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Host and gut microbial metabolism of *Bifidobacterium longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran in healthy mice.

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supplementary_material.tar.gz	

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Host and gut microbial metabolism of *Bifidobacterium longum*-fermented rice bran and rice bran in healthy mice.

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

Commented [NJ1]: COMMENT: Firstly, in title the use of words ...antimicrobial and cancer-protective compounds. These words are based on the property of selective metabolites. But the evolved metabolites are also reported to be antioxidant, antitoxicant, and other health supportive. So, question may arise why only given emphasis upon only two properties.

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 metabolism by 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 rice bran and fermented rice bran intake. Adult male BALB/c mice were fed a control diet or one of two experimental diets containing 10% w/w rice bran fermented by *Bifidobacterium longum* or 10% w/w non-fermented rice bran for 15 weeks. Metabolomics was performed on the study diets (food), the murine colon and whole blood. These were analysed in concert with 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing of faeces, caecum, and colon microbiomes. Principal components analysis of murine microbiota composition displayed marked separation between control and experimental diets, and between faecal and tissue microbiomes. Tissue microbiomes in both experimental diet groups showed enrichment of *Roseburia*, *Lachnospiraceae*, and *Clostridiales* related sequence variants compared to control. Bacterial composition was largely similar between experimental diets. Metabolite profiling revealed 530 small molecules comprising of 39% amino acids and 21% lipids that had differential abundances across food, colon, and blood matrices that were differentially abundant between the control, rice bran, and fermented rice bran groups. The amino acid metabolite, N-delta-acetylornithine, was notably increased by *B. longum* rice bran fermentation when compared to non-fermented rice bran in food, colon, and blood. These findings support that dietary intake of rice bran fermented with *B. longum* modulates multiple metabolic pathways associated with antimicrobial actions and colon cancer prevention that merit continued assessment with other probiotic strains and gastrointestinal disease models.

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). Gut commensal microbes have shown the capacity for fermenting rice bran carbohydrates, phytochemicals, lipids and amino acids in animals and people (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

Commented [NJN2]: COMMENT: Secondly, the metabolites and microbiome composition should be compared from the control animal, that is completely lacking.

Commented [NJ3]: COMMENT 1: Page 2 Line 52-53: What do you mean with the sentences "Rice bran components have also shown capacity for fermentation by gut commensal microbes"? Do you mean that is able to be fermented by colon microbiota? Do you know what the main non digestible components of rice bran are and their proportion in the flour?

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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 bioavailability of the fermented food microbial-metabolic components into 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 our knowledge, no studies currently provide direct comparisons to the non-fermented form of the same food type. Globally, lactic acid bacteria are the widest order of microbes involved in food fermentation (Pessione and Cirrincione, 2016), and a variety of these organisms exist as part of the native gut microbiome to confer benefits to the 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 alongside modulations to rice bran-derived carbohydrates, phytochemicals, amino acids and lipids (Sheflin *et al.*, 2015), supporting the bifidogenic properties of rice bran components. 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), yet other metabolites contributing to *Bifidobacterium* health promotion need further characterization.

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 1.5×10^8 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 an airtight stainless-steel pot that was incubated at 37°C under ambient oxygen conditions. After 48hrs, the resultant slurry was harvested at room temperature, and frozen at -20°C until lyophilisation.

Mouse diet preparation and composition

Commented [NJ4]: COMMENT 5: In this sentence you compare the effect of fermented bran vs non fermented bran. May the bran components be considered as bifidogenic factor?

Commented [kdp5]: COMMENT 2: In fermentation changes in lactate and short chain fatty acids needs to be considered. Besides this, metabolites share also produced in the gut and exert beneficial effects.

Commented [NJ6]: COMMENT 2: Can you detail the preparation of fermented bran ? Did you use anaerobic condition to perform the fermentation? Did you analyse pH, Bifidobacterium growth or organic acid production to determine fermentation conditions? What do you mean with the word “sealed”?

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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 and were designed for feeding to healthy adult mice. 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 gamma-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.

Commented [NJN7]: COMMENT 3: Thirdly, question may arise about the non-response of the gut flora by the application of fermented food.

Commented [NJ8]: COMMENT 4: The own microbiota of the bran may also compete with the starter during fermentation and this fact is not considered.

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 ¹	0.008	0.008	0.008
Rice bran	0	100.0	0
<i>B. longum</i> -fermented rice bran	0	0	100.00

¹TBHQ: 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.

Commented [NJN9]: COMMENT 6: At what time after the meals were the blood samples collected?

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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 CO₂ 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 2-3 mm 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 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 visualised using 1 µL 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 3.5.3](#) (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-

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Albaladejo and Martín-Fernández, 2015). CZM adjusted 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. The package BiocParallel from the Bioconductor suite was used to execute ALDEx2 functions using multi-core processing to reduce computational time. 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 10.14.3, running versions: biom-format 2.1.7, Conda 4.5.12, QIIME 2 2018.11.0, Python 3.6.5, R 3.5.3, Great Truth, R Studio 1.1.463, and R package versions: ALDEx2 1.14.1, BiocParallel BiocManager 1.30.4, dplyr 0.8.1.1, ggbiplot 0.55, ggplot2 3.1.1, ggpubr 0.2, grid 3.5.3, reshape2 1.4.3, zCompositions 1.2.0.

