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supplementary_material.tar.gz	

**Host and gut microbial metabolism of *Bifidobacterium longum*-fermented rice bran in healthy mice and bioavailability of antimicrobial and cancer-protective compounds.**

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**Running Header**

Murine metabolism of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran for gut health.

## Abstract

Food fermentation by native gut probiotics has historical foundations for gut health promotion. Metabolic comparisons of fermented foods alongside the non-fermented forms have been largely unexplored using non-targeted metabolomics and thus merit evaluation before and after exposure to the gastrointestinal tract. This study investigated gut microbiota composition along with food, host, and microbial derived metabolites in the colon and systemic circulation of healthy mice following dietary intake of fermented versus non-fermented rice bran. Adult male BALB/c mice were fed a control diet or one of two experimental diets containing 10% w/w rice bran fermented with *Bifidobacterium longum* or 10% w/w non-fermented rice bran for 15 weeks. Metabolomics of each study diet (food), the murine colon and whole blood were analysed in concert with 16S amplicon sequencing of faecal, caecum, and colon samples. Principal components analysis of taxonomy-independent murine microbiota composition displayed marked separation between control and both experimental diet groups. This separation was apparent for all biological sample types, although faecal microbiomes were noticeably distinct from the caecum and colon. Mice in both experimental diet groups exhibited largely similar bacterial composition with identification of only two differentially abundant sequence variants- represented by *Roseburia* and Clostridiales. A total of 530 small molecules including 39% amino acids and 21% lipids were revealed through differential abundance testing across food, colon, and blood matrices. The amino acid metabolite, N-delta-acetylornithine, was notably significant for increased bioavailability by *B. longum* rice bran fermentation when compared to non-fermented rice bran across food, colon, and blood metabolomes. These findings support that dietary intake of rice bran fermented with *B. longum* modulates multiple metabolic pathways associated with antimicrobial actions and cancer prevention in the host via gut microbial metabolism despite minimal differences in gut microbiota composition when compared to non-fermented rice bran.

## Keywords

Food, fermentation, microbiome, metabolites, colon

## Introduction

Rice bran, the outer coating of brown rice, contributes the prebiotic, phytochemical and nutritional health benefits of whole grain brown rice. Numerous studies performed in humans and animals have shown colonic health and disease protective functions of a diet rich in rice bran (Henderson *et al.*, 2012a; Henderson *et al.*, 2012b; Lei *et al.*, 2016; Sheflin *et al.*, 2017; Sheflin *et al.*, 2015; Yang *et al.*, 2015). Metabolite profiling of heat-stabilised rice bran has revealed a large suite of bioactive compounds including various amino acids, small peptides, lipids, nucleotides, vitamins and cofactors, and plant phytochemicals available in digestible and non-digestible forms to the host (Zarei *et al.*, 2017). Many rice bran components have previously-reported roles in slowing tumour and pathogen growth *via* altering cell proliferation, combating oxidative stress, reducing inflammation and modulating the gut microbiome and metabolism (Fabian and Ju, 2011; Law *et al.*, 2017; So *et al.*, 2016; Sohail *et al.*, 2017). Rice bran components have also shown capacity for fermentation by gut commensal microbes (Sheflin *et al.*, 2017; Tuncil *et al.*, 2018). Emerging evidence supports that rice bran components modulate host and gut microbial metabolism to benefit enterocytes and the mucosal immune system (Brown *et al.*, 2017; Si *et al.*, 2018; Yang *et al.*, 2015; Zarei *et al.*, 2017). Genome sequencing of the faecal microbial communities and identification of small molecule profiles using metabolomics are promising tools to evaluate the effects of dietary interventions broadly (Bazanella *et al.*, 2017; Derkach *et al.*, 2017; Hernandez-Alonso *et al.*, 2017; Lee *et al.*, 2017; McIntosh *et al.*, 2017; Tovar *et al.*, 2017; Vandeputte *et al.*,

2017), and were previously utilised for rice bran (Brown *et al.*, 2017; Henderson *et al.*, 2012a; Sheflin *et al.*, 2017; Sheflin *et al.*, 2015; Si *et al.*, 2018). However, these studies have not yet advanced our understanding of how rice bran fermentation impacts the colon tissue microbiome and the availability of the fermented food microbial-metabolic components to the colon and systemic circulation.

Few studies have evaluated the effects of fermented foods on healthy gut microbiomes (Cowan *et al.*, 2014; Zheng *et al.*, 2015), and to the best of the authors' knowledge, no studies currently provide a direct comparison to the non-fermented form of the same food type. Globally, lactic acid bacteria (LAB) are the widest order of microbes involved in food fermentation (Pessione and Cirrincione, 2016), and a variety of LAB, existing as part of the native gut microbiome, confer benefits to their host. *Bifidobacterium* represents another important genus of native gut probiotics that were shown to increase in relative percentages after 28 days of rice bran consumption (30g/day) by healthy adults (Sheflin *et al.*, 2015). In a related study with daily rice bran intake by adult colorectal cancer survivors, favourable modulations were captured in the stool metabolome, including shifts in fatty acid, branched chain amino acid, and B-vitamin metabolism (Brown *et al.*, 2017; Sheflin *et al.*, 2017). Multiple strains of *Bifidobacterium* have been tested in food fermentation and exhibited health effects related to increased production of short chain and branched chain fatty acids that are critical for normal colonocyte function (Bunesova *et al.*, 2016; Celiberto *et al.*, 2017; Gagnon *et al.*, 2015; Kim *et al.*, 2018; Phoem *et al.*, 2015).

This study aimed to distinguish host and microbe metabolic impacts of consuming dietary rice bran fermented with *Bifidobacterium longum* from the effects of consuming rice bran or a nutrient-matched control diet. Daily intake of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran for 15-weeks in healthy mice was hypothesised to elicit changes to host and intestinal microbiome metabolism and result in differences between bioactive metabolites in colon tissue and blood. This study used next-generation sequencing approaches to characterise murine caecum, colon, and faecal microbiomes and non-targeted metabolomics to determine metabolite profiles of study diets (food), colon tissue, and whole blood metabolomes of mice consuming each study diet. Multivariate statistical approaches were utilised to assess differential abundance of bacterial sequence variants and differential production of bioactive compounds with previously reported cancer-protective and antimicrobial functions. Exploiting both microbial sequencing and metabolomic platforms provided a thorough and sensitive analysis for revealing *B. longum*-fermented rice bran influences on gut microbiome metabolism and bioavailability of disease protective compounds.

**Materials and methods**

*Rice bran and food fermentation*

Ri300 heat-stabilised rice bran was purchased from Rice Bran Technologies (Sacramento, CA, USA). Ten kilograms of rice bran was thoroughly mixed with 10 litres of 1.5x10<sup>8</sup> cells/mL of *Bifidobacterium longum* (*B. longum*) ATCC-55813 (American Type Culture Collection, Manassas, VA, USA) suspended in milliQ water (Millipore Corporation, Burlington, MA, USA). The mixture was placed in a sealed stainless-steel pot and incubated at 37°C. After 48hrs, the resultant slurry was harvested at room temperature, and frozen at -20°C until lyophilisation.

