

# Diversity of the gut microbiome in three grasshopper species using 16S rRNA and determination of cellulose digestibility

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**Background:** Grasshoppers are typical phytophagous pests, and they have large appetites with high utilization of plants fibers, the digestion of which may depend on the microorganisms in their intestines. Grasshoppers have the potential to be utilized in bioreactors, which could improve straw utilization efficiency in the future. In this study, we describe the gut microbiome in three species of grasshoppers, *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus*, *Aiolopus tamulus* and *Shirakiacris shirakii*, by constructing a 16S rDNA gene library and analyzed the digestibility of cellulose and hemicellulose in the grasshoppers by using moss black phenol colorimetry and anthrone colorimetry. **Results:** There were 509,436 bacterial OTUs (Operational Taxonomic Units) detected in the guts of all the grasshoppers sampled. Among them, Proteobacteria and Firmicutes were the most common, *Aiolopus tamulus* had the highest bacterial diversity, and *Shirakiacris shirakii* had the highest bacterial species richness. The intestinal microflora structure varied between the different species of grasshopper, with *Aiolopus tamulus* and *Shirakiacris shirakii* being the most similar. Meanwhile, the time at which grasshopper specimens were collected also led to changes in the intestinal microflora structure in the same species of grasshoppers. *Klebsiella* may form the core elements of the microflora in the grasshopper intestinal tract. The digestibility of cellulose/hemicellulose among the three species grasshoppers varied (38.01/24.99%, 43.95/17.21% and 44.12/47.62%). LEfSe analysis and Spearman correlation coefficients showed that the hemicellulosic digestibility of *Shirakiacris shirakii* was significantly higher than that of the other two species of grasshopper, which may be related to the presence of *Pseudomonas*, *Stenotrophomonas*, *Glutamicibacter*, *Corynebacterium*, and *Brachybacterium* in *Shirakiacris shirakii* intestinal tract.

**Conclusion:** The intestinal microbial communities of the three grasshoppers species are similar on phylum level, but the dominant genera of different species grasshoppers are different. The cellulose digestibility of the three species of grasshoppers is relatively high, which may be correlated with the presence of some gut microbiome. Increasing the

understanding of the structure and function of the grasshopper intestinal microflora will facilitate further research and the utilization of intestinal microorganisms in the future.

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15 **Abstract:**

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23 **Results:** There were 509,436 bacterial OTUs (Operational Taxonomic Units) detected in the guts of all the  
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34 and *Brachybacterium* in *Shirakiacris shirakii* intestinal tract.

35 **Conclusion:** The intestinal microbial communities of the three grasshoppers species are similar on phylum level,  
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39 further research and the utilization of intestinal microorganisms in the future.

## 40 **Introduction**

41 Grasshoppers (Orthoptera: Acridoidea) are the main pests in agriculture, cattle grazing and forestry.

42 Grasshoppers require a large quantity of gramineous plants to obtain the nutrients and water necessary for their  
43 survival, especially in their adult stage. The food selectivity of grasshoppers is affected by many factors. As far  
44 as plants themselves are concerned, the factors that affect grasshoppers' food selectivity include cellulose,  
45 water, carbohydrate and protein contents (Ibanez et al., 2013). Wheat seedlings, which have a moisture content  
46 of 89.819%-93.326%, are rich in protein, vitamins, minerals, and other nutrients (Min et al., 2017) and are easy  
47 to cultivate, making them good fodder for grasshoppers bred in laboratories.

48 Cellulose and hemicellulose are the main components of many biomass (Mueller-Hagedorn & Bockhorn,  
49 2007). Due to the limitation of the lignin-hemicellulose, most of the biomass are difficult to be decomposed and  
50 utilized (Thompson et al., 2003). Many factors, like lignin content, crystallinity of cellulose, and particle size,  
51 limit the digestibility of the hemicellulose and cellulose present in the lignocellulosic biomass (Hendriks &  
52 Zeeman, 2009). At present, cellulose and hemicellulose are increasingly widely used (Xiong et al., 2005), and  
53 their efficient utilization is of great practical significance to reduce the burning of straw and promote the  
54 sustainable development of agriculture and animal husbandry.

55 The gut microbiome is a general term for all the microorganisms inhabiting the digestive tract of animals  
56 (Rangberg et al., 2012) and contains the most concentrated set of interactions among all symbiotic  
57 microorganisms in animals (Guo et al., 2015). In the process of evolution, insects and intestinal microorganisms  
58 interact, cooperate and coevolve. Insects secrete digestive enzymes by means of symbiotic microorganisms in  
59 the body to better digest food and obtain energy needed for their own growth and development (Mason, Jones  
60 & Felton, 2019). It is possible to contrive a species-wide metabolic interaction network of the termite gut-  
61 microbiome in order to have a system-level understanding of metabolic communication. Kundu et al.(2019) have  
62 elucidated 15 crucial hemicellulolytic microbes and their corresponding enzyme machinery (Kundu et al., 2019).  
63 At present, no insect has been found to be able to completely digest lignocellulose food via cellulase and  
64 hemicellulase secreted by itself (Sun & Chen, 2010).

65 Compared with termites and cockroaches, grasshoppers have a very sparse microbiome(Dillon & Dillon,  
66 2004). But these microorganisms play an important role in the grasshopper digestive tract. Studies have shown  
67 that changing the structure of the intestinal microbial community can affect the survival rate of grasshoppers(Tan  
68 et al., 2020); Dillon et al. (2002) have discovered that locust gut bacteria were responsible for the production of  
69 components of the locust cohesion pheromone (Dillon, Vennard & Charnley, 2002). At present, research on the  
70 intestinal microbial community of insects mainly focuses on certain economic insects, including silkworm,  
71 *Ceroplastes japonica*, and others, to improve the intestinal environment to reduce silkworm diseases or to  
72 increase the wax secretion of *Ceroplastes japonica* (Yi et al., 2001; Bei et al., 2005). In addition, other insects,  
73 such as ants and longicorn beetles, have been studied for their role in decomposing lignocellulose (Zhang et al.,  
74 2005).

75 There are few studies on the composition of the grasshopper intestinal microflora structure, community  
76 diversity and functional bacteria. In addition, current research is based on traditional culture methods or  
77 traditional molecular biology techniques, and grasshopper intestinal microorganisms have not yet been

78 thoroughly investigated. In this study, the intestinal bacterial community structures of three species  
79 grasshoppers were studied by constructing a 16S rDNA library technology, and the abundance and  
80 phylogenesis of these bacteria were analyzed to obtain better information on grasshopper intestinal microbial  
81 diversity, providing a theoretical basis for clarifying the mechanism of cellulose degradation in grasshopper,  
82 and further study the relationship between intestinal microorganisms and pest control. At the same time, the  
83 digestibility of cellulose and hemicellulose in the grasshoppers were determined by using moss black phenol  
84 colorimetry and anthrone colorimetry, providing basic data for the development of a cellulose and  
85 hemicellulose digestion bioreactor, as well as a feasible method for determining insects' cellulose and  
86 hemicellulose digestibility.

87

## 88 **Materials and methods**

### 89 **Specimen collection**

90 Adults of *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus* Bey-bienko, 1941, *Aiolopus tamulus* Fabricius, 1789 and *Shirakiacris*  
91 *shirakii* Bolívar, 1914, were collected from Baoding City, Hebei Province, China in July to November 2018  
92 (Table 1).

### 93 **Intestinal microbial diversity of grasshoppers**

94 Total DNA of the intestinal contents of the 3 species grasshoppers was extracted, with each species having 3  
95 groups of samples, totaling 9 sample groups. The sample numbers are shown in Table 1. Total DNA of the 9  
96 sample groups was used as templates, and PCR was carried out with universal primers targeting the 16S rDNA  
97 V3+V4 region of prokaryotes. After the PCR products passed quality tests, they were detected by an Illumina  
98 HiSeq 2500 sequencer (at Biomarker Technologies Corporation), and the data were processed and analyzed by  
99 Uparse and QIIME software (Caporaso et al., 2010).

### 100 **Sample treatment**

101 The collected and classified living grasshoppers were placed in cages without access to food for 2 days to  
102 remove their intestinal contents. The grasshoppers to be tested were washed repeatedly with sterile water,  
103 placed in a 75% alcohol solution for 2 min, washed with sterile water, irradiated with ultraviolet light for 3-5  
104 minutes, and dissected grasshoppers under sterile conditions. The entire intestinal tract was removed, and the  
105 midgut and hindgut parts were separated; placed in labeled, sterilized 1.5 mL centrifuge tubes; and kept at -  
106 80°C for later use.