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. 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 μ m) 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 μ 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 μ 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

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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:

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

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*). Metabolic pathways with a PES>1.0 containing at least five metabolites, indicated that this pathway had a higher proportion of statistically-different metabolites compared to all other pathways and were used to designate pathways contributing to treatment differences.

Results

Metabolome differences between control, rice bran and B. longum fermented rice bran dietary treatments

Metabolomics of the food identified 663 distinct metabolites that were organised by chemical class and metabolic pathway in Sheet S1. A total of 327 metabolites were statistically-different in abundances between two or more study diets tall three study diets including 82amino acids four peptides, 18 carbohydrates, eight energy pathway metabolites, 87 lipids, 29 nucleotides, 13 cofactors and vitamins, 33 phytochemicals/other, and 53 unknown metabolites. These differentially-abundant metabolites are listed in Table S1.

Lipids and amino acids contributed to ~51% of the metabolite differences between the three diets with nucleotides (~8% of differences), phytochemicals (~10% of differences), and unknown/unnamed metabolites (~16% of differences). Multiple metabolic pathways distinguished the three diets and are reported in Figure 2. These metabolic pathways included 14 amino acid pathways, 11 lipid pathways, two carbohydrate pathways, one energy pathway, five nucleotide pathways, two cofactor/vitamin pathways, and two phytochemical/other pathways. Lactate, a metabolic end-product of fermentation, was significantly increased (P<0.05) in the *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet compared to the control diet (33.27-fold increase) and to the rice bran diet (95.94-fold increase). Amino acids driving the metabolic pathway differences included the arginine metabolite N-delta-acetylornithine (224.67-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus control, 170.87 fold-increase in fermented rice bran versus rice bran) and the polyamine 5-methylthioadenosine (2.11-fold increase and 0.070-fold decrease for both fermented rice bran versus control and fermented rice bran versus rice bran respectively). Other compounds contributing to these metabolic pathway differences between dietary treatments included the tricarboxylic acid metabolite tricarballylate (2.42-fold increase rice bran versus control, 3.00-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus control, 1.24-fold increase fermented rice bran versus rice bran), and the phytochemical salicylate (5.74-fold increase rice bran versus control, 7.77-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus control, 1.35-fold increase fermented rice bran versus rice bran) (Figure 2, Table S1, Sheet S1).

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

The relative abundance for any SV sharing taxonomic affiliation with the genus *Bifidobacterium* was used to determine whether an enrichment of the fermenting strain

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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 from all mouse groups, while the six *Bifidobacterium* SVs were predominantly in faecal samples, independent of study diet (Figure S1). These results indicate minimal enrichment of the fermenting strain in the gut microbiomes of mice consuming *B. longum*-fermented rice bran.

Taxonomy-independent murine 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 group indicated compositional differences between control and both rice bran and *B. longum*-fermented rice bran groups (Figure 3B). No clear separation was observed between microbiomes of mice fed rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran (Figure 3B). Importantly, when negative controls were ordinated alongside diets, these relationships persisted (Figure S2).

Given the similarity for 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 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 mice fed a control diet or a *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet; 36 higher in control and 22 higher in *B. longum*-fermented rice bran (Table S3). Six identical SVs showed higher proportion in both experimental rice bran diets when each was compared to control, while ten identical SVs were higher in control for both comparisons (Figure 4A and 4B; Figure S3A and S3B). The comparison between rice bran and *B. longum*-fermented rice bran groups revealed two differentially abundant SVs: a *Roseburia*-related SV enriched in mice fed *B. longum*-fermented rice bran; and a *Clostridiales*-related SV enriched in mice fed rice bran (Figure 4C and S3C).

Control, rice bran and *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets modulate 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. Figure 5 shows the metabolic pathways differentiating the colon tissue metabolomes across control, rice bran and *B. longum*-fermented rice bran-fed mice, and these individual metabolites, their fold differences between treatments, and p-values are listed in Table S1. Metabolic pathways driving these colon metabolite differences across the three dietary groups. These metabolic pathways included five amino acid pathways, one peptide pathway, thirteen lipid pathways, one nucleotide pathway, two cofactor/vitamin pathways, and one phytochemical/other pathway. Across the three dietary groups, 159 metabolites significantly-differed in abundance ($P < 0.05$) in the colon tissue including 13 amino acids, one peptide, one carbohydrate, one energy metabolite, 121 lipids, two nucleotides, four cofactors/vitamins, five phytochemicals/other, and twelve unknown metabolites.

