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Urban habitat restoration provides a human health benefit through microbiome rewilding: the Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis

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23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Restoration aims to return ecosystem services, including the human health benefits
25 of exposure to green space. The loss of such exposure with urbanization and
26 industrialization has arguably contributed to an increase in human immune
27 dysregulation. The Biodiversity and 'Old-friends' hypotheses have described the
28 possible mechanisms of this relationship, and suggest that reduced exposure to
29 diverse, beneficial microorganisms can result in negative health consequences.
30 However, it is unclear whether restoration of biodiverse habitat can reverse this
31 effect, and what role the environmental microbiome might have in such recovery.
32 Here we propose the *Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis*, which specifically outlines
33 that restoring biodiverse habitats in urban green spaces can rewild the
34 environmental microbiome to a state that enhances primary prevention of human
35 disease. We support our hypothesis with examples from allied fields, including a
36 case study of active restoration that reversed the degradation of the soil bacterial
37 microbiome of a former pasture. This case study used high throughput amplicon
38 sequencing of environmental DNA to assess the quality of a restoration intervention
39 in restoring the soil bacterial microbiome. The method is rapid, scalable, and
40 standardizable, and has great potential as a monitoring tool to assess functional
41 outcomes of green space restoration. Evidence for the *Microbiome Rewilding*
42 *Hypothesis* will help motivate health professionals, urban planners, and restoration
43 practitioners to collaborate and achieve co-benefits. Co-benefits include improved
44 human health outcomes and investment opportunities for biodiversity conservation
45 and restoration.

46 **Key words:** ecosystem services; eDNA; immune dysregulation; metabarcoding;
47 primary prevention; restoration genomics

48

49 **Conceptual implications:**

- 50 • We propose the *Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis* – restoring biodiverse
51 habitats in urban green spaces can rewild the environmental microbiome to a
52 state that helps prevent human disease as an ecosystem service.
- 53 • Our hypothesis has potential to be a partial solution to the global megatrends
54 of biodiversity loss and increasing immune dysregulation of urban
55 populations.
- 56 • Aligning public health investments with restoration activities and biodiversity
57 conservation will potentially lead to a frameshift in how these environmental
58 activities are funded.

59 **INTRODUCTION**

60 The positive association between ‘green space’ and human health is well established
61 (Speldewinde et al. 2015; Shanahan et al. 2016; Stein et al. 2016). However, the
62 ecological and physiological mechanisms underpinning this relationship are not
63 clear, and are likely to be multiple, interacting, and complex (Liddicoat et al. 2016;
64 Nieuwenhuijsen et al. 2017). There is rapidly emerging evidence that the human
65 microbiome is inextricably linked to health (Blaser & Falkow 2009; Cho & Blaser
66 2012; Weyrich et al. 2015). Indeed, the ‘Old-friends’ Hypothesis suggests that
67 biodiversity provides an ecosystem service to humans as immunoregulatory health
68 benefits accrue from exposure to the microbiome of biodiverse environments (Rook
69 et al. 2003). The recently formed Intergovernmental Platform on Biodiversity and
70 Ecosystem Services (IPBES) assesses the status of biodiversity and the resulting
71 ecosystem services that benefit society (<https://www.ipbes.net/>). Aligned with the
72 goals of IPBES, conserved remnant environments and vegetation restored to
73 maximize biodiversity could be valuable primary prevention tools – public health
74 assets that prevent the onset, and reduce the incidence, of diseases. These
75 biodiverse assets can potentially improve human health in urban landscapes, with
76 the added benefit of conserving biodiversity.