*Mouse diet preparation and composition*

*B. longum*-fermented rice bran was thawed and lyophilised overnight using a Labconco Freezone 4.5 Litre Freeze Dry System attached to an Edwards RV5 vacuum pump (Marshall Scientific, Hampton, NH, USA). Mouse diets were prepared as previously described using AIN-93 purified components as the control diet (Kumar *et al.*, 2012). The

heat-stabilised rice bran and the *B. longum*-fermented rice bran was incorporated at 10% w/w into the diets at Envigo (Madison, WI, USA). Diets were matched for macronutrient and micronutrient contents with compositions listed in Table 1. Briefly, the control diet (TD.160791) was composed of four percent w/v corn oil, casein, L-cystine, corn starch, maltodextrin, sucrose, cellulose, mineral and vitamin mix, choline bitartrate, and TBHQ (Tertiary butyl-hydroquinone) antioxidant. The 10% w/w heat-stabilised rice bran diet and 10% w/w *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet were adjusted across ingredients to account for nutrients supplied by the rice bran. Prior to animal feeding, diets were irradiated and determined to be free of pathogens and microbial toxins using standardised tests for anaerobic plate counts, coliform counts, *Escherichia coli* counts, mould counts, yeast counts, mesophilic aerobic spore counts, mesophilic anaerobic spore counts, and *Salmonella* counts.

**Table 1. Composition of mouse diets for each study group.**

Constituents (g/kg)	Control	10% Rice bran	10% <i>B. longum</i> -fermented rice bran
Casein	140.0	125.0	125.0
L-Cystine	1.8	1.8	1.8
Corn Starch	465.692	422.692	422.692
Maltodextrin	155.0	155.0	155.0
Sucrose	95.0	102.312	102.312
Corn Oil	40.0	19.0	19.0
Cellulose	50.0	29.0	29.0
Mineral Mix (with calcium and phosphate)	35.0	0	0
Mineral Mix (without calcium and phosphate)	0	13.388	13.388
Calcium Phosphate, Dibasic	0	7.5	7.5
Calcium Carbonate	0	6.8	6.8
Vitamin Mix	15.0	15.0	15.0
Choline Bitartrate	2.5	2.5	2.5
TBHQ, Antioxidant <sup>1</sup>	0.008	0.008	0.008
Rice bran	0	100.0	0
<i>B. longum</i> -fermented rice bran	0	0	100.00

<sup>1</sup>TBHQ: Tertiary butyl-hydroquinone

### Ethics statement

Animal experiments were done under institutional guidelines using approved Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) protocol and an Inter-Institutional Agreement with Colorado State University.

### Animal study design and sample collection

Animals were maintained in a specific-pathogen free (SPF) animal housing facility in UC Denver-Anschutz Medical Campus and monitored under an active Sentinel Monitoring Program. Mice were kept under standard conditions in SPF-ventilated isolators with built in systems for free access to water. Pellet diet was added in cage feeders and mice had free access to it. Six-week old male BALB/c mice (Charles River Laboratories) were fed a control AIN-93 pellet diet for a one-week acclimatisation period and then switched to rice bran (n=4), *B. longum*-fermented rice bran (n=4) or maintained on a control diet (n=5) for 15 weeks. During the 15-week feeding phase, faecal samples for each diet group were collected as a function of time for the following time points: 48 hours after diet intervention (considered week one), and thereafter on two, six, ten and fourteen weeks after diet intervention. Throughout the study, weekly body weight, diet consumption, and general health of mice was recorded. To avoid cross contamination of microbiota between different groups, only cages of one particular sub-group were opened under aseptic conditions in an animal transfer station at a given time. At the end of 15-week feeding phase (time of sacrifice), animals were subjected to CO<sub>2</sub> asphyxiation and then euthanised by exsanguination. Whole blood was collected in



BD vacutainer K2 EDTA coated tubes and stored at -80°C. Caecum and its contents were collected, snap frozen, and stored at -80°C until later use. The entire colon was excised from the caecum onwards to the distal end and cut open longitudinally along its main axis. Swab samples were collected from the proximal and lower portion of the distal colon and used for microbiome analysis. Next, colons were gently flushed with ice cold saline solution and cleaned with a fine brush to remove remnants of colonic contents. Approximately 2-3mm slivers of clean colon tissue from proximal and distal ends were cut, snap frozen, and stored at -80°C until later use for metabolomics analysis. An overview of the study design and experimental timeline is depicted in Figure 1.

*Sample processing, DNA extraction, and 16S rRNA amplicon protocols*

Lyophilised faecal samples and thawed tissue were homogenised and 50 mg/sample were used for DNA extraction with the MoBio PowerSoil Kit (MoBio Laboratories Inc., Solana Beach, CA, USA) following manufacturer protocols. Extracted DNA samples were stored at -20°C until concentration and quality-checking on a NanoDrop 2000 (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, Lafayette, CO, USA). Amplification of prokaryotic 16S rRNA and amplicon sequencing on the Illumina MiSeq platform followed the standards outlined by the Earth Microbiome Project (Caporaso *et al.*, 2012; Caporaso *et al.*, 2011). PCR conditions included one initial cycle of 15 minutes DNA denaturation at 95°C followed by 34 cycles of a 30-second DNA denaturation at 94°C followed by 90 seconds of primer annealing at 92°C, and one minute of DNA polymerization at 72°C. All amplified samples were then subjected to a 10-minute extension at 72°C. To confirm amplification prior to sequencing, all PCR products were run on a 1.5% agarose gel (BioRad, Hercules, CA) and visualized using 1µL Ethidium Bromide (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, Lafayette, CO) with PCR-grade water as a negative control. Prior to DNA library preparation, PCR products were purified using solid-phase reversible immobilization magnetic beads and quantified on a Cytation3 plate reader (BioTek Instruments Inc., Winooski, VT) using fluorimetry with sybr green tags (Kapa Biosystems Wilmington, MA). The pooled library was created with 50ng of DNA/sample and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA) with 15% PhiX mock library to reduce discrepancies in read clustering and processed using the Illumina V2 500 cycle kit (2 x 250/250 paired-end reads). The V4 hypervariable region of 16S rRNA was targeted with the 515F/806R (Parada/Aprill) primer pair (Parada *et al.*, 2016; Walters *et al.*, 2016). Sequence for the 515F Parada forward primer: GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA; sequence for the 806R Aprill reverse primer: GGACTACNVGGGTWTCTAAT.

*Sequence read denoising, dereplication, and chimera filtering*

A total of 9,121,905 raw single-end FASTQ formatted forward sequence reads represented by 273 samples were imported into the Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology 2 (QIIME 2) framework (Caporaso *et al.*, 2010). The cutadapt plugin was employed to trim any reads with a 5' match to the forward primer sequence (Martin, 2011). A feature table comprised of sequence variant (SV) absolute abundances for each sample was inferred from trimmed reads using the Divisive Amplicon Denoising Algorithm 2 (DADA2) pipeline (Callahan *et al.*, 2016). Representative sequences for each SV were also selected by DADA2. The following parameters were input into the dada2 plugin: chimera detection and removal using the consensus method (default); read truncation at the first position with a q-score less than or equal to two (default); reads were discarded if they exceeded a maximum expected error of two (default); any reads shorter than 248bp were discarded (user-input); the number of reads used to train the error model were increased to 10,000,000. In the context of this article, the term feature is interchangeable with sequence variant (i.e. feature = SV). Summary

statistics and quality plots for raw and trimmed sequence reads were visualised using the demux plugin (Greg Caporaso). Feature table details were visualised using the feature-table plugin (McDonald *et al.*, 2012a). The manifest used for importing reads from FASTQ files into QIIME 2 was constructed in R version 3.5.2 (Team, 2018).