Lipids, which contributed to ~76% of the differentially-abundant colon metabolites between study groups, included sphingadienine (0.32-fold decrease in fermented rice bran versus control, 0.45 fold-decrease in fermented rice bran versus rice bran), and sphingosine

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(0.48-fold decrease in fermented rice bran versus control, 0.57-fold decrease in fermented rice bran versus rice bran Amino acid metabolite contributors included arginine metabolite N-delta-acetylornithine (11.18-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus control, 11.77-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus rice bran), and the tricarboxylic acid metabolite tricarballylate (23.34-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus rice bran). Additional metabolites contributing to colon metabolome differences included the vitamin E metabolite alpha-tocopherol (0.33-fold decrease in fermented rice bran versus control, 0.38-fold decrease in fermented rice bran versus rice bran), and the phytochemical salicylate (16.65-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus control, 18.78-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus rice bran).

Dietary treatments differentially 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). One hundred fifty-four blood metabolites had significantly-different ($P<0.05$) abundances two or more treatments including 32 amino acids, three peptides, seven carbohydrates, one energy metabolite, 53 lipids, 59 nucleotides, six cofactors/vitamins, 21 phytochemicals/others, and 16 unknown metabolites. Lipid (~34%), nucleotide (~38%) and amino acid (~21%) metabolites accounted for the majority of blood metabolites with statistically-different ($P<0.05$) abundances between the **control group**, rice bran, and *B. longum*-fermented rice bran-fed mice.

Metabolic pathways and metabolites that distinguished the blood metabolome of diet groups are shown in Table 2 and those with selected bioactivities are described in Table S2. These included ten amino acid pathways, 14 lipid pathways, three nucleotide pathways, three peptide pathways, two carbohydrate pathways, one energy pathway, one cofactor/vitamin pathway, and one phytochemical pathway. included Metabolites contributing to blood metabolome differences included the arginine metabolite N-delta-acetyl-ornithine (2.16-fold increase in rice bran versus control, 9.59-fold fermented rice bran versus rice bran, 4.44 fold-increased in fermented rice bran versus rice bran), and the polyamine 5-methylthioadenosine (1.51-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus control, 1.54-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus rice bran. Additional metabolite contributors included the secondary bile acid deoxycholate (0.78-fold decrease fermented rice bran versus control, 1.49 fold-increase fermented rice bran versus rice bran) and the nucleotide cytosine (6.48-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus control, 5.67-fold increase in fermented rice bran versus rice bran).

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Table 2. Differentially abundant blood metabolites in mice consuming control, rice bran and <i>B. longum</i> -fermented rice bran diets.				
Metabolic Pathway ²	Metabolites	Fold Difference ¹		
		RB CON	FRB CON	FRB RB
Alanine and Aspartate	N-acetylaspargine	↑1.35	↑1.81	↑1.33
	glutamine	0.96	1.26	↑1.31
Glutamate	pyroglutamine	1.33	↑2.07	1.56
	1-methyl-4-imidazole acetate	↓0.80	1.01	↑1.26
Histidine	3-methylhistidine	1.12	↑1.35	1.21
	anserine	↓0.63	0.76	1.21
Tryptophan	N-formylanthranilic acid	1.00	↑1.24	↑1.25
	picolinate	↑3.15	1.62	0.51
Lysine	indoleacetyl glycine	↑2.56	↑2.52	0.98
	2-oxoadipate	↑1.56	1.07	↓0.69
	tyrosine	0.84	1.10	↑1.32
	1-carboxyethyltyrosine	1.37	↑2.05	↑1.49
	N-acetyltyrosine	↓0.65	↓0.64	0.97
	phenol sulfate	↑3.44	↑6.02	1.75
	phenol glucuronide	2.91	↑5.02	1.72
	4-methoxyphenol sulfate	↑32.41	↑13.31	0.41
Methionine, Cysteine, Taurine	N-formylmethionine	1.03	↑1.27	↑1.24
	taurine	↓0.82	0.90	1.10

