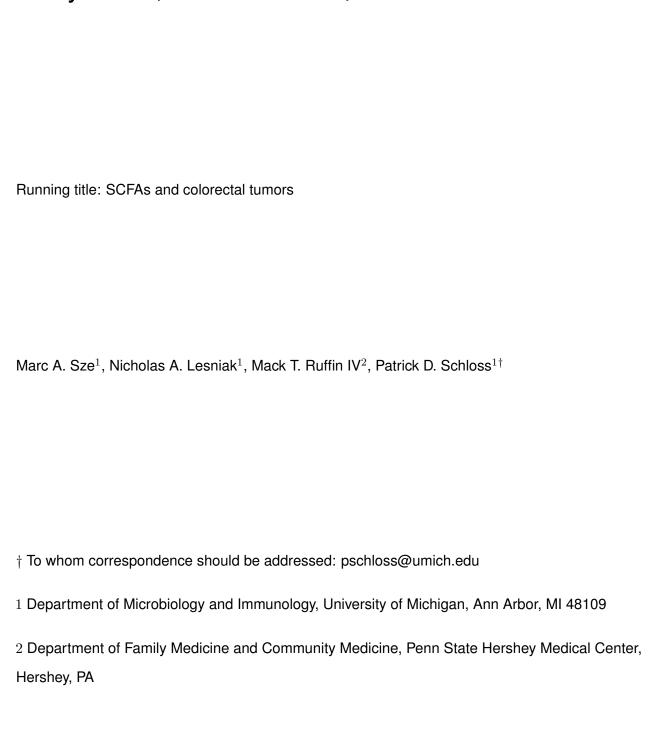
Revisiting the Relationship between Short-Chain Fatty Acids, the Microbiota, and Colorectal Tumors



Abstract

Background. Colorectal cancer (CRC) is increasing in prevalence in individuals under 50 and because of this will be a continuing health concern for the foreseeable future. The majority of the risk for developing CRC is attributable to environmental factors. One of these environmental factors is the microbiota, with certain bacterial community members being associated with CRC and other taxa being associated to individuals without tumors. Some of the bacterial species in taxa associated to individuals without tumors can use fiber to produce short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) that inhibit tumor growth in model systems. However, the data supporting the importance of SCFAs in human CRC is less certain. Here, we test the hypothesis that SCFA concentrations and taxa associated with their production are different in individuals with colorectal tumors.

Methods. We analyzed a cross-sectional (n=490) and longitudinal pre- and post-treatment (n=67) group for their fecal concentrations of acetate, butyrate, and propionate. Analysis also included imputed gene relative abundance with PICRUSt, metagenomic sequencing on a subset (n=85) of the total cross-sectional group, and tumor classification and SCFA prediction models using Random Forest.

Results. No difference in SCFA concentrations were found between individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas (P-value > 0.15). Using metagenomic sequencing, there was also no difference in genes involved with SCFA synthesis between individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas (P-value > 0.70). Finally, there was no difference between the ability of Random Forest models to predict patients with adenomas or carcinomas versus individuals without tumors (P-value > 0.05).

Conclusions. Although our data does not support the hypothesis that fecal SCFA concentrations in patients in the general CRC population are different, there still may be specific types of colorectal tumors where SCFAs may be beneficial for treatment of CRC. Alternatively, our observations also support the hypothesis that there may be other metabolites or mechanisms (e.g. bacterial niche exclusion) that may be more protective against tumorigenesis and have not been thoroughly investigated in the context of human CRC.

8 Introduction

Colorectal cancer (CRC) is currently the third leading cancer-related cause of death within the
US and the prevelance is increasing in invidiauls under 50 years of age (1, 2). Although there is
a genetic component to the disease, the environment is considered a larger risk factor for CRC
(3). These environmental risk factors include but are not limited to smoking cigarettes, diet, and
the microbiota (4–6). Many of these environmental risk factors, including the microbiota, are
modifiable. This has lead to the investigation of how the microbiota may exacerbate or cause
tumorigensis (7–9) and whether the bacterial community is altered in CRC (10, 11). Many of these
previous case/control studies have identified resident bacterial taxa to be decreased in patients
with carcinoma tumors (11–13). Many of the bacterial species from these resident taxa identified in
these case/control studies actively produce short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs) from fiber that are part
of our general diet (14). The most extensively studied SCFAs are acetate, butyrate, and propionate
(15). These SCFAs are hypothesized to be the main metabolites involved with protection against
tumorigenesis and could help to reduce the risk of CRC.

Prior research suggests that SCFAs have promise in acting as an anti-tumorigenic agent. Specific SCFAs have shown positive results within model systems (16). For example, butyrate has been shown to inhibit cancer cell growth in *in vitro* systems (17). Additionally, fiber supplementation in mouse models of CRC caused an overall reduction in tumor burden while also increasing SCFA concentrations (18). These exciting results in model systems suggest that supplementation with food sources that bacteria use to create these SCFAs may confer beneficial effects against CRC. However, it is important to note that these model systems provide only preliminary evidence towards the ability of SCFAs to reduce and treat tumors and the studies reporting benefit in humans has been less convincing.

Overall, there is a lack of evidence on the benefit of increasing SCFA concentrations to protect against CRC in human populations. The initial case/control studies that investigated SCFA concentrations in CRC found that patients with carcinomas had lower concentrations of acetate, butyrate, and propionate versus patients with adenomas or individuals without colon tumors (19). Although this would argue that increasing SCFA concentrations could be protective against tumorigenesis, fiber supplementation in randomized controlled trials have consistently failed to protect against tumor recurrence (20). These findings argue against the utility of treatments that aim to use SCFAs to reduce or protect against tumorigenesis. Given the lack of clear evidence in human studies of the benefit of SCFAs in CRC, there is a need for more investigation into this area.

