

1 **Bidirectional relationships between the gut microbiome**
2 **and sexual traits**

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5 **Running title:** Sexual traits and the gut microbiome

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Abstract

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30 The human gut microbiota is known to be shaped by a variety of environmental factors (diet,
31 drugs, geography and sanitation) and host intrinsic factors (age and sexual development). The
32 differences in gut microbiota between sexes are minimal before adulthood and late adulthood,
33 and marked during adulthood. For instance, consistent higher relative abundances of *Akkermansia*
34 and *Ruminococcus* have been observed in adult women compared to men and most studies have
35 found higher relative abundances of *Prevotella* and *Fusobacterium* (linked to a diet rich in animal
36 proteins) in adult men compared to women. The gut microbiota taxonomy and functionality
37 present in women is more similar to men once reached the menopause. In fact, specific taxa have
38 been associated with the levels of different sexual hormones and their precursors in blood. The
39 gut microbiota composition and circulating testosterone levels are also tightly linked to the extent
40 that microbial signatures can predict its levels in blood. At the same time, the gut microbiota
41 participates in the metabolism of sexual hormones, with some bacteria being able to metabolize
42 gonadal steroid hormones (one example is 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase, a testosterone
43 degrading enzyme). In summary, the relationships between the gut microbiome and sexual traits
44 are bidirectional. In addition, other phenotypes and cultural gender-related factors could drive
45 sex-related differences. It is important to note that other members of the microbiome (Archeae,
46 viruses and fungi) have been largely unexplored in relation to this sexual dimorphism. More
47 research is needed on this topic.

48

49 **INTRODUCTION**

50 The study of gut microbial communities has gained attention in recent years as a novel point of
51 view to understand human health physiology in its interactions with internal and external agents.
52 The human gut microbiota is known to be shaped by a variety of factors, including environmental
53 (*e.g.* diet or drug intake), host intrinsic (*e.g.* age, sex) and microbiome intrinsic factors (*e.g.*
54 microbe-microbe interactions) (Zeevi et al., 2015; O’Keefe et al, 2016; Vermuri et al, 2019;
55 Zhang et al, 2021; Kåhrström et al, 2016; Sonnenburg et al, 2016; Rotschild et al, 2018; Vujkovic-
56 Cvijin et al, 2020). Recent evidences have shown that the gut microbiota composition and
57 function show sex-specific characteristics and change with sexual maturation (Mayneris-Perxachs
58 et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). At the same time, some observations suggest that the microbiome
59 could even participate in sexual dimorphism through the modulation and metabolism of gonadal
60 steroids (Mayneris-Perxachs et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021; Pernigoni et al., 2021; Li et al.,
61 2022). In the last decade, the term 'microgenderome' has been proposed to refer a sexually
62 dimorphic microbiome (Flak et al., 2013). However, this term could be deceiving, as the factors
63 driving female-male differences in the microbiota seem to be mainly determined by biological
64 sex rather than gender (Vemuri et al., 2019).

65 Some recent reviews have developed the role of the microbiome in sexually dimorphic diseases
66 (type 1 diabetes), or in diseases exclusive of women (polycystic ovary syndrome, ovarian cancer,
67 postmenopausal osteoporosis) (He et al., 2021). Other reviews have focused on sex-dependent
68 changes in local gastrointestinal inflammation, systemic immunity and susceptibility to a range
69 of inflammatory diseases (Vemuri et al., 2019), or the role of the gut microbiome in sex
70 differences in arterial pressure (Beale et al., 2019). Some authors have even revised the findings
71 hinting at a sexually dimorphic communication between the gut microbiome and the brain
72 (Jašarević et al., 2016). In this mini-review, we aim to explore recent findings regarding sex
73 differences and gut microbiota bidirectional relationships that have appeared over the past three
74 years.

75 In general, the results of the studies that have evaluated sex-associated differences in the gut
76 microbiome are inconsistent. These inconsistencies may be explained, to some extent, by the
77 relative small number of subjects studied, poor characterized cohorts, different methodologies or
78 limitations intrinsic to technical capabilities. All these factors are still apparent in recent studies
79 assessing the influence of sex on the gut microbiota (**Table 1**). Controlling for all these factors
80 remains a challenge in the microbiome field.

81 Sex-associated differences in the gut microbial communities have been found to be dynamic and
82 age-dependent (**Figure 1**). In fact, age and the degree of sexual maturation are critical to
83 understand these differences. We will stratify the findings according to these important points.