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Urea Cycle, Arginine and Proline	N-delta-acetylornithine	12.16	19.59	14.44
	N2,N5-diacetylornithine	-	12.09	12.09
	5-methylthioadenosine	0.98	11.51	11.54
Polyamine	(N(1) + N(8)-acetylspermidine	0.63	10.41	0.65
Glutathione	glutathione, oxidised	0.87	1.34	1.53
	ophthalmate	0.96	1.33	1.39
Dipeptide	valylglycine	10.29	0.84	12.87
Gamma-glutamyl amino acid	gamma-glutamylglycine	12.06	1.71	0.83
	gamma-glutamyl-epsilon-lysine	12.70	1.87	0.69
	arabitol/xylitol	0.91	11.34	11.48
Pentose	arabonate/xylonate	10.88	0.98	11.12
Aminosugar	N-acetylneuraminate	0.79	10.53	0.67
	N6-carboxymethyllysine	10.60	0.72	1.19
Tricarboxylic Acid Cycle	alpha-ketoglutarate	2.74	13.49	1.27
Carnitine	propionylcarnitine	1.26	11.93	11.53
	cis-4-decenoylcarnitine	10.56	0.89	11.59
	methylmalonate	11.38	11.57	1.14
	acetylcarnitine	10.83	10.79	0.95
	3-hydroxyhexanoylcarnitine	11.10	1.07	0.97
	decanoylcarnitine	10.63	0.81	1.29
	myristoylcarnitine	10.62	10.58	0.93
Long Chain Fatty Acid	margarate	11.27	11.28	1.01
	stearate	11.07	11.07	1.01
	eicosanoate	11.62	1.40	0.86
Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid	arachidonate	1.18	11.51	11.28
	eicosapentaenoate	11.89	11.78	0.94
	docosahexaenoate	11.34	11.47	1.10
	docosatrenoate	11.64	1.27	0.77
Branched Fatty Acid	arachidonate	1.18	11.51	11.28
	15-methylpalmitate	11.29	11.25	0.97
Dicarboxylate Fatty Acid	octadecenedioate*	12.82	13.82	11.36
	pinelate	10.31	10.28	0.91
	suberate	10.44	10.45	1.02
	azelate	10.19	10.14	0.77
	sebacate	0.79	10.61	0.76
	dodecadienoate	10.34	0.66	1.95
	octadecadienedioate	10.46	0.71	1.55
	choline	10.82	1.08	11.30
Phospholipid	1-(1-enyl-palmitoyl)-2-linoleoyl-glycerophosphocholine	0.87	10.68	10.78
Plasmalogen	1-linoleoylglycerol	11.93	12.11	1.09
Monoacylglycerol	oleoyl-oleoyl-glycerol [1]*	0.76	10.27	10.36
Diacylglycerol	linoleoyl-linolenoyl-glycerol	13.72	2.29	0.62
	stearoyl-arachidonoyl-glycerol	10.49	10.35	0.70
	hexadecaphingosine	10.54	10.58	1.07
	heptadecaphingosine	10.68	10.68	0.99
Ceramide	ceramide (d18:1/17:0, d17:1/18:0)*	0.45	10.33	0.74
Endocannabinoid	oleoyl ethanolamide	1.21	11.51	1.25
Sterol	7-alpha-hydroxy-3-oxo-4-cholestenoate	1.01	11.16	11.15
	campesterol	10.75	10.73	0.97
Primary Bile Acid	chenodeoxycholate	0.66	1.18	11.79
Secondary Bile Acid	deoxycholate	10.78	1.17	11.49
Uracil	N-acetyl-beta-alanine	10.69	10.14	10.20
	Uridine-5'-monophosphate	0.67	10.46	0.69
Xanthine and Inosine	Inosine 5'-monophosphate	10.54	0.72	1.35
	cytosine	1.14	16.48	15.67
Cytidine	5-methylcytidine	10.52	10.45	0.88
	trigonelline	151.32	170.30	1.37
Nicotinate and Nicotinamide	N1-Methyl-2-pyridone-5-carboxamide	10.40	0.65	1.60
Phytochemical	2-hydroxyhippurate (salicylurate)	19.89	122.46	12.27
	thiopropine	1.33	1.02	10.77
	hippurate	13.79	14.17	1.10
	4-hydroxyhippurate	14.07	13.24	0.80
	catechol sulfate	13.11	13.52	1.13
	4-methylcatechol sulfate	14.66	3.74	0.80
	4-vinylphenol sulfate	16.57	15.25	0.80
	3-phenylpropionate	1.85	14.19	2.27
	2,3-dihydroxyisovalerate	1.29	11.46	1.14
	caffeic acid sulfate	13.61	15.13	1.42
	2-oxindole-3-acetate	1.42	13.99	2.81
	Ferulic acid 4-sulfate	180.32	173.77	0.92
	N-glycylneuraminic acid	0.79	10.57	0.73
	stachydrine	14.44	12.55	0.57
	tartaric acid	13.87	3.06	0.79
Other	N-acetylpyrrolidine	11.85	12.60	1.41
	ergothioneine	0.93	11.65	11.77
	erythritol	11.35	11.77	11.32
	salicylate	15.88	16.57	1.12
	ethyl-glucuronide	2.21	18.68	3.92
	1,2,3-benzenetriol sulfate (2)	15.66	2.31	0.41

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1. FRB: Fermented Rice Bran; RB: Rice Bran
2. Table displays metabolites from metabolic pathways with an enrichment score of 1.0 ≥ for at least one treatment comparison.
* Indicates metabolite annotation was not made via an internal Metabolon library standard but predicted using spectral profiles from curated chemical databases.

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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. When comparing the metabolite profiles of all three diets, considerable differences existed in the food metabolomes of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus non-fermented rice bran and consequently this comparison was explored further. Using a healthy murine model in a long-term (15-week diet study) 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 both chronic and infectious 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, enrichment of the fermenting strain in microbiomes of mice consuming *B. longum*-fermented rice bran. One of the two SV's identified as differentially abundant between experimental diets was taxonomically assigned to the genus *Roseburia* exhibited enrichment in 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. When analysed alongside metabolome changes in the diets, colon and blood, the subtle microbiome compositional changes supported that differences in microbial metabolism, versus microbial abundance, were the key contributors to metabolite profile differences between the experimental groups.

