

# Exploring the global vaginal microbiome and its impact on human health

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1	Exploring the global vaginal microbiome and its impact on human health
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#### 24 Abstract

Around the world, more than 175,000,000 women are diagnosed every year with gynaecological 25 disease, in many cases contributing to high morbidity and mortality. For this reason, knowledge 26 of the composition of the vaginal microbiome and its variations represents a real health 27 challenge, as this is key to improving therapeutic management. This review traces the history of 28 the poorly known vaginal microbiome and focuses on the latest findings concerning this 29 30 ecosystem. Studies in the past decade have targeted complex bacterial communities within the 31 vagina. However, due to the development of technology and the emergence of next generation sequencing (NGS), the exact definition of the vaginal microbiome has changed and can no 32 33 longer be linked solely to the presence of bacteria. In order to reach a global view of the vaginal microbiome, it is essential to take into account all microorganisms that the vagina harbours, 34 35 including fungi, viruses, archaea, and candidate phyla radiation. Although these communities 36 represent only a minimal percentage of the vaginal microbiome, they may act as modifiers of its basic physiology and may play a key role in the maintenance of microbial communities, as well 37 as metabolic and immune functions. Studies of the complex interactions between these different 38 microorganisms have recently begun and are not yet fully understood. Results to date indicate 39 that these microbial communities together constitute the first line of defence against infections. 40 41 On the other hand, the slightest disturbance in this microbiome may lead to disease. For this 42 reason, enhanced knowledge of these associations is critical to better identify predispositions to certain illnesses, which may open new therapeutic avenues. Currently however, only the tip of 43 the iceberg is understood and current research on this ecosystem is revolutionising our 44 knowledge and understanding of human health and disease. 45

#### 46 **1. Background**

Although it is less studied than the intestinal ecosystem, the vaginal ecosystem is greatly 47 significant for women's health. Given its impact on women's and infants' health, interest in this 48 understudied topic is increasing [1]. Thus far, bacterial vaginosis has remained enigmatic in its 49 pathogenesis, especially in recurrent forms, and it is not known whether a single condition or 50 several conditions with overlapping diagnostic criteria are responsible [2,3]. Many questions 51 52 arise: how does the change in lactobacilli flora manifest itself? What is the role of sexual 53 intercourse? Is there a genetic predisposition? And most essentially, what is a healthy vaginal microbiome and how can it be characterised? 54 55 The vaginal microbiome includes a mixture of bacteria, eukaryotes [4], fungi [5], archaebacteria [6] and viruses [7] (Figure 1). Most of these are commensal species that our bodies harbour from 56 birth but which can cause infections in certain conditions. Many studies have focused on the 57 bacteriome, which is considered to be the predominant component of the microbiome. While the 58 mycobiome, virome, and human archaeome are still undervalued, they have a strong impact on 59 human health and well-being [8]. 60 In this review, we aim to comprehensively characterise the vaginal microbiome, beyond the 61 standard bacterial characterisation, and explore the relationship between these microorganisms 62 63 and human health. We began with a literature review targeting various databases (Google, Google Scholar, PubMed, and Web of Science) using the following keywords: vaginal 64 microbiota/microbiome; bacteria; methanogens; virus; fungus; candidate phyla radiation, to 65 highlight the latest findings on the vaginal microbiome. 66

#### 67 2. Normal healthy bacterial vaginal microbiota

To understand the importance of the microorganisms present in the vagina and their effects on 68 health, over the past decade the scientific community has studied the vaginal microbiota, which 69 is a key issue towards better understanding and treating certain gynaecological conditions. The 70 vagina is a moist biotope made up of a **changing and evolving** bacterial system according to 71 different stages of life. Approximately 1 to 4 ml of vaginal fluid can contain 10<sup>8</sup> to 10<sup>9</sup> bacterial 72 cells that play a major role in protecting the mucous membrane from infection and maintaining 73 74 the physiological balance of the female genital tract [9]. Unlike other animals, women's vaginas 75 are significantly acidic (pH of 4.5 or less) due to the presence of lactic acid-producing bacteria that are only found in weak quantities in other mammals [10]. 76 77 The history of describing the vaginal flora began in 1892 when German gynaecologist Albert 78 Döderlein discovered the importance of bacteria that produce lactic acid in the vagina [11]. In 1895, his collaborator Krönig then described immobile, non-sporing gram-positive rods [12], 79 80 which were then cultivated by Curtis in 1913 [13]. The term "Döderlein's bacillus" was used in gynaecological publications until 1928, when Stanley Thomas classified the bacterium as 81 82 Lactobacillus acidophilus [14]. In 1980, Lauer, Helming and Kandler were able to distinguish several species of *Lactobacillus* previously referred to as *L. acidophilus* through DNA-DNA 83 hybridisation [15]. These lactic acid bacteria dominate within the optimal vaginal flora, ensuring 84 the ecological balance of the vagina [16,17]. The composition of the vaginal flora is not fixed 85 during a woman's lifetime. The menstrual cycle, age, pregnancy, ethnicity, sexual partners, 86 sexual hygiene, smoking, antibiotic treatment and the ecosystem in general, especially the 87 surrounding microbes such as those from the intestines, have an influence on the microbial 88 composition of the vaginal flora [18–21]. 89

