females that used land ('onshore') or sea ice ('offshore') in summer
141 and fall [42]. We classified both male and female individuals as onshore bears if they were detected
142 (via genetic identification and cross-referencing with our database of known bears) at hair-snags
143 erected in the fall around bowhead whale bone piles and from biopsy-darting during fall coastal surveys
144 from 2010-2013. An individual was classified as onshore or offshore if spatial or genetic data
145 suggested that the individual was onshore or offshore in summer and/or in the year of capture (for fall-
146 captured bears) or immediately prior to capture (for spring-captured bears). Body condition for each
147 polar bear was estimated using a 'Body Condition Index' metric [43] and was classified as either above
148 or below the mean body condition for our sample set. Year and season of capture was also recorded.

149 **Extraction of bacterial DNA**

150 All faecal matter was collected from inside each sample glove using a sterile cotton swab (APTACA
151 sterile transport swabs, Brescia, Italy). The swab was subsequently vortexed for 10 min in 1ml
152 phosphate-buffered saline solution (PBS) and pelleted by centrifugation at 16 000 g for 12 min. Lysis
153 buffer, 80 μ l, (200 mM NaCl, 100 mM Tris, 20 mM EDTA, 20 mg/ml Lysozyme, pH 8.0); 5 mm
154 stainless steel beads (Qiagen) were added to each sample before a three-minute homogenization step
155 at 30Hz using a Mixer Mill MM200 (Retsch GmbH, Haan, Germany). Samples were then shaken at
156 37°C for 40 minutes Grant-Bio PCMT Thermoshaker (500rpm). Microbial DNA was extracted using
157 the QIAamp® DNA Mini Kits (QIAGEN©, Milan, Italy), following the manufacturer's Buccal Swab
158 Spin Protocol for cotton swabs (QIAamp® DNA Mini and Blood Mini Handbook), but starting from
159 step 2 (addition of Proteinase K).

160

161 **16s rRNA gene amplification and sequencing**

162 Using the bacteria-specific primer set 341F (5' CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG 3') and 805Rmod (5'
163 GACTACNVGGGTWTCTAATCC 3') (based on Klindworth *et al.* 2013 [44] with degenerate bases)
164 with overhanging Illumina adapters, a ~460 base pair (bp) fragment of the 16S rRNA gene (variable
165 region V3-V4)[45] was amplified using a GeneAmp PCR System 9700 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and
166 the following steps: 94°C for 5 minutes (one cycle), 95°C for 30 seconds, 55°C for 30 seconds, 72°C
167 for 30 seconds (30 cycles), 72°C for 5 minutes (1 cycle). The PCR products were visualised on a 1.5%
168 agarose gel and purified using Agencourt AMPure XP SPRI beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA)
169 following manufacturer's instructions. Subsequently, Illumina® Nextera XT indices and sequencing
170 adapters (Illumina®) were incorporated using seven cycles of PCR (16S Metagenomic Sequencing
171 Library Preparation, Illumina®). The final libraries were quantified using the Quant-IT PicoGreen
172 dsDNA assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) by the Synergy2 microplate reader (Biotek), pooled in
173 equimolar concentration before sequencing on an Illumina® MiSeq (2x300 bp reads) at the Next
174 Generation Sequencing Platform, Fondazione Edmund Mach in collaboration with the Core Facility,
175 CIBIO, University of Trento, Italy. All samples were sequenced in one Illumina MiSeq Standard Flow
176 Cell targeting a depth of 20 000 reads per sample.

177 **Bioinformatic processing of 16s data**

178 Reads were processed with MICCA v1.5.0 [46]. Briefly, paired-end reads were merged, and pairs
179 diverging by more than 8 bp or overlapping by less than 100 bp were discarded. PCR amplification
180 primers were trimmed (sequences not containing both PCR primer sequences were discarded). Finally,
181 sequences were quality filtered at 0.5 % Expected Error (EE); those displaying greater than 0.5% EE
182 were discarded along with those shorter than 400 bp or containing unknown base calls (N). Using the
183 VSEARCH cluster_smallmem algorithm [47], OTUs were created *de novo* by clustering sequences
184 with 97% sequence identity, discarding chimeric sequences. Taxonomic assignments of representative
185 sequences from each OTU were performed using the RDP Classifier v2.12 in conjunction with RDP
186 16S rRNA training set 15 [48]. OTU sequences were aligned and phylogenetic analysis was performed
187 using Nearest Alignment Space Termination (NAST) and a phylogeny reconstructed using FastTree
188 [49], both via MICCA [46]. The raw sequencing data can be found at the National Centre for
189 Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Sequence Read Archive (SRA) [Accession number:
190 PRJNA542176].

