# 1 Dietary protein source mediates colitis pathogenesis through bacterial modulation of bile acids 2 Simon M. Gray<sup>1\*</sup>, Michael C. Wood<sup>2\*</sup>, Samantha C. Mulkeen<sup>2</sup>, Sunjida Ahmed<sup>2</sup>, Shrey D. 3 4 Thaker<sup>2</sup>, Bo Chen<sup>2</sup>, William R. Sander<sup>2</sup>, Vladimira Bibeva<sup>2</sup>, Xiaoyue Zhang<sup>3</sup>, Jie Yang<sup>4</sup>, Jeremy W. Herzog<sup>1</sup>, Shiving Zhang<sup>5</sup>, Belgin Dogan<sup>5</sup>, Kenneth W. Simpson<sup>5</sup>, R. Balfour Sartor<sup>1,6,7</sup> and 5 6 David C. Montrose<sup>2,8</sup> 7 <sup>1</sup>Center for Gastrointestinal Biology and Disease, Department of Medicine, University of North 8 Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 9 <sup>2</sup>Department of Pathology, Renaissance School of Medicine, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY 10 <sup>3</sup>Biostatistical Consulting Core, Renaissance School of Medicine, Stony Brook University 11 12 <sup>4</sup>Department of Family, Population and Preventive Medicine, Stony Brook University, Stony 13 Brook, NY 14 <sup>5</sup>Department of Clinical Sciences, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY <sup>6</sup>Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 15 16 <sup>7</sup>National Gnotobiotic Rodent Resource Center, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC 17 <sup>8</sup>Stony Brook Cancer Center, Stony Brook, NY. 18 \*Authors contributed equally. 19 Corresponding Author: David C. Montrose, Department of Pathology, Renaissance School of Medicine, Stony Brook University, MART Building, 9M-0816, Lauterbur Dr., Stony Brook, NY 20 11794. Phone: 631-216-2927; Fax: 631-444-3424; Email: 21 david.montrose@stonybrookmedicine.edu 22 **Keywords**: Inflammatory bowel diseases; experimental colitis; dietary protein; beef; pea; 23 24 interleukin-10 deficient mice; DSS; bile acids; microbiome 25 Funding: This work was supported by American Pulse Association and startup funds from the Stony Brook Cancer Center and Bahl Center for Metabolomics and Imaging (D.C.M.), 26

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41	

# 42 Introductory paragraph

43 Evidence-based dietary recommendations for individuals with inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) are limited. Red meat consumption is associated with increased IBD incidence 44 45 and relapse in patients, suggesting that switching to a plant-based diet may limit gut inflammation. However, the mechanisms underlying the differential effects of these diets remain 46 poorly understood. Feeding diets containing plant- or animal-derived proteins to murine colitis 47 models revealed that mice given a beef protein (BP) diet exhibited the most severe colitis, while 48 mice fed pea protein (PP) developed mild inflammation. The colitis-promoting effects of BP were 49 50 microbially-mediated as determined by bacterial elimination or depletion and microbiota 51 transplant studies. In the absence of colitis, BP-feeding reduced abundance of Lactobacillus johnsonii and Turicibacter sanguinis and expanded Akkermansia muciniphila, which localized to 52

the mucus in association with decreased mucus thickness and quality. BP-fed mice had
elevated primary and conjugated fecal bile acids (BAs), and taurocholic acid administration to
PP-fed mice worsened colitis. Dietary psyllium protected against BP-mediated inflammation,
restored BA-modulating commensals and normalized BA ratios. Collectively, these data suggest
that the protein component of red meat may be responsible, in part, for the colitis-promoting
effects of this food source and provide insight into dietary factors that may influence IBD
severity.

60

# 61 Main Text

Diet influences the pathogenesis and natural history of inflammatory bowel diseases 62 (IBD), disorders of chronic intestinal inflammation caused by dysregulated host immune 63 64 responses to resident intestinal microbes in genetically susceptible hosts<sup>1-3</sup>. Despite these findings, limited evidence-based dietary recommendations exist to reduce the incidence and 65 severity of IBD<sup>4-6</sup>. For multiple decades IBD incidence has increased in the U.S. and globally, 66 including in regions with previously low rates<sup>7-9</sup>. Increased animal-based protein consumption, 67 68 including red meat, correlates with rising IBD incidence, suggesting a link between animal protein consumption and IBD<sup>10, 11</sup>. However, the mechanisms by which specific dietary protein 69 70 sources promote gut inflammation remains unclear.