However, in most studies, only a few species have been duplicated, including *Lactobacillus crispatus, Lactobacillus iners, Lactobacillus gasseri*, and *Lactobacillus jensenii* in terms of their
vaginal abundance in most women of childbearing age, while other lactobacilli have been less
isolated; e.g., *Lactobacillus plantarum, Lactobacillus rhamnosus, Lactobacillus salivarius* and *Lactobacillus vaginalis* [9,22–24].

95 Based on 16 rRNA gene sequencing, the vaginal bacterial community has been revealed to

96 consist mainly of lactobacilli categorised into five groups, referred to as types of community

states (CST), specifically I, II, III, IV and V [9]. Four of them are dominated by *Lactobacillus*.

98 The first is dominated by *L. crispatus*, the second by *L. gasseri*, the third by *L. iners*, and the

99 fifth by *L. jensenii*, while the fourth contains a lower proportion of lactobacilli but is composed

100 of a polymicrobial mixture of strict and facultative anaerobes (Gardnerella, Atopobium,

101 *Mobiluncus, Prevotella, etc.*) [9,25–28]. The production of lactic acid, which is a major

102 function of women's health, appears to be maintained in all Lactobacillus-dominant

103 **communities.** Moreover, it has been shown that the frequency with which these communities

104 occur differs according to ethnic origin, with type IV being more over-represented among Black

and Hispanic women [9] in comparison to Asian and White cohorts (approximately 34% and

106 40% compared to 18% and 9%, respectively).

107 As shown in Figure 2, CST I has the lowest pH ( $4.0 \pm 0.3$ ) and CST IV has the highest pH ( $5.3 \pm$ 

108 0.6) [9,27]. It is essential to note that *L. crispatus* is a stabilising element of the vaginal

109 microbiota. This bacterium, in addition to producing lactic acid with a high content of D isomers,

110 has many properties that hinder the occurrence of dysbiosis, particularly its ability to co-

aggregate and produce bacteriocins and toxins. Given the importance and characteristics of

112 these lactic acid bacteria [29], the study of the human vaginal microbiota should be an

essential step for diagnosis as well as for treatment with probiotics and prebiotics [30]. The
development of metagenomics has expanded our ability to better understand the human
microbiota [31]. This technology can provide a description of the composition of bacterial
communities, but it has not resulted in a comprehensive and complete view of microbial
characteristics and interactions [32,33].

Previous studies were conducted in the Vaginal Microbiome Project to characterize vaginal
microorganisms [34], which identified, of the 2,776 bacterial species isolated in human
beings [35], 581 species in the vagina. Of these, 122 different species were isolated using
only a culture method, while 296 different species were detected using molecular biology.
The remaining 163 species were identified by both methods [21]. The most predominant
species belong to the phyla Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria, and Fusobacteria

124 [36,37].

125 Despite the fact that many microbes are resistant to culture, which is a serious obstacle to a

126 better understanding of microbial interactions and pathogenesis, the use of this technique

has made a strong comeback in recent years [38,39].

128 A study done in 2016 led to the identification of 101 species of bacteria. Among them, 17

had never been reported in the vagina, and 11 new species [40].

130 Culture, combined with matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization mass spectrometry

131 (MALDI-TOF) as a tool for bacterial identification, termed "Culturomics" [41], can

132 increase the repertoire of microbial species naturally present in the vaginal flora.

133 Interestingly, among these 122 cultivated bacteria, 53 had never been previously reported

- 134 in the vagina. This work also identified three new species: "Vaginimicrobium
- 135 propionicum", "Vaginella massiliensis" [42,43], and "Ezakiella massiliensis" [44,45].