### 107 **Extraction of total DNA from the intestinal contents**

108 Total DNA of the intestinal contents of grasshoppers was extracted using the PowerSoil DNA Isolation Kit  
109 according to the manufacturer's protocol, and the quality and quantity of DNA were evaluated by the 260  
110 nm/280 nm and 260 nm/230 nm ratios, respectively. DNA was then stored at -80°C until further processing.

111 For each individual sample, the 16s rDNA V 3 + V 4 region was amplified using the 338 F (5'-  
112 ACTCTACGGAGAGCA-3') and 806 R (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAT-3') primers (Mori et al., 2014).  
113 PCR was performed in a total reaction volume of 20 µL: H<sub>2</sub>O, 13.25 µL; 10×PCR ExTaq Buffer, 2.0 µL; DNA  
114 template (100 ng/mL), 0.5 µL; primer1 (10 mmol/L), 1.0 µL; primer2 (10 mmol/L), 1.0 µL; dNTP, 2.0 µL;  
115 and ExTaq (5U/mL), 0.25 µL. After an initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, amplification was performed  
116 with 30 cycles of incubations for 30 sec at 95°C, 20 sec at 58°C, and 6 sec at 72°C, followed by a final

117 extension at 72°C for 7 min. The amplified products were then purified and recovered using 1.0% agarose gel  
118 electrophoresis. Finally, all the PCR products were quantified by Quant-iT™ dsDNA HS Reagent and pooled  
119 together. High-throughput sequencing analysis of bacterial rRNA genes was performed on the purified, pooled  
120 samples using the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform (2×250pairedends) at Biomarker Technologies Corporation,  
121 Beijing, China. Finally, library construction and sequencing were performed by Beijing Biomarker  
122 Technologies Co. Ltd.

### 123 **Bioinformatics analysis**

124 Bioinformatics analysis in this study was completed on the Biomarker Cloud Platform ([www.biocloud.org](http://www.biocloud.org)).  
125 The original data obtained by sequencing were spliced by FLASH software. Then, raw tags were filtered and  
126 clustered. Sequences were removed from inclusion according to the following criteria: the average mass of  
127 bases was less than 20; the reads were low quality; the sequences contained primer mismatches; the sequences  
128 were less than 350 bp in length; and the sequences could not be spliced. UCHIME, a tool included in mothur  
129 (<http://drive5.com/uchime>), was used to remove chimeras and generate valid data. OTUs were taxonomically  
130 annotated based on the Silva (bacteria) and UNITE (fungi) taxonomic databases. The denoised sequences were  
131 clustered using USEARCH (version10.0), and tags with similarity  $\geq 97\%$  were regarded as OTUs. Taxonomy  
132 was assigned to all OTUs by searching against the Silvadatabases (<http://www.arb-silva.de>) using uclust  
133 within QIIME (Edgar, 2010).

### 134 **Digestibility of wheat seedlings in grasshoppers**

#### 135 **Collection and treatment of samples**

136 Grasshoppers collected in the field were separately packed in insect rearing cages, and each cage contained  
137 10 individuals that were fed wheat seedlings (The wheat variety was *Triticum aestivum* Linnaeus, 1753). After  
138 consecutively feeding for 3 days (no dung was collected during the period, and the wheat seedlings provided  
139 sufficient nutrition), grasshoppers were fasted for 2 days. A layer of white plastic foam was spread on the  
140 bottom of the cages to facilitate the collection of excrement (Wang et al., 2008). During the experiment, the  
141 fresh weight of wheat seedlings fed each time was recorded, and the feces and residual wheat seedlings were  
142 dried to a constant weight at 70°C and recorded (using an electrothermal constant temperature blast drying  
143 oven, Shanghai Flyover Experimental Instrument Co., Ltd. DGG-9030A). The dry-fresh ratio of wheat  
144 seedlings was determined to calculate the dry weight of the wheat seedlings before the experiment (Wang,  
145 1997). The collected feces were dried to a constant weight, pulverized, and filtered with a 40 mesh sieve.

146 The wheat seedlings were rapidly dehydrated by steam de-enzyming (Sun, 2014), dried at 70°C until a  
147 constant weight, crushed, and filtered with a 40 mesh sieve for later use.

#### 148 **Determination of cellulose and hemicellulose content**

149 Samples were prepared by weighing out 0.800 g of each sample, to which 8 mL 72% H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> was added,  
150 followed by shaking. Samples were placed in a water bath at 30°C for 1 h, followed by the addition of 8 mL  
151 4% H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and were then returned to the water bath for 45 min. Finally, 224 mL of distilled water was added,  
152 and the samples shaken well before being placed into conical flasks in an electric heating pressure steam  
153 sterilization pot (LS-30 type of Shanghai Bosun Industrial Co., Ltd.). Samples were then heated to a  
154 temperature of 121°C for 1 h and filtered to obtain sample solutions.

155 One milliliter of this sample solution was diluted appropriately, and 1 mL of the diluted sample solution was

156 added to 1 mL of anthrone reagent and 3 mL of 80% sulfuric acid, mixed well, and boiled at 100°C for 5 min.  
 157 After cooling to room temperature, absorbance at 620 nm was measured, with the sugar concentration  
 158 calculated according to the glucose standard regression equation and then multiplied by 0.9 (Zhang et al.,  
 159 2010).

160 One milliliter of the sample solution was diluted appropriately, and 1 mL of the diluted sample solution was  
 161 add to 2 mL of A reagent and 0.134 mL of B reagent and boiled at 100°C for 20 min after fully mixing.  
 162 Absorbance at 660 nm was measured after cooling to room temperature, with the sugar concentration  
 163 calculated according to the xylose standard regression equation and then multiplied by 0.88 (Zhang et al.,  
 164 2010).

### 165 **Calculation of the decomposition rates of cellulose and hemicellulose**

166 The decomposition rates of cellulose and hemicellulose were calculated after the cellulose and hemicellulose  
 167 contents of the adult grasshopper feces were determined by the above methods. Statistical analysis of  
 168 digestibility data was done in SPSS 21.0 software using T-test.

169

$$170 \quad \text{cellulose(hemicellulose)} = \frac{c * 240 * 10^{-3} * 0.9(0.88)}{m} * \text{dilution mutiple} * 100\%$$

$$171 \quad \text{cellulose digestibility} = \frac{\text{amount of cellulose fed on wheat seedlings} - \text{fecal cellulose content}}{\text{amount of cellulose fed on wheat seedlings}} * 100\%$$

172

173 Note: *c* is the sugar concentration (g/L) calculated according to the standard curve, *m* is the weighed sample  
 174 mass (g).

### 175 **Correlation between digestibility and microorganism abundance**

176 The LefSe analysis and Spearman analysis were performed using R and the Psych, Pheatmap and reshape2  
 177 package (Kostic et al., 2015) on the Biomarker Cloud Platform. The correlation between cellulose digestibility  
 178 and intestinal microbial diversity of grasshoppers was established.

179

## 180 **Results**

### 181 **Intestinal microbes in grasshoppers**

#### 182 **Evaluation of sequencing quality**

183 A total of 702,445 paired-end reads were obtained by sequencing the 9 pooled samples. and 512,109 clean  
 184 tags were generated after splicing and filtering the paired-end reads. A minimum of 51,643 clean tags were  
 185 generated for each sample, with an average of 56,901 clean tags. The proportion of effective sequences was  
 186 99.48%. The sequencing accuracy of the samples was high and met the standard requirements. Effective tags  
 187 were the number of effective sequences after filtering chimeras from the clean tags. The number of sequences  
 188 and the proportion for each sample are shown in Table 2 below.

#### 189 **OTU-Venn analysis**

190 To identify the number of common and unique OTUs among samples, a Venn diagram was used, which  
 191 intuitively reflects the coincidence of OTUs among samples. As shown in Figure 1 (A), there were 37 species  
 192 of bacteria in the intestinal tract common to the three species of grasshoppers. There were 6 species specific to

193 *Shirakiacris shirakii*, 11 species specific to *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus*, and 13 species specific to *Aiolopus*  
194 *tamulus*. Further analysis of the identifies of the bacteria common to the three grasshopper species indicated  
195 that they were mainly composed of two families of Enterobacteriaceae and Enterococcaceae, as shown in  
196 Figure 1(B), with a relative abundance of 97.57%, indicating that these two families may form the core  
197 microflora in the grasshopper intestinal tract.