Our study fills some of the current gaps in the literature that relate to the study of SCFAs and CRC in human populations. Specifically, by using a seperate cohort it tests previous case/control findings 61 on SCFA concentrations in individuals with and without tumors. Additionally, prior investigations grouped patients with adenoma and individuals without tumors into a single group to compare against patients with carcinomas. Despite doing this, the suggestion was made that a reduction in SCFA concentration would also be observed between patients with adenomas and indivdiuals 65 without tumors. We also can test this suggestion because we have a larger number of patients with adenomas within our study and do not need to group patients with adenomas and individuals without tumors into a single group. Additionally, we build upon these observations by assessing 68 the utility of using SCFAs and Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) as a risk stratification tool 69 of colorectal tumors (adenoma or carcinoma). We also investigate whether OTUs that are most important to these models are closely associated with the classification of SCFA concentrations. 71 Collectively, this study provides important information on the replicability of previous findings in humans by extensively studying how SCFAs are associated with colorectal tumors.

To accomplish this task we directly measured the concentration of acetate, butyrate, and propionate within fecal samples for two different groups. The first group had a sample obtained at a single cross sectional point in time while the second group had samples obtained before (pre-) and after (post-)treatment for colorectal tumors. To provide further support for our SCFA findings we also used PICRUSt (21) and metagenomic sequencing to investigate differences in genes involved with SCFA synthesis between individuals without tumors, patients with adenomas, and patients with carcinomas. Next, we investigated whether taxa associated with SCFA production were important to disease classification models. First, using the cross-sectional data, we analyzed the number of correlations between OTU relative abundance and SCFA concentrations across individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas. Second, we assessed the affect adding SCFA concentrations to OTU data had on classification of patients with adenomas or carcinomas using the

Random Forest algorithm (22). Third, we analyzed how well 16S rRNA gene sequencing predicts
SCFA concentrations. Finally, we compared whether SCFA concentrations replace important taxa
in disease models and whether the same OTUs are the most important variables used to classify
disease and SCFA concentration. Collectively, this investigation provides additional information
as to whether SCFAs are decreased in patients with colorectal tumors and provides context as to
whether targeting taxa to increase SCFA concentrations is a viable option to protect against colon
tumorigenesis.

2 Results

93 Decreased SCFA concentrations are not associated with adenoma or carcinoma tumors.

We used high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) to measure acetate, butyrate, and 94 propionate concentrations of frozen fecal samples from 490 individuals at a cross-sectional point in time. There was no difference between individuals without colon tumors (n=172) and patients with 96 either an adenoma (n=198) or carcinoma (n=120) for any of the SCFAs measured after multiple 97 comparison correction (P-value > 0.15) [Figure 1A - 1C]. We next measured the concentration of SCFAs in 67 patients with an adenoma (n=41) or carcinoma (n=26) in which we had pre- and post-treatment fecal samples. Although there was a general trend for increasing acetate, butyrate, 100 and propionate concentrations following treatment for tumors, there was no significant difference 101 between pre- and post-treatment for either patients with adenomas (P-value > 0.20) or carcinomas 102 (P-value > 0.80) [Figure 1D - 1F]. 103

Gene abundance for enzymes involved in SCFA synthesis are the same for individuals 104 without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas. In order to provide further 105 confirmation and support of our SCFA concentration results we investigated the genes encoding 106 specific enzymes involved with SCFA synthesis [Table S1]. Using this list of specific genes [Table 107 S1], we looked for differences in gene abundance between individuals without colon tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas. Although we intended to analyze all the genes in the 109 list [Table S1], not all of the KEGG genes were identified during our analysis. We first analyzed 110 imputed gene relative abundance, calculated from our OTU data that was generated from 16S rRNA gene sequencing. We found no difference in any of the imputed gene relative abundances 112 for enzymes involved with acetate, butyrate, or propionate synthesis (P-value > 0.90) [Table S2]. 113 Since butyrate is one of the most studied SCFAs in the context of CRC, we visualized the observed 114 lack of difference between indviduals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas in gene abundance for enzymes involved with SCFA synthesis using the butyrate kinase gene [Figure 116 2A]. Additionally, using a paired Wilcoxon rank-sum test, there also was no difference in imputed 117 gene relative abundance between pre- and post-treatment samples for any genes involved with SCFA synthesis (P-value > 0.70) [Table S3]. Next, we took a subset of these 490 fecal samples

(n=85) and used metagenomic sequencing to confirm these results. Like the imputed gene results, metagenomic analysis found that there was no difference in any of the genes involved in SCFA synthesis between individuals without colon tumors (n=29) and patients with adenomas (n=28) or carcinomas (n=28) (P-value > 0.70) [Table S4]. This similarity between individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas is highlighted again by visualizing the gene abundance for the butyrate kinase gene [Figure 2B]. These observations provide evidence that gene prevalence for enzymes involved in SCFA synthesis does not change due to colorectal tumors and provides further support for our original SCFA concentration observations.