In general, studies such as "The Integrative Human Microbiome Project" [46] can expand our
knowledge of the composition of the vaginal microbial environment in health and disease and
highlight the resulting differences for better management, especially for patients with bacterial
vaginosis [47], in cases where in vitro fertilisation (IVF) has failed [48], for patients with cancer
[49], and neonatal infections [50].

141 **3. Bacterial vaginosis** 

#### 142 3.1 Vaginal microbiota

143 Bacterial vaginosis is the result of a disturbance of the vaginal ecosystem, i.e., a significant

144 depletion of lactobacilli following a strong proliferation of strict or facultative anaerobes

previously in the minority in the vagina [51], such as *Gardnerella vaginalis*, *Atopobium vaginae*,

146 Ureaplasma urealyticum, Mycoplasma hominis, Prevotella, Peptoniphilus, Megasphaera,

147 *Mobiluncus*, and other fastidious or hitherto uncultivated bacteria [36,52,53].

148 This story began in 1953, when Leopold first isolated *Gardnerella vaginalis* (formerly known as

149 *Haemophilus vaginalis*) [54]. Two years later, Gardner and Dukes reported the presence of this

150 microorganism in women with non-specific bacterial vaginitis [55]. In 1983, the term "bacterial

vaginosis" was established as opposed to the more classic term "specific vaginitis" caused by

152 *Candida albicans* or *Trichomonas vaginalis*, because local inflammatory markers of this disease

153 are weaker [56].

### 154 3.2. Epidemiology

155 Bacterial vaginosis is the most common cause of vaginal dysbiosis in women of childbearing

age. However, it is very difficult to determine its exact prevalence, because figures vary greatly

- 157 depending on geographical location, patient age, socioeconomic background, type of
- 158 consultation, and pregnancy status [3]. Most cases of bacterial vaginosis occur in women

between the ages of 15 and 44, and the incidence is very low in prepubertal and postmenopausal 159 women [57]. Estimates of worldwide prevalence vary from 4% among European women to more 160 than 50% among women in Eastern or Southern Africa and among homosexual women [58-60]. 161 Despite its description in 1954-1955, bacterial vaginosis remains an enigma. Its exact aetiology 162 remains elusive. The hypothesis of faecal transplant has been raised [61]. Indeed, the microbial 163 population detected in bacterial vaginosis is very similar to the digestive microbiota, with the 164 presence of bacteria belonging to the genera Prevotella, Peptoniphilus, and Clostridium. The 165 presence of a gastro-intestinal flora associated with bacterial vaginosis may be linked to their 166 inoculation during certain sexual practices, according to a prospective study performed to 167 168 investigate the induction of BV [62]. We noticed an initial decrease in the abundance of protective species of Lactobacillus, a marker of a healthy vaginal microbiota, and the 169 170 appearance of a mixed flora in which A. vaginae, G. vaginalis, P. bivia and Megasphaera 171 type I are the best indicators, causing an evolution of the vaginal microbiota from a state of eubiosis to dysbiosis [63], subsequently leading to a loss of vaginal equilibrium [64]. 172 Five decades of intense research has revealed a number of risk factors for acquiring bacterial 173 vaginosis. They may be endogenous factors such as hormonal changes, menstruation, or stress, 174 but may also be exogenous, such as those related to intimate hygiene, sexual relations, including 175 176 the number of partners, the administration of certain drugs, and education and socio-economic 177 level [65,66]. This dysbiosis currently represents a public health problem. It is most often manifested by an abundant, greyish/greenish, malodorous leucorrhoea from the vagina. It should 178 be noted that bacterial vaginosis can be asymptomatic in up to 50% of women, depending on the 179 authors [67]. Studies have also shown that it is associated with an approximately two-fold 180 increased risk of contracting sexually transmitted infections, including Chlamydia trachomatis, 181

182 *Neisseria gonorrhoeae*, herpes simplex type 2, and human immunodeficiency virus infection

183 [68,69]. In addition, the disease is linked to serious gynaecological and obstetric complications

184 (infertility, endometritis, prematurity, and low birth weight) [70–73] as well as psychosocial

disorders (malodour phobia, feelings of shame, rejection by sexual partner) [74–76].