#### 198 $\alpha$ -diversity analysis

199 As shown in Figure 2(A), the rarefaction curves of 9 samples tended to be flat over an increasing number of  
200 sequences. The Shannon, Simpson, Chao1, and ACE indices, as well as others, were used to express the  $\alpha$ -  
201 diversity of the microorganisms in the samples. As shown in Table 3, the coverage of the nine samples was  
202 relatively high, reaching 99.97%~99.99%. The above results show that the sequencing data were reasonable  
203 and that the vast majority of bacteria in the samples were detected. Different from the rarefaction curve, the  
204 species accumulation curve reflects whether the number of samples was sufficient and whether the information  
205 covered all the annotated species. As shown in Figure 2(B), as the sample number increased, the cumulative  
206 curve and the common quantity curve tended to be flat, which demonstrates that the new and common species  
207 detected in the sample were both approaching saturation, indicating that the sample size was sufficient and  
208 could be used for diversity and abundance analysis.

209 The  $\alpha$ -diversity of 9 samples varied according to the individual. In the three samples of *Aiolopus tamulus*,  
210 the Shannon index of At1 and At2 was much higher than that of At3, while the Simpson index of At3 was the  
211 opposite, indicating that the species diversity in samples At1 and At2 was higher than that in At3. Among the  
212 three samples of *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus*, the Shannon index of Od3 was much higher than that of Od1 and  
213 Od2, while the Simpson index of Od3 was much lower than that of the other two samples. For the three  
214 samples of *Shirakiacris shirakii*, the Shannon index and Simpson index were not significantly different, which  
215 may be related to the difference in the collection time (Table 1).

216 The average value of each index of three samples from the same species was calculated and then used to  
217 compare and analyze the  $\alpha$ -diversity among the different species. The Chao1 index (Figure 2C) of *Shirakiacris*  
218 *shirakii* was significantly higher than that of *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus*, and the ACE index (Figure 2D) was  
219 the highest in *Shirakiacris shirakii*, followed by *Aiolopus tamulus*, which demonstrates that among the three  
220 species grasshoppers, the abundance of species in the intestinal tract of *Shirakiacris shiraki* was significantly  
221 higher than that of *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus*, with *Aiolopus tamulus* in the middle. The Simpson index  
222 (Figure 2E) of *Aiolopus tamulus* was the smallest, while the index of *Shirakiacris shiraki* was the largest. The  
223 Shannon index (Figure 2F) followed the opposite trend to the Simpson index, which indicated that the species  
224 diversity in the intestinal tract of *Aiolopus tamulus* was the highest, followed by the *Oedaleus decorus*  
225 *asiaticus*, with *Shirakiacris shiraki* as the lowest.

#### 226 $\beta$ -Diversity analysis

227 Based on pyrosequencing data, PCoA and UPGMA clustering were carried out to determine  $\beta$ -diversity. As  
228 shown in Supplementary figure 1, the smaller the distance between points in the figure, the smaller the  
229 difference in the intestinal flora structure, and vice versa. It can be seen from the figure that the difference in  
230 the intestinal microflora structure between the three samples of *Shirakiacris shiraki* and two of the samples of  
231 *Aiolopus tamulus* was relatively small, while difference in the intestinal microflora structure between one

232 sample and the remaining two samples for both *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus* and *Aiolopus tamulus* was  
233 relatively large. The difference in the intestinal microflora structure among the three samples of *Shirakiacris*  
234 *shiraki* was not large. In addition, the hierarchical cluster tree (Figure 3A) shows that the microbial  
235 communities of the three species grasshoppers are divided into three groups: (1) group I includes samples A1  
236 and A2 and sample O3, (2) group II includes samples O1 and O2 and sample A3, and (3) group III includes all  
237 the samples of *Shirakiacris shiraki*. In addition, the distance between group II and group III was closer, that  
238 is, the composition of the intestinal microflora is more similar between those two groups. Taken together, these  
239 results show that the intestinal microflora of different species of grasshoppers vary from one another. The  
240 intestinal microflora of *Aiolopus tamulus* and *Shirakiacris shiraki* are more similar. At the same time, different  
241 sampling times will also lead to the recombination of microbial communities.

242 NMDS (Nonmetric Multidimensional Scaling) analysis can reflect the differences between groups or within  
243 groups according to the distribution of samples. As shown in Figure 3B, the stress value is less than 0.01,  
244 which indicates that the analysis result is extremely reliable. In the figure, it can be seen that there is a large  
245 difference in the intestinal community between one sample the remaining two samples for both *Oedaleus*  
246 *decorus asiaticus* and *Aiolopus tamulus*, which is related to the different collection times of the samples,  
247 indicating that a difference in collection time leads to changes in the microbial community structure of the  
248 same species. The three samples of *Shirakiacris shiraki* along with two samples of *Aiolopus tamulus* are  
249 almost coincident, which indicates that the similarity of the intestinal microflora structure between the two  
250 groups was relatively high.

251 As shown in Figure 3C, Ss1, Ss2 and Ss3 were grouped together; At1 and At2 were grouped together; and  
252 all (Ss1, Ss2, Ss3 and At2) were grouped with Od3. Od1 and Od2 were grouped with At3. The samples At1  
253 and At2 of *Aiolopus tamulus* were relatively close to the three samples of *Shirakiacris shiraki*, which indicates  
254 that the intestinal community similarity between *Aiolopus tamulus* and *Shirakiacris shiraki* is high, that the  
255 difference of the microflora structure between them is relatively small, and that different collection times for  
256 the same species can lead to low similarity and large differences in the grasshopper intestinal microflora  
257 structure, which is consistent with the above results, indicating that a difference in collection time causes  
258 changes in the microbial community structure.

### 259 **Intestinal microflora structure of the three species grasshoppers**

260 High-quality sequences obtained from 16S rDNA identification were compared with the database, and a  
261 total of 54 genera of 7 phyla, 12 classes, and 20 orders were identified. The composition of each sample is  
262 shown in Table 2. Once the average relative abundance of different grasshoppers in the same treatment at each  
263 classification level is calculated, the average relative abundance can reflect the content of various intestinal  
264 microorganisms at the overall level.

### 265 **Intestinal microflora structure at the phylum level**

266 The nine samples At1, At2, At3, Od1, Od1, Od2, Od3, Ss1, Ss2, and Ss3 contained 85.65%, 83.51%,  
267 93.45%, 89.51%, 91.43%, 87.32%, 86.92%, 87.33%, and 87.35%, respectively, of the valid sequences that  
268 were able to be annotated at the phylum level. Seven phyla were detected in the nine samples. According to the  
269 annotation results of the samples at various classification levels (kingdom, phyla, class, order, family, genus  
270 and species), as shown in Figure 4A, Proteobacteria accounted for the highest relative abundance in the three

271 species of grasshoppers, *Aiolopus tamulus*, *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus*, and *Shirakiacris shiraki*, at 94.10%,  
272 90.72% and 93.94%, respectively. The second highest was Firmicutes, accounting for 5.72%, 8.94% and  
273 5.31%, respectively. Actinobacteria accounted for a relatively high proportion of 0.52% in the intestinal tract of  
274 *Shirakiacris shiraki*, although less than 0.10% in the intestinal tracts of the other two species. Cyanobacteria  
275 was relatively abundant in the intestinal tract of *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus*, at 0.26%, while its abundance in  
276 the other two species was very small, accounting for 0.01%. Fusobacteria existed in the intestinal tracts of the  
277 three species grasshoppers in trace amounts, accounting for less than 0.10%. Bacteroidetes was found in trace  
278 amounts in *Aiolopus tamulus* and *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus* but was not detected in the intestinal tract of  
279 *Shirakiacris shiraki*. Tenericutes was only found in trace amount in the intestinal tract of *Oedaleus decorus*  
280 *asiaticus*, at 0.04%, but was not found in the intestinal tracts of the other two grasshoppers. Additionally,  
281 0.20% unassigned microorganisms were present in the intestinal tract of *Shirakiacris shiraki* that have not  
282 previously been studied.

283 It is worth noting that the proportion of Firmicutes in At3 intestinal bacteria was 0.24%, which was much  
284 lower than that in At1 (11.01%) and At2 (5.91%) treated with the same method. However, the proportion in  
285 sample Od3 (26.74%) was much higher than that in sample Od1 (0.03%) and sample Od2 (0.06%), while the  
286 proportion in the three samples Ss1 (3.72%), Ss2 (1.83%) and Ss3 (10.36%) of *Shirakiacris shiraki* was  
287 relatively constant, which could be related to their different collection times, indicating that the abundance of  
288 intestinal flora varied over different periods in the same species. Combined with  $\alpha$ -diversity analysis, these  
289 results show that the diversity and abundance of intestinal microflora varied over different periods in the same  
290 species.