77 In this paper, we review the available evidence for a *Microbiome Rewilding*
78 *Hypothesis* (Box 1). Simply put, our hypothesis states that restoration of biodiverse
79 habitat in urban green spaces can rewild the environmental microbiome to a state
80 that benefits human health by primary prevention as an ecosystem service. We
81 argue that testing this hypothesis is required to guide the provision of ecosystem
82 services, including human health benefits, during ecological restoration. We propose
83 that a new technique in restoration, high-throughput amplicon sequencing of

84 environmental DNA (eDNA metabarcoding), is an ideal tool to assess the
85 environmental microbiome status of green spaces, and should be incorporated into
86 restoration efforts to monitor the functional return of environmental microbiomes and
87 their potential human health benefits.

88 The *Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis* has knowledge gaps that require
89 further testing (a subset is shown in Figure 1). For example, what are the
90 associations between levels of urban biodiversity and healthy environmental
91 microbiomes? Can restoration rewild urban environmental microbiomes? What
92 portions of the environmental microbiome come from soil, air, leaf surfaces, and
93 water? Lastly, what is the mode and degree of environmental microbiome transfer
94 between the environment and humans? Should our hypothesis hold true, it will help
95 lessen the human disease burden associated with urbanization (von Hertzen et al.
96 2011), while supporting restoration interventions (including additional financial
97 investment) in places that typically have pronounced environmental footprints – such
98 as big cities. Accurate and effective monitoring of the microbiome status of green
99 spaces is essential to achieve this outcome.

100

101 **BIODIVERSE ENVIRONMENTS PROVIDE HUMAN IMMUNE PROTECTION**

102 The Biodiversity Hypothesis identifies a link between biodiversity loss,
103 increased urbanization, and the increasing incidence of chronic inflammatory and
104 psychiatric disorders in affluent urban populations removed from exposure to co-
105 evolved ('old-friends') microbiota (Rook et al. 2003; von Hertzen et al. 2011; Kim et
106 al. 2016). Since the 1950s, inflammatory diseases (e.g., allergic and autoimmune
107 diseases) have become more prevalent in urban populations of affluent countries
108 (Bach 2002; McDade et al. 2012). Recent medical research has revealed that many

109 of these inflammatory diseases are tightly linked to microbial imbalance (i.e.,
110 dysbiosis) of the human gut, suggesting that alterations in this microbiome are
111 associated with their increased prevalence (Blaser & Falkow 2009; Blaser 2014).

112 Rural communities often have high immune protection against infections and
113 diseases – the correlation of an environmental factor(s) with immune strength (Ege
114 et al. 2011; Hanski et al. 2012). Evidence suggests that the immune systems of
115 these individuals are primed by diverse antigens to adequately and appropriately
116 respond to either pathogenic or harmless stimuli, thus training the immune system
117 and decreasing the incidence of inflammatory diseases (Ege et al. 2011; Hanski et
118 al. 2012). For example, high exposure to the microbe-rich rural environment of the
119 Amish, a community practicing manual agriculture, confers strong immune
120 protection, significantly more so than the rural Hutterites who practice mechanized
121 agriculture (Stein et al. 2016). Rural children who live on farms, or within 5 km of
122 forest or agriculture, have significantly lower prevalence of asthma and allergic
123 sensitization to harmless environmental particles relative to urban children (Ege et al.
124 2011; Hanski et al. 2012; Ruokolainen et al. 2015). Moreover, the diversity of skin
125 proteobacteria of rural children is higher than urban children, and correlates with
126 increased expression of anti-inflammatory immune markers (Hanski et al. 2012;
127 Ruokolainen et al. 2015). Additionally, animals raised in outdoor environments (with
128 ‘wilder’ microbiomes) have stronger and more stable immune systems than
129 genetically related populations raised indoors (Mulder et al. 2009; Flies et al. 2015).

130

131 **THE MICROBIOME REWILDING HYPOTHESIS**

132 We propose the *Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis* – the restoration of biodiverse
133 habitat in urban green spaces can rewild the environmental microbiome to a state

134 that benefits human health by primary prevention as an ecosystem service.
135 Microbiomes are communities of microorganisms in a given environment (e.g., urban
136 green spaces, humans) and rewilding, in ecological terms, refers to the allowance of
137 natural processes to regain dominance over anthropogenic disturbances (Corlett
138 2016).