#### 186 *3.3. Diagnosis*

Diagnosis is problematic and difficult due to its polymicrobial nature and a wide range of clinical 187 features. The Amsel criteria [77] and the Nugent score [78] are the most commonly used 188 189 diagnostic methods for bacterial vaginosis. These diagnostic tools present different problems. The Amsel criteria lack specificity and the Nugent score, even though it shows a higher 190 191 specificity than the Amsel criteria, is largely limited by the lack of conclusion when assessing 192 an intermediate flora. Some authors consider the intermediate flora as a transitional flora, while 193 others consider it as a heterogeneous group of normal flora and bacterial vaginosis. The score is also strongly dependent on the technical experience of the operator and the quality of the smears. 194 Several molecular tools have been developed to rationalise the diagnosis of bacterial vaginosis 195 [79]. In particular, a quantitative real-time PCR has been developed to measure the bacteria 196 present in bacterial vaginosis, such as A. vaginae and G. vaginalis [80-82]. 197

## 198 *3.4. Treatment*

199 The main objective in treating bacterial vaginosis is to suppress the symptoms and signs of

200 infection [83]. The classic therapeutic approach is antibiotics as the recommended first-line

201 treatment, 5–7 days of topical or oral metronidazole or seven days of intravaginal

202 clindamycin, depending on personal choice and circumstances [84,85], often associated with

203 oestrogens [86], prebiotics and probiotics [28,87,88] to correct lactobacillus deficiency, although

to date few studies have been carried out. These strategies are indicated in symptomatic womenand women who undergo certain surgical procedures [89].

Given that 50% of cases recur after three months of treatment [89,90], new strategies based on 206 207 the transplantation of vaginal microbiomes from healthy women into patients with symptomatic and recurrent bacterial vaginosis are being considered as a therapeutic alternative [91,92]. In a 208 recent study, five patients were thus treated, four of whom achieved long-term complete 209 210 remission until the end of follow-up, between 5 and 21 months after transplantation of vaginal 211 microbiomes. The results of the transplantation of vaginal microbiomes in women with bacterial vaginosis seem promising, but clinical trials will have to be conducted on larger cohorts of 212 213 patients [54].

#### 214 **4.** Vaginal microorganisms other than bacteria

#### 215 4.1. Methanogens

216 Methanogens, previously known as archaeobacteria, are strict anaerobic prokaryotes in the field of archaea that use hydrogen to reduce carbon dioxide, formate, acetate, and various methyl 217 compounds to methane [93]. Based on analyses of the 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene, 218 archaea were first classified as a distinct group of prokaryotes in 1977 by Carl Woese [94]. 219 Initially thought to be found only in extreme environments, further research has revealed that 220 221 these organisms inhabit a variety of ecological niches, including mesophilic habitats such as sewage sludge, marine and lake sediments, geothermal springs, deep-sea hydrothermal vents, 222 and the human body [6]. Although archaea and bacteria are similar in morphology in terms of 223 224 cell size, shape, and organisation, archaea possess certain genes and metabolic pathways closely 225 related to those of eukaryotes, such as replication, repair, transcription, and translation [95]. In addition, archaea have many unique characteristics. While bacteria and eukaryotes contain 226

membranes composed of glycerol ester lipids, archaeal membranes are composed of glycerol
ether lipids, chemically more resistant than those composed of esters [96,97], making it more
stable as well as unique metabolic capabilities, including phototrophic, organotrophic, and
lithotrophic activities [98].

The human archaeome, including the mycobiome and virome, remains little studied in the field
of research, although it can influence the composition and function of the entire microbial
community, which generally affects human health [99]. Compared to bacteria, the human body

contains only a small amount of methanogens, represented by *Methanobrevibacter smithii* 

[100,101], Methanobrevibacter oralis [102], Methanosphaera stadtmanae [103],

236 Methanomassiliicoccus luminyensis [104], Candidatus "Methanomassiliicoccus intestinalis", and

237 *Candidatus* "Methanomethylophilus alvus", associated with the oral, intestinal, vaginal and,

238 more recently, skin mucosa. Their presence often suggests an indirect correlation with pathology

[93]. Recent studies have also provided evidence of the presence of groups of archaea other than

240 Methanomethylophilus alvus, notably certain thaumarcheotal and halophilic species that appear

to be part of the human microbiome [105–108]. Indeed, research on archaea faces

242 methodological problems, including DNA extraction, selection of appropriate primers, low

abundance of archaeological DNA, or incomplete reference databases of 16S rRNA genes,

244 preventing the complete evaluation of this archaeome, and also lack of motivation from a

245 medical point of view [109,110].