#### 291 **Intestinal microflora structure at genus level**

292 At1, At2, At3, Od1, Od2, Od3, Ss1, Ss2 and Ss3 contained 54.57%, 68.35%, 93.40%, 89.35%, 90.93%,  
293 87.31%, 86.08%, 85.45% and 87.30%, respectively, of the valid sequences that could be annotated at the genus  
294 level. A total of 54 bacterial genera were detected, of which 24 bacterial genera were common among the three  
295 species. As seen in Figure 4B, *Klebsiella* accounted for the highest proportion of the microbial community in  
296 the three grasshopper species. The top 10 abundant bacterial genera (by average relative abundance) for each  
297 of the three species of grasshoppers after data standardization are shown in Supplementary Tables 1, 2, and 3.  
298 In the three samples of *Aiolopus tamulus*, the average relative abundance of *Klebsiella*, *Enterococcus* and  
299 *Enterobacter* was greater than 1%, which identifies them as the primary bacteria in the *Aiolopus tamulus*  
300 intestinal tract. The primary bacteria of *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus* were *Klebsiella*, *Enterococcus*, *Pantoea*,  
301 *Wolbachia*, *Enterobacter*, and *Lactococcus*. *Klebsiella*, *Lactococcus*, and *Staphylococcus* were the primary  
302 genera of *Shirakiacris shiraki*. Five bacterial genera were detected only in the intestinal tract of *Aiolopus*  
303 *tamulus*, namely, *Anaerotruncus*, *Diaphorobacter*, *Morganella*, *Proteiniclasticum*, and  
304 *Rikenellaceae\_RC9\_gut\_group*. The proportion of these five bacterial genera in the intestinal tract was not  
305 more than 0.1%. Among them, *Morganella* was not detected in the At3 samples, but was detected in the At1  
306 and At2 samples, and the remaining 4 genera were detected only in the At3 samples but not in the At1 and At2  
307 samples, indicating that there were significant differences in the intestinal microflora diversity of the same  
308 species from different time periods. The genera *Sphaerotilus* and *Spiroplasma* were only detected in the

309 intestinal tract of *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus*, and *Cronobacter* was only detected in *Shirakiacris shiraki*.  
310 Therefore, the diversity of the intestinal microorganisms varied by grasshopper species.

### 311 **Digestibility results**

312 From Table 4, the cellulose digestibility of the three species of grasshoppers were 43.95%, 38.01% and  
313 44.12%, and there was no significant difference ( $P>0.05$ ) among the three groups. However, the hemicellulose  
314 digestibility in *Shirakiacris shirakii* at 47.65% was significantly higher ( $P<0.05$ ) than that in *Aiolopus tamulus*  
315 (17.21%) and *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus* (24.99%). In addition, the cellulose digestibility in *Aiolopus tamulus*  
316 and *Oedaleus decorus* was significantly higher than that of hemicellulose, and there was no significant  
317 difference between the cellulose and hemicellulose digestibility in *Shirakiacris shirakii*.

### 318 **Correlation between digestibility and microorganism abundance**

319 In view of the fact that *Shirakiacris shirakii* can be distinguished from the other two species and that the  
320 digestibility of hemicellulose is significantly higher in that organism than in the other two species ( $P<0.05$ ), we  
321 conducted LEfSe analysis (Figure 5, Supplementary figure 2) on the three species and identified *Pseudomonas*,  
322 *Stenotrophomonas*, *Glutamicibacter*, *Corynebacterium*, *Brachybacterium* and other bacteria genera as  
323 biomarkers of group difference. The relative abundance of these identified species in *Shirakiacris shirakii* is  
324 significantly higher than that in the other species, which may be related to the degradation of hemicellulose. To  
325 further screen out bacteria related to the degradation rate of cellulose and hemicellulose, we calculated the  
326 Spearman correlation coefficients (Figure 6) for the association between the degradation rate and microflora  
327 abundance and identified a number of bacteria whose abundance had a high correlation with the degradation  
328 rates of cellulose and hemicellulose. Some of the results highly overlap with the LEfSe analysis, suggesting  
329 that these bacteria can be used as candidate bacteria for cellulose and hemicellulose degradation.

330

### 331 **Discussion**

332 In this experiment, we constructed a 16S rRNA gene library via Illumina MiSeq sequencing and applied it to  
333 systematically study the intestinal microflora composition of three grasshopper species for the first time.  
334 Among the different grasshopper species, the abundance and diversity of intestinal microorganisms were  
335 varied. Through the analysis of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  diversity, it was found that the diversity of the intestinal microflora in  
336 the same species was quite varied depending on the collection time. The grasshoppers in this study were  
337 collected from summer and autumn populations from the same location, which meant that there were changes  
338 in the host insect habitat. Previous studies have shown that the environmental conditions of the habitat of the  
339 host insect can affect the interaction between insects and their symbiotic microorganisms, as well as the  
340 species and distribution of symbiotic microorganisms (Schmid et al., 2015), indicating that the diversity and  
341 function of microorganisms in the intestinal tract of insects are closely related to the habitat conditions in  
342 which the insects live. However, there are few reports on whether changes in the environment of host insects  
343 affects the species and community composition of intestinal microorganisms and the specific extent of that  
344 impact, which is a problem worthy of further study.

345 There were differences in the primary intestinal bacteria among the different species of grasshopper, but the  
346 abundance of Proteobacteria was the highest in the intestinal bacteria of all three species of grasshopper,  
347 followed by Firmicutes. Bacteria of those two phyla accounted for more than 98% of the total intestinal

348 bacteria of the three grasshopper species, which was consistent with previous reports on the primary species of  
349 insect microbiomes. Previous studies have shown that Proteobacteria are the primary bacteria in the intestinal  
350 tract of many insects: *Schistocerca gregaria* in Orthoptera (Dillon et al., 2010),  
351 *Acyrtosiphon pisum* in Hemiptera, and *Ectropis obliqua* (Engel & Moran, 2013) and *Spodoptera frugiperda*  
352 (Gichuhi et al., 2020) in Lepidoptera. Among the Lepidoptera insects studied, the primary bacteria in the  
353 intestinal tract of *Lymantria dispar*, *Helicoverpa armigera*, *Bombyx mori* and *Plutella xylostella* larvae are  
354 Proteobacteria and Firmicutes (Zhou et al., 2015; Priya et al., 2012; Broderick et al., 2004).  
355 There was variation in the primary genera in the intestinal tract of the grasshopper species. These primary  
356 genera and other less abundant genera all play important roles in the life activities of host insects. The content  
357 of *Klebsiella* in the intestinal tract of the three species grasshoppers in this study was very high, which was  
358 similar to the results of Liu (2012) on symbiotic bacteria in the intestinal tract of *Locusta migratoria*  
359 *manilensis* using DGGE (Liu, 2012). The second most abundant bacteria in our study was *Enterococcus*. This  
360 result is consistent with the previous results where bacteria were found to be the most abundant in the  
361 microflora of *Schistocerca gregaria*. (Lavy et al., 2019). In addition, previous studies have shown that  
362 *Enterococcus* can not only help degrade lignocellulose but can also produce biogenic amines, which have  
363 important physiological functions, such as promoting host growth and enhancing metabolism (Shu, Lu & Xu,  
364 2011; Shil et al., 2014). *Enterococcus* may encode 1,4- $\beta$ -cellobiosidase, endoglucanase and  $\beta$ -glucosidase,  
365 which are involved in cellulose degradation, and 1,4- $\beta$ -xylosidase, which is involved in xylan degradation (Xia  
366 et al., 2013; Potrikus & Breznak, 1977; Warnecke et al., 2007); these factors have functions relating to food  
367 digestion and absorption. However, some other reported cellulose-degrading bacteria, such as *Enterobacter*  
368 and *Pseudomonas* (Bayer, Shoham & Lamed, 2006; Muhammad et al., 2017), have no significant correlation  
369 with cellulose and hemicellulose degradation, and the presence of these bacteria may contribute to eliminating  
370 the differences in cellulose digestibility in this study. *Acinetobacter* participates in host food digestion,  
371 degrades harmful compounds, and plays a role in nitrogen transformation (Briones-Roblero et al., 2016; Liu et  
372 al., 2016; Mason et al., 2016). Existing studies have shown that *Wolbachia* plays an important role in the  
373 reproductive ability of host insects (Hancock et al., 2011), and whether this genus has an effect on the  
374 reproduction of grasshoppers requires further attention.