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. These compounds had reported antioxidant, immune-modulatory, gut barrier protective, antitoxicant, and health promoting functions. Given the many roles of rice bran and fermented rice bran in protection against colorectal cancer and antimicrobial functions, a series of bioactive compounds were analysed using additional evidences for mechanisms involving these gastrointestinal conditions. The lipid and amino acid metabolic pathways represented the majority of metabolite abundance changes across 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

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COMMENT 1: The main limitation is that the study is mainly descriptive and the importance and physiological significance are not presented efficiently. The authors broadly discuss their results and make general suggestions for future work. (Page 13. Lines 20-21: The increased colon and blood levels of N-delta-acetylornithine merit mechanistic examination....Page 13. Lines 40-44 Given the capacity of rice bran to be fermented in the colon lumen, it is plausible to suggest that...Page 13. Lines 57-59. Decreased 4-cholesten-3-one in the colon tissue of mice consuming *B. longum*-fermented rice bran may suggest that...). They should be more specific, highlight the importance of the study and give emphasis in the significance of their major findings.

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COMMENT: Firstly, in title the use of words ...antimicrobial and cancer-protective compounds. These words are based on the property of selective metabolites. But the evolved metabolites are also reported to be antioxidant, antitoxicant, and other health supportive. So, question may arise why only given emphasis upon only two properties.

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. Given its high levels in fermented rice bran versus rice bran in colon and blood, N-delta-acetylornithine merits mechanistic examination for its effects on host colonocyte metabolism and as a potential biomarker of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran consumption.

Increased uptake of tricarballylate (23.34 fold-increase) was another notable metabolite distinguishing fermented rice bran versus rice bran consuming mice. Tricarballylate 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 tricarballylate 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). Tricarballylate-mediated interference in colorectal cancer cell function has not been characterised; however, increased tricarboxylic acid cycle activity has been reported in multiple cancer types and in several lines of chemotherapy-resistant neoplastic colonocytes (Zhou *et al.*, 2012). Tricarballylate from foods or foods that increase tricarballylate uptake by colonocytes warrant investigation for protection against colorectal cancer. Also noteworthy was that a decreased pH in the lumen enhanced tricarballylate uptake into colonocytes (Zhou *et al.*, 2012). Rice bran fermentation in the colon lumen, with *B. longum*-may increase the availability of fermentable substrates to the murine colon microbiota and create an acidifying environment favouring enhanced tricarballylate uptake in the colon. **Future investigations should consider measurements of colonic pH following consumption of rice bran and *B. longum* fermented rice bran, as pH may exert bidirectional influences on colon tissue metabolites (i.e. tricarballylate levels) that can be modulated by fermented foods.**

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 bioactive 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. In colon tissue, 4-cholesten-3-one increased 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 modulate host colonocyte metabolism and decrease pro-inflammatory compound production to prevent colorectal cancer. Chronic inflammation facilitates both tumour initiation and promotion in colorectal cancer (Chen *et al.*, 2017b), and this investigation showed reduced inflammatory cascades as a valuable application of *B. longum* fermented rice bran for disease prevention.

Conclusions

The *B. longum*-fermented rice bran and the non-fermented rice bran did considerably modulate the healthy murine faecal, caecal, or colon microbiomes when compared to control diets in healthy mice. While only modest differences in composition were noted between the non-fermented rice bran and *B. longum*-fermented rice bran, there were a suite of unique food and microbial-derived metabolites in the colon and bloodstream indicating substantial

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modulation of host and gut microbiome metabolism. Most metabolic changes involved amino acids and lipids, which supports the need for gut fermentation in enhancing bioavailability and for promoting colon health. These novel findings have important implications for metabolites from fermented rice bran to serve antimicrobial and colorectal cancer prevention functions that have not been explored previously.

The study design and methodology employed herein has tremendous potential for testing metabolic differences between probiotic strains and for optimisation of rice bran to have prophylactic and therapeutic use in gastrointestinal disorders across the lifespan. Additional investigations for *B. longum*-fermented rice bran are needed with respect to protection against colon carcinogenesis and infection with gut pathogens. The network of host and gut-microbial mediated metabolic changes by rice bran and fermentation with probiotics merits exploration using metatranscriptomics and metaproteomics. The coordinated and integrated assessment of multiple tissues and systemic metabolism in a healthy murine host that was fed rice bran in a fermented and nonfermented form was a rigorous, cross-kingdom scientific approach that has promising applications for other food types and mammalian systems with intact gut microbiomes.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Renee C. Oppel for technical assistance and preparation of the *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet. Funding for this study was provided by the National Institutes of Health-National Cancer Institute (1R01CA201112-02) as a multi-investigator award of E. P. Ryan and K. Raina. Lastly, we wish to thank all of the mice sacrificed in the work presented here for their contributions towards the pursuit of understanding.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Dietary intervention study design and timeline for tissue sampling in healthy mice.

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 microbiota. Food, colon and blood were used for metabolite analysis.