246 Methanogenesis is a key component in preventing acid accumulation, i.e., pH increase, which

implies a disruption of the vaginal microbiota. An initial study in 1990 reported the culture of

- 248 *M. smithii* in vaginal specimens from patients with bacterial vaginosis. Methanogenic activity
- was not detected in specimens from healthy subjects [101]. Another study in 2019 showed the

presence of a single methanogen, *M. smithii*, mostly from bacterial vaginosis samples [111].
Other studies have been conducted, but did not detect archaea in samples from healthy or ill
women [112], except for one metagenomics study that recognized fewer than 2% of the reads
in each sample as archaeal [113].

Improving detection techniques will provide new knowledge about the diversity of archaea inhumans and clarify their potential role in disease progression [114].

256 4.2. Viruses

257 The virome is a group of viruses present in a specific environment. Thus, the virome differs in

every part of the body [115,116]. Indeed, viruses are microorganisms with a highly variable

259 genomic structure consisting of either single or double-stranded DNA or RNA. Unlike bacteria,

they have no preserved genes that can be used to characterise them [117,118].

261 Despite the small size of the viral genome and the low level of viral genome material in samples,

the development of high-throughput DNA and RNA sequencing methods has greatly improved

the ability to detect viruses in the human microbiome, though this often appears difficult in

practice [119–121]. Although few studies have identified the viral components of the

265 microbiome, the eukaryotic vaginal virome has now been characterised.

266 In one study by the Human Microbiome Project, many eukaryotic viruses were found in vaginal

samples from healthy women of childbearing age [122]. Only DNA viruses have been

characterised. Most studies indicate that there are many members of the *Papillomaviridae* 

family, followed by *Herpesviridae*, *Anelloviridae*, and *Poliomaviridae* in vaginal samples [123].

270 Alphapapillomavirus was detected in 38% of subjects, as well as several types of herpes virus

- [123]. In addition, a number of these were found in several sampling periods, leading to the
- assumption that the viruses were well established and replicating easily. Detection of these

viruses in the vaginal samples was also associated with a large diversity of anaerobic bacteria
[123]. In contrast, a metagenomic study showed that there was no difference in viral
composition among 180 participants. A distinct viral community was not identified among
the four distinct cervicovaginal bacterial community types [124].

Additionally, a second metagenomic study showed the presence of six phage families in the 277 vagina of most second-trimester pregnant women. Members of the Siphoviridae family 278 279 were the most prevalent (69.2%). The other families were Myoviridae, Microviridae, Podoviridae, Herelleviridae, and Inoviridae, as well as six additional phages whose families 280 could not be identified [125]. Diverse viruses of Caudovirales, the tailed bacteriophages, 281 282 have also been identified [124]. Interestingly, the composition of the vaginal phages, as well as the viral community, varied considerably from one woman to another but independently 283 284 of the vaginal bacterial composition and pregnancy outcome. Furthermore, Jakobsen et al. 285 performed a metagenomic sequencing of purified virus-like particles in vaginal specimens from 48 patients undergoing treatment for non-female factor infertility [126]. Most of the vaginal 286 viruses found belonged to the class of double-stranded DNA bacteriophages, with eukaryotic 287 viruses constituting 4% of the total reads. It should be noted that eukaryotic viral communities 288 were also correlated with bacterial vaginosis. A further study assayed the presence of nucleic 289 290 acids of six families of human DNA viruses in vaginal samples from pregnant women, including Papillomaviridae, Polyomaviridae, Herpesviridae, Poxviridae, Adenoviridae, and Anelloviridae 291 viruses [126]. In addition, the presence of a very diverse virome may increase the risk of 292 premature delivery. Changes within the vaginal virome have the same effects as vaginal bacterial 293 changes during pregnancy, suggesting that pregnancy may be regulated not only by bacterial 294 communities but also by viral communities [4]. 295

As previously discussed, some eukaryotic viruses can be harboured in symptomatic and
asymptomatic women and play a role in health and disease by influencing host physiology.
Many of them induce effects through the direct interaction of viruses with the host, while others
do so through the interaction of the virus with other components of the microbiome, especially
bacterial-viral correlation [7,127]. It is likely that other effects of the viral presence, both acute

and long-term, which may be associated with important outcomes, remain to be defined.