139 Microorganisms, both resident and colonizing, are immune system inducers
140 and pacifiers, capable of both positive and negative immunomodulation that results
141 in the adjustment of immune responses to normal levels in healthy mammals
142 (Ichinohe et al. 2011; Fyhrquist et al. 2014). For example, microorganisms help
143 guide immunoregulation by attenuating allergic airway responses by inducing
144 regulatory T cells, and by stimulating memory-phenotype T cells for viral antigens
145 that the host has not been exposed to (Karimi et al. 2009; Su et al. 2013). These
146 health gains should be replicated by exposure to restored urban green spaces, given
147 the effectiveness of restoration in recreating a biodiverse environmental microbiome
148 (Gellie et al. 2017). Under our hypothesis, the relationship between plant
149 communities and the environmental microbiome is core to restoring adequate human
150 exposure to beneficial microbial communities.

151 The coevolutionary relationships between the soil microbiome and plants is
152 well defined (Bonkowski et al. 2009; Van Nuland et al. 2016), and has been explored
153 in the context of ecosystem restoration or recovery post-disturbance (Pansu et al.
154 2015; Cavagnaro et al. 2016; Hamonts et al. 2017). Correlated succession of soil
155 microbial and plant communities has also been shown from both natural succession
156 and restoration interventions (Figure 2; Banning et al. 2011; Rime et al. 2015; Gellie
157 et al. 2017).

158 The ecological processes underpinning the correlated succession of plant and
159 microbial communities are not fully resolved. However, there is clear evidence that
160 plants shape the microbiome of their rhizosphere (Bonkowski et al. 2009). Different
161 plant species often promote unique microbial communities when grown in the same
162 soil type (Berendsen et al. 2012; Geremia et al. 2016). Additionally, a single plant
163 species will promote the same soil bacterial community when grown in different soil
164 types (Bulgarelli et al. 2012; Lundberg et al. 2012). Moreover, when symbiotic
165 microbes are absent from degraded soils, plant community development can be
166 hampered until an appropriate soil community is incorporated through inoculation
167 (Wubs et al. 2016). Utilizing host phenotypes to artificially select an associated
168 microbiome beneficial to host fitness has been proposed as a method to engineer
169 microbiomes (Mueller & Sachs 2015). These examples provide evidence of the
170 causative links between plant and soil communities and provide methods for
171 beneficial manipulation of this relationship with great potential in urban rewilding.

172 Human immunoregulation evolved in our biodiverse ancestral environments,
173 with both pathogens and commensal ‘old-friends’ priming and maintaining our innate
174 immunity, adaptive immunity, and commensal microbiota (Rook et al. 2014).
175 Continuous exposure to the natural environment results in appropriate succession of
176 gut microflora and stable immunoregulatory development (Mulder et al. 2009; Flies
177 et al. 2015). Therefore, removal of this exposure in urban societies likely contributes
178 to immune dysregulation.

179

180 **MONITORING MICROBIOMES IN URBAN GREEN SPACES**

181 Responses in the soil microbiome from revegetation have traditionally been explored
182 with broad-spectrum or indirect methods. For example, Li et al. (2015) used

183 phospholipid fatty acid profiles to show that native *Cupressus* trees restored soil
184 microbial communities at a faster rate than exotic *Eucalyptus* trees at a phosphate
185 mine restoration site in China. Additionally, Banning et al. (2011) used 16S rRNA
186 microarray analysis to show that restoration of a bauxite mine in a temperate climate
187 took soil communities approximately 10 years to restore after replanting the native
188 plant community. Unlike these previous studies, Gellie et al. (2017) recently used
189 eDNA metabarcoding over a 10-year restoration chronosequence of a former
190 pasture. The work of Gellie et al. (2017) explored the effectiveness of replanting the
191 native plant community in returning the soil microbiome to a more native state
192 (Figure 2). Metabarcoding amplifies and sequences a single gene region (amplicon)
193 from an environmental sample (e.g., soil, air, leaf surfaces, human swabs). PCR
194 primers have been developed to discriminate operational taxonomic units (OTUs)
195 within a target taxon (e.g., the 16S ribosomal RNA encoding locus in bacteria, Lane
196 1991). The approach can be used to describe microbial communities in OTUs and
197 higher taxonomic levels (e.g., phyla, classes, genera), thereby producing useful
198 information on the level and turnover of diversity in samples (Tedersoo et al. 2014;
199 Young et al. 2014).