Figure 2. The food metabolome differs across B. control, rice bran and B. longum fermented rice bran diets

[A] Pathway enrichment scores distinguishing control, rice bran and *B. longum* fermented rice bran diets. Metabolic pathways with a score of ≥ 1.0 for at least one or more treatment comparisons are listed. [B] Median-scaled relative abundances for selected metabolites that are significantly different between the three food metabolomes ($p < 0.05$ for comparing abundance between two or more treatments).

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

Principal components analysis (PCA) of centred log-ratio transformed 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). [B] Letters denote mouse diet group (control, rice bran, *B. longum*-fermented rice bran).

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Figure 4. Consumption of a rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diet alters healthy murine microbiome composition compared to the control diet

Bar charts of log₂ fold differences for sixteen differentially abundant ($q < 0.1$) sequence variants; 6 SVs exhibited conserved enrichment in mice fed rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets compared to control; 11 SVs were conserved in control versus either experimental diet. Comparisons depicted in each panel are as follows: [A] rice bran versus control; [B] *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus control; [C] rice bran versus *B. longum*-fermented rice bran. Bar colours denote mouse diet group. Sequence variant taxonomic identities appended with the (') symbol indicate matched assignments for both Greengenes and SILVA databases; otherwise SILVA identity was specified.

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Figure 5. Consumption of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran and control diets differentially modulate the colon tissue metabolome of healthy mice.

[A] Pathway enrichment scores distinguishing the colon tissue of mice consuming the control, rice bran and *B. longum* fermented rice bran diets. Metabolic pathways with a score of ≥ 1 for one or more treatment are shown. [B] Median-scaled relative abundances for selected metabolites distinguishing the three colon metabolomes. Depicted metabolites have a $p < 0.05$ when comparing their abundance between two or more treatments.

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

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

Principal components analysis (PCA) of centred log-ratio transformed 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).

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

Strip charts of centred log-ratio abundances for sixteen differentially abundant ($q < 0.1$) sequence variants; 6 SVs exhibiting conserved enrichment in mice fed rice bran or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets compared to control; 11 SVs conserved in control versus either experimental diet. Comparisons depicted in each panel are as follows: [A] rice bran versus control; [B] *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus control; [C] rice bran versus *B. longum*-fermented rice bran. Symbols denote sample type; line style and colours denote mouse diet (see key). Lines represent the median clr abundance for all samples within a diet group, while points represent the median clr abundance for each individual sample computed from $n=1000$ Monte Carlo instances (see Materials and Methods: *Sequence variant processing*). Sequence variant taxonomic identities appended with the (') symbol indicate matched assignments for both Greengenes and SILVA databases; otherwise SILVA identity was specified.

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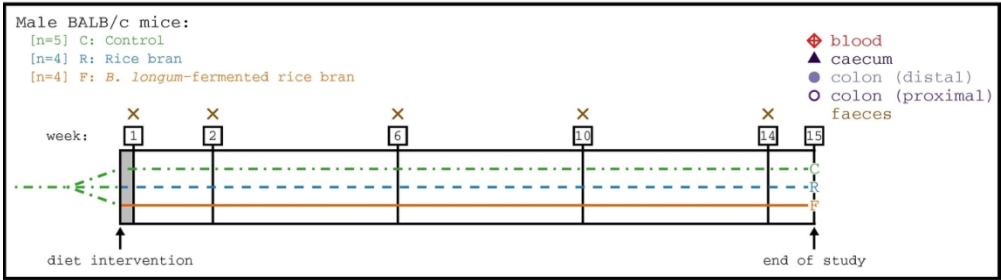


Figure 1. Dietary intervention study design and timeline for tissue sampling in healthy mice. Male BALB/c mice were fed control, rice bran, or *B. longum*-fermented rice bran diets for 15 weeks. Faeces, caecum, and colon were collected for microbiota. Food, colon and blood were used for metabolite analysis.

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Figure 2.