302 4.3. Fungi

303 Like bacteria, fungi are part of the normal flora of the epithelium and endothelium of the human body [128]. The vaginal mycobioma, defined as the fungal component of the vaginal 304 305 microbiome, is an important part of the vaginal microbial ecosystem in many healthy women, 306 but has not been the subject of a great deal of study in relation to bacterial communities [5]. The joint program of the National Institutes of Health Common Fund, the Human Microbiome 307 308 Project and MetaHIT often prioritises the bacterial community and pays less attention to the fungal community [1,129,130]. In order to better understand contributions of the human fungal 309 310 community to health and disease, several studies have been conducted. The first research on fungi residing in the vagina was based on culture [131,132]. 311

With the emergence of genomic methods in the study of human fungi, which greatly expanded the ability to analyze human microbes, next-generation sequencing methods made it possible to determine the diversity of the characteristic commensal fungi in the vagina. However, despite advances in genomics, the characterisation of the mycobiome has been significantly limited due to the scarcity of databases used to classify fungal sequences, so many species cannot be classified and are difficult to analyse because the samples are extremely sensitive to environmental contamination. Therefore, the significant effects of the vaginal mycobiome on

patient health may be poorly evaluated. To date, two studies have presented the vaginal 319 mycobiome apart from culture, targeting 18S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) with small subunits 320 and 28S rDNA with large subunits, termed internally transcribed spacer regions [133,134]. 321 Nevertheless, the role of *Candida* spp. has long been recognised in the vagina as colonisers of 322 the genital epithelium without causing infection, and several studies of the vaginal mycobiome 323 using culture or sequencing have demonstrated that Candida spp., especially C. albicans, is 324 325 found in the vaginal tracts of 20–70% of asymptomatic healthy women [5,135,136]. These yeasts 326 are often transported asymptomatically, but after intense antibiotic use or when the host's immune system is attenuated, the balance between these fungi and the host can be disturbed, and 327 328 the shift from the commensal phase (yeast morphology) to a pathogenic phase (hyphae form) becomes possible, making it the key element in the pathogenesis of vulvovaginal candidiasis. 329 330 In addition to immune abnormalities and dysbiosis of the flora, Candida spp. also expresses 331 other virulence factors that lead to vulvovaginal candidiasis, such as extracellular hydrolytic enzymes and heat shock proteins, and the formation of microbial biofilms may play a role in this 332 333 infection. It has been consistently shown that there is a correlation between vulvoyaginal candidiasis and the luteal phase, leading to a high oestrogenic level [137–140]. However, 334 Candida is able to adapt to changes in the nutritional microenvironment and use lactate as a 335 336 dietary source [131]. This is very important in the vaginal context, given the abundance of glycogen and lactic acid, and Candida may have evolved to slow immune responses in order to 337 facilitate its own persistence and commensalism [8,141]. 338 A recent study of 294 healthy Estonian women of childbearing age was carried out on the 339 vaginal microbiome to clarify its fungal composition. ITS1-2 sequencing was performed on 251 340

of these samples [128]. In total, *Ascomycota* constituted 58% of the human fungi and

342 *Saccharomycetales* 37%, including 16 different original taxonomic units of *Candida* spp., which

343 were the most abundant (34% of the total). One percent of the total was *Cladosporium*,

344 Eurotium, Alternaria, and Basidomycota Rhodotorula. A large percentage of the total sequences

345 were not classified in the fungal community [128]. Many sequences could not be mapped to

346 specific taxa. This underlines the need to increase our knowledge in this field.

### 347 4.4. Candidate phyla radiation

348 Candidate phyla radiation is a group of microorganisms that are abundantly distributed in many 349 environments, including acidic, alkaline, and hypersaline habitats, and in the human body. In 2016, Hug et al. presented a new version of the tree of life using culture-independent genomic 350 351 methods. The genomes of the microorganisms were reconstructed without prior culture [142]. The first genome projects for this group were reported in 2012. They appear to be monophyletic, 352 corresponding to a significant fraction of the bacterial domain, with at least 74 lineages mainly at 353 354 the phylum level. Therefore, it is possible that the root of the bacterial domain may be placed between well-known bacteria and new organisms known as candidate phyla radiation (CPR) 355 [143,144]. Due to poor coupling of primers and/or introns, the detection of certain groups within 356 the CPR is difficult. To date, we estimate the identification of 73 CPR groups. The term "CPR" 357 is simply a representation of this considerable radiation. Several studies should be undertaken in 358 359 order to better describe this radiation before proposing an official name for it. In fact, the phylum Saccharibacteria, formerly known as TM7, is part of the CPR. 360 Compared to bacteria, TM7x has a very small genome and ultra-small cell size, as well as an 361

episymbiotic lifestyle on the surface of its host bacterium, and it is important to note that these

363 ultra-small bacteria have limited metabolic capacity. Having minimal amino acids, they are

unable to synthesise new nucleotides and lack the essential components to produce the

membrane lipids required for the cell envelope, which other bacteria must parasitise [145–147].