84 ***Findings before adulthood***

85 The acquisition of microbes takes place at birth, mainly from maternal sources (Ferretti *et al.*,
86 2018). This early microbiota rapidly evolves within the first three years of life mainly influenced
87 by environmental factors, increasing in diversity until the microbial composition resembles an
88 adult microbiome. During the first and second years of life, there are no differences in gonadal
89 steroid production between sexes. In line with this, no microbiome sex-associated differences
90 have been reported (Ferretti *et al.*, 2018; Laue *et al.*, 2021; Rao *et al.*, 2021). However, Laue *et*
91 *al* (2021) found that host sex may influence the relationship between early-microbiome and infant
92 neurodevelopment. These authors observed that microbial diversity and composition were
93 associated with behavioral development in a sex-specific manner. Their results also highlighted
94 the need to develop more intervention studies to assess causality.

95 Few studies have analyzed sex differences in the gut microbial communities during childhood.
96 Zhang *et al* (2021) did not find significant differences among prepubertal children (girls and boys
97 aged 6 to 9 years). Another study found some differing taxa in prepubertal children, including a
98 higher abundance of the Lactobacillaceae family in girls and a higher abundance of the
99 *Saccharibacteria* class in boys (Yuan *et al.*, 2020). This sexual dimorphism was more evident in
100 postpubertal subjects where they identified *Dorea*, *Megamonas*, *Bilophila*, *Parabacteroides* and

101 *Phascolarctobacterium* as microbial signatures of pubertal status. In a Finnish cohort, bacteria
102 belonging to Firmicutes phylum were increased while Bacteroidetes were decreased during
103 puberty in girls (Korpela *et al.*, 2021). Specifically, puberty in girls was characterized by the
104 increase of the Ruminococcaceae and Lachnospiraceae families, and a decrease of the
105 Bacteroidales order and the *Streptococcus* genus. A similar pattern was found during puberty in
106 boys, which was also characterized by the significant decrease of *Lactobacillus*, *Escherichia* and
107 *Coriobacteriaceae* genera. Overall, the gut microbiome of girls was more similar to that of adults
108 with pubertal progression. This was not the case in boys, possibly due to the delayed development
109 of puberty. However, a longitudinal study is needed to evaluate and confirm microbial dynamics
110 during puberty.

111 Puberty is characterized by an increased production of gonadal steroid hormones that lead to the
112 development of secondary sexual characteristics in both sexes secondary to the dimorphic
113 secretion of sexual hormones (**Figure 1**). In women, there is an increase in estrogen and
114 progesterone levels until they reach a steady state where progesterone and estradiol will fluctuate
115 during female reproductive age. In men, testosterone levels increase and remain high compared
116 to women, while estrogen levels remain low during reproductive age.

117 ***Findings during adulthood***

118 While no sex-associated differences have been reported in childhood, sex-related changes in the
119 gut microbiome composition have been described between women and men in the adulthood,
120 (Mayneris-Perxachs *et al.*, 2020; Zhang *et al.*, 2021). Results among studies considering post-
121 pubertal populations are more consistent. A total of ten bacteria species have been found to
122 characterize the gut microbiome in young and middle-aged adult women and these findings have
123 been validated in human cohorts from different geographies (Zeevi *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*,
124 2021). Similar taxa have been identified in other studies assessing sex-associated differences
125 during adulthood (Mayneris-Perxachs *et al.*, 2020; Sinha *et al.*, 2019; Takagi *et al.*, 2019).
126 Overall, consistent higher abundances of *Akkermansia* and *Ruminococcus* have been observed in

127 adult women compared to men (**Table 1**). *Akkermansia* genus has been proposed to modulate
128 energy metabolism and glucose tolerance, and *Akkermansia muciniphila* supplementation in
129 obese humans have improved metabolic health and reduce inflammation (Depommier *et al.*, 2019;
130 Yoon *et al.*, 2021). Despite its beneficial effect in the host, the reason for the higher abundance
131 in women compared to men remains unknown. Finally, women have higher abundance of taxa
132 belonging to Firmicutes phylum. A gut bacterial community dominated by Firmicutes has been
133 associated with a putative healthy state (Costea *et al.*, 2018). On the other hand, most studies have
134 found higher abundances of *Prevotella* and *Fusobacterium* in adult men compared to women
135 (**Table 1**). Notably, both *Prevotella* and *Fusobacterium* genera have been associated with a diet
136 rich in animal proteins (Costea *et al.*, 2018). Several *Prevotella* species have been associated with
137 gut inflammation. In particular, *Prevotella copri* may contribute to inflammation during HIV
138 (Armstrong *et al.*, 2018; Kaur *et al.*, 2018). *Fusobacterium* genus has been associated with
139 colorectal cancer, known to be more prevalent in men (O’Keefe, 2016; Sun *et al.*, 2019). Thus,
140 not also *Fusobacterium* is more frequently present in men but it is also associated with the
141 development of prostate cancer. As *Fusobacterium* relative abundance also increases with age
142 (Ghosh *et al.*, 2020; Shanahan *et al.*, 2021), gender-specific differences seem to confluence with
143 age-specific changes leading to differential gender-specific susceptibility to a given disease.