375 Since the main food source of grasshoppers is cellulose, it is speculated that the intestinal tract of  
376 grasshoppers may contain abundant microorganisms capable of degrading cellulose. Willis et al. (2010)  
377 isolated cellulase from the foregut and hindgut of the Carolina wasp *Dissosteira carolina*, which was highly  
378 similar to the  $\beta$ -1,4-endonuclease of bacteria, fungi and invertebrates, including that secreted by the insects  
379 themselves (Willis et al., 2010). Wang et al. (2010) isolated and screened 5 strains of bacteria with cellulose  
380 degradation function from the intestinal tract of *Yunnanacris yunnaneus*, including 4 strains of *Bacillus* and  
381 one strain of *Pseudomonas*, which had CMC and filter paper enzyme activities of 167  $\mu$ /mL and 9.8  $\mu$ /mL,  
382 respectively (Wang et al., 2010). The above studies show that grasshoppers have the ability to degrade cellulose  
383 efficiently. In this study, the contents of cellulose and hemicellulose in the wheat seedling and feces of three  
384 species of grasshoppers adults were detected by colorimetry, and the decomposition rates of cellulose and  
385 hemicellulose were calculated and analyzed. The cellulose digestibility in *Aiolopus tamulus* and *Oedaleus*  
386 *decorus* was significantly higher than that of hemicellulose. On one hand, this relates result to the structure and

387 composition of cellulose and hemicellulose. Compared with cellulose, hemicellulose has a very complex  
388 structure and composition, including xylose, arabinose, mannose and galactose, etc. In the cell wall,  
389 hemicellulose is distributed among many celluloses, embedded in the surface of cellulose microfibrils and  
390 mixed with cellulose. Therefore, only when cellulose is hydrolyzed can hemicellulose be completely  
391 hydrolyzed (Vargas, Weiss & McClements, 2007). On the other hand, the difference in cellulose and  
392 hemicellulose digestibility relates to the type and quantity of microorganisms in the grasshopper's intestinal  
393 tract. Intestinal microorganisms can secrete a variety of cellulose digestive enzymes. The activities of cellulase  
394 and hemicellulase determine the grasshopper's ability to digest cellulose and hemicellulose.

395 The cellulose digestibility in the three species of grasshoppers was not significantly different, 43.95%,  
396 38.01%, and 44.12%, respectively. In a previous study, Li et al. (2000) found that the digestibility of crude  
397 fiber in different components of corn straw fed to sheep varied from 34.21%-61.21% (Li et al., 2000). Fang et  
398 al. (2009) studied the utilization rate of different straw diets in Xinjiang cattle and found that the digestibility  
399 of acid detergent fiber (ADF) and neutral detergent fiber (NDF) in wheat straw was 35.02% and 43.86%,  
400 respectively, and that the digestibility of ADF and NDF in corn straw was 44.26% and 51.91%, respectively  
401 (Fang et al., 2009). Meanwhile, a study by Zhao (2015) found that the digestibility of cellulose in corn straw  
402 by *Locusta migratoria manilensis* was 15.10% (Zhao, 2015). Our results showed that the cellulose digestibility  
403 in the three species grasshoppers was significantly higher than that of *Locusta migratoria manilensis* and was  
404 close to that of mammals. Whether this difference was related to a difference in the composition of the feeding  
405 material needs to be further studied. However, in terms of cellulose digestibility, the intestinal capacity of  
406 grasshoppers is very small compared with that of mammals, but their cellulose decomposition rate is close to  
407 that of mammals, which indicates that the ability of *Aiolopus tamulus*, *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus* and  
408 *Shirakiacris shirakii* to digest cellulose is indeed strong and that studying the cellulose decomposition rate of  
409 grasshoppers may be of great value to the development of a cellulose decomposition bioreactor.

410 Herbivorous insects usually do not directly digest cellulose, or minimally digest cellulose, but mainly digest  
411 starch, sugar and protein in food (Douglas, 2009). Moreover, the honey bee gut microbiota digests complex  
412 carbohydrates, such as hemicellulose and pectin, thereby acquiring energy (Zheng et al, 2019). These insects are  
413 mainly limited by nitrogen intake rather than carbon source (McNeil & Southwood, 1978). *Klebsiella* plays an  
414 important role in ammonia assimilation into amino acids (Senior, 1975), and its negative correlation with the  
415 digestion rate may be related to this. Similarly, San et al. (2011) also identified some other bacteria related to  
416 nitrogen metabolism, including *Staphylococcus*, *Stenotrophomonas*, etc (San et al., 2011). However, it cannot  
417 be ignored that this study is consistent with previous studies, i.e., grasshoppers have a strong ability to digest  
418 cellulose (Su et al., 2014), how much of which is due to the action of their own digestive enzymes and how  
419 much of which is due to the contribution of microorganisms needs to be further explored.

420 Yet, it remains to be seen whether cellulose/hemicellulose digestion in these grasshoppers is exclusively  
421 intrinsic or mediated by a combination of intrinsic and bacterial-mediated processes. Until now, there has been  
422 no direct evidence that grasshoppers rely entirely on gut microbes to break down cellulose and hemicellulose.  
423 For herbivorous insects, the efficiency of decomposition and utilization of cellulose and hemicellulose are  
424 largely dependent on gut microbes (Jehmlich et al., 2016). *Corynebacterium* and *Glutamicibacter* have been  
425 identified from the intestinal bacteria of *Shirakiacris shirakii*. And *Corynebacterium* has been reported to be

426 able to hydrolyze hemicellulose (Buschke, Schröder & Wittmann, 2011). *Glutamicibacter* isolated from the  
427 intestinal tract of *Proisotoma ananevae* has strong cellulose degradation ability (Wang et al., 2018).  
428 *Clavibacter* produces cellulase (Waleron et al., 2010) and *Brachybacterium* can degrade cellulose (Zhang et al.,  
429 2007), which supports the results of our correlation analysis. Many insects have intrinsic cellulases (Davison &  
430 Blaxter, 2005), and some insects belonging to Acrididae have cellulase that can break down plant cell  
431 walls (Calderon-Cortes et al., 2012). Combined with the results of this article, we can slate a new hypothesis:  
432 the intestinal microorganisms of grasshoppers have a great influence on the decomposition of  
433 cellulose/hemicellulose.

434

## 435 Conclusions

436 This study analyzed the intestinal microbial diversity of 3 species of grasshoppers, using the method of 16S  
437 rDNA gene library construction. Proteobacteria and Firmicutes are the dominant bacteria in the intestinal  
438 microbial communities of the three grasshoppers species. However, the dominant genera of different species  
439 grasshoppers are different. *Shirakiacris shirakii* had the highest bacterial species richness, and *Aiolopus*  
440 *tamulus* had the highest bacterial diversity. The intestinal microflora structure varied between the different  
441 species of grasshoppers, with the intestinal microflora structure of *Aiolopus tamulus* and *Shirakiacris shirakii*  
442 being the most similar. Meanwhile, the time at which grasshopper specimens were collected also led to  
443 changes in the intestinal microflora structure in the same species of grasshoppers.

444 There was no significant difference in cellulose digestibility between the three species of grasshoppers  
445 ( $P > 0.05$ ), while the hemicellulose digestibility of *Shirakiacris shirakii* was significantly higher than *Aiolopus*  
446 *tamulus* and *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus* ( $P < 0.05$ ). In addition, the cellulose digestibility of *Aiolopus tamulus*  
447 and *Oedaleus decorus asiaticus* was significantly higher than the hemicellulose digestibility.

448 LEfSe analysis and Spearman correlation coefficients showed that the hemicellulosic digestibility of  
449 *Shirakiacris shirakii* was significantly higher than that of the other two species of grasshopper, which may be  
450 related to the presence of *Pseudomonas*, *Stenotrophomonas*, *Glutamicibacter*, *Corynebacterium*, and  
451 *Brachybacterium* in *Shirakiacris shirakii* intestinal tract.