120

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

The number OTUs positively associated with SCFA concentration were similar between 128 individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas. Having found no 129 difference between individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas in SCFA 130 concentrations or genes encoding enzymes involved with SCFA synthesis, we next investigated 131 if specific OTUs correlated with SCFA concentrations. The main goal of this analysis was to 132 identify if there were OTUs that were significantly associated with SCFA concentrations and 133 if this was different between individuals that did not have tumors, had an adenoma, or had a 134 carcinoma. To accomplish this we used Spearmans rho, a non-parametric measure of association, 135 and tested if there was a correlation that was signficantly greater than zero. We found that taxa 136 from Clostridiales, Lachnospiraceae, and Ruminococcaceae dominated statistically significant OTU correlations [Figure 3 & Table S5]. There was a noticeably higher number of significant negative 138 correlations associated with patients with adenomas for all SCFAs tested [Figure 3]. In particular, 139 OTUs from the Ruminococcaceae family had the largest share of these negative correlations within 140 patients with adenomas [Figure 3]. Patients with adenomas also had more positive correlations 141 between OTUs and SCFA concentrations, but their total number was more similar to individuals 142 without tumors or patients with carcinomas versus the analogous comparison for the number of 143 negative correlations [Figure 3]. Additionally, the number of positive correlations between OTUs and SCFA concentrations was similar between individuals without tumors and patients with a carcinoma 145 [Figure 3]. Finally, when we used high/low SCFA groups based on the overall median concentration 146 for each SCFA instead of SCFA concentrations a similar pattern was still observed [Figure S1 & Table S6]. Overall, these results suggest that the resident taxa that may change the most due

to colon tumors may not be ones that are responsible for the production of acetate, butyrate, or propionate.

SCFA concentrations do not replace important Clostridiales, Lachnospiraceae, and 151 Ruminococcaceae OTUs in Random Forest models built to classify tumors. Despite the 152 lack of difference in positive correlations between OTUs and SCFA concentrations between individuals with and without tumors, OTUs associated with SCFA concentrations could still be 154 the most important variables to Random Forest models built to classify patients with adenomas 155 or carcinomas. We tested this by using the Random Forest algorithm to build models with OTU abundance data or OTU abundances and SCFA concentrations to classify normal versus adenoma 157 and normal versus carcinoma fecal samples. With these models we compared whether OTUs with 158 taxonomic classification to Clostridiales, Lachnospiraceae, and Ruminococcaceae remained in 159 the OTU and SCFA model. Additionally, we also compared whether any of the important OTUs 160 that remained also had significant correlations with SCFA concentrations. Both our adenoma and 161 carcinoma models classified patients with a similar degree of success, as measured by the area 162 under the curve (AUC) (P-value > 0.05) [Figure 4A & 4D]. After the addition of SCFA concentrations 163 to the adenoma or carcinoma models, many OTUs with taxonomic classification to Clostridiales, 164 Lachnospiraceae, and Ruminococcaceae remained as important variables to the model [Figure 165 Figure 4B-C & 4E-F]. After adding SCFA concentrations to the adenoma model, there were only 2 OTUs significantly associated with SCFA concentration that were part of the top 10 most important 167 variables and both were postively associated with acetate, butyrate, or propionate concentrations. 168 When SCFA concentrations were added to the carcinoma model, only 1 OTU that was associated with SCFA concentration remained as part of the top 10 most important variables and it was negatively associated with acetate and butyrate concentrations. In combination with the previous 171 results on OTU correlations, these observations provide additional evidence that the resident taxa 172 that are associated with protection against tumorigeneis are not ones associated with acetate, butyrate, or propionate production. 174

Random Forest models for SCFA concentrations have different top 10 most important OTUs
than tumor models. Using OTU data we built Random Forest models to classify either SCFA
concentration or higher/lower than median SCFA concentrations. Overall, OTU data had a

reasonable ability to classify both SCFA concentrations and high/low SCFA groups [Figure 5A & 178 S2A]. However, these models tended to be over fit, suggesting that rarer taxa may be important for this classification [Figure 5A & S2A]. Additionally, there were differences in accuracy for both 180 model types based on whether the individual had no tumors, an adenoma, or a carcinoma [Figure 181 5B & S2B]. There also was minimal overlap between these SCFA classification model's most 182 important OTUs and those used to classify patients with adenoma or carcinoma tumors [Figure 183 4B-C, 4E-F, 5C-E, and S2C-E]. The only OTU that did overlap between the models was OTU00167 184 (Clostridiales) [Figure 4B-C, 4E-F, 5C-E, and S2C-E]. Additionally, OTU00167 was in the top 10 185 most important OTUs for the OTU adenoma model but not in the SCFA and OTU adenoma model 186 while acetate and butyrate concentrations were [Figure 4B-C]. These observations provide further 187 evidence that it is possible to identify specific OTUs associated with higher SCFA concentrations 188 and that these OTUs belong to taxa known to produce acetate, butyrate, and propionate. Although it is possible to identify OTUs associated with SCFA production, our results do not support the 190 hypothesis that SCFA concentration or OTUs associated with their production are different between 191 individuals with no tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas.

93 Discussion

The observations from this study do not support the hypothesis that SCFA concentrations are different in individuals with tumors. Whether we directly measured the SCFA concentration or investigated genes associated with their production, no difference could be identified between individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas [Figure 1 & 2]. Although there were differences in the number of significant correlations between SCFA concentration and OTU relative abundance based on whether individuals did not have tumors, had an adenoma, or had a carcinoma, SCFA concentrations did not provide increased model accuracy for tumor classification [Figure 3-4 & S1]. Instead, SCFA concentrations provided similar information to what specific OTUs were already providing to the tumor classification models [Figure 4]. Additionally, when models using OTU relative abundance to classify SCFA concentrations were assessed, the OTUs that classified to *Clostridiales*, *Lachnospiraceae*, and *Ruminococcaceae* were not the same as the OTUs that classified to these taxa in the tumor models [Figure 4-5]. Collectively, our observations suggest that resident taxa from *Clostridiales*, *Lachnospiraceae*, and *Ruminococcaceae*, that are different between individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas, are not that same as those involved with SCFA production.