191

192 **Statistical analyses**

193 Following initial processing, singletons were removed and all samples with fewer than 5000 reads
194 were removed using the R package ‘phyloseq’ [50], leaving a total of 511 952 reads across 112
195 samples. The data were rarefied to an equal depth within 90% of the minimum observed sample size
196 (specifically 4571 reads per sample). Generalized Linear Models (GLMs) with a Gamma error function
197 were used to investigate whether metadata (onshore/offshore, age class, sex, body condition, year of
198 capture and season of capture) were associated with alpha diversity of the faecal microbiota (Shannon,
199 Inverse Simpson and Faith’s Phylogenetic Diversity Indices). For Shannon and Faith’s Phylogenetic
200 Diversity measures, an identity link function was used, while a log link function was used when
201 analysing an Inverse Simpson measure of diversity. All multivariate analyses on faecal microbiota
202 structure according to host metadata (on-/offshore, age class, sex, body condition, year of capture and
203 season) were assessed using PERMANOVA, based on Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and weighted
204 UniFrac indices, using the ‘adonis’ function in the R package ‘vegan’ [51]. An important assumption
205 for PERMANOVA is homogenous dispersion of data among groups; for this reason, the ‘betadisper’
206 function in ‘vegan’ was implemented to investigate the homogeneity of data. Data rows containing
207 missing values (NAs) were removed from the dataset prior to conducting the PERMANOVA to ensure
208 matrices were even between variables. To determine the differential abundance of OTUs between on-
209 and offshore bears, sex and season were examined using the R package ‘DESeq2’ [52]. To assess
210 whether the microbiota profiles of polar bears is related to their geographic distribution, a GPS based
211 pairwise distance matrix was constructed using the R package ‘geosphere’ [53] and compared to a
212 PCoA matrix (using both Bray-Curtis and weighted UniFrac) via a Mantel Test. All analyses were
213 carried out using R statistical software package, version 3.2.0 [54]. Data was visualised using the R
214 packages ‘ggplot2’ [55] and ‘metacoder’ [56].

215 **Results**

216 **Faecal microbiota composition**

217 The faecal microbiota of all 112 bears was composed of 1221 operational taxonomic units (OTUs)
218 encompassing 25 bacterial phyla, with prevalence and abundance of specific phyla differing among
219 individuals (Figure 2a). Across the population, the most abundant phyla (which composed 91% of the
220 total reads and were present in all individuals) were Firmicutes (45%), Proteobacteria (25%) and
221 Actinobacteria (21%), making up the core microbiota. All other phyla represented <9% of reads each
222 (Figure 2a), and their prevalence among samples varied between 97% (Bacteroidetes) and 1%
223 (Armatimonadetes, Deferribacteres, Lentisphaerae and Synergistetes). From the total number of reads

224 obtained for the most dominant phylum (Firmicutes), 70% belonged to the class Clostridia, and 99%
225 of those were from the order Clostridiales. The dominant orders for the remaining top bacterial phyla
226 were Enterobacteriales (phyla: Proteobacteria) and Actinomycetales (phyla: Actinobacteria) (Figure
227 2b).

228 **Onshore versus offshore microbiota**

229 Using the subset of bears for which we had on- and offshore information ($n = 85$), we found alpha
230 diversity was significantly higher in on- ($n = 46$) compared to offshore ($n = 39$) bears, for Shannon
231 (adjusted R-squared = 0.06, $F_{1,83} = 6.32$, $P = 0.014$; Figure 3a and Supplementary Table 2) and Inverse
232 Simpson (adjusted R-squared = 0.07, $F_{1,83} = 6.09$, $P = 0.016$; Figure 3b and Supplementary Table 2)
233 indices but not for Faith's Phylogenetic Diversity index (Supplementary Table 3). Beta diversity did
234 not differ between on- and offshore bears when using Bray-Curtis (Supplementary Figure 1) but
235 differed significantly between on- and offshore bears when using a weighted UniFrac metric (adjusted
236 R-squared = 0.03, $F_{1,80} = 2.53$, $P = 0.029$; Supplementary Figure 2). Data dispersion did not
237 significantly differ between on- and offshore bears ($P=0.740$).