### *Sequence variant processing*

Taxonomic identities for SV representative sequences were assigned with Naïve Bayes classifiers independently trained on 99% OTU reference collections from either Greengenes 13\_8 or SILVA 132 marker gene databases (DeSantis *et al.*, 2006; Glockner *et al.*, 2017; McDonald *et al.*, 2012b; Quast *et al.*, 2013; Yilmaz *et al.*, 2014). Reference collections used for classifier training were bound by the 515F/806R (Parada/Apprill) primer pair and trimmed to 248bp to reflect the length of SV representative sequences present in the dataset analysed here. This trimming step was previously shown to improve quality of resolution and confidence of assignment for 16S amplicon data (Bokulich *et al.*, 2018). The feature-classifier plugin was employed for training classifiers and assigning taxonomy and the confidence threshold for limiting taxonomic depth was increased to 0.75 (Bokulich *et al.*, 2018). The raw feature table, representative sequence file, and taxonomy tables were exported from QIIME 2 for further processing in R (Bokulich *et al.*, 2018; Team, 2018). Prior to import, the feature table was converted from BIOM to classic tab-delimited format using the biom-format Python package (McDonald *et al.*, 2012a). Following import into R, a master table comprised of hashed feature IDs with corresponding representative sequences, full and truncated Greengenes and SILVA taxonomic lineages, and raw absolute abundances for all features within all samples was constructed using base R in combination with package dplyr (Hadley Wickham, 2018). This master table served as the entry point for all downstream processing (Data File S1). Potential contaminant features assigned by either Greengenes or SILVA databases as chloroplast, mitochondria, eukaryote, or unassigned kingdom were removed from the master table using R package dplyr. Samples exhibiting excess of five percent relative abundance of contaminant features or samples with total absolute feature abundance fewer than 400 (considered to have been poorly sequenced) were removed from the master table. The processed master table was subset to create three tables with the samples needed for analyses presented here (Data Files S2, S3, S4). Samples analysed included 16 negative controls and 41 experimental samples represented by 13 caecum samples, 13 colon samples (six distal and seven proximal), and 15 faecal samples. For any subset table, features with total absolute abundance of less than two across subset samples were removed. The relative abundance of SVs assigned by both Greengenes and SILVA classifiers to the genus *Bifidobacterium* were visualised using base R and packages dplyr, ggplot2, ggpubr, and reshape2 (Hadley Wickham, 2018; Kassambara, 2018; Team, 2018; Wickham, 2007; 2016). Qualitative comparisons of taxonomy-independent microbiota composition (i.e. composition of all features in a given sample) proceeded using the compositional data analysis paradigm with count zero replacement prior to a ratio transformation to remove the simplex constraint inherent to amplicon sequencing data (Gloor *et al.*, 2017). Zero counts for features were imputed using the count zero multiplicative (CZM) method from R package zCompositions with a threshold of 0.5 and a delta of 0.65 (both defaults) (Palarea-Albaladejo and Martín-Fernández, 2015). The CZM function adjusts respective non-zero counts following simple multiplicative replacement for all zero counts (Martín-Fernández *et al.*, 2014; Palarea-Albaladejo and Martín-Fernández, 2015). CZM adjusted absolute abundances were transformed using the centred log-ratio (clr) transformation followed by ordination with principal components analysis (PCA). PCA plots were constructed using base R along with packages dplyr, ggbiplot, ggplot2, ggpubr, and grid (Hadley Wickham, 2018; Kassambara, 2018; Team, 2018; Vu, 2011; Wickham, 2016). Differential abundance testing of SVs

between study diets was performed using the ALDEx2 package incorporated into R via the package BiocManager from the Bioconductor suite (Fernandes *et al.*, 2013; Fernandes *et al.*, 2014; Gentleman *et al.*, 2004; Huber *et al.*, 2015; Morgan, 2018). Testing was conducted as follows: 1000 Monte Carlo (MC) instances of the Dirichlet distribution for each sample were generated from subset tables containing absolute abundance data; clr transformation was then applied over each MC instance; *P*-values were produced using the non-parametric Wilcoxon rank-sum test (also called the Mann-Whitney *U* test) to compare each feature's clr values between two groups (H.B. Mann, 1947; Wilcoxon, 1945); *P*-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure to control for false discovery rate (FDR) resulting in *q*-values (Yoav Benjamini, 1995); *P*-values and *q*-values for each feature were averaged across all MC instances to yield expected *P*-values and *q*-values; any SV with an expected *q*-value less than 0.1 was deemed significant. Colours and colour schemes for all microbiome figures were selected using ColorBrewer 2.0 (Harrower and Brewer, 2003). The reader is referred to the online version of this article for the interpretation of figures in full colour.

*Computational details for microbiome analyses*

Microbiome analyses were performed on MacOS Mojave 10.14.2, running versions: biom-format 2.1.7, Conda 4.5.12, QIIME 2 2018.11.0, Python 3.6.5, R 3.5.2 'Eggshell Igloo', R Studio 1.1.463, and R package versions: ALDEx2 1.14.0, BiocManager 1.30.4, dplyr 0.7.8, ggbiplot 0.55, ggplot2 3.1.0, ggpubr 0.2, grid 3.5.2, reshape2 1.4.3, zCompositions 1.1.2.

*Availability of microbiome data and analytical materials*

The amplicon sequence data supporting the conclusions of this manuscript are available via NCBI SRA BioProject Accession PRJNA516457. Sample metadata are available in Metadata File S1. All code for analysis conducted in QIIME 2 is found in Code S1. The R code to create the manifest for importing FASTQ files into QIIME 2 is found at the beginning of Code S1. See Code S2 for all R code executed following analysis in QIIME 2. Each of the materials needed to replicate the entirety of microbiome analysis can also be found on this project's GitHub repository located at [github.com/kdprkr/MerlinsManuscript](https://github.com/kdprkr/MerlinsManuscript). Please contact the corresponding author if any item needed for microbiome analysis or generation of figures and tables cannot be found, or if any links are broken.

*Non-targeted metabolomics sample processing*

The mouse diets, proximal and distal colon tissues, and whole blood samples were sent to Metabolon Inc © (Durham, NC, USA) for metabolite extraction and metabolite identifications. Mouse diets (200mg), colon tissue (50 milligrams) and whole blood (one mL) were provided on dry ice and were stored at -80°C until use. Each matrix was extracted with 80% methanol and divided into five equal parts for chromatographic extraction including two rounds of reverse-phase ultra-high performance liquid chromatography tandem mass-spectrometry (UPLC-MS/MS) with positive ion mode electrospray ionisation (ESI), one round of reverse-phase UPLC-MS/MS with negative ion mode ESI, one round of hydrophilic-interaction (HILIC)/UPLC-MS/MS with negative ion mode ESI and one back-up sample. Aliquots collected under acidic conditions for positive ion mode analysis of hydrophilic compounds were separated on a C18 column (Waters UPLC BEH C18-2.1x100 mm, 1.7 µm) and gradient-eluted using a water and methanol mobile phase with 0.1% v/v formic acid. Aliquots collected under acidic conditions for positive ion mode analysis of hydrophobic compounds were separated on the same column but were gradient-eluted with a mobile phase containing water, methanol, 0.05% v/v penta-fluoropropionic anhydride and 0.01% formic acid. Aliquots collected under basic conditions for negative ion ESI were separated using a



separate C18 column (Waters UPLC BEH C18-2.1x100 mm, 1.7  $\mu$ m) and gradient-eluted using a water and acetonitrile mobile phase with 6.5 millimolar ammonium bicarbonate at pH of eight. The HILIC aliquot was separated using a HILIC column (Waters UPLC BEH Amide 2.1x150 mm, 1.7 $\mu$ m) and gradient-eluted using a water and acetonitrile mobile phase with 10 millimolar ammonium formate at pH 10.8. Each chromatographically-extracted sample was stored overnight under nitrogen gas before mass-spectral analysis, which was performed on a Thermo Scientific Q-Exactive mass spectrometer operated with a heated-ESI source and at a 35,000-mass resolution. Tandem mass spectrometry scans alternated between MS and MSn scans using dynamic exclusion and covered a range of 70 m/z (mass to charge ratio) to 1,000 m/z. Mass spectral profiles were peak identified and quality-control processed at Metabolon Inc ©. Quality control during sample processing was measured by injecting a cocktail of known chemical standards into each sample prior to chromatography and mass spectrometry, via spectral analysis of a pooled matrix sample containing an equal volume of each sample and using extracted water samples as negative controls. Compound identities were made based on an internal library containing over 3,300 commercially available chemical standards and were annotated based on matches to retention time/index, having an m/z within 10 parts per million to a database standard, and by assessing the overall mass spectral profile matches to database standards. Spectral profiles that were structurally resolved but were otherwise not archived in internal chemical database were reported as 'unknown'.