366 Depending on environmental situations, these enigmatic bacteria associated with humans can

affect the structure and functionality of the bacterial host and lead to their destruction, resultingin disruption of the microbiome as well as induction of infectious diseases.

Following a study based on the analysis of vaginal secretions of women with bacterial vaginosis compared to women with normal flora by 16S rRNA PCR and fluorescence in situ hybridisation (FISH), the results show the presence of TM7 members of the uncultured bacteria in women with bacterial vaginosis [148].

373 In addition, recent research on the vaginal microbiome and prematurity based on extensive longitudinal analyses of 16S ribosomal rRNA, metagenomics, metatranscriptome, cytokine, and 374 lipid profiles indicates that women who gave birth prematurely showed reduced levels of 375 376 Lactobacillus crispatus and higher levels of TM7-H1 and other anaerobic bacteria [149]. In addition, identification of the same TM7-H1 taxon (i.e., BVAB-TM7) in samples from preterm 377 infants was demonstrated. While TM7-H1 has been associated with adverse health conditions, 378 this is the first reported association between preterm birth and TM7-H1 [149]. Indeed, with the 379 ~0.72 megabase genome, TM7-H1 has been classified as Phylum Candidatus Saccharibacteria, 380 and shows approximately 66% nucleotide identity with the recently described oral TM7x isolate. 381 382 It denotes α-amylase and can use glycogen as a carbon source. Like TM7x, TM7-H1 does not have new biosynthetic capabilities and may survive at the expense of other vaginal organisms 383 that are yet unknown. However, this microorganism can produce pyruvate, acetate, l-lactate, and 384 385 propionate. This production reduces antimicrobial activity and promotes the formation of pro-

inflammatory cytokines in the vagina, leading to disease. These results highlight newpossibilities for assessing the risk of premature birth [149].

#### 388 5. Conclusions and perspectives

It has always been thought that the presence of microorganisms in the human body was 389 390 unwanted due to their ability to cause infection, and many studies are part of the Human Microbiome Project, which aims to describe and analyse the different microbiota that make up 391 392 our body and their impact on human health and disease. A global view of the vaginal 393 microbiome represents a primordial issue in women's public health, namely that a better understanding of its composition allows for improved diagnosis and therapeutic management of 394 395 patients. Various studies confirm that the term "normal vaginal flora" is relative and can be wrongly applied, depending on the case, given that the vast majority of these studies have always 396 397 been oriented towards bacterial communities due to their abundance in our bodies and the 398 challenges of searching for other organisms. It is therefore essential to consider all other organisms that exist in the vagina, including fungi, viruses, archaea, and CPR. Focusing on their 399 400 identification is crucial in order to look for correlations between changes in the microbiome and human health, and may open new therapeutic avenues. 401

In order to fully understand the whole iceberg rather than simply the top, it is time to revisit the subject in the light of technological progress. An improved use of biological tools allows for a better identification of the vaginal microbiota and their association with disease. Nevertheless, many questions remain unanswered. Future work concerning the structure of the complete vaginal microbiota, the physiological conditions of the vagina, immune regulation and, above all, the clinical picture, could lead to a comprehensive characterisation of the microbiome, as well as a better elucidation of the balance of microbiome-host dynamics. Indicators of success will be a

- 409 new definition of the normal vaginal microbiome, based on the functional status and properties
- 410 of the individual microorganisms that compose it.
- 411

#### 412 Authors'statements

- 413 Linda Abou Chacra performed bibliographic search and drafted the manuscript, and Florence
- 414 Fenollar designed the study, drafted and revised the manuscript.

## 415 **Declaration of competing interest**

416 The authors declare no conflicting interest in the present study.

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#### 420 Figure legend.