238

239 The faecal microbiota of onshore bears consisted of 858 OTUs (19 bacterial phyla; 37 classes)
240 compared to 635 OTUs (21 phyla; 35 classes) for offshore bears, of which 386 were shared between
241 on- and offshore polar bears (Figure 4). Of the total number of OTUs found 472 were unique to
242 onshore bears, and a smaller number of OTUs ($n= 249$) were unique to offshore bears. Eleven OTUs
243 (10 Firmicutes; 1 Proteobacteria) were significantly enriched and 6 OTUs (3 Bacteroidetes; 2
244 Firmicutes; 1 Proteobacteria) were significantly reduced in onshore bears (Figure 5; Supplementary
245 Table 4). The majority (73%; $n = 8$) of OTUs that were enriched in onshore bears belonged to the order
246 Clostridiales (Phylum: Firmicutes), although family level assignment varied across OTUs (Figure 5
247 and Supplementary Table 4). OTUs that were significantly decreased in on- compared to offshore bears
248 varied in taxonomic assignment across taxonomic ranks (Supplementary Table 4). The most enriched
249 OTU abundance in onshore bears belonged to the family Moraxellaceae (Phylum: Proteobacteria),
250 with a 6.78 log₂ fold change in abundance ($P<0.001$), while the most depleted OTU abundance within
251 onshore bears was seen in Clostridiaceae 1 (Phylum: Firmicutes) with a -8.04 log₂ fold change in
252 abundance ($P<0.001$; Supplementary Table 4).

253 The gut microbiota composition of individuals was not associated with their geographic proximity to
254 one another ($P=0.56$ and $P=0.17$; Mantel Test using Bray-Curtis and weighted Unifrac respectively).

255

256 **Ecological factors and the microbiota**

257 When using Faith's Phylogenetic Diversity Index, alpha diversity was significantly higher in females
258 compared to males (adjusted R-squared = 0.30, $F_{2,109} = 25.18$, $P = 0.017$), as well as in fall compared
259 to spring captures (adjusted R-squared = 0.30, $F_{2,109} = 25.18$, $P < 0.001$). However, alpha diversity did
260 not differ with sex, season of capture, body condition, year or age class when using either a Shannon
261 or Inverse Simpson index of diversity and no significant difference in alpha diversity was seen with
262 body condition, year, or age class when using Faith's Phylogenetic Diversity. Beta diversity differed
263 significantly with sex (Bray-Curtis; $P = 0.001$; weighted UniFrac $P=0.006$) although data dispersion
264 was seen to be significantly different between males and females ($P = 0.018$) and so the
265 PERMANOVA should be interpreted with caution. Beta diversity also differed significantly with and
266 season when using Bray-Curtis ($P=0.005$) but not weighted UniFrac ($P = 0.184$), where beta dispersion
267 was $P = 0.113$. No differences in beta diversity were seen with year, age class or body condition when
268 using either Bray-Curtis or a weighted UniFrac metric. When investigating the differential abundance
269 of OTUs with sex, DESeq analysis showed that 66 OTUs were significantly different between males
270 and females; 9 OTUs were significantly increased in males compared to females (the largest increase,
271 of 5.40 log fold change, belonging to the family Clostridiales Incertae Sedis XI, phylum: Firmicutes)
272 and 57 OTUs were significantly decreased (the largest decrease, of -10.04 log fold change, being seen
273 in the family Flavobacteriaceae, phylum: Bacteroidetes). For season of capture, DESeq analysis
274 revealed that 15 OTUs were significantly different between fall and spring captures; 2 OTUs were
275 increased in spring compared to fall captures (the largest increase, of 3.01 log fold change, belonging
276 to the family Veillonellaceae, phylum: Firmicutes) and 13 OTUs were significantly decreased (the
277 largest decrease, of -7.50 log fold change, being seen in the family Peptostreptococcaceae, phylum:
278 Firmicutes).

279 **Discussion**

280 Investigating factors which may influence the gut microbiota in a sentinel species experiencing rapid
281 environmental change may improve our understanding of the role of the gut microbiota in wildlife
282 health and conservation. Here we have shown that for the southern Beaufort Sea subpopulation of polar
283 bears alpha diversity and bacterial composition are significantly different in the gut of onshore bears
284 compared to those that remain on the sea ice year-round. As such, our study shows for the first time,
285 that global change driven alterations in habitat use are associated with changes in the gut microbial
286 composition and diversity of a free-ranging species.