Although SCFAs have been shown to be anti-tumorigenic, most of these studies have been performed in model systems (16, 17). Additionally, many of the *in vivo* studies investigate proxies such as fiber supplementation rather than SCFAs directly (14). Although it is well known that breakdown products from gut bacteria results in SCFA production, fiber effects on tumorigenesis may be through other mechanisms in these *in vivo* model systems. In addition to using fiber supplementation as a proxy for SCFA treatment, observations on the benefit of SCFAs in preventing tumorigenesis has been mixed. In previous case/control studies lower SCFA concentrations between patients with carcinomas and those without carcinomas was observed (19). Yet, this is in contrast to multiple randomized-controlled trials that have found no difference between patients who do and do not get fiber supplementation to try and prevent tumor recurrence (20, 23). This could be because fiber has other actions in humans besides providing an energy source for bacteria to breakdown to make SCFAs. It could also be due to the fact that SCFA concentrations and

responses to fiber can vary quite a bit between healthy individuals (24). This information taken together with our observations would suggest that either individuals who do not respond to fiber supplementation would need to acquire these bacteria to achieve a benefit or that SCFAs provide little to no benefit as an anti-tumorigenic compound in colorectal cancer.

In addition to not having a response to fiber supplementation due to lack of the required microbes, it is also possible that there are specific instances of colorectal cancer where SCFAs may be beneficial. One limitation of current research into the effect of SCFAs in CRC has been that all tumors are treated as the same type. However, there are known differences in the types of mutations that occur (25) and treating all tumors as equal may actually hide any benefit that could be found in specific subsets of individuals. Similar to the idea of specific immunotherapy for specific tumors (26), SCFAs may have beneficial effects for specific types of colorectal tumors. Future research will need to test if this is a valid hypothesis. Regardless of this limitation, our results in combination to previous randomized controlled trials on fiber supplementation suggests that using SCFAs as a general treatment for colorectal cancer is unlikely to provide a reduction in tumorigenesis.

One possible technical limitation is that a fecal sample may not be an ideal type of bio-specimen and that the effect SCFAs have on tumorigenesis is only detected in the colon. However, this is unlikely to be a major confounder. First, most *in vivo* studies as well as human studies have used fecal material in their analysis (18, 19). Second, previous studies that measure SCFA changes after fiber supplementation use fecal material to track these responses with a great deal of success (24). Although there are limitations with the current research on SCFAs and colorectal tumors, technical limitations are less likely to be cause of this. Additionally, as mentioned earlier, our observations along with the randomized controlled trials on fiber supplementation in tumor recurrence (20) provide evidence that these specific metabolites may not be protective or used as a general treatment option in colorectal cancer. Yet, taxa that are associated with SCFA production are consistently higher in individuals without colon tumors than patients with carcinomas (10, 11, 27).

The potential protection against colorectal cancers may not be from SCFAs, even though taxa associated with their production are higher in individuals without tumors versus patients with carcinomas (10, 11, 27). Indeed our data would support the contention that the taxa are similar to

those associated with SCFA production but that these specific microbes or OTUs themselves are not associated with SCFAs. In particular, our results showing that different OTUs from the same 250 taxonomic classification are in tumor and SCFA Random Forest models supports this hypothesis. 251 This leads to the possibility that protection may be through two other routes. First, there could 252 be a different pathway or other less extensively studied metabolites that provides the necessary 253 protection against tumorigenesis. Alternatively, protection may not occur via a metabolite but instead 254 through niche exclusion of mouth-associated microbes (e.g. Fusobacterium, Porphyromonas, 255 Parvimonas, Peptostreptococcus (6, 12, 13)). The idea of niche exclusion is similar to how the 256 community protects against Clostridium difficile infection (28) with chronic inflammation replacing 257 the role of antibiotics. Even though we did not find lower concentrations of SCFAs associated with 258 colorectal tumors, we think that there are many exciting new avenues to explore because of these 259 results. 260

Conclusions

Our observations found no difference in SCFA concentration, their utility as a classification tool, or for genes of enzymes involved in SCFA synthesis between individuals without colon tumors and patients with either adenoma or carcinoma tumors. Although these results are different than other reports in the literature, they do align with the randomized controlled trials that have tested fiber use in preventing colorectal tumor recurrence. Additionally, these observations suggest that resident microbes that are not involved in SCFA production may be the important resident community members involved with preventing tumorigenesis. By focusing on the alternative mechanisms that are associated with these non-SCFA producing resident microbes, the identification of more promising therapeutic options for use in treating colorectal cancer may be found.

Materials and Methods

282

283

284

285

286

288

296

297

Study design and sampling. The overall protocol has been described in detail previously (29, 30). 272 In brief, this study used fecal samples obtained at either a single cross-sectional time point (n=490) 273 or from before (pre-) and after (post-) treatment of a patient's tumor (adenoma n =41 and carcinoma 274 n = 26). For patients undergoing treatment for their tumor the length of time between their initial and 275 follow up sample ranged from 188 - 546 days. Our use of treatment has been previously defined as 276 encompassing removal of a tumor with or without chemotherapy and radiation (29). Diagnosis of tumor was made by colonoscopic examination and histopathological review of biopsies obtained (29, 30). The University of Michigan Institutional Review Board approved the study and informed 279 consent was obtained from all participants in accordance to the guidelines set out by the Helsinki 280 Declaration.