144 ***Findings in late adulthood***

145 In middle- and late-aged adults, progesterone levels in women gradually decline, while estrogen
146 levels are reduced dramatically after menopause (**Figure 1**). In men, testosterone levels
147 progressively decline with age. Contrary to the trends observed in the gut microbiota during
148 puberty, the abundance of Bacteroidetes increases and Firmicutes decreases during menopause
149 (Santos-Marcos *et al.*, 2018). No sex-associated differences in the gut microbiome have been
150 reported in older individuals, coinciding with the establishment of menopause in women
151 (Mayneris-Perxachs *et al.*, 2020; Zhang *et al.*, 2021). The microbiota present in women is more
152 similar to men once reached menopause (Mayneris-Perxachs *et al.*, 2020). In addition to the

153 absence of differences in the gut bacterial composition between post-menopausal women and
154 men, no differences were found in the microbiome functionality between men and post-
155 menopausal women. These results suggest that menopause status may play a role in the
156 inconsistent results observed in other studies assessing the gut microbiome.

157 In the search for the mechanism responsible for the differences in the gut microbiome according
158 to sex, the influence of gonadal steroids has been explored, mainly in animal models.

159 ***Gonadal steroids and the microbiome***

160 **Gonadal steroids affect the microbiome**

161 The interplay between gonadal steroid hormones and the gut microbiota has been extensively
162 studied in mice. Pernigoni *et al* (2021) found that the elimination of male sexual hormones via
163 castration altered the gut microbial composition of mice. Another study demonstrated that mice
164 castration reduced sex-differences in the gut microbiota (Yurkovetskiy *et al.*, 2013). Similarly,
165 ovariectomy in female mice altered their gut microbiome (Cox-York *et al.*, 2015). In humans,
166 bilateral ovariectomy also impacted the gut microbial composition and the resulted microbial
167 dysbiosis was linked to the side effects of this intervention (Sinha *et al.*, 2019). Additionally, the
168 use of oral contraceptives also led to a different microbial composition in women (Sinha *et al.*,
169 2019).

170 Specific taxa have been associated with the levels of different sex hormones and their precursors
171 in blood: *Acinetobacter*, *Dorea*, *Megamonas* and *Ruminococcus* genera were associated with
172 increased levels of serum testosterone (Shin *et al.*, 2019). Testosterone was also positively
173 associated with the Fibrobacteriaceae and Idiomarinaceae families from the Bacteroidetes
174 phylum, and negatively associated with Verrucomicrobia and Akkermansiaceae (Mayneris-
175 Perxachs *et al.*, 2020). Noteworthily, the *Akkermansia* genus was enriched in the gut microbiome
176 of adult women in most studies (**Table 1**). The gut microbiota composition and circulating
177 testosterone levels are tightly linked to the extent that microbial signatures can predict the levels

178 of progesterone and testosterone in blood (Mayneris-Perxachs *et al.*, 2020). Although, no taxa
179 have been associated with estrogen levels in the latest studies (Mayneris-Perxachs *et al.*, 2020;
180 Zhang *et al.*, 2021), some authors found that estradiol was positively correlated with the relative
181 abundance of Gammaproteobacteria class and negatively correlated with Prevotellaceae family
182 (Santos-Marcos *et al.*, 2018). Notably, *Prevotella* was enriched in the gut microbiome of adult
183 men in most studies (**Table 1**).