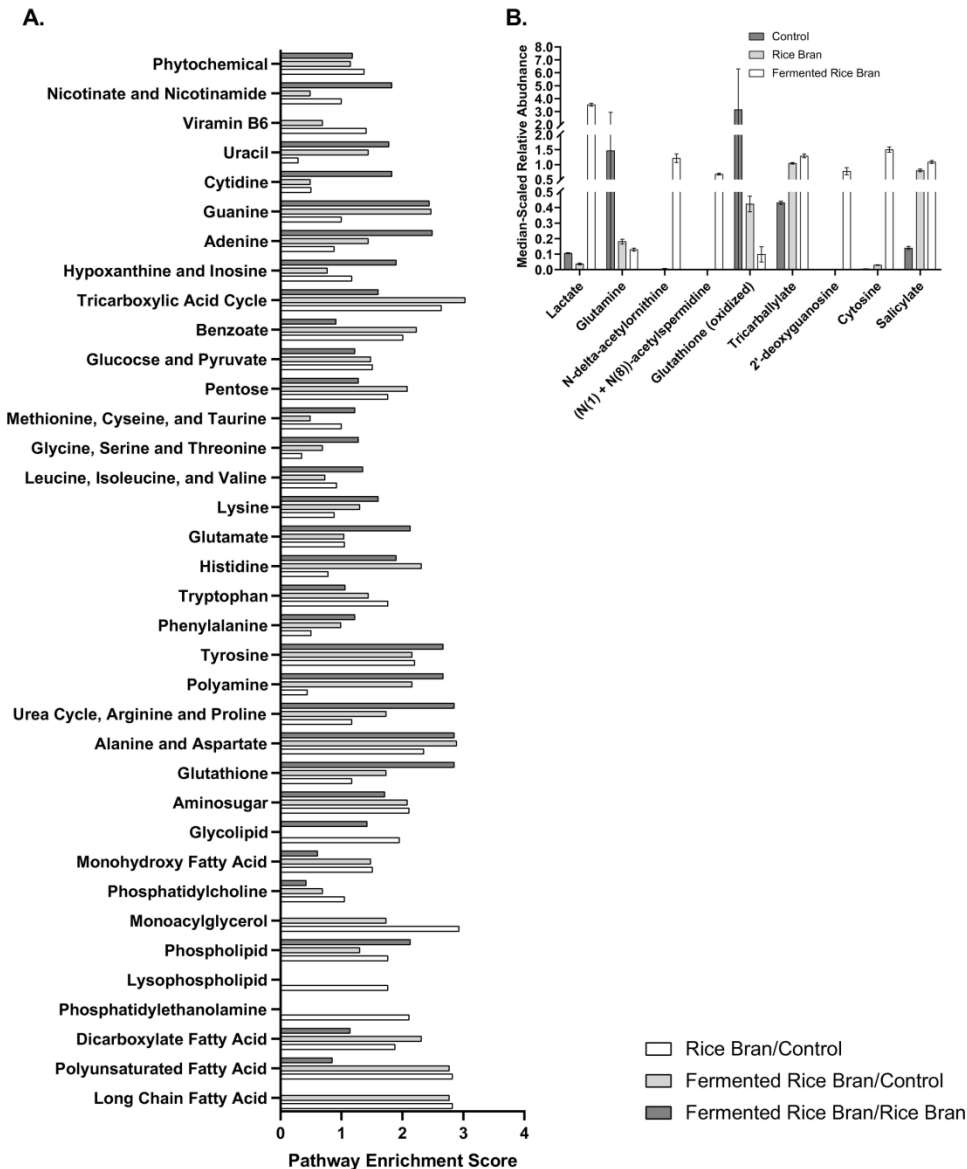
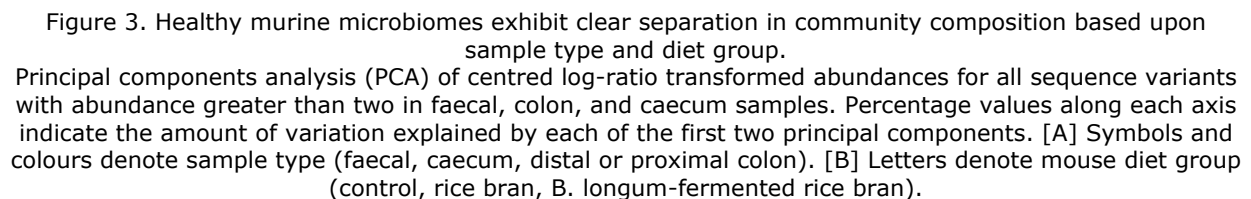


Figure 2. The food metabolome differs across B. control, rice bran and B. longum fermented rice bran diets [A] Pathway enrichment scores distinguishing control, rice bran and B. longum fermented rice bran diets. Metabolic pathways with a score of ≥ 1.0 for at least one or more treatment comparisons are listed. [B] Median-scaled relative abundances for selected metabolites that are significantly different between the three food metabolomes ($p < 0.05$ for comparing abundance between two or more treatments).

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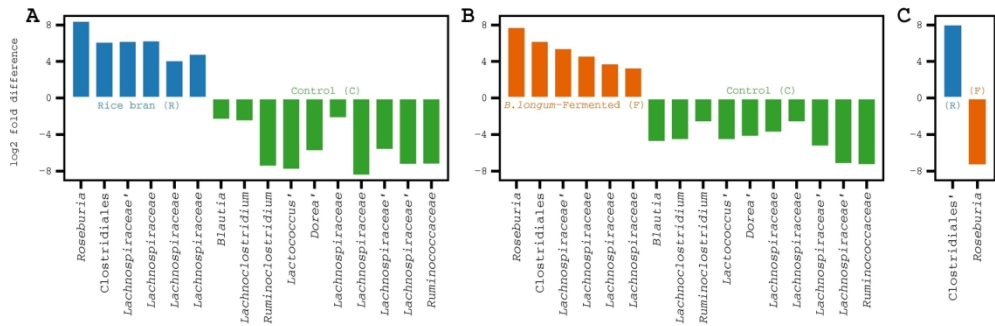


Figure 4. Consumption of a rice bran or B. longum-fermented rice bran diet alters healthy murine microbiome composition compared to the control diet

Bar charts of log2 fold differences for sixteen differentially abundant ($q < 0.1$) sequence variants; 6 SVs exhibited conserved enrichment in mice fed rice bran or B. longum-fermented rice bran diets compared to control; 11 SVs were conserved in control versus either experimental diet. Comparisons depicted in each panel are as follows: [A] rice bran versus control; [B] B. longum-fermented rice bran versus control; [C] rice bran versus B. longum-fermented rice bran. Bar colours denote mouse diet group. Sequence variant taxonomic identities appended with the (*) symbol indicate matched assignments for both Greengenes and SILVA databases; otherwise SILVA identity was specified.