Measuring specific SCFAs. Our protocol for the measurement of acetate, butyrate, and propionate followed a previously published protocol that used a High-Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) machine (24). The following changes to this protocol included the use of frozen fecal samples suspended in 1ml of PBS instead of fecal suspensions in DNA Genotek OmniGut tubes, and the use of the actual weight of fecal samples instead of the average weight for SCFA concentration normalizations. These methodological changes did not affect the overall median concentrations of these SCFAs between the two studies (see Table 1 (24) and Figure 1 here).

16s rRNA gene sequencing. The workflow and processing have been previously described (29, 31, 32). In brief, sequences were quality filtered and contigs created from the paired end reads.

Any sequences with ambiguous base calls were discarded. Contigs were then checked for matches to the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene using the SILVA database (33). Chimeras were identified and removed using UCHIME and OTUs clustered at 97% similarity (34). The major differences from these previous reports include: the use of version 1.39.5 of the mothur software package and clustering Operational Taxonomic Units (OTUs) at 97% similarity using the OptClust algorithm (35).

Generating imputed metagenomes. The use of PICRUSt version 1.1.2 with the recommended standard operating protocol (21) was used. Briefly, the mothur shared file and metadata was

converted into a biom formatted table using the biom convert function, the subsequent biom file was processed with the 'normalize_by_copy_number.py' function, and subsequent imputed metagenomes created using the 'predict_metagenomes.py' function.

Obtaining Operational Protein Families from metagenomes. A subset of the cross-sectional group (n=490) containing a total of 85 individuals (normal n=29, adenoma n=28, and carcinoma n=28) was shotgun sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq using 125 bp paired end reads and a previously described method (36). Briefly, the sequences were quality filtered and sequences aligning to the human genome were removed prior to contig assembly with MEGAHIT (37). Open Reading Frames (ORFs) were identified using Prodigal (38), counts generated using Diamond (39), subsequent clustering into Operational Protein Families (OPFs) used mmseq2 (40), and OPF alignment used the KEGG database (41).

Pulling genes involved with SCFA synthesis. Specific genes located near the end of the pathways involved in the synthesis of acetate, butyrate, and propionate were analyzed for any differences between individuals with normal colons and those with tumors. These genes were based on pathways from KEGG as well as previous research (41, 42) and a list can be found in the supplemental material [Table S1].

Random Forest models. The model was first trained on 80% of the data and then tested on the
held out 20% (80/20 split) using the Random Forest algorithm for classification and regression
models via the caret package (22, 43). This was repeated on 100 different 80/20 splits of the data
to generate a reasonable range for the AUC of the model. The reported AUCs, unless otherwise
specified, are for the test sets. The classification models were built to group normal versus adenoma,
normal versus carcinoma, and high versus low SCFA concentrations. The regression models were
built to classify the SCFA concentrations of acetate, butyrate, and propionate regardless of disease
status.

Statistical analysis workflow. All analysis was performed using the statistical language R (44).

Generally, a Kruskal-Walis rank sum test with a Dunn's post-hoc test was used to assess differences

between the groups used. Where appropriate Benjamini-Hochberg was used to correct for multiple

comparisons (45). First, we assessed differences in SCFA concentrations measured by HPLC

between individuals with normal colons and patients with tumors (adenoma or carcinoma). We then analyzed whether SCFA concentrations changed in patients with an adenoma or carcinoma preversus post-treatment. Next, the imputed gene counts of important mediators of SCFA synthesis was tested. Additionally, the counts generated for OPFs that matched important genes involved with SCFA creation were analyzed. From here we analyzed the number of significant positive and negative correlations between OTU relative abundance and SCFA concentrations in individuals without tumors and patients with adenomas or carcinomas using Spearman's rho. Next, we assessed whether OTUs alone or OTUs and SCFAs were better able to classify individuals with and without tumors using Random Forest models. Finally, models to classify high or low SCFA concentration based on the median of each SCFA or the actual concentration using 16S rRNA gene sequencing data was created using the Random Forest algorithm. For all Random Forest models, the assessment of the most important variables was based on the top 10 features (OTUs or SCFAs) using the mean decrease in accuracy.

39 Acknowledgements

The authors thank the Great Lakes-New England Early Detection Research Network for providing
the fecal samples that were used in this study. We would also like to thank Kwi Kim and Thomas M
Schmidt for their help in running the short-chain fatty acid analysis on the High-Performance Liquid
Chromatography machine at the University of Michigan. Salary support for Marc A. Sze came from
the Canadian Institute of Health Research and NIH grant UL1TR002240. Salary support for Patrick
D. Schloss came from NIH grants P30DK034933 and 1R01CA215574.