200 Gellie et al. (2017) observed clear changes in the bacterial community after
201 just eight years of native plant restoration, whereby the bacterial communities in
202 younger sites were more similar to cleared sites and older sites were more similar to
203 remnant stands (Figure 2). The revegetation of the native plant community strongly
204 impacted on the belowground bacterial community, despite the revegetated sites
205 having a long and somewhat altered land use history (more than 100 years of
206 grazing). The changes detected in the microbiome were consistent with this restored
207 community being of greater potential for improving human health than unrestored

208 sites. Nieuwenhuijsen et al. (2017) called for standardized methods of green space
209 quality assessments. Gellie et al. (2017) demonstrated that eDNA metabarcoding is
210 a cost-effective, scalable, and standardizable ecological monitoring tool, which we
211 recommend should be implemented in urban green spaces to explore microbiomes
212 in these human-dominated environments.

213 eDNA metabarcoding holds great promise in microbial ecology, and its use for
214 biodiversity assessment from environmental samples has increased markedly with
215 far-reaching applications (Thomsen & Willerslev 2015). The principal reason for this
216 rapid growth is that this approach gives a well-rounded description of the
217 environmental microbiome, which is not easily assessed using microscopic or culture
218 methods. Despite these benefits, very few studies have applied this approach to
219 restoration or urban green spaces (Mhuireach et al. 2016; Gellie et al. 2017;
220 Hamonts et al. 2017), perhaps due to its perceived high costs and technical
221 challenges.

222 Three principal issues with eDNA metabarcoding are the difficulty in
223 distinguishing lower taxonomic levels (e.g., species), accurately measuring biological
224 abundance from amplicon read abundance, and sample contamination. Evolutionary
225 divergence between species for a single amplicon (e.g., bacterial 16S rRNA) is not
226 always sufficient for metabarcoding to accurately differentiate species, as compared
227 with metagenomics (Moore et al. 2006; Wang et al. 2011; Oliveira et al. 2013; Kim et
228 al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2015). However, the power to identify species increases when
229 multiple amplicons are targeted (Wang et al. 2014; Beckers et al. 2016). As such,
230 most metabarcoding studies limit species inferences and focus more on biodiversity
231 classified at higher taxonomic levels.

232 Another issue is that OTUs don't necessarily translate to biological abundance
233 (Smets et al. 2016). However, by setting stringent internal standards, confidence in
234 abundance estimates can be increased (Smets et al. 2016). For example, the OTU
235 read abundance used to calculate bacterial abundance based on community metrics,
236 tend to scale data to relative abundance or employ diversity indices (Banning et al.
237 2011; Rime et al. 2015).

238 Moreover, metabarcoding approaches can be hampered by contamination of
239 laboratory reagents, lab ware, sampling devices, and environmental exposure, as
240 the amplification methods used prior to sequencing are sensitive (Salter et al. 2014;
241 Llamas et al. 2017). An assessment of contamination is critical for obtaining clean
242 signals between samples and sites. Despite these potential shortcomings,
243 metabarcoding has proved effective in monitoring biodiversity changes in several
244 systems, as outlined above. Its cost-effective, scalable, and standardizable nature
245 makes it an ecological monitoring tool that has potential to be superior to traditional
246 field-based monitoring (e.g., PLFA, culturing, microscopy), particularly for microbial
247 diversity.