184 **The microbiome influences the level of host gonadal steroids**

185 Not only sexual hormones seem to influence the composition and function of the gut microbiome,
186 but also the latter participates in the metabolism of these hormones, as some bacteria are able to
187 metabolize gonadal steroid hormones and their precursors. Interestingly, the gut microbiome of
188 pre-menopausal women was enriched in genes participating in the steroid biosynthesis and
189 degradation pathways, which are necessary for the metabolism of sexual hormones. Indeed,
190 circulating levels of testosterone and progesterone were associated with bacteria capable of
191 catabolizing steroids in pre-menopausal women (Mayneris-Perxachs *et al.*, 2020). Similarly,
192 another study found the bacterial gene *β -glucuronidase*, which encodes for an enzyme that can
193 catabolize estrogens, was enriched in the women's microbiome (Zhang *et al.*, 2021). Li *et al*
194 (2022) isolated *Mycobacterium neoaurum* from testosterone-deficient patients with depression.
195 *M. neoaurum* produces 3 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (3 β -HSD), a testosterone degrading
196 enzyme. These authors found that gavaging rats with 3 β -HSD-producing *E. coli* reduced their
197 serum and brain testosterone levels and caused depression-like behaviors. Although these studies
198 support the existence of bacterial enzymes that can metabolize sex hormones, further investigation
199 is required to identify the complete bacterial pathways responsible for sex hormones metabolism
200 and their impact on human physiology. Pernigoni *et al* (2021) studied to what extent steroid
201 metabolism mediated by the gut microbiota could influence human health. These authors
202 identified a *Ruminococcus* sp. enriched in castrate-resistant prostate cancer (CRPC) patients with
203 poor prognosis and associated with high levels of serum testosterone. This species was able to
204 convert pregnenolone and hydroxypregnenolone into downstream androgenic steroids. Their

205 results suggested that the gut microbiota could be sustaining prostate cancer tumor growth via
206 testosterone synthesis in CRPC (Pernigoni et al., 2021).

207 ***Other important factors and final thoughts***

208 There is no conclusive interpretation of the role of sex hormones in driving these sex-dependent
209 trajectories of the gut microbiome. A study in mice suggested that the relationship between sexual
210 hormones and the microbiota is more complex than expected. These authors observed that germ
211 free mice had a defective sexual maturation (Weger *et al.*, 2019). The absence of gut microbiota
212 attenuated liver sexual dimorphism and sex-specific circadian rhythm signatures and also altered
213 the sex-specific secretion of the growth hormone.

214 In addition to gonadal steroid hormones, other phenotypes and cultural gender-related factors
215 could drive sex-related differences of the gut microbiome. In one study, obesity eliminated most
216 of the differences observed in the gut microbiome composition and functionality among non-
217 obese pre-menopausal women, post-menopausal women, and men (Mayneris-Perxachs *et al.*,
218 2020). Another cultural and influential factor stated above is the diet. In a Chinese cohort, men,
219 that consumed more red meat than women, had higher abundance of *Prevotella* and
220 *Fusobacterium* genera which are associated with a diet rich in animal protein (Zhang *et al.*, 2021).
221 Medication use has also been linked to sex-specific differences in gut microbiome composition
222 (Sinha *et al.*, 2019). Thus, women had a higher prevalence of antibiotic resistance genes in their
223 microbiome than men. Additionally, the effects of antibiotic exposure during childhood need to
224 be further explored, as antibiotic exposure at early age in mice led to more feminized microbiome
225 in male adults (Weger *et al.*, 2019). Lastly, it is worth noting that the gut microbiome contains
226 other members such as archaea, viruses and fungi that have been largely unexplored. By
227 neglecting the non-bacterial biomes of the gut, an important component of the gut microbiome
228 that could play significant roles, has been missed. Future studies need to fill up this gap.

229

230 **Conclusions**

231 It seems clear that the relationships between the gut microbiome and sexual traits are bidirectional,
232 as also recently suggested (Beale et al., 2019). Altogether, age-dependent gonadal steroid
233 hormones secretion seems to lead to the sexual dimorphism of the gut microbiome composition
234 and functionality. The role of cultural gender-related factors, including diet and drug intake, on
235 the microbiome sexual dimorphism should be further investigated. This research should also take
236 into account the role of bacteria but also of other microorganisms. Finally, it is important to
237 mention that taxonomic classification of the microbiomes usually lack resolution if the species
238 level cannot be reached. This and intra-individual variability make it difficult to identify sex-
239 specific differences among cohorts. However, it is increasingly recognized that the functions of
240 the metagenome are more reproducible than the taxonomy of the microbiota at the individual level.
241 Functional information enables us to better understand the bidirectional relationship between the
242 gut microbiota and human body in a sex-specific manner.

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260 *Table and Figure legends.*

261

262 **Table 1. Human studies focused in sex-associated differences of the gut microbiome in the**
263 **past three years.** In bold, sex-associated taxa found in most studies.

264

265 **Figure 1. Simplified scheme of age-dependent trajectory of the gut microbiota in women**
266 **and men along with sex hormone levels over life course.** Representation of sex-associated taxa
267 (left) and sexual dimorphism of the gut microbiota during adulthood (right). There are differences
268 in the gut microbiome composition between women (dijon yellow) and men (ocean blue) during
269 adulthood, while no sex-associated differences have been reported in childhood or the elderly.
270 Sex-associated differences at each life stage are driven by critical hormonal shifts. Overview of
271 testosterone (dashed line) and estradiol (dotted line) levels across the life span.

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