References

- 1. **Haggar F**, **Boushey R**. 2009. Colorectal cancer epidemiology: Incidence, mortality, survival, and risk factors. Clinics in Colon and Rectal Surgery **22**:191–197. doi:10.1055/s-0029-1242458.
- 2. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. 2016. Cancer statistics, 2016. CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians 66:7–30. doi:10.3322/caac.21332.
- 35. Lichtenstein P, Holm NV, Verkasalo PK, Iliadou A, Kaprio J, Koskenvuo M, Pukkala E,
 352 Skytthe A, Hemminki K. 2000. Environmental and heritable factors in the causation of cancer
 353 analyses of cohorts of twins from sweden, denmark, and finland. New England Journal of Medicine
 354 343:78–85. doi:10.1056/nejm200007133430201.
- 4. Fliss-Isakov N, Zelber-Sagi S, Webb M, Halpern Z, Kariv R. 2017. Smoking habits are strongly associated with colorectal polyps in a population-based case-control study. Journal of Clinical Gastroenterology 1. doi:10.1097/mcg.00000000000000935.
- 5. Lee J, Jeon JY, Meyerhardt JA. 2015. Diet and lifestyle in survivors of colorectal cancer.
 Hematology/Oncology Clinics of North America 29:1–27. doi:10.1016/j.hoc.2014.09.005.
- 6. Kostic AD, Gevers D, Pedamallu CS, Michaud M, Duke F, Earl AM, Ojesina AI, Jung J,
 Bass AJ, Tabernero J, Baselga J, Liu C, Shivdasani RA, Ogino S, Birren BW, Huttenhower
 C, Garrett WS, Meyerson M. 2011. Genomic analysis identifies association of fusobacterium with
 colorectal carcinoma. Genome Research 22:292–298. doi:10.1101/gr.126573.111.
- Zackular JP, Baxter NT, Iverson KD, Sadler WD, Petrosino JF, Chen GY, Schloss PD.
 2013. The gut microbiome modulates colon tumorigenesis. mBio 4:e00692–13–e00692–13.
 doi:10.1128/mbio.00692-13.
- 8. **Baxter NT**, **Zackular JP**, **Chen GY**, **Schloss PD**. 2014. Structure of the gut microbiome following colonization with human feces determines colonic tumor burden. Microbiome **2**:20. doi:10.1186/2049-2618-2-20.
- 9. Zackular JP, Baxter NT, Chen GY, Schloss PD. 2015. Manipulation of the gut microbiota

- reveals role in colon tumorigenesis. mSphere 1:e00001–15. doi:10.1128/msphere.00001-15.
- 10. Shah MS, DeSantis TZ, Weinmaier T, McMurdie PJ, Cope JL, Altrichter A, Yamal J-M,
 Hollister EB. 2017. Leveraging sequence-based faecal microbial community survey data to identify
 a composite biomarker for colorectal cancer. Gut 67:882–891. doi:10.1136/gutjnl-2016-313189.
- 11. **Sze MA**, **Schloss PD**. 2018. Leveraging existing 16S rRNA gene surveys to identify reproducible biomarkers in individuals with colorectal tumors. doi:10.1101/285486.
- 12. Zeller G, Tap J, Voigt AY, Sunagawa S, Kultima JR, Costea PI, Amiot A, Bohm J, Brunetti
 F, Habermann N, Hercog R, Koch M, Luciani A, Mende DR, Schneider MA, Schrotz-King P,
 Tournigand C, Nhieu JTV, Yamada T, Zimmermann J, Benes V, Kloor M, Ulrich CM, Knebel
 Doeberitz M von, Sobhani I, Bork P. 2014. Potential of fecal microbiota for early-stage detection
 of colorectal cancer. Molecular Systems Biology 10:766–766. doi:10.15252/msb.20145645.
- 13. **Baxter NT**, **Ruffin MT**, **Rogers MAM**, **Schloss PD**. 2016. Microbiota-based model improves the sensitivity of fecal immunochemical test for detecting colonic lesions. Genome Medicine **8**. doi:10.1186/s13073-016-0290-3.
- 14. Holscher HD. 2017. Dietary fiber and prebiotics and the gastrointestinal microbiota. Gut
 Microbes 8:172–184. doi:10.1080/19490976.2017.1290756.
- 15. Louis P, Flint HJ. 2016. Formation of propionate and butyrate by the human colonic microbiota.
 Environmental Microbiology 19:29–41. doi:10.1111/1462-2920.13589.
- 16. **O'Keefe SJD**. 2016. Diet, microorganisms and their metabolites and colon cancer. Nature Reviews Gastroenterology & Hepatology **13**:691–706. doi:10.1038/nrgastro.2016.165.
- 17. Encarnação JC, Pires AS, Amaral RA, Gonçalves TJ, Laranjo M, Casalta-Lopes JE,
 Gonçalves AC, Sarmento-Ribeiro AB, Abrantes AM, Botelho MF. 2018. Butyrate, a dietary
 fiber derivative that improves irinotecan effect in colon cancer cells. The Journal of Nutritional
 Biochemistry 56:183–192. doi:10.1016/j.jnutbio.2018.02.018.
- 18. Bishehsari F, Engen P, Preite N, Tuncil Y, Naqib A, Shaikh M, Rossi M, Wilber S, Green