248

249 **TESTING THE *MICROBIOME REWILDING HYPOTHESIS***

250 Gellie et al. (2017) demonstrated that restoration has the potential to rapidly (within
251 10 years) return a natural environmental microbiome, with potential for added health
252 benefits to exposed populations. The human health potential of biodiverse plantings
253 presents an imperative to rigorously test the *Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis*.
254 However, several knowledge gaps (Figure 1) need to be addressed before
255 biodiverse plantings can become a global immune-health intervention.

256 It is still not known whether it is important for urban green spaces to reflect
257 remnant vegetation – do manicured lawns, unkempt lots, managed parklands,
258 restored native plant communities, and remnant plant communities have significantly
259 different health-related microbiomes? Therefore, determining the level of macro-
260 diversity required to engineer a healthy environmental microbiome will help guide the
261 level of investment required for urban microbiome rewilding. Additionally, what is the
262 contribution, and how does exchange take place, between microbiomes of different
263 components of urban green space environments (e.g., soil vs. air vs. leaf surfaces)?
264 Hence, quantifying the microbiomes of soil, air, and leaf surfaces with comparable
265 methods will help to identify which aspects of green spaces are key for human
266 interaction. Thus, what is the pathway and level of exposure required for significant
267 interplay of microbes between urban green space environments and human
268 environments to take place? Therefore, exposing human subjects to varying levels of
269 macro-diversity will allow quantification of the environmental contribution to the
270 human microbiome.

271 Urban green space access correlates with increased physical activity and
272 lower occurrences of depression and high blood pressure (Shanahan et al. 2016; Liu
273 et al. 2017). However, urban green space recreation potentially exposes users to
274 harmful pollutants. For example, Ke et al. (2017) demonstrated that polycyclic
275 aromatic hydrocarbons in urban park soils of Guangzhou, China, predominantly
276 originated from vehicle and coal emissions, while 79% of parks studied had a high
277 cancer risk to users. However, other urban environments were not measured for
278 cancer risk comparison in this study. Indeed, pollution can change the environmental
279 microbiome (Simonovicova et al. 2017), therefore pollution monitoring and
280 amendment will be important in urban microbiome rewilding. Pollution and user

281 activities are potential confounding factors to microbial exposure for health
282 outcomes, and should be controlled for in experiments testing the *Microbiome*
283 *Rewilding Hypothesis*.

284 The trends and issues impacting human health in the Biodiversity Hypothesis
285 are of global concern, and there is a need to research the *Microbiome Rewilding*
286 *Hypothesis* in cities across the world as a means of providing solutions. Addressing
287 the knowledge gaps outlined above will require a concerted research effort, and we
288 are beginning some of this. For example, vegetation surveys that are synchronized
289 with eDNA metabarcoding of urban green space types and human subjects is
290 required. Extending this body of work across several cities, especially across a
291 variety of stages of development, will be key to understanding the impact this
292 pathway may have on affluent vs. underprivileged peoples. Testing the *Microbiome*
293 *Rewilding Hypothesis* will guide restoration interventions that could potentially
294 provide primary prevention for human health benefits, helping to generate additional
295 financial investment for biodiversity conservation and restoration from the health
296 sector.