#### *Metabolomics statistical analysis*

Metabolite raw abundances were normalised by dividing the median raw abundance of that metabolite across the entire dataset for each matrix, and to produce median-scaled abundances. For samples lacking a metabolite, the minimum median scaled abundance of that metabolite across the dataset was input as a minimum value before downstream statistical analysis. Metabolite fold differences were calculated for each metabolite by dividing the average median-scaled abundance of the metabolite in one treatment group by that of a second treatment group for all pairs of treatments within a matrix. For the colon tissue, metabolite median-scaled abundances and fold differences were calculated by pooling together proximal and distal colon into a single sample type. For the study diets (food), colon tissue, and blood, median-scaled abundances for each metabolite were compared using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Welch's post-hoc test, where significance was defined as  $P < 0.05$ . To account for false discovery rate errors, a  $q$ -value was calculated for each metabolite and metabolites with a  $q$ -value less than 0.1 were excluded from downstream analysis.

#### *Metabolic network visualisation*

Metabolic network visualisation with Cytoscape Network Analysis version 2.8.3 was performed to compare the abundances of metabolites that were statistically-different ( $P < 0.05$ ) between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran samples in the food, colon tissue, and blood metabolomes. Metabolites were organised into nodal clusters by chemical class (e.g. lipid, amino acid) and were further separated by metabolic pathway (e.g. sphingolipid, polyamine). Node diameters measured the magnitude of each metabolite's fold difference between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran samples where larger node diameters reflected larger fold difference magnitudes between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran. Red nodes indicated metabolites that increased in *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran and blue nodes indicated metabolites that were significantly decreased. Numbers in nodes are pathway enrichment scores (PES) that indicate a metabolic pathway's relative contribution of statistically-significant metabolites to treatment differences. Pathway enrichment scores were calculated using the following equation:

$$PES = \frac{(m - k)}{(N - n)}$$

The score is determined by subtracting a pathway's number of statistically-different metabolites ( $k$ ) from the total number of metabolites in the pathway ( $m$ ) and then dividing this by the difference in the total number of statistically different metabolites in the entire dataset ( $n$ ) and the total number of metabolites in the dataset ( $N$ ). Metabolites with a  $PES > 1.0$ , indicated a higher proportion of statistically-different metabolites compared to all other pathways, and thus designated pathways contributing to treatment differences.

**Results**

*Metabolome differences between the B. longum-fermented rice bran and the rice bran diets*

Metabolomics of the food identified 663 distinct metabolites that were organised by chemical class and metabolic pathway in Sheet S1. A total of 180 metabolites were statistically-different in abundances between the *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran diets including 56 amino acids (39 increased in fermented rice bran versus rice bran, 17 decreased), two peptides (two increased), eight carbohydrates (six increased, two decreased), three energy pathway metabolites (two increased, one decreased), 34 lipids (16 increased, 18 decreased), 26 nucleotides (25 increased, one decreased), nine cofactors and vitamins (three increased, six decreased), 17 phytochemicals (11 increased, six decreased), and 25 unknown metabolites (eight increased, 17 decreased). These differentially abundant metabolites are visualised for *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran diets in Figure 2 and listed in Table S1, with reported colorectal cancer-protective and antimicrobial functions described in Table S2.

Notably, lipids and amino acids contributed to ~50% of the metabolite differences between fermented rice bran and rice bran diets with nucleotides (~14% of differences), phytochemicals (~9% of differences), and unknown/unnamed metabolites (~14% of differences). Metabolic pathways contributing to the lipids that differed between fermented rice bran and rice bran mouse diets included mevalonate (PES 3.50), glycerolipid (3.50), acyl choline (3.50), medium chain fatty acid (3.50), amino fatty acid (3.50), neurotransmitter (3.50), phosphatidylinositol (3.50), phospholipid (1.70), phosphatidylglycerol (1.70), dihydroxy fatty acid (1.70), and glycolipid (1.20). The amino acid pathways were: glutathione (PES 2.30), alanine and aspartate (2.30), urea cycle, arginine and proline (2.30), polyamine (2.20), tyrosine (2.20), histidine (1.80), glutamate (1.70), lysine (1.30), and leucine, isoleucine and valine (1.10). Lipids and amino acids driving the metabolic pathway differences were N-delta-acetylornithine (170.87 fold-increase in fermented rice bran versus rice bran), (N(1) + N(8))-acetylspermidine (2.11 fold-increase), glutathione, oxidised (0.34 fold-decrease), and glutamine (0.72 fold-decrease) (Figure 2, Table S1, Sheet S1). Other metabolic pathways distinguishing fermented rice bran and rice bran foods were phytochemical pathways benzenes (3.50 PES), the tricarboxylic acid cycle energy pathway (1.30), and the nucleotide pathway guanine (2.00), cytidine (1.50). Metabolites contributing to these additional pathway distinctions of the foods were cytosine (50.58 fold-increase in fermented rice bran versus rice bran), 2'-deoxyguanosine (2.35 fold-increase), salicylate (1.35 fold-increase), and tricarballoylate (1.24 fold-increase).

*Bacterial composition of the caecum, colon, and faeces of mice fed control, rice bran, or B. longum-fermented rice bran diets*

The relative abundances of any SV sharing taxonomic affiliation with the genus *Bifidobacterium* was used to determine whether an enrichment of the fermenting strain occurred in the microbiomes of mice consuming *B. longum*-fermented rice bran. A total of nine SVs had *Bifidobacterium* assignments; six were not assigned beyond the genus level,

two were identified as *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum*, and 1 was assigned as *Bifidobacterium bifidum*. The three SVs with species level assignments were nearly undetectable across microbiomes of mice from all study diets and all sample types, while the six *Bifidobacterium* SVs were primarily present in faecal samples, independent of study diet (Figure S1 A-C). These results indicate minimal enrichment of the fermenting strain in the gut microbiomes of mice consuming *B. longum*-fermented rice bran.

Taxonomy-independent microbiota composition was qualitatively explored using centred log-ratio transformed SV abundances ordinated by PCA. These results revealed a separation between faecal microbiomes and microbiomes originating from the caecum and colon, with the latter sample types showing relative similarity to one another (Figure 3A). Comparisons by diet groups indicated compositional differences between control and mice fed with either rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran (Figure 3B). No clear separation or trend was observed between microbiomes from mice fed rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran (Figure 3B). Importantly, negative controls were ordinated alongside diets, and broad relationships between sample types and study diets persisted (Figure S2).