- S, Hamaker B, Khazaie K, Voigt R, Forsyth C, Keshavarzian A. 2018. Dietary fiber treatment corrects the composition of gut microbiota, promotes SCFA production, and suppresses colon carcinogenesis. Genes 9:102. doi:10.3390/genes9020102.
- 19. Ohigashi S, Sudo K, Kobayashi D, Takahashi O, Takahashi T, Asahara T, Nomoto K, Onodera H. 2013. Changes of the intestinal microbiota, short chain fatty acids, and fecal pH in patients with colorectal cancer. Digestive Diseases and Sciences 58:1717–1726.
 doi:10.1007/s10620-012-2526-4.
- 20. Yao Y, Suo T, Andersson R, Cao Y, Wang C, Lu J, Chui E. 2017. Dietary fibre for the prevention of recurrent colorectal adenomas and carcinomas. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews. doi:10.1002/14651858.cd003430.pub2.
- 21. Langille MGI, Zaneveld J, Caporaso JG, McDonald D, Knights D, Reyes JA, Clemente JC,
 Burkepile DE, Thurber RLV, Knight R, Beiko RG, Huttenhower C. 2013. Predictive functional
 profiling of microbial communities using 16S rRNA marker gene sequences. Nature Biotechnology
 31:814–821. doi:10.1038/nbt.2676.
- 22. Liaw A, Wiener M. 2002. Classification and regression by randomForest. R News 2:18–22.
- 23. Schatzkin A, Lanza E, Corle D, Lance P, Iber F, Caan B, Shike M, Weissfeld J, Burt R,
 Cooper MR, Kikendall JW, Cahill J, Freedman L, Marshall J, Schoen RE, Slattery M. 2000.
 Lack of effect of a low-fat, high-fiber diet on the recurrence of colorectal adenomas. New England
 Journal of Medicine 342:1149–1155. doi:10.1056/nejm200004203421601.
- 24. Venkataraman A, Sieber JR, Schmidt AW, Waldron C, Theis KR, Schmidt TM. 2016.
 Variable responses of human microbiomes to dietary supplementation with resistant starch.
 Microbiome 4. doi:10.1186/s40168-016-0178-x.
- 25. Fearon ER, Vogelstein B. 1990. A genetic model for colorectal tumorigenesis. Cell
 61:759–767. doi:10.1016/0092-8674(90)90186-i.
- 26. **Thomas X**, **Heiblig M**. 2016. The development of agents targeting the BCR-ABL tyrosine kinase as philadelphia chromosome-positive acute lymphoblastic leukemia treatment. Expert

- Opinion on Drug Discovery **11**:1061–1070. doi:10.1080/17460441.2016.1227318.
- 27. **Sze MA**, **Baxter NT**, **Ruffin MT**, **Rogers MAM**, **Schloss PD**. 2017. Normalization of the microbiota in patients after treatment for colonic lesions. Microbiome **5**. doi:10.1186/s40168-017-0366-3.
- 28. **Theriot CM**, **Young VB**. 2015. Interactions between the gastrointestinal microbiome and clostridium difficile. Annual Review of Microbiology **69**:445–461. doi:10.1146/annurev-micro-091014-104115.
- 29. **Sze MA**, **Baxter NT**, **Ruffin MT**, **Rogers MAM**, **Schloss PD**. 2017. Normalization of the microbiota in patients after treatment for colonic lesions. Microbiome **5**. doi:10.1186/s40168-017-0366-3.
- 30. **Baxter NT**, **Ruffin MT**, **Rogers MAM**, **Schloss PD**. 2016. Microbiota-based model improves the sensitivity of fecal immunochemical test for detecting colonic lesions. Genome Medicine **8**. doi:10.1186/s13073-016-0290-3.
- 31. Schloss PD, Westcott SL, Ryabin T, Hall JR, Hartmann M, Hollister EB, Lesniewski RA,
 Oakley BB, Parks DH, Robinson CJ, Sahl JW, Stres B, Thallinger GG, Horn DJV, Weber CF.
 2009. Introducing mothur: Open-source, platform-independent, community-supported software
 for describing and comparing microbial communities. Applied and Environmental Microbiology
 75:7537–7541. doi:10.1128/aem.01541-09.
- 32. **Kozich JJ**, **Westcott SL**, **Baxter NT**, **Highlander SK**, **Schloss PD**. 2013. Development of a dual-index sequencing strategy and curation pipeline for analyzing amplicon sequence data on the MiSeq illumina sequencing platform. Applied and Environmental Microbiology **79**:5112–5120. doi:10.1128/aem.01043-13.
- 33. Quast C, Pruesse E, Yilmaz P, Gerken J, Schweer T, Yarza P, Peplies J, Glöckner FO.
 2012. The SILVA ribosomal RNA gene database project: Improved data processing and web-based
 tools. Nucleic Acids Research 41:D590–D596. doi:10.1093/nar/gks1219.
- 34. Edgar RC, Haas BJ, Clemente JC, Quince C, Knight R. 2011. UCHIME improves sensitivity and speed of chimera detection. Bioinformatics **27**:2194–2200. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btr381.
- 446 35. Westcott SL, Schloss PD. 2017. OptiClust, an improved method for assigning

- amplicon-based sequence data to operational taxonomic units. mSphere **2**:e00073–17.

 doi:10.1128/mspheredirect.00073-17.
- 36. Hannigan GD, Duhaime MB, Ruffin MT, Koumpouras CC, Schloss PD. 2017. Diagnostic potential & the interactive dynamics of the colorectal cancer virome. doi:10.1101/152868.
- 37. **Li D**, **Liu C-M**, **Luo R**, **Sadakane K**, **Lam T-W**. 2015. MEGAHIT: An ultra-fast single-node solution for large and complex metagenomics assembly via succinct de bruijn graph. Bioinformatics **31**:1674–1676. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btv033.
- 454 38. **Hyatt D, Chen G-L, LoCascio PF, Land ML, Larimer FW, Hauser LJ.** 2010. Prodigal:
 455 Prokaryotic gene recognition and translation initiation site identification. BMC Bioinformatics **11**:119.
 456 doi:10.1186/1471-2105-11-119.
- 39. **Buchfink B**, **Xie C**, **Huson DH**. 2014. Fast and sensitive protein alignment using DIAMOND.