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Figure 5.

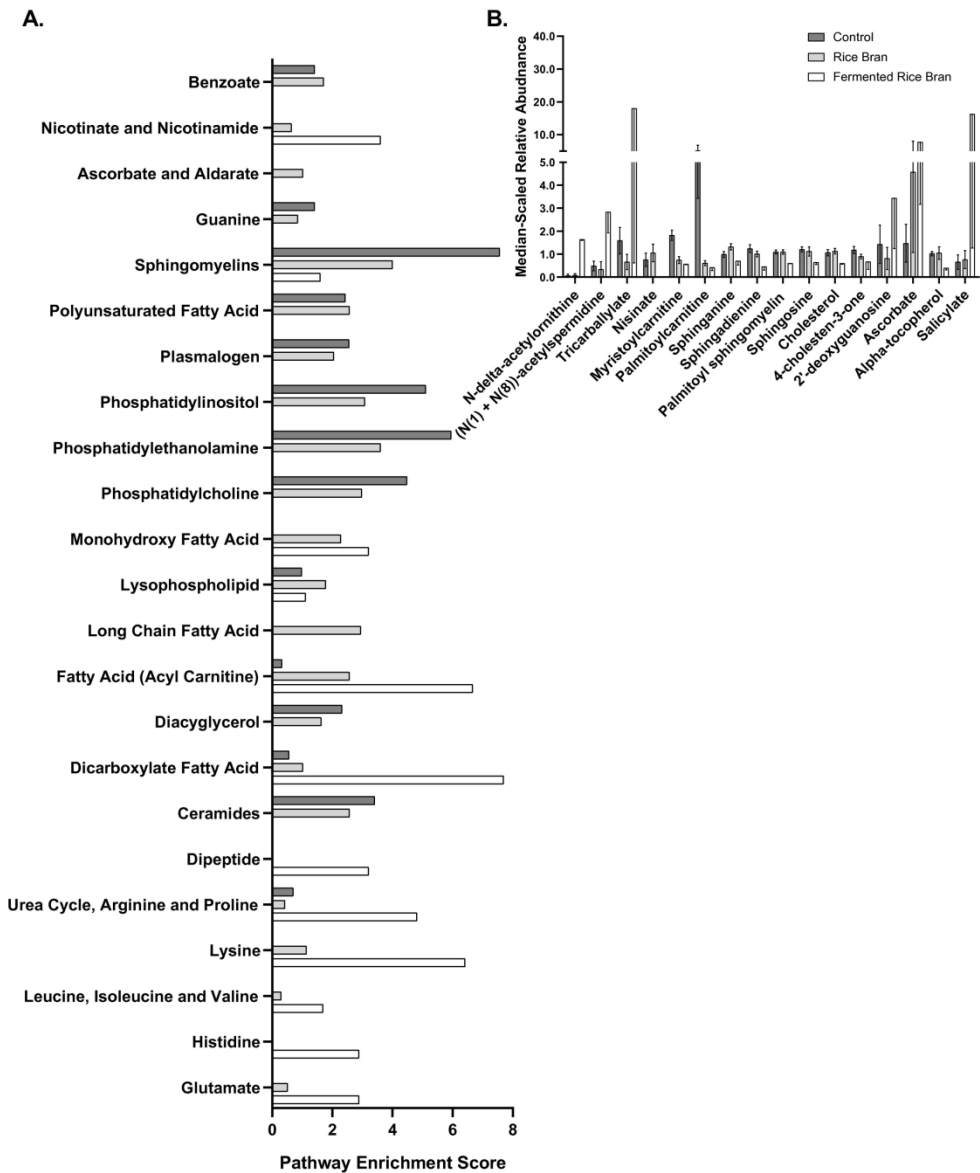


Figure 5. Consumption of *B. longum*-fermented rice bran versus rice bran and control diets differentially modulate the colon tissue metabolome of healthy mice. [A] Pathway enrichment scores distinguishing the colon tissue of mice consuming the control, rice bran and *B. longum* fermented rice bran diets. Metabolic pathways with a score of ≥ 1 for one or more treatment are shown. [B] Median-scaled relative abundances for selected metabolites distinguishing the three colon metabolomes. Depicted metabolites have a $p < 0.05$ when comparing their abundance between two or more treatments.

211x259mm (300 x 300 DPI)