Given the similarity for both proximal and distal colon and caecum microbiomes reported above, these tissues were grouped, and differentially abundant SVs were assessed in pairwise for all diet combinations using ALDEx2. Thirty differentially abundant SVs were identified between microbiomes from mice fed a control diet or a rice bran diet; 16 higher in control and 14 higher in rice bran (Table S3). Fifty-eight differentially abundant SVs were identified between microbiomes from mice fed a control diet or a *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet; 36 higher in control and higher in *B. longum*-fermented rice bran (Table S3). Six identical SVs showed higher proportion in both experimental diets when either was compared to control (Figure S3). The pairwise comparison between experimental diet groups resulted in 2 differentially abundant SVs. One SV was taxonomically assigned by the SILVA classifier to the genus *Roseburia* and showed higher proportion in mice fed *B. longum*-fermented rice bran (Figure 4A). The second SV's taxonomic resolution was limited to the order level, assigned as Clostridiales, and exhibited higher proportion in mice fed rice bran (Figure 4B).

### *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets modulate the bioavailability of compounds in the colon metabolome of healthy mice

A total of 664 metabolites were identified in the colon metabolome. The complete list was included in Sheet S1. In the colon tissue, there were 125 amino acids, 25 peptides, 33 carbohydrates, 12 energy metabolites, 301 lipids, 43 nucleotides, 34 cofactors/vitamins, 25 phytochemicals/others, and 66 unknown metabolites. Eighty metabolites significantly-differed in abundance ( $P < 0.05$ ) in the colon tissue between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran fed mice and included three amino acids (three increased), one energy metabolite (one increased), 69 lipids (69 decreased), one nucleotide (one increased), two cofactors/vitamins (two decreased), two phytochemicals/other (one increased, one decreased), and two unknown metabolites (two increased). Figure 5 shows the lipid metabolites that comprised the majority class of significant metabolites (~86%) in the colon tissue of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran fed mice versus rice bran-fed mice (69 increased). Lipid metabolic pathways driving these diet-differences included sphingosine (PES 7.70), sphingolipid synthesis (7.70), sphingomyelin (5.80), polyunsaturated fatty acid (2.20), and sterol (1.90). Lipid metabolites contributing to metabolic pathway differences included the polyunsaturated fatty acid nisininate (0.12 fold-decrease in the colon tissue of fermented rice versus rice bran-fed mice), the sphingolipid synthesis metabolites sphinganine (0.53 fold-decrease), sphingadienine (0.45 fold decrease), the sphingomyelin metabolite palmitoyl-sphingomyelin (0.55 fold-decrease), the sphingosine metabolite sphingosine (0.57 fold-decrease), and the sterol cholesterol (0.53 fold-decrease). A complete list of the differentially

abundant known metabolites was visualised for the colon tissue of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran fed mice versus rice bran fed mice in Figure 5 and are listed in Table S1, and these statistically-different colon tissue metabolites with reported colorectal cancer-protective and antimicrobial functions are described in Table S2.

*B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets modulate the blood metabolome of healthy mice.

A total of 802 metabolites were identified in the blood metabolome including 172 amino acids, 36 peptides, 31 carbohydrates, 11 energy metabolites, 354 lipids, 43 nucleotides, 20 cofactors/vitamins, 44 phytochemicals/others, and 91 unknown metabolites (Sheet S1). Fifty blood metabolites had significantly-different ( $P<0.05$ ) abundances between mice fed fermented rice bran versus rice bran including 19 amino acids (14 increased, five decreased), three peptides (three increased), two carbohydrates (two increased), 13 lipids (nine increased, four decreased), three nucleotides (one increased, two decreased), one cofactors/vitamins (one increased), four phytochemicals/others (three increased, one decreased), and five unknown metabolites (three increased, two decreased). Lipid (26%) and amino acid (38%) metabolites accounted for the majority of blood metabolites with statistically-different ( $P<0.05$ ) abundances between mice fed *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran. Lipid and amino acid metabolic pathways contributing to these blood metabolome differences included inositol (PES 18.23), secondary bile acid (2.03), primary bile acid (1.66), glutathione (3.65), polyamine (3.04), glutamate (2.03), and urea cycle, arginine and proline (1.82). Metabolites driving differences across these pathways included the urea cycle, arginine and proline metabolite N-delta-acetyl-ornithine (4.44 fold-increased in the blood of mice consuming fermented rice bran versus rice bran), the primary bile acid chenodeoxycholate (1.79 fold-increase), the secondary bile acid deoxycholate (1.49 fold-increase), the polyamine 5-methylthioadenosine (1.54 fold-increase), the glutathione metabolite glutathione, oxidised (1.53 fold-increase), the glutamate metabolite glutamine (1.31 fold-increase), the polyunsaturated fatty acid arachidonate (1.28 fold-increase), and the inositol metabolite myo-inositol (0.67 fold-decrease). The statistically-different blood metabolites between diet groups are provided in Table 2 and Table S1, and those with reported colorectal cancer-protective and antimicrobial functions are described in Table S2.

Table 2. Differentially abundant blood metabolites in mice consuming <i>B. longum</i> -fermented rice bran versus rice bran diets.			
Metabolic Pathway (PES) <sup>1</sup>	Metabolites	Fold Difference <sup>2</sup> FRB RB	P-value
Amino Acids			
Alanine and Aspartate (2.60)	N-acetylasparagine	↑1.33	0.043
Glutamate (2.03)	glutamine	↑1.31	0.044
Histidine (1.07)	1-methyl-4-imidazole acetate	↑1.26	0.0085
Tryptophan (1.07)	N-formylanthranilic acid	↑1.25	0.014
Lysine (1.82)	2-oxoadipate	↓0.69	0.026
Tyrosine (2.80)	tyrosine	↑1.32	0.043
Leucine, Isoleucine and Valine (0.63)	1-carboxyethyltyrosine	↑1.49	0.030
Methionine, Cysteine, and Taurine (1.22)	3-methylglutaconate	↑1.32	0.027
	N-formylmethionine	↑1.24	0.0093
Urea Cycle, Arginine and Proline (1.82)	N-delta-acetylornithine	↑4.44	0.0052
	N2,N5-diacetylornithine	↑2.09	7.33E-8
Polyamine (3.04)	5-methylthioadenosine	↑1.54	0.022
Glutathione (3.65)	glutathione, oxidised	↑1.53	0.035
	ophthalmate	↑1.39	0.049
Peptides			
Dipeptide (3.65)	valylglycine	↑2.87	0.0096
Carbohydrates			
Pentose (4.05)	arabitol/xylitol	↑1.48	0.0068
	arabonate/xylonate	↑1.12	0.037
Lipids			



Carnitine (1.07)	propionylcarnitine	↑1.53	0.033
	cis-4-decenoylcarnitine	↑1.59	0.047
Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid (1.01)	arachidonate	↑1.28	0.033
Dicarboxylate Fatty Acid (1.07)	octadecenedioate*	↑1.36	0.031
Inositol (18.23)	myo-inositol	↓0.67	0.020
Phospholipid (2.28)	choline	↑1.30	0.0076
Plasmalogen (2.28)	1-(1-enyl-palmitoyl)-2-linoleoyl-glycerophosphocholine	↓0.78	0.033
Diacylglycerol (1.01)	oleoyl-oleoyl-glycerol*	↓0.36	0.045
Lactosylceramides (18.23)	lactosyl-N-palmitoyl-sphingosine	↓0.40	0.023
Primary Bile Acid (1.66)	chenodeoxycholate	↑1.79	0.033
Secondary Bile Acid (2.03)	deoxycholate	↑1.49	0.0062
<b>Nucleotides</b>			
Uracil (1.40)	N-acetyl-beta-alanine	↓0.20	0.00050
Cytidine (3.04)	cytosine	↑5.67	0.00040
Thymine (6.08)	5,6-dihydrothymine	↓0.31	0.022
<b>Vitamins/Cofactors</b>			
Tetrahydrobiopterin (9.12)	biopterin	↑1.19	0.044
Hemoglobin and Porphyrin (6.08)	biliverdin	↑2.10	0.047
<b>Phytochemical/Other</b>			
Phytochemical (1.52)	2-hydroxyhippurate (salicylurate)	↑2.27	0.023
	thiopropine	↓0.77	0.0030
Other (2.14)	ergothionine	↑1.77	0.0072
	erythritol	↑1.32	0.017

1. PES: Pathway enrichment score

2. FRB: Fermented Rice Bran; RB: Rice Bran

\* Indicates metabolite annotation was not made via an internal Metabolon library standard but predicted using spectral profiles from curated chemical databases.