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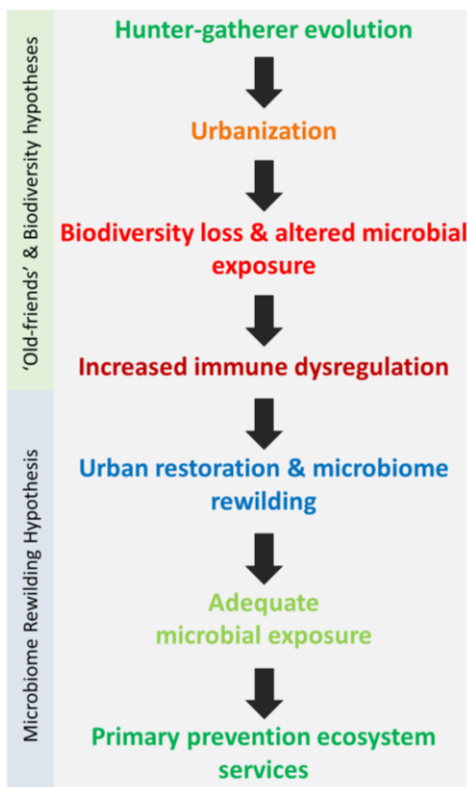
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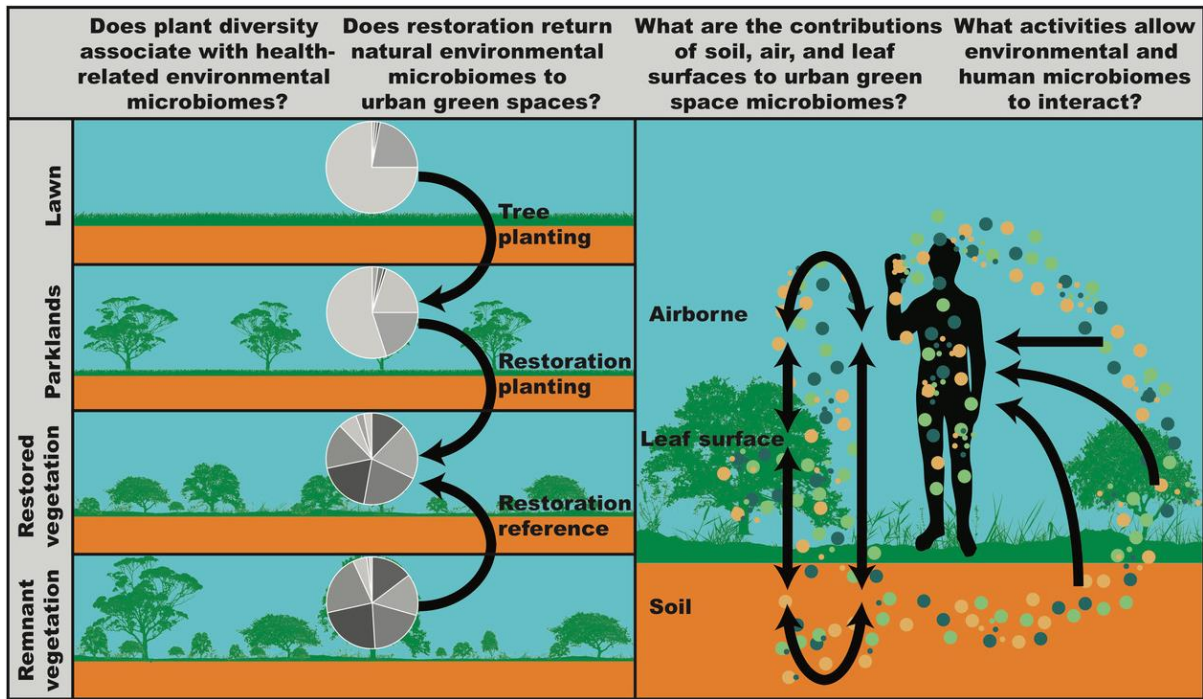
457 **Box 1** The *Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis*

458 The ‘Old-Friends’ and Biodiversity hypotheses propose that the increase in immune
459 dysregulation in westernized urban populations is due to the disjunction between
460 microbial exposures in urban vs. rural settings, which is being driven by the global
461 megatrend of biodiversity loss. Numerous empirical studies support these
462 hypotheses (see text).

463 We propose the *Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis* – restoration of biodiverse
464 habitat in urban green spaces can rewild the environmental microbiome to a state
465 that benefits human health by primary prevention as an ecosystem service. This
466 hypothesis proposes that ecological restoration of urban green spaces can
467 potentially return the coevolved ecosystem service of immune protection provided by
468 the microbiomes of natural environments, jointly decreasing the global megatrends
469 of biodiversity loss and immune dysregulation.