71 Diet regulates gut homeostasis and inflammation, in part, by shaping the composition, function, and metabolic activity of the gut microbiota<sup>2, 12-21</sup>. For example, reducing dietary fiber or 72 73 increasing fructose consumption in mice enriches mucus-digesting resident bacteria, such as Akkermansia muciniphila<sup>12, 17-19, 21</sup>. Further, consuming high fructose or dietary milk fat limits the 74 deconjugation of bile acids (BAs) (small molecules synthesized by the liver and modified by 75 76 intestinal microbes), resulting in increased levels of conjugated BAs (CBAs) and exacerbated experimental colitis<sup>17, 22</sup>. Notably, patients with active IBD have higher levels of primary and 77 CBAs and depleted secondary unconjugated BAs, relative to healthy controls<sup>23-25</sup>. Moreover, 78

primary CBAs, which are metabolized by microbial enzymes to unconjugated secondary BAs,
exacerbate inflammation in experimental colitis models<sup>22, 24, 26</sup>. However, the role of dietary
protein source in these complex interactions and development of colonic inflammation is poorly
understood.

83 To investigate the impact of dietary protein source on experimental colitis severity, five isocaloric synthetic diets containing protein isolates from beef, egg whites, casein, soy or pea 84 (Table S1) were fed to wild-type (WT) specific pathogen-free (SPF) C57BL/6J mice during 85 dextran sodium sulfate (DSS)-mediated induction of colitis. Mice fed beef protein (BP) diet 86 developed the most severe colitis while those fed pea protein (PP) diet developed the least 87 severe colitis; eqg whites, casein, or soy protein diets induced intermediate colitis severity (Fig. 88 **1A-D**). BP feeding resulted in more severe colitis in a T-cell mediated colitis model using ex 89 90 germ-free (GF) I/10<sup>-/-</sup> mice colonized with mouse-adapted pooled human IBD microbiota (IMM-HM2), to induce human IBD microbiota-associated colitis<sup>27</sup>, compared to feeding a PP diet (Fig. 91 92 1E-G). This was characterized by greater weight loss, more severe histologic inflammation and higher expression of colonic pro-inflammatory cytokines (Fig. 1E-G). Similar findings were made 93 in a second model of human IBD microbiota-associated colitis (IMM-g2)<sup>27</sup> (Fig. 1H-J). To 94 95 evaluate whether BP promotes colonic inflammation in the absence of a colitis inducer (i.e. DSS or IBD patient-derived stool), WT SPF mice were fed standard chow, PP diet, or BP diet for 8 96 97 weeks and monitored, which showed no significant differences in DAI or colonic proinflammatory cytokine expression (Fig. S1A-B). Collectively, these data demonstrate that the 98 99 protein component of beef worsens colonic inflammation in multiple experimental colitis models. We next tested whether protein source modulates colitis severity, in part, through gut 100 resident bacteria. First, WT SPF mice were fed PP diet, BP diet, or BP diet in combination with 101 102 broad-spectrum antibiotics in drinking water to globally reduce gut bacteria, then challenged 103 with DSS while continuing the respective diets and antibiotics. Antibiotic treatment reduced BP diet-mediated DSS colitis severity to, or below, PP diet-mediated levels (Fig. 2A-C). An ~500-104

105 fold depletion in total bacterial abundance in feces of mice given antibiotics was confirmed by 106 gRT-PCR. Next, GF II10<sup>-/-</sup> mice were fed BP or PP diets for 14 days and assessed for colonic 107 inflammation by multiple parameters, which revealed no overt colitis in either group (Fig. 2D-F). 108 GF status in both groups was confirmed by anaerobic culture of feces (data not shown). Lastly, 109 we performed a fecal microbial transplant phenotype transfer experiment. Here, feces from WT 110 SPF mice fed BP or PP diets for 1 week were transplanted to GF WT mice fed standard rodent 111 chow and challenged with DSS for 10 days. Measurements of disease activity index (DAI), 112 colon length and histologic score showed that mice gavaged with fecal slurry from BP-fed mice 113 developed more severe colitis than mice administered feces from PP-fed mice (Fig. 2G-I). Together, these data demonstrate that BP exacerbates colitis through the diet-altered 114 microbiota. 115