452 This study lays a foundation for the utilization of grasshoppers intestinal microorganisms in the future.

453

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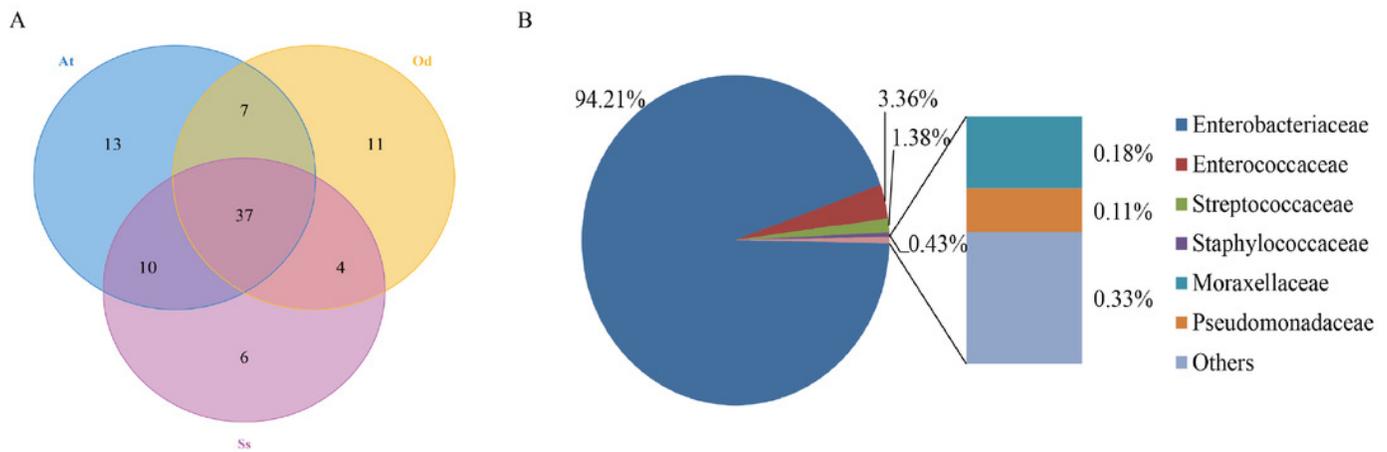
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# Figure 1

The\_results\_of\_OTU-Venn\_analysis

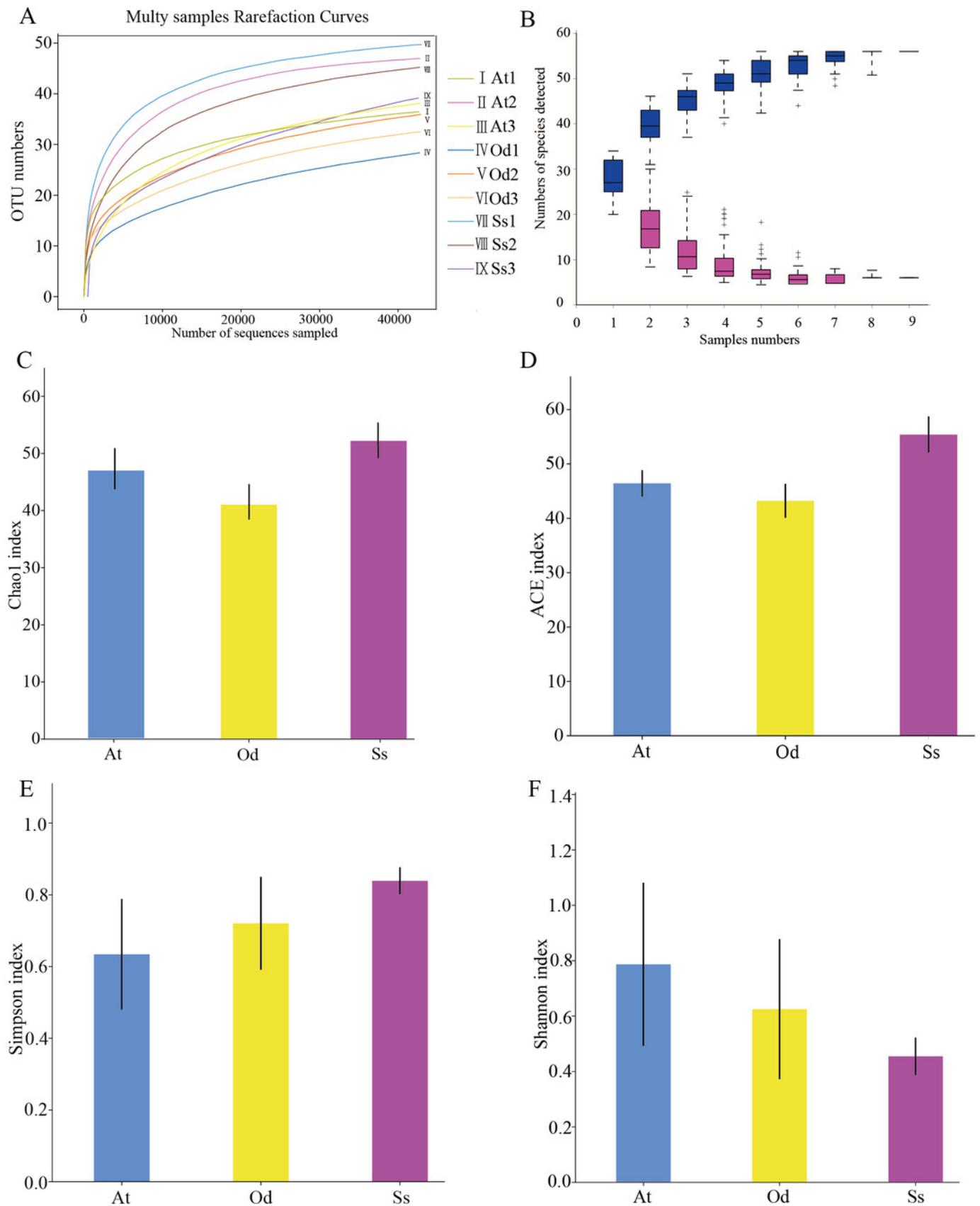
(A) OTU Venn diagram among different species (B) Composition of common OTUs at the family level.