287 We detected 25 bacterial phyla, as opposed to just the one (Firmicutes) previously found by Glad *et*
288 *al.* (2010) [35] in wild Barents Sea polar bears. This diversity closely mirrors that seen in other studies
289 utilizing next generation sequencing methods to investigate the gut microbiota of ursids; for example,
290 24 bacterial phyla were detected in wild brown bears [31]. The most abundant phyla in polar bear
291 faeces (Firmicutes, Proteobacteria and Actinobacteria), coincided with those of the core mammalian
292 gut microbiota [26], including that of Asiatic black bears (*Ursus thibetanus*) [38]. Our finding that
293 Firmicutes constituted the majority of OTUs is noteworthy in that increased Firmicutes in genetically
294 obese mice and humans suggests that this phylum plays an important role in promoting adiposity or
295 energy resorption [57], although conflicting studies show no link between Firmicutes levels and
296 obesity/high-fat intake [58]. Interestingly, brown bears gaining weight for hibernation during summer
297 months show simultaneously elevated levels of Firmicutes in the gut [31], implying this phylum may
298 also play a role in synthesising high energy inputs in large carnivores. More specifically, we show that
299 70% of reads assigned to the phylum Firmicutes belonged to the class Clostridia, and subsequently
300 99% were from the order Clostridiales – an outcome that coincides with the results of Glad *et al.*
301 (2010), who showed all except one of the gene clones generated within their study were affiliated with
302 the order Clostridiales. In a study using both wild type and laboratory mice, Hilderbrant *et al.* (2009)
303 [59] showed that levels of Clostridiales greatly increases after prolonged durations of time feeding on
304 a high-fat diet.

305 Within this study we found that alpha diversity of bacterial OTUs was significantly higher in the faecal
306 microbiota of onshore compared to offshore bears when using a Shannon or Inverse Simpson measure,
307 but no association was found between alpha diversity and host metadata (age class, sex, body
308 condition, year or season of capture) when using these indices. Much microbiota work focusing on
309 humans has found sex and age influences microbiota dynamics [60–62]. Although the majority of
310 microbiota research has focused on humans, microbial studies of wild animals are increasing [30] and
311 in some cases wild animals have been shown to follow similar trait-related stratification in microbiota.
312 For example, the presence/absence of specific bacterial taxa were seen to correlate with specific age
313 classes within the gut microbiota of wild ring-tailed lemurs (*Lemur catta*) [63]. Similarly, sex-specific
314 differences in bacterial diversity have been found in, for example, wild rufous mouse lemurs
315 (*Microcebus rufus*), whereby females demonstrated higher bacterial diversity compared to their male
316 counterparts [64]. Further to this, season of capture has been seen to influence the gut microbiota
317 composition. Sommer *et al.* (2016) [31], for example, demonstrated that gut microbial composition of
318 free-roaming brown bears is seasonally altered between summer and winter. This change in bacterial
319 composition is thought to, in part, be influenced by extreme dietary shifts within brown bears between

320 active and hibernation phase [30]. We also see this seasonal shift in gut microbial composition in other
321 wild animal models such as wild wood mice (*Apodemus sylvaticus*) [65], wild black howler monkey
322 (*Alouatta pigra*) [66], and the giant panda (*Ailuropoda melanoleuca*) [37], probably also attributable
323 to season-driven shifts in diet. None of these factors, however, were found to influence the gut
324 microbiota composition of the polar bears sampled within this study when using a Shannon and Inverse
325 Simpson index of diversity. However, when using Faith's Phylogenetic Diversity (i.e. a metric that
326 characterises only the relatedness or distinctness of species and works under the assumption that
327 different species make unequal contributions to diversity [67]) we see a significant difference in
328 diversity with sex and season only, whereby females had a higher bacterial diversity than males, and
329 fall captures had a higher bacterial diversity than spring captures. Faith's phylogenetic diversity index
330 does not incorporate the relative abundances of taxa within communities, but rather calculates
331 phylogenetic diversity based on the presence or absence of species [68, 69]. Our results therefore imply
332 that for sex and season, there was no difference in alpha diversity when considering the richness and
333 evenness of species, but that there may be a number of species with deep and/or distinct branching that
334 are making an unequal contribution to the diversity of those communities.