#### 421 Figure 1.The vagina comprises different microorganisms.

The vaginal microbiome can be described by the microorganisms that compose it: bacteria, 422 fungi, viruses, archaea and recently, candidate phyla radiation (CPR). To date, bacteria are the 423 best known and described. The vaginal bacteriome contains mainly Firmicutes with a strong 424 predominance of Lactobacilli as well as Bacteroidetes, Actinobacteria, Fusobacteria. The 425 426 mycobiome is mainly composed of Ascomycota and Saccharomycetales, and one percent of the 427 total is Cladosporium, Eurotium, Alternaria, and Basidomycota Rhodotorula. The virome is composed of Papillomaviridae, Polyomaviridae, Herpesviridae, Poxviridae, Adenoviridae, and 428 429 Anelloviridae. The archeome is composed of Methanobrevibacter smithii. Finally, the CPR contains Saccharibacteria. 430

Figure 2. Main characteristics of the five types of vaginal bacterial community states
[9,150]

There are five vaginal bacterial community states. The first is dominated by *Lactobacillus crispatus*, the second by *L. gasseri*, the third by *L. iners*, and the fifth by *L. jensenii*. While the
fourth does not contain a significant number of *Lactobacilli*, it is composed of a polymicrobial
mixture of strict and facultative anaerobes (*Gardnerella*, *Atopobium*, *Mobiluncus*, *Prevotella*.).
Indeed, it has been shown that the frequency of these communities differs according to ethnic
origin, with type IV being more common in African and Hispanic women than in Asian and
White women.

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**Figure 1. Schema of the vaginal microbiome.** The vagina comprises different microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, archaea, viruses as well as candidate phyla radiation (CPR).

	Vagi I	Vagi II	Vagi III	Vagi V	Vagi IV
	Community sta	ability			
				Communi	ity diversity
Bacteria	L.	L.	L.	L.	Mixture of
Bacteria	L. crispatus	L. gasseri	L. iners	L. jensenii	Mixture of anaerobic
Bacteria	L. crispatus	L. gasseri	L. iners	L. jensenii	Mixture of anaerobic bacteria
Bacteria pH	$L.$ <i>crispatus</i> $4.0 \pm 0.5$	<i>L.</i> <i>gasseri</i> 5.0 ± 0.7	$L.$ iners $4.4 \pm 0.6$	<i>L.</i> <i>jensenii</i> 4.7 ± 0.4	Mixture of anaerobic bacteria 5.3 ± 0.6
Bacteria pH Ethnic	$L.$ <i>crispatus</i> $4.0 \pm 0.5$	<i>L.</i> <i>gasseri</i> 5.0 ± 0.7	<i>L.</i> <i>iners</i> $4.4 \pm 0.6$	$L.$ jensenii $4.7 \pm 0.4$	Mixture of anaerobic bacteria $5.3 \pm 0.6$
Bacteria pH Ethnic background	$L.$ <i>crispatus</i> $4.0 \pm 0.5$	<i>L.</i> <i>gasseri</i> 5.0 ± 0.7	<i>L.</i> <i>iners</i> 4.4 ± 0.6	<i>L.</i> <i>jensenii</i> 4.7 ± 0.4	Mixture of anaerobic bacteria $5.3 \pm 0.6$
Bacteria pH Ethnic background Caucasian	<i>L.</i> <i>crispatus</i> $4.0 \pm 0.5$ 30-50%	<i>L.</i> <i>gasseri</i> 5.0 ± 0.7	<i>L.</i> <i>iners</i> 4.4 ± 0.6 15-30%	<i>L.</i> <i>jensenii</i> 4.7 ± 0.4	Mixture of anaerobic bacteria 5.3 ± 0.6
Bacteria pH Ethnic background Caucasian Hispanic	<i>L.</i> <i>crispatus</i> 4.0 ± 0.5 30-50% <10%	<i>L.</i> <i>gasseri</i> 5.0 ± 0.7 <10% <10%	<i>L.</i> <i>iners</i> 4.4 ± 0.6 15-30% 30-50%	<i>L.</i> <i>jensenii</i> 4.7 ± 0.4 <10% <10%	Mixture of anaerobic bacteria $5.3 \pm 0.6$ <10% 30-50%
Bacteria pH Ethnic background Caucasian Hispanic Asian	<i>L.</i> <i>crispatus</i> 4.0 ± 0.5 30-50% <10% 15-30%	<i>L.</i> <i>gasseri</i> 5.0 ± 0.7 <10% <10%	<i>L.</i> <i>iners</i> 4.4 ± 0.6 15-30% 30-50% 30-50%	<i>L.</i> <i>jensenii</i> 4.7 ± 0.4 <10% <10% <10%	Mixture of anaerobic bacteria 5.3 ± 0.6 <10% 30-50% 15-30%

Figure 2. Main characteristics of the five types of vaginal bacterial community states [9,150] according to lactobacillus diversity, pH, ethnicity.