## Figure 2

The results of  $\alpha$ -diversity analysis

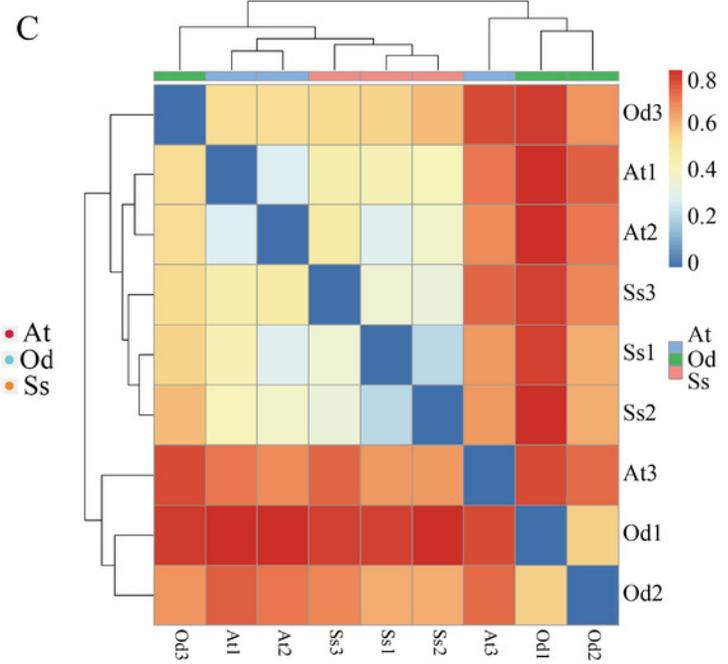
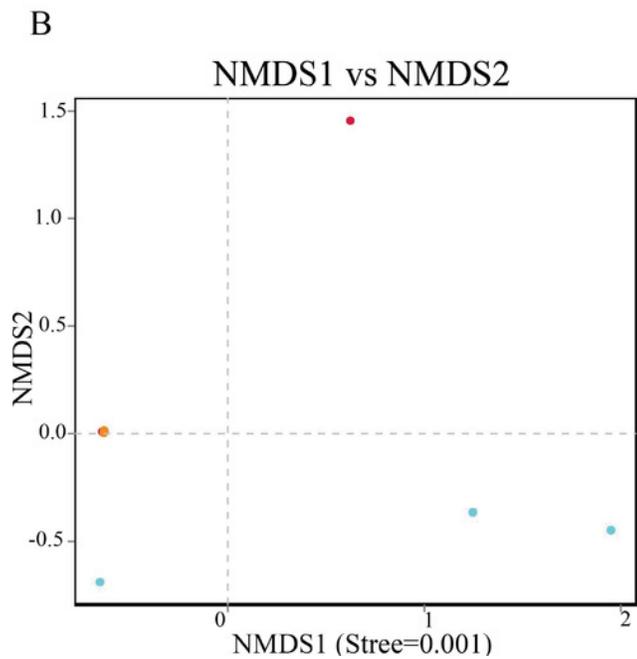
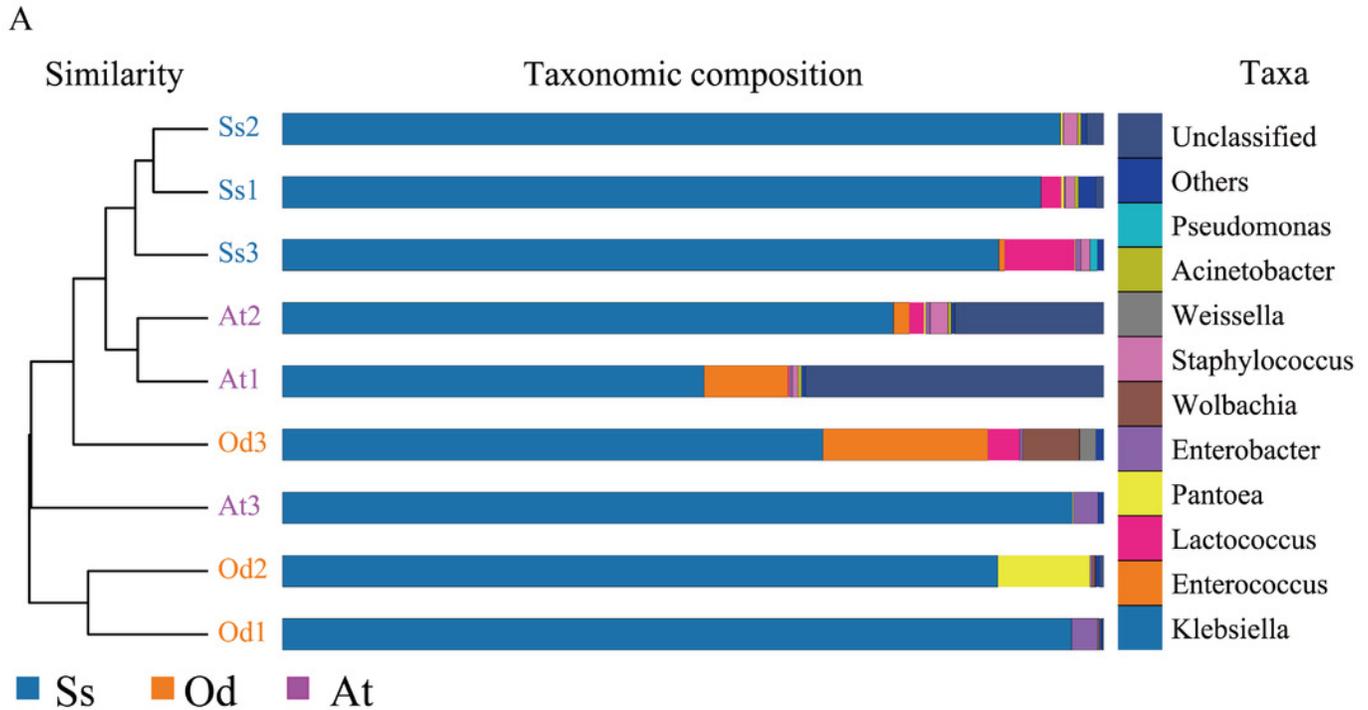
(A) Rarefaction curves of 9 samples of grasshopper intestinal contents. (B) Species discovery curve. (A single blue box in this figure represents the total number of species detected in randomly selected samples. The cumulative curve is composed of the totality of blue boxes, which represents the rate of new species appearing under continuous sampling; a single purple box in this figure represents the number of common species detected in a given number of samples. The set of purple boxes form the common quantity curve, which represents the rate of common species detected under continuous sampling) (C) Chao1 index of the three species grasshoppers (D) ACE index of the three species grasshoppers (E) Simpson index of three species grasshoppers (F) Shannon index of the three species grasshoppers.



## Figure 3

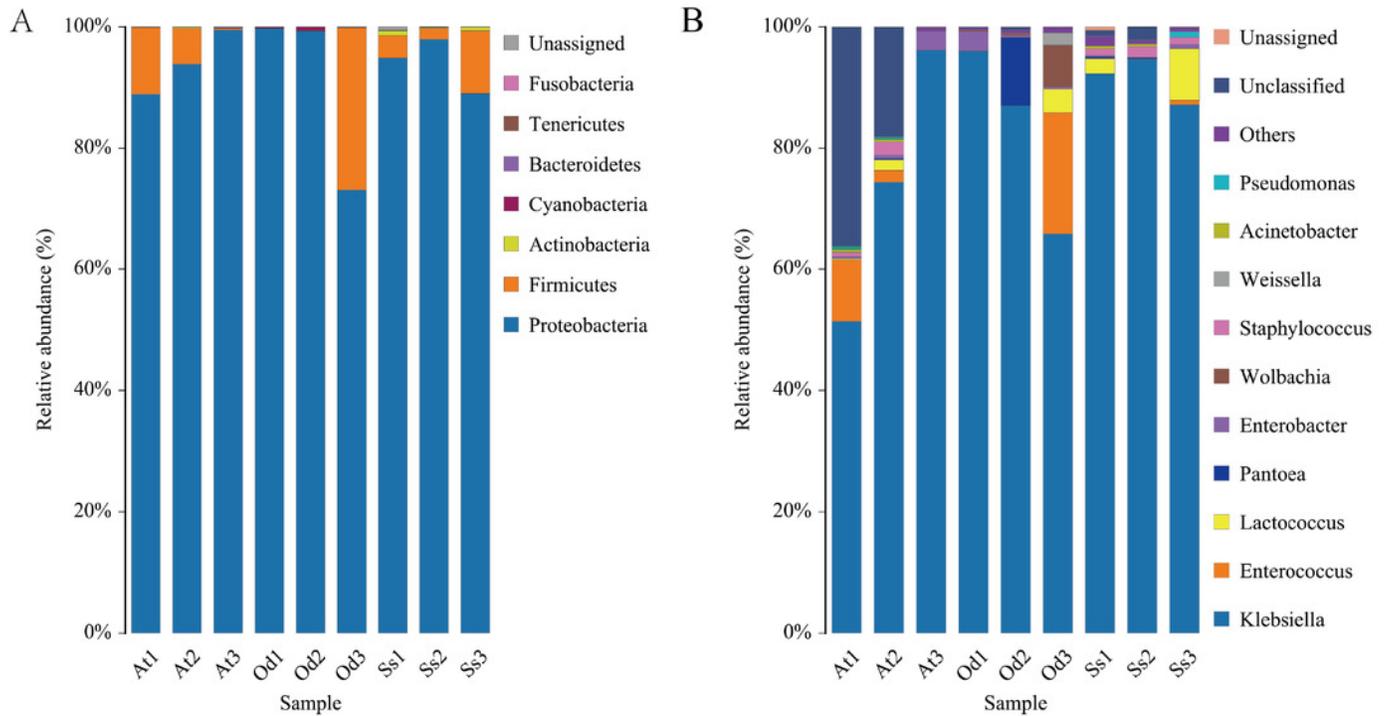
The\_results\_of\_  $\beta$ -diversity\_analysis

(A) UPGMA cluster analysis of the three species grasshoppers (B) NMDS analysis based on the binary-jaccard distance (C) Heatmap of each sample at the OTU classification level (Blue indicate similarity and red indicate distance).



## Figure 4

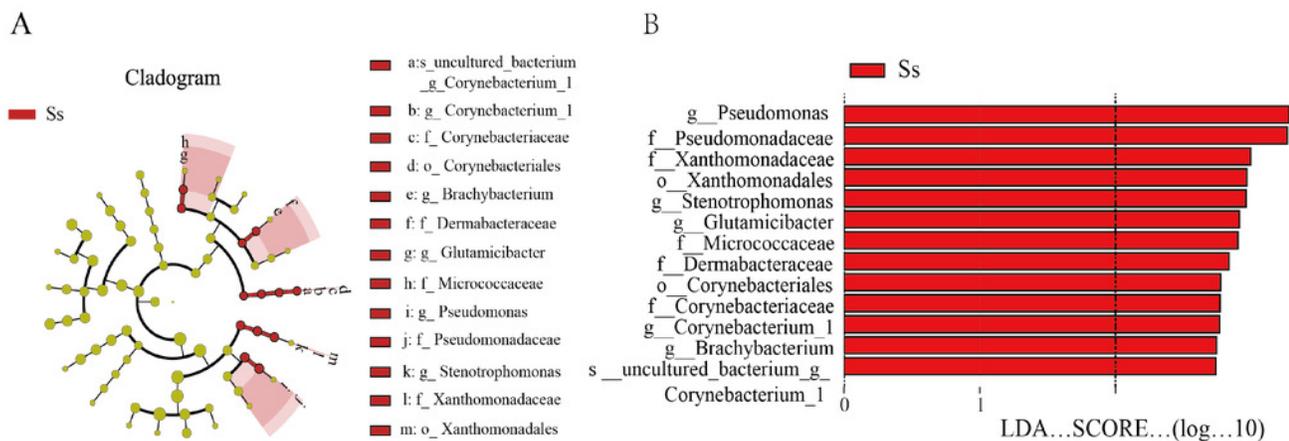
Diversity of the bacterial microbiota in the three species grasshoppers guts at the phylum(A)/genus (B) level