335 We posit that the differences in gut microbiota composition between on- and offshore bears is most
336 likely driven by environmental factors, such as diet, contaminants and parasites which are known to
337 differ between the two groups [70–73] – although this hypothesis is yet to be tested. Diet, as one of the
338 biggest drivers in gut microbial changes [74–76], likely plays the largest role in the observed
339 differences in bacterial diversity. Historically, southern Beaufort Sea polar bears remained offshore
340 hunting ringed seal (*Pusa hispida*) and, to a lesser extent, bearded seal (*Erignathus barbatus*) [77],
341 primarily consuming high-calorie blubber with a specific, restricted nutritional input [78]. In contrast,
342 onshore bears have access to a more varied but less natural diet, including bowhead whale bone piles,
343 which can consist of whale blubber, meat, and viscera, as well the carcasses of fish, birds and caribou
344 (*Rangifer tarandus*) [42, 79, 80], a more varied food source in terms of both species and tissue types.

345 Not only do onshore bears consume a larger range of food items, but they also likely come into contact
346 with more terrestrial species and their associated bacteria and pathogens. Whale bone piles are utilised
347 by a range of other nearshore/terrestrial scavengers [5, 19] providing an inter-specific focal point for
348 many species with which polar bears do not typically interact. Beach-cast bowhead whale remains
349 frequently lie in close proximity to settlements and towns, increasing the potential for microbiota and
350 pathogen spillover to polar bears from humans, and domestic animals. The high gut microbiota
351 diversity seen in onshore bears may therefore be associated with this complex network of interspecific
352 contacts. A secondary consequence of high inter-species contact could be a higher parasite load and/or

353 diversity in polar bears, which is associated with high gut microbiota diversity in other species [23, 29,
354 81].

355 Understanding the ways in which polar bears respond to climate-change mediated displacement from
356 primary habitat is crucial in discerning their ability to cope with an increasingly changeable and
357 uncertain environment [42]. Future management plans for polar bears could therefore benefit from a
358 better understanding of the relationship between habitat availability, microbiota and health. Our results
359 suggest that climate driven changes in land use by bears leads to changes in gut community
360 composition, but further analyses are needed to determine whether these changes are linked to
361 underlying causes such as diet, parasites and health. It has been suggested that researchers should
362 incorporate health assessments into wildlife conservation practices [82, 83] and long term faecal
363 microbiota monitoring could provide this framework.

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374 **Contributions**

375 S.E.W.: study concept and design, and acquisition, analysis and interpretation of data, drafting of
376 figures, drafting of manuscript, writing of the manuscript; H.C.H.: study and laboratory supervision,
377 writing of the manuscript and critical revision of the manuscript, obtained funding; M.J.B.:
378 bioinformatic analysis and interpretation of data; T.C.A.: study design, field work and sample
379 collection, data analysis, editing of manuscript, critical revision of the manuscript, obtained funding;
380 M.A.M.: study design, editing of manuscript, critical revision of the manuscript; M.P.: study design
381 and technical support; S.E.P.: study supervision, study concept and design, writing of manuscript and
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383

384 **Competing interests**

385 The authors declare no competing interests.

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388 **Supplementary information**

389 Supplementary information is available at ISME's website.

390

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604 605 606 **Figure legends**

607
608 **Figure 1.** Map of study area showing the sampling locations of 112 southern Beaufort Sea polar bears
609 along the north coast of Alaska. Inset map shows the location of the study area, highlighting that one
610 sample originates from a more northerly location than the others.

611
612 **Figure 2. a)** Stacked bar chart of the relative abundance of 25 bacterial phyla in the faecal microbiota
613 of 112 southern Beaufort Sea polar bears. Phyla in the legend are listed in order of decreasing
614 abundance **b)** Inset is a metacoder heatmap plotted to order level: each node moving from the centre
615 outwards represents a different taxonomic rank, whereby kingdom is the centre and nodes representing
616 order appear on the outer edges. The map is weighted and coloured by read abundance.

617
618 **Figure 3.** Violin plots of alpha diversity within the faecal microbiota of 85 southern Beaufort Sea polar
619 bears for which ‘onshore/offshore’ land use is known (see text for definitions): **a)** Shannon diversity
620 index **b)** Inverse Simpson diversity index. Violin plots combine a box plot with a density plot, and as
621 such the width of each plot corresponds to the distribution of the data.

622
623 **Figure 4.** Total number of OTUs in the faecal microbiota of ‘onshore’ and ‘offshore’ bears, by
624 bacterial Class. Inset shows shared OTUs by onshore (green) and offshore (blue) bears.

625

626 **Figure 5.** Differential OTU abundance of onshore compared to offshore bears from DESeq2 analysis,
627 plotted with individual OTU number and associated family assignment.
628
629