116 Since the dietary protein-altered microbiota mediates colitis severity, bacterial 117 community composition was profiled by 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing of feces from SPF WT mice fed BP or PP diets for 1 week in the absence of colitis. Principal coordinates analysis 118 119 demonstrated distinct clustering of mice according to dietary protein source, which explained 120 approximately 65% of variation in the data (PERMANOVA test coefficient of determination,  $R^2$  = 121 0.43, p=0.005) (Fig 3A). Although profiles before feeding either experimental diet were very similar, 7 days of feeding BP or PP diet significantly altered the taxonomic abundance of 122 123 multiple bacteria (Fig 3B; Fig. S2). Significant expansion of Akkermansia muciniphila occurred in the BP diet group, while Turicibacter sanguinis increased in the PP diet group, along with 124 preservation of Lactobacillus johnsonii (Fig. 3B-C). A. muciniphila can impair gut barrier function 125 through mucus digestion<sup>12, 17, 21, 28-30</sup>, therefore, we examined its colonic luminal spatial 126 distribution by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH). This revealed high abundance of A. 127 128 muciniphila adjacent to the mucus layer of BP-fed mice while no signal was observed in PP-fed 129 mice (Fig. 3D). Colonic surface mucus thickness showed a corresponding ~50% reduction in BP vs. PP fed mice (Fig. 3E). Additionally, surface mucus quality was reduced in BP- vs. PP-fed 130

131 mice with no obvious difference in goblet cell mucus staining (Fig. 3F; Fig. S3). To evaluate 132 whether BP-driven expansion of A. muciniphila was responsible, in part, for promoting colitis, GF II10<sup>-/-</sup> mice were selectively colonized with A. muciniphila alone, a consortium of IBD-133 associated pathobionts including Escherichia coli, Enterococcus faecalis, and Ruminococcus 134 135 gnavus (EER), or A. muciniphila plus EER and fed BP diet. Although A. muciniphila mono-136 association did not induce colitis, it significantly potentiated EER pathobiont-induced colitis 137 severity (Fig 3G-H). Appropriate strain colonization was confirmed by anaerobic plating of feces 138 from colonized mice followed by 16S colony PCR and Sanger sequencing of representative 139 colony morphologies (data not shown). These data suggest that BP exacerbates colitis, in part, by promoting expansion of mucus-digesting A. muciniphila that potentiates the pro-inflammatory 140 effects of IBD-associated pathobionts. 141

142 Because bacteria have an important role in mediating BA metabolism and composition and there was higher abundance of bile salt hydrolase (BSH)-carrying<sup>31-34</sup> bacteria (*T* sanguinis, 143 L johnsonii) in PP-fed mice, we next measured the relative levels of common BAs in feces from 144 WT SPF mice fed BP or PP diets for 7 days in the absence of colitis. This analysis showed that 145 146 most BAs in BP-fed mice were primary and conjugated while most BAs in PP fed mice were 147 secondary and unconjugated (Fig. 4A). Multiple taurine conjugated primary BAs, including 148 taurocholic acid (TCA), were significantly higher in BP-fed mice while several unconjugated secondary BAs, including lithocholic acid (LCA) and deoxycholic acid (DCA), were elevated in 149 PP-fed mice (Fig. 4B). These patterns were not observed in the livers or ileal content of mice 150 fed BP vs. PP diets (data not shown), suggesting that fecal BA alterations are likely mediated by 151 colon-specific microbial differences. To connect the respective BA profiles of mice fed PP or BP 152 diets with differential bacterial abundance, we performed an in vitro bile acid deconjugation 153 154 assay comparing select bacterial species enriched by either diet. This revealed that L. johnsonii 155 (higher abundance in PP-fed mice) deconjugated TCA to cholic acid (CA) 100-fold more than A. muciniphila (increased in BP-fed mice) (Fig. 4C). To evaluate whether the primary CBAs that 156