 Nature Methods **12**:59–60. doi:10.1038/nmeth.3176.
- 459 40. **Steinegger M**, **Söding J**. 2017. MMseqs2 enables sensitive protein sequence searching for the analysis of massive data sets. Nature Biotechnology. doi:10.1038/nbt.3988.
- 461 41. **Kanehisa M**, **Sato Y**, **Kawashima M**, **Furumichi M**, **Tanabe M**. 2015. KEGG as a
 462 reference resource for gene and protein annotation. Nucleic Acids Research **44**:D457–D462.
 463 doi:10.1093/nar/gkv1070.
- 42. **Baxter NT**, **Zackular JP**, **Chen GY**, **Schloss PD**. 2014. Structure of the gut microbiome following colonization with human feces determines colonic tumor burden. Microbiome **2**:20. doi:10.1186/2049-2618-2-20.
- 43. Jed Wing MKC from, Weston S, Williams A, Keefer C, Engelhardt A, Cooper T, Mayer Z,

 Kenkel B, R Core Team, Benesty M, Lescarbeau R, Ziem A, Scrucca L, Tang Y, Candan C,

 Hunt. T. 2017. Caret: Classification and regression training.
- 44. **R Core Team**. 2017. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation

- for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.
- 45. **Benjamini Y**, **Hochberg Y**. 1995. Controlling the false discovery rate: A practical and powerful
- ⁴⁷³ approach to multiple testing. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B (Methodological)
- 474 **57**:289–300.

- Figure 1. No change in SCFA measurements was observed between normal, adenoma, 475 and carcinoma individuals using HPLC. Acetate concentrations in fecal samples of individuals without colon tumors, adenomas, and carcinomas (A). Butyrate concentrations in fecal samples 477 of individuals without colon tumors, adenomas, and carcinomas (B). Propionate concentrations 478 in fecal samples of individuals without colon tumors, adenomas, and carcinomas (C). The black 479 lines indicate the median SCFA concentration. Acetate concentrations in fecal samples before 480 and after treatment for adenoma (yellow) and carcinoma (red) (D). Butyrate concentrations in fecal 481 samples before and after treatment for adenoma (yellow) and carcinoma (red) (E). Propionate 482 concentrations in fecal samples before and after treatment for adenoma (yellow) and carcinoma 483 (red) (F). The black dots and lines represent the median change in SCFA concentration. 484
- Figure 2. No change in butyrate producing genes identified between normal, adenoma, and carcinoma individuals. Imputed gene relative abundance of important butyrate pathway genes using PICRUSt (A). Counts per million (corrected for size and number of contigs in an OPF) for the Butyrate Kinase gene (B). The other butyrate pathway genes from the PICRUSt analysis did not align to any of the OPFs in the metagenome analysis.
- Figure 3. Patients with adenomas had the higest number of significant negative correlations between OTU relative abundance and SCFA concentration. Colors denote the family or lowest taxonomic ID that an OTU classified to. Fewer significant positive correlations were observed overall. Additionally, the differences in the number of significant positive correlations between patients with adenomas versus individuals without tumors (normal) and patients with carcinomas was not as pronounced as the number of significant negative correlations.
- Figure 4. SCFA concentrations do not improve OTU-based Random Forest models. The
 area under the curve of 100 different 80/20 split OTU-based normal versus adenoma 10-fold CV
 models with and without SCFAs (A). The top 10 most important OTUs or SCFAs in the SCFA
 and OTU adenoma model (B). The top 10 most important OTUs in the OTU adenoma model (C).
 The area under the curve of 100 different 80/20 OTU-based normal versus carcinoma 10-fold CV
 models with and without SCFAs (D). The top 10 most important OTUs or SCFAs in the SCFA and
 OTU carcinoma model (E). The top 10 most important OTUs in the OTU carcinoma model (F). For

(A) and (D) the black line represents the median AUC. The dotted line highlights an AUC of 0.5.

Figure 5. OTU-based regression Random Forest models of SCFA concentrations. The train and test correlation between actual and predicted values from 100 different 80/20 split OTU-based models with 10-fold CV using regression Random Forest (A). The model accuracy of predicted SCFA concentrations differed between individuals without tumors, patients with adenomas, and patients with carcinomas. Generally, patients with carcinomas had predicted concentrations closest to their actual measured concentration (B). The top 10 OTUs based on mean decrease in accuracy (MDA) for each SCFA model, colored by their lowest taxonomic identification (C).

- Figure S1. Patients with adenomas had the higest number of significant differences in
 OTU relative abundance between high/low SCFA groups. Colors denote the family or lowest
 taxonomic ID that an OTU classified to. Fewer significant OTUs were observed in individuals without
 tumors (normal) and patients with carcinomas versus patients with adenomas.
- Figure S2. OTU-based classification Random Forest models of high/low SCFA groups
 based on overall SCFA median concentration. The train and test results of 100 different
 80/20 split OTU-based models with 10-fold CV based on higher or lower than the median SCFA
 concentration using classification Random Forest (A). The model accuracy of predicted high/low
 SCFA groups differed between individuals without tumors, patients with adenomas, and patients
 with carcinomas. Patients with adenomas consistently had the best classification accuracy (B). The
 top 10 OTUs based on mean decrease in accuracy (MDA) for each SCFA model, colored by their
 lowest taxonomic identification (C).