## Discussion

We examined daily dietary intake of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran for metabolic distinctions to non-fermented rice bran or a control diet intake for 15 weeks in healthy mice. Dietary interventions were assessed for effects on gut microbial bacterial community composition and for uptake of metabolic by-products into the host in the colon tissue and blood. This study showed that despite considerable differences in the food metabolomes of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and non-fermented rice bran, the effects were subtle on the gut microbiota composition. Using a healthy murine model was a key aspect of these investigations as colon microbiome composition, and blood and colon metabolite profiles were not disturbed, and thus the differences in the colon tissue and blood metabolomes detected between mice fed *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus the non-fermented form have strong implications for mechanisms involved in enteric disease prevention.

Compositional analysis of caecum and colon microbiomes indicated clear differences between mice fed a control diet and mice fed with either rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran; however, the differences between experimental diets were limited. The sequencing methodologies employed in this study did not differentiate between metabolically active, dormant, or dead prokaryotic organisms (Emerson *et al.*, 2017). The low abundance of *Bifidobacterium* spp. in caecum and colon microbiomes and the similar abundance in faecal microbiomes across all study diets indicated nominal, if any, enrichment of the fermenting strain in microbiomes of mice consuming *B. longum*-fermented rice bran. The two SV's identified as differentially abundant did taxonomically affiliate with the genus *Roseburia* and was associated with mice fed a *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet. This was of particular interest because *Roseburia* are known to produce beneficial short-chain fatty acids, in addition to other compounds exerting anti-inflammatory activity in the gut (Tamanai-Shacoori *et al.*, 2017). Reduced abundance or loss of *Roseburia* spp. have been associated with a variety of diseases, including colorectal cancer (Rezasoltani *et al.*, 2018). An additional differentially abundant SV represented by *Roseburia* was identified for paired comparisons of each experimental diet to control and showed strong association with rice bran and *B. longum*-fermented rice bran fed mice.



The *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran diets exhibited large differences in host uptake and metabolism of bioactive molecules in the colon and blood that had previously reported colorectal cancer-protective and antimicrobial functions. The lipid and amino acid metabolic pathways represented the majority of metabolite abundance changes in the food, colon tissue, and blood metabolomes when with *B. longum*-fermented rice bran fed mice were compared to rice bran fed mice. Increased bioavailability of N-delta-acetylornithine in colon (11.77-fold increase) and blood (4.44-fold increase) when comparing mice consuming fermented rice bran versus rice bran was supported by substantially increased abundance in the food (170.87-fold increase). N-delta-acetylornithine is a secondary metabolite of plants that has roles in protecting plant tissues from herbivore damage and bacterial infections (Adio *et al.*, 2011). Previous studies have shown that some colorectal cancer tumours had lower levels of N-delta-acetylornithine when compared to levels in health mucosal colonocytes (Gómez de Cedrón *et al.*, 2017), suggesting that depletion of this metabolite may either promote or facilitate the dysregulated metabolism associated with colorectal cancer pathogenesis. The increased colon and blood levels of N-delta-acetylornithine merit mechanistic examination for its effects on host colonocyte metabolism.

Another potential regulator of colonocyte and gut bacterial metabolism was demonstrated by the increased uptake of tricarballoylate (23.34 fold-increase) in mice consuming *B. longum*-fermented rice bran compared to rice bran alone. Tricarballoylate has been previously reported to function as an aconitase inhibitor where it decreased the conversion of citrate into isocitrate to reduce metabolite flux through the tricarboxylic acid cycle and diminished *Salmonella* proliferation (Nealon *et al.*, 2017; Watson *et al.*, 1969). When tricarballoylate was administered to rats, decreased succinate was produced in colonocytes, which is a downstream product of citrate metabolism in the tricarboxylic acid cycle, suggesting that its biochemical mechanisms also function in mammalian systems (Wolffram *et al.*, 1994). Tricarballoylate-mediated interference in colorectal cancer cell function has not been characterised; however, given the increased tricarboxylic acid cycle activity reported in multiple cancer types and in several lines of chemotherapy-resistant neoplastic colonocytes (Zhou *et al.*, 2012), tricarballoylate from foods or foods that increase tricarballoylate uptake by colonocytes warrant investigation for possible protection against colorectal cancer. Also noteworthy was that a decreased pH in the lumen enhanced tricarballoylate uptake into colonocytes (Zhou *et al.*, 2012). Given the capacity of rice bran to be fermented in the colon lumen, it is plausible to suggest that *B. longum*-fermented rice bran increased the availability of fermentable substrates to the murine colon microbiota thereby creating a lower pH-environment to favour enhanced tricarballoylate uptake when compared to mice consuming the non-fermented rice bran diet.

While the *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet metabolome itself delivered different levels of bioactive metabolites to the host compared to the rice bran diet, differential metabolism of fermented rice bran versus rice bran within the host further influenced levels of enteric disease protective metabolites. For example, the bile acid 4-cholesten-3-one was not differentially abundant between the *B. longum*-fermented and rice bran diets, but it was significantly lowered in the colon tissue (0.74-fold decrease) of mice consuming fermented rice bran compared to mice consuming rice bran alone. In colon tissue, 4-cholesten-3-one has been shown to increase inflammatory responses by the mucosal immune system via decreasing the production of the anti-inflammatory cytokine tumour growth factor beta, and it was significantly-increased in the faeces of adults with colorectal cancer versus healthy adults (Chen *et al.*, 2017a). Decreased 4-cholesten-3-one in the colon tissue of mice consuming *B. longum*-fermented rice bran may suggest that fermented rice bran exerts cancer-protective effects by modulating host colonocyte metabolism when compared to rice bran alone. Chronic inflammation facilitates both tumour initiation and promotion in colorectal cancer (Chen *et*

*al.*, 2017b), and this investigation of fermented foods that reduce inflammatory cascades could contribute guidelines for disease prevention.

## Conclusions

*B. longum*-fermented rice bran did not considerably modulate the healthy murine faecal, caeca, or colon microbiomes when compared to non-fermented rice bran, yet the diet did elicit production of a suite of unique food and microbial metabolites that were identified in the host colon and bloodstream. Most of these changes were amino acids and lipids produced by both the host and the gut microbiome that have important implications for detailed assessments of fermented diets and for enhancing bioavailability and promoting colon health. The assessment of metabolome and microbiome in concert provided an important and powerful approach to further our understanding of how fermentation modulates bioactivity of rice bran in a healthy host system. This study design and methodology has utility for screening of probiotic strains that will optimise rice bran's capacity for safety, prophylaxis and therapeutic potential aimed toward gastrointestinal disorders across the lifespan.