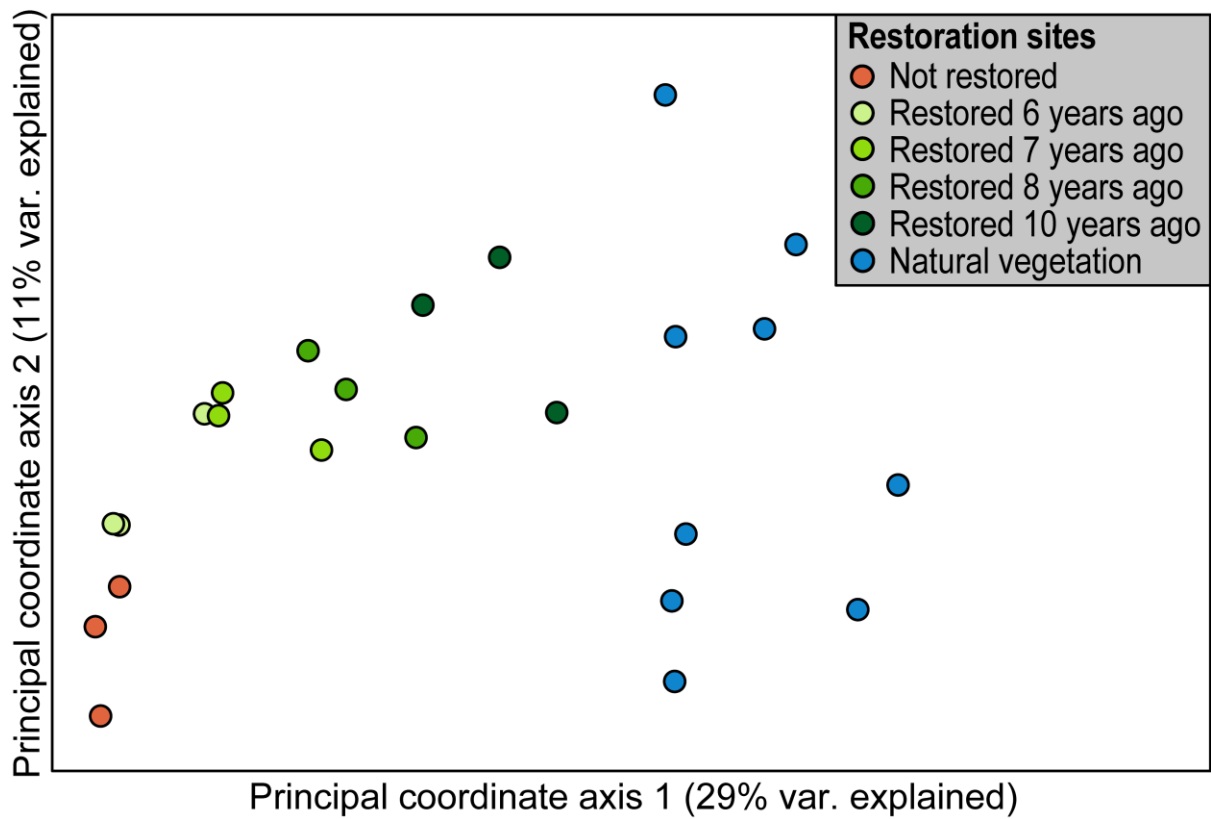


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472 **Figure 1** Some key knowledge gaps of the *Microbiome Rewilding Hypothesis*.



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Figure 2 Rewilding the bacterial microbiome of a former pasture by replanting native

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vegetation. The soil bacterial community in restored sites displayed a clear trend

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away from cleared sites and towards closely resembling natural vegetation within 8

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years of restoration. Figure from Gellie et al. (2017).