were increased in feces of BP diet-fed mice directly exacerbate colitis, PP-fed mice were administered TCA by oral gavage daily for 7 days and exposed to DSS. DAI, colon length and histologic score showed that TCA worsened colitis in PP-fed mice (**Fig 4D-F**). Subsequent MALDI-MSI based imaging of the colon of mice administered TCA in the absence of colitis revealed TCA accumulation in the colonic epithelium (**Fig. S4**). Collectively, these data suggest that mice consuming a BP-containing diet have lower abundance of BA-deconjugating bacteria, resulting in higher levels of colitis-promoting primary CBAs.

164 Microbe-accessible dietary fiber supports populations of gut health-promoting commensals, including BA-metabolizing bacteria<sup>35</sup>. Therefore, we reasoned that maintaining 165 these bacterial populations by adding soluble dietary fiber would attenuate BP-driven colitis 166 severity. To test this concept, ex-GF *II10<sup>-/-</sup>* mice inoculated with MA human IBD microbiota were 167 168 fed PP diet, BP diet, or BP diet in which cellulose fiber was replaced with psyllium (BP-psyllium 169 diet) and monitored for colitis severity (**Table S1**). Compared to BP diet, the BP-psyllium diet significantly decreased colitis severity, as determined by body weight, fecal lipocalin, histologic 170 171 analysis and cytokine gene expression (Fig. 4G-J). Similar protection by psyllium was observed 172 in the DSS-induced colitis model (Fig. S5). Analysis of BA-metabolizing bacteria and BA profiles 173 in WT C57BL/6J mice fed each of these three diets in the absence of colitis showed that psyllium supplementation significantly increased the relative abundance of L. johnsonii and the 174 CA:TCA ratio in BP-fed mice (Fig. 4K-L). Taken together, these data support a model in which 175 BP-exacerbated colitis, which is driven by high abundance of primary CBAs, can be attenuated 176 through psyllium fiber administration, restoring populations of BSH-carrying bacteria that convert 177 primary CBAs to their deconjugated form. 178

Plant-based diets are believed to benefit IBD patients, while animal-based diets may be detrimental. Both retrospective and prospective studies suggest that consumption of red meat is associated with IBD incidence and disease activity. For example, The E3N Prospective Cohort Study revealed that high animal protein consumption significantly increased IBD incidence<sup>36</sup> and

183 multiple studies showed that meat intake increased the risk of disease flare in patients with ulcerative colitis (UC)<sup>5, 37, 38</sup>. The concept that plant-based diets are beneficial largely stems from 184 studies demonstrating that microbe-fermentable carbohydrates from plants reduce experimental 185 colitis<sup>2, 39</sup>. In contrast, diets rich in animal-derived products (especially red meat) are thought to 186 promote intestinal inflammation through heme, sulfur and saturated fat content<sup>2, 39</sup>. Although 187 these components of plant and animal-based diets impact gut health, the role of protein content 188 189 has not been widely considered. Our study, which selectively examined protein content by 190 feeding mice identical diets except for the type of protein isolate, suggests that the source of dietary protein content differentially impacts colitis severity. Other studies investigating the 191 impact of protein source on experimental colitis, including from beef and pea, are largely 192 consistent with the data shown in the current study, although this previous work used diets 193 194 containing whole food sources rather than purified protein isolate<sup>14, 15, 40, 41</sup>. Our findings support 195 a role for the dietary protein-altered microbiota and BAs in mediating colitis severity, however, 196 the specific mechanism(s) by which protein type drives these effects remains unclear. It is 197 plausible that differences in amino acid composition or digestion/absorption of diverse dietary 198 protein sources are contributing factors. Therefore, determining which amino acids or what 199 properties of each protein type mediate intestinal inflammation will be important for future studies. 200