## Figure 5

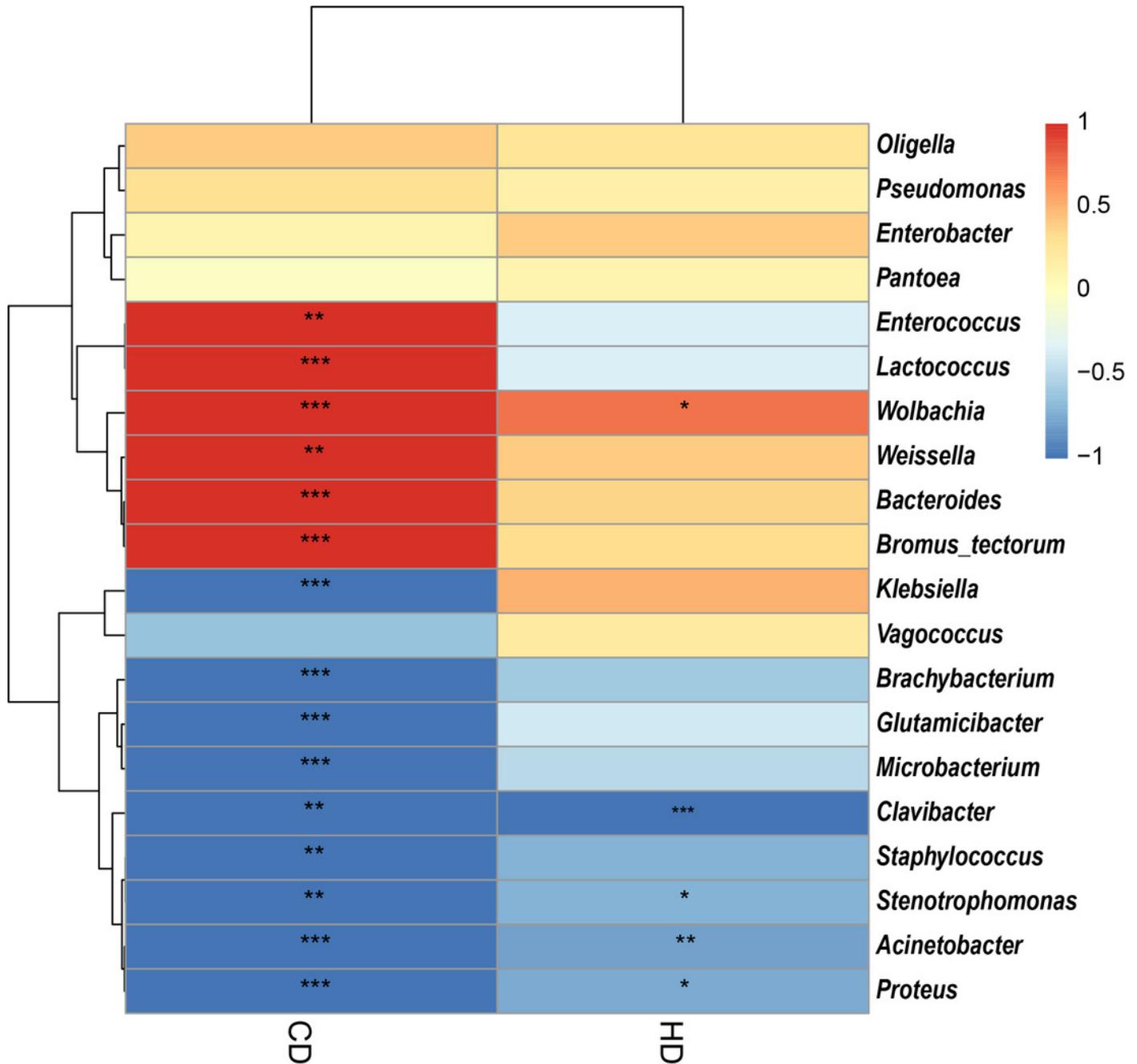
LEfSe analysis identifies biomarkers that cause differences between groups.

(A) Taxonomic cladogram obtained from LEfSe analysis of 16S sequences and the brightness of each dot is proportional to its effect size. (B) Only taxa meeting an LDA significant threshold  $>2$  are shown.



## Figure 6

Heatmap of the correlation between digestibility and bacterial abundance.



**Table 1** (on next page)

Information on the studied samples

1

**Table 1.** Information on the studied samples

Species	Sample code	No. of specimens	Locality	Collection date
<i>Aiolopus tamulus</i>	At1	10	Baoding, China	July 15, 2018
	At2	10	Baoding, China	July 15, 2018
	At3	11	Baoding, China	October 1, 2018
<i>Oedaleus decorus asiaticus</i>	Od1	10	Baoding, China	October 1, 2018
	Od2	10	Baoding, China	October 1, 2018
	Od3	12	Baoding, China	July 15, 2018
<i>Shirakiacris shirakii</i>	Ss1	10	Baoding, China	October 1, 2018
	Ss2	10	Baoding, China	October 1, 2018
	Ss3	10	Baoding, China	October 1, 2018

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**Table 2** (on next page)

Sequence and proportion results of each sample and bacterial identification results

1  
2**Table 2.** Sequence and proportion results of each sample and bacterial identification results

Sample	Clean tags	Effective tags	Proportion	Identification result
At1	53704	53325	99.29%	4 phyla, 7 classes, 11 orders, 18 families, 26 genera
At2	51643	51479	99.68%	5 phyla, 9 classes, 13 orders, 24 families, 31 genera
At3	61063	61018	99.93%	5 phyla, 10 classes, 17orders, 28 families, 28 genera
Od1	61047	61024	99.96%	6 phyla, 9 classes, 12 orders, 18 families, 21 genera
Od2	72346	72296	99.93%	6 phyla, 9 classes, 16 orders, 23 families, 27 genera
Od3	53117	52034	97.96%	5 phyla, 7 classes, 11 orders, 17 families, 22 genera
Ss1	52796	52631	99.68%	5 phyla, 9 classes, 16 orders, 28 families, 32 genera
Ss2	53296	53144	99.71%	5 phyla, 8 classes, 15 orders, 25 families, 31 genera
Ss3	53097	52485	98.85%	5 phyla, 8 classes, 13 orders, 24 families, 30 genera
Total	512109	509436	99.48%	7 phyla, 12 classes, 20 orders, 42 families, 54 genera

3  
4

**Table 3** (on next page)

Statistical results of the diversity index of the intestinal content samples of grasshoppers

1

**Table 3.** Statistical results of the diversity index of the intestinal content samples of grasshoppers

Simple ID	OTU	ACE	Chao1	Simpson	Shannon	Coverage
At1	37	41.5776	40.0000	0.3996	1.1721	0.9999
At2	47	48.7316	48.2000	0.5780	0.9800	0.9999
At3	41	48.9659	52.2500	0.9249	0.2079	0.9998
Od1	31	41.2173	38.2000	0.9211	0.2320	0.9998
Od2	40	49.3557	47.2000	0.7624	0.5464	0.9999
Od3	33	39.0695	37.6667	0.4783	1.0977	0.9998
Ss1	50	51.9067	50.8571	0.8528	0.4748	0.9999
Ss2	46	52.1871	51.6000	0.8964	0.3283	0.9998
Ss3	44	62.0907	54.1111	0.7679	0.5609	0.9997

2

3

**Table 4**(on next page)

Digestibility of cellulose and hemicellulose in wheat seedlings in three species grasshoppers

The data in the table are expressed as the mean standard error, and the data in the same column with different lowercase letters show significant difference ( $P < 0.05$ ).

1 **Table 4.** Digestibility of cellulose and hemicellulose in wheat seedlings in three species grasshoppers

Sample	digestibility rate of cellulose	digestibility rate of hemicellulose
<i>Aiolopus tamulus</i>	43.95±2.02a	17.21±2.98b
<i>Oedaleus decorus asiaticus</i>	38.01±3.96a	24.99±4.80b
<i>Shirakiacris shirakii</i>	44.12±3.60a	47.65±3.37a

2 The data in the table are expressed as the mean standard error, and the data in the same column with different lowercase letters  
3 show significant difference (P<0.05).

4