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## Figure Legends

### Figure 1. Study design and timeline of sampling.

Male BALB/c mice were fed control, rice bran, or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets for 15 weeks. Faeces, caecum, and colon were collected for both microbiota and metabolite analysis; blood was collected for metabolite analysis only.

### Figure 2. Fermentation with *B. longum* alters the rice bran food metabolome.

Metabolites that were statistically-different in abundance between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran food metabolomes are depicted. Metabolites are organised by chemical class and further stratified by metabolic pathway, where each coloured node represents one metabolite. Node diameter reflects the magnitude of the fold abundance difference for the metabolite between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran. Red nodes indicate metabolites that were significantly-increased in *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran, and blue nodes indicate metabolites that were significantly-decreased in *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran. Numbers in nodes are pathway enrichment scores.

### Figure 3. Healthy murine microbiomes exhibit clear separation in community composition based upon sample type and diet group.

Principal components analysis of centred log-ratio transformed absolute abundances for all sequence variants with abundance greater than two in faecal, colon, and caecum samples. Percentage values along each axis indicate the amount of variation explained by each of the first two principal components. [A] Symbols and colours denote sample type (faecal, caecum, distal or proximal colon; see key). [B] Letters and s denote mouse diet group (control, rice bran, *B. longum*-fermented rice bran; see key).

**Figure 4. Consumption of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran minimally alters the caecum and colon microbiomes of healthy mice.**

[A-B] Strip charts of median centred log-ratio values for two sequence variants considered to be differentially abundant ( $q < 0.1$ ) between microbiomes from mice fed a *B. longum*-fermented rice bran or a rice bran diet. Symbols denote sample type (caecum, distal or proximal colon; see key); line style and colours denote mouse diet (rice bran, *B. longum*-fermented rice bran; see key). Lines represent the median clr value for all samples within a diet group, while points represent the median clr value for each individual sample. Sequence variant taxonomic identities from Greengenes and SILVA databases are indicated on the x-axis styled as Greengenes/SILVA.

**Figure 5. Consumption of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran alters the colon tissue metabolome of healthy mice.**

Metabolites that were statistically-different in abundance between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran-fed mice are depicted. Metabolites are organised by chemical class and further stratified by metabolic pathway, where each coloured node represents one metabolite. Node diameter reflects the magnitude of the fold abundance difference for the metabolite between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran. Red nodes indicate metabolites that were significantly-increased in the colon of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran fed mice versus rice bran fed mice, and blue nodes indicate metabolites that were significantly-decreased in *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran. Numbers in nodes are pathway enrichment scores.

**Figure S1. Consumption of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran or control does not enrich the fermenting strain**

Stacked bar charts of relative abundance data from nine sequence variants assigned to the genus *Bifidobacterium*. Taxonomic assignment was made to the lowest possible taxonomic level that could be achieved with confidence threshold equal to or above 0.75 for both Greengenes- and SILVA-based classifiers. Panels are grouped by study diet [A-C] or negative controls [D].

**Figure S2. Experimental microbiome samples display dissimilarity from negative control samples.**

Principal components analysis of centred log-ratio transformed absolute abundances for all sequence variants with abundance greater than two in faecal, colon, and caecum experimental samples alongside negative controls. Percentage values along each axis indicate the amount of variation explained by each of the first two principal components. [A] Symbols and colours denote sample type (see key). [B] Letters and colours denote mouse diet (see key).

**Figure S3. Consumption of a rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet alters healthy murine microbiome composition.**

[A-F] Strip charts of median centred log-ratio values for six differentially abundant ( $q < 0.1$ ) sequence variants exhibiting conserved enrichment in microbiomes from mice fed rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets compared to mice fed a control diet. Symbols denote sample type; line style and colours denote mouse diet (see key). Lines represent the median clr value for all samples within a diet group, while points represent the median clr value for each individual sample. Sequence variant taxonomic identities from Greengenes and SILVA databases are indicated on the x-axis as Greengenes/SILVA.

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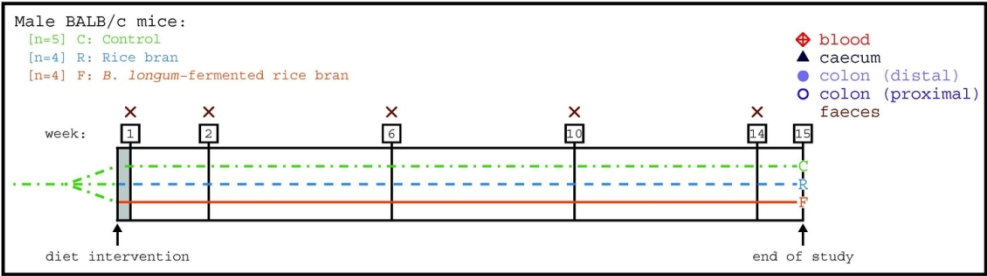


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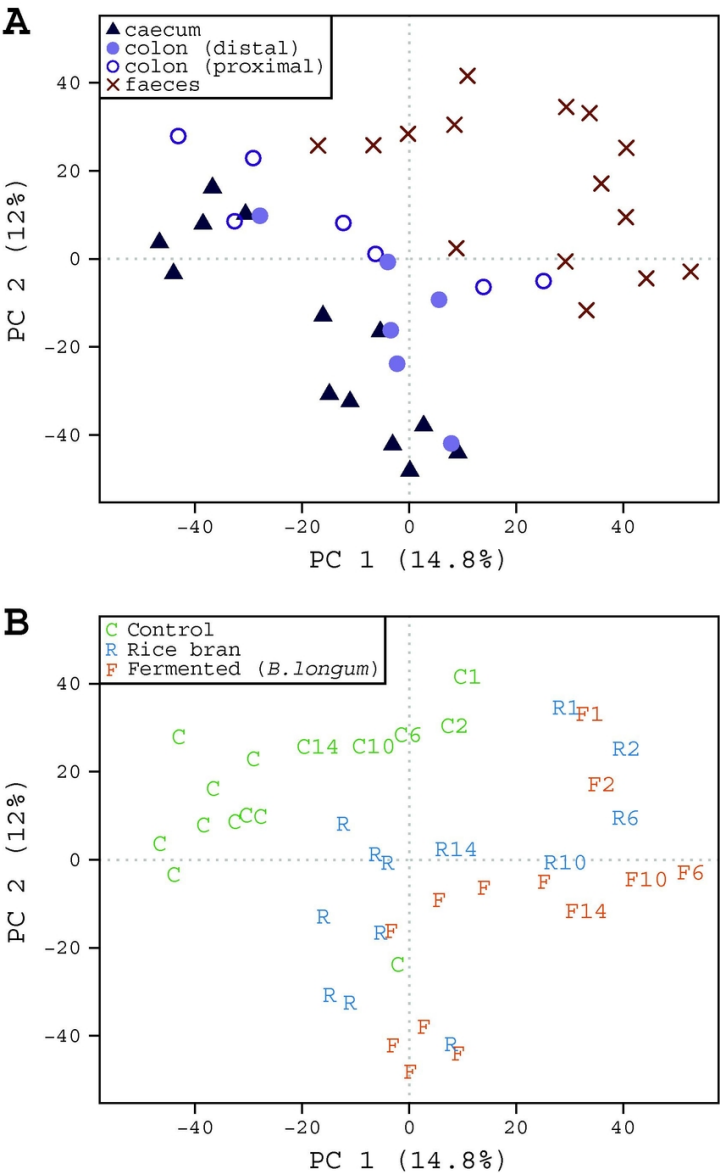


**Figure 1. Study design and timeline of sampling.** Male BALB/c mice were fed control, rice bran, or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets for 15 weeks. Faeces, caecum, and colon were collected for both microbiota and metabolite analysis; blood was collected for metabolite analysis only.