Bacteria, BAs and their interplay are key mediators of IBD pathogenesis<sup>1, 2</sup>. Higher levels 201 of conjugated and primary BAs are found in feces of patients with active IBD, compared to 202 unconjugated and secondary BAs in healthy individuals<sup>23-25</sup>. Our work suggests that a shift to a 203 predominance of conjugated and primary BAs, is in part, responsible for greater colitis severity 204 when feeding BP to mice. We found that taurine conjugated and primary BAs are higher in BP-205 206 fed mice than PP-fed mice, and showed that direct administration of TCA, which was highly 207 increased in the BP-fed group, worsened colitis in PP-fed mice to levels observed in mice given 208 BP diet alone. Although the exact mechanism(s) by which altered BAs enhance disease is

209 unclear, the detergent-like properties of BAs could disrupt gut barrier function by impairing 210 epithelial cell function and/or epithelial-protective mucus. This concept is supported by our data showing the ability of exogenously administered TCA to localize to the colonic epithelium. 211 212 Interestingly, our prior work showed that a high fructose diet exacerbated murine colitis with a similar increase in CBAs as observed in BP fed mice, with rectal administration of CBAs 213 worsening colitis and thinning colonic mucus in mice fed a control diet<sup>17</sup>. Integrating our study 214 215 focused on dietary protein with prior studies of the role of dietary fat and carbohydrates in experimental colitis suggests that altered BAs may be a common pathway for diet-mediated aut 216 inflammation<sup>17, 22</sup>. Although our work focused on the detrimental impact of conjugated primary 217 bile acids enriched in BP-fed mice, the profile of unconjugated, secondary bile acids enriched in 218 219 feces from PP fed mice might itself be protective. For example, LCA and DCA, both enriched in 220 PP-fed mice, are strong ligands of the PXR and TGR5 receptors that, when activated, induce anti-inflammatory effects<sup>24, 42-44</sup>. Therefore, the role of unconjugated secondary bile acids as 221 222 protective metabolites in PP-fed mice is an important future direction.

223 Bile acids have a bidirectional relationship with gut bacteria, whereby bacterial enzymes 224 metabolize BAs, which in turn, alter bacterial physiology and microbiota composition<sup>42</sup>. PP 225 feeding expanded bacterial species that efficiently deconjugate BAs, including L johnsonii and T sanguinis (as shown by data from the deconjugation assay performed in the current study and 226 previous work<sup>32</sup>), while BP feeding expanded A muciniphila, a poor deconjugator that also 227 degrades mucus and potentiates pathobiont-driven inflammation<sup>45</sup>. These dietary protein-228 229 induced bacterial shifts likely caused the observed BA profiles, however, we cannot exclude the possibility that altered BAs directly shifted microbiota composition, as previously 230 demonstrated<sup>46-49</sup>. Further evidence that the ratio of conjugated to unconjugated BAs are 231 232 important for mediating colitis stems from our findings that psyllium supplementation protected 233 against BP-mediated colitis severity, while maintaining favorable BA profiles and populations of BA-deconjugating bacteria. However, psyllium fiber likely protects against inflammation by 234

235 multiple mechanisms, including SCFA production and prevention of bacterial mucus

236 degradation<sup>12, 50</sup>.

Our study reaffirms the concept that IBD occurs when multiple detrimental factors 237 intersect to initiate and perpetuate gut inflammation<sup>51</sup>. These IBD determinants – genetically 238 239 dysregulated host inflammatory and epithelial barrier responses, abnormal resident microbes, and environmental triggers - can exist in isolation or combination without causing disease, but 240 together drive severe IBD. For example, GF colitis susceptible *II10<sup>-/-</sup>* mice fed BP diet (genetic 241 susceptibility + environmental triager) did not develop inflammation, nor did SPF WT mice fed 242 243 BP-diet (resident microbes + environmental trigger). However, we demonstrated that when all three IBD-driving factors – host, microbe, and environment – intersect, severe and progressive 244 intestinal inflammation occurs. The poor long-term success of current human IBD therapies may 245 246 reflect a failure to reconcile the multiple determinants of IBD. For example, addressing just one 247 factor, such as suppression of host inflammation, leaves the patient vulnerable to recurrent disease upon encountering environmental triggers. We suggest that durable long-term 248 249 remission requires simultaneously addressing all IBD determinants, and as such, investigations 250 into environmental drivers of IBD, especially diet, is required to guide clinical approaches to maintain sustained remission. 251

252

## 253 Methods

## 254 Murine colitis models

To induce chemical colitis, 8-week-old male C57BL/6J mice (The Jackson Laboratory) were administered 1% DSS (Sigma) in drinking water for 6–7 days, as indicated. Colitis severity was assessed by measuring changes in body weight, as well as severity of rectal bleeding and diarrhea, as previously described<sup>17, 52</sup>. Disease Activity Index (DAI) was calculated by combining severity of body weight loss, diarrhea and bleeding, as previously described<sup>17, 52</sup>.