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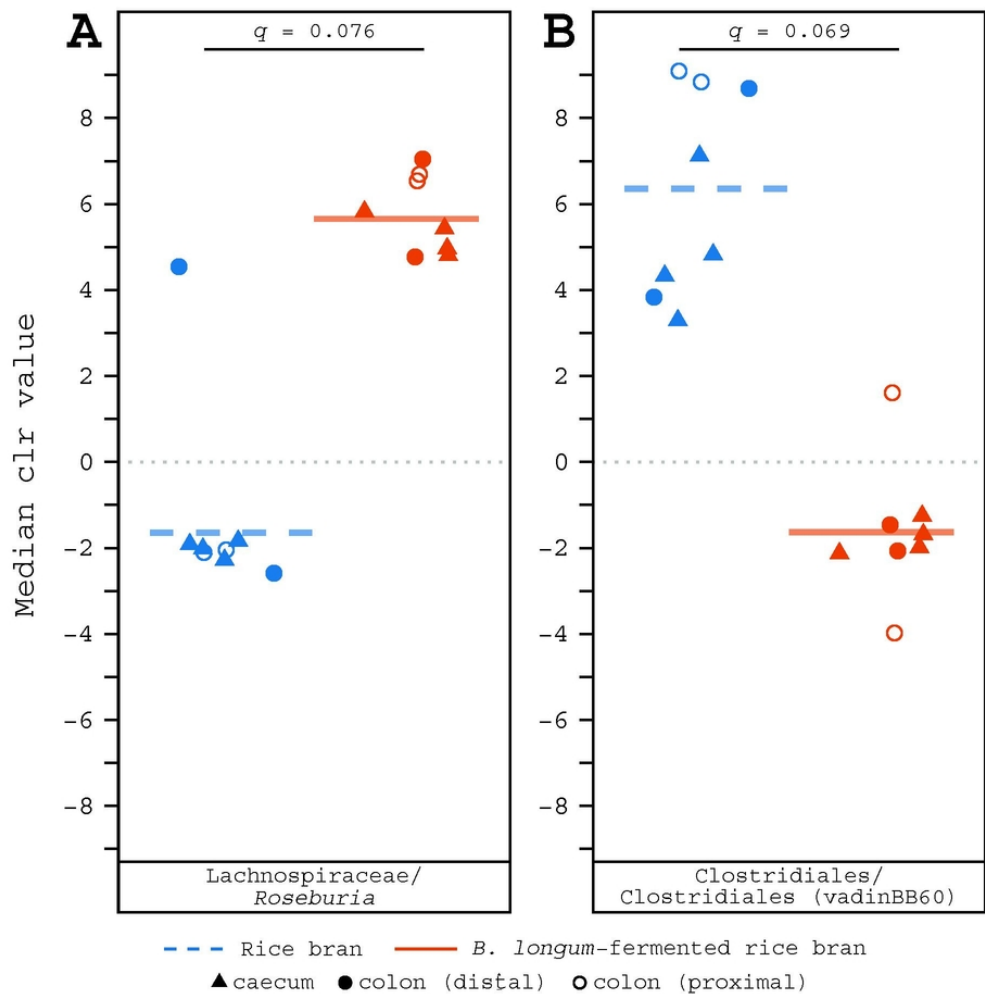


**Figure 3. Healthy murine microbiomes exhibit clear separation in community composition based upon sample type and diet group.**

Principal components analysis of centred log-ratio transformed absolute abundances for all sequence variants with abundance greater than two in faecal, colon, and caecum samples. Percentage values along each axis indicate the amount of variation explained by each of the first two principal components. [A] Symbols and colours denote sample type (faecal, caecum, distal or proximal colon; see key). [B] Letters and s denote mouse diet group (control, rice bran, *B. longum*-fermented rice bran; see key).

74x119mm (300 x 300 DPI)

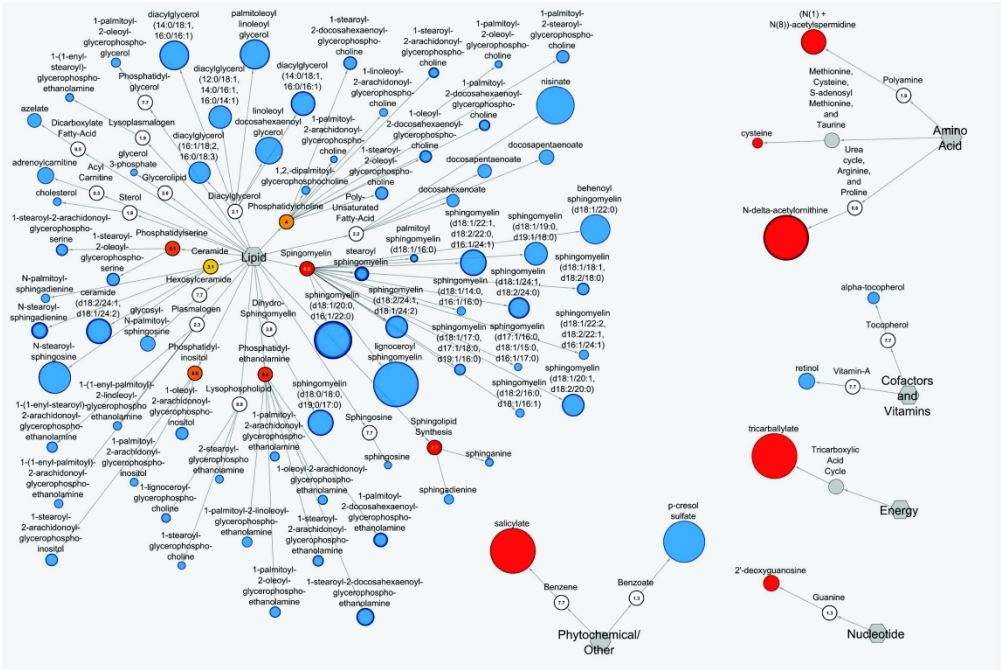




**Figure 4. Consumption of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran minimally alters the caecum and colon microbiomes of healthy mice.**

[A-B] Strip charts of median centred log-ratio values for two sequence variants considered to be differentially abundant ( $q < 0.1$ ) between microbiomes from mice fed a *B. longum*-fermented rice bran or a rice bran diet. Symbols denote sample type (caecum, distal or proximal colon; see key); line style and colours denote mouse diet (rice bran, *B. longum*-fermented rice bran; see key). Lines represent the median clr value for all samples within a diet group, while points represent the median clr value for each individual sample. Sequence variant taxonomic identities from Greengenes and SILVA databases are indicated on the x-axis styled as Greengenes/SILVA.

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**Figure 5. Consumption of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran alters the colon tissue metabolome of healthy mice.** Metabolites that were statistically-different in abundance between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran-fed mice are depicted. Metabolites are organised by chemical class and further stratified by metabolic pathway, where each coloured node represents one metabolite. Node diameter reflects the magnitude of the fold abundance difference for the metabolite between *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran. Red nodes indicate metabolites that were significantly-increased in the colon of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran fed mice versus rice bran fed mice, and blue nodes indicate metabolites that were significantly-decreased in *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran. Numbers in nodes are pathway enrichment scores.

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