260 T cell-mediated colitis was induced by inoculation of mouse-adapted human IBD patient fecal microbiota (previously developed and characterized<sup>27</sup>) to GF II10<sup>-/-</sup> mice on a 129S6/SvEv 261 background (purchased from the National Gnotobiotic Rodent Resource Center (NGRRC) at the 262 University of North Carolina), as previously described<sup>27</sup>. Mouse-adapted (MA) human IBD 263 264 patient microbiota was previously generated from de-identified human IBD patient stool samples collected under an Institutional Review Board approved protocol: no primary human samples 265 266 were used in this study<sup>27</sup>. Briefly, human fecal materials from pooled cohorts of human donors with active IBD were passaged through GF 129S6/SvEv *II10<sup>-/-</sup>* mice to generate standardized 267 aliquots of fecal slurry<sup>27</sup>. MA IMM-g2 microbiota was derived from pooled feces of 2 CD and 1 268 UC patient and MA IMM-HM2 microbiota was derived from pooled feces of 3 CD patients<sup>27</sup>. 269 270 Standardized 100mg/ml aliguots of mouse-adapted human IBD microbiota were anaerobically 271 thawed, diluted with pre-reduced PBS, and administered by oral gavage (2mg) to recipient GF *II10<sup>-/-</sup>* mice<sup>27</sup>. All fecal transplant experiments were performed with sterile gnotobiotic cage 272 technique in BSL-2 isolation cubicles with HEPA-filtered air<sup>53</sup>. Prior to colonization, GF mice 273 274 were fed Purina Advanced Protocol Select Rodent 50 IF/6F Auto Diet. Defined diets were 275 started at the time of fecal microbiota transplant.

At the end of the experimental periods, mice were humanely euthanized using CO<sub>2</sub>. Excised colons were measured then flushed with ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Tissue was either snap-frozen for biochemical analysis or fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde or 10% phosphate buffered formalin for 4-24 hours, followed by paraffin embedding and H&E staining for histological analysis. All animal studies were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Stony Brook University and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill.

283 Diet-polarized fecal microbiota transplant (FMT)

Feces were collected from WT C57BL/6J SPF mice fed BP or PP diets for 2 weeks,
anaerobically homogenized, and diluted in pre-reduced lysogeny broth (LB) with 20% glycerol to

generate fecal slurries (n=5-6 donor mice per diet). Each donor FMT was administered to 1-2
recipient mice GF C57BL/6J mice via oral gavage on days 0, 3, 5, 7, and 9 of the experiment.
Mice were administered 2% DSS from days 3-10 of the experiment and monitored for signs of
colitis.

290

## 291 Inoculation of defined consortia

Escherichia coli LF82<sup>54</sup>, Enterococcus faecalis OG1RF<sup>55</sup>, and Ruminococcus gnavus 292 ATCC 29149<sup>55</sup> (EER) were grown under anaerobic conditions in brain-heart infusion medium 293 supplemented with 5g/L yeast extract, 0.5g/L L-cysteine, and 5mg/L hemin (LYH-BHI medium). 294 A. muciniphila ATCC BAA-835 (AM) was grown under anaerobic conditions in LYH-BHI medium 295 supplemented with 5g/L porcine gastric mucin (LYH-BHI + PGM). Pure cultures of each strain 296 297 were grown anaerobically to confluence then equally mixed to generate EER or EER + AM consortia. GF 129S6/SvEv *II10<sup>-/-</sup>* mice were colonized with freshly cultured consortia by oral 298 299 gavage and given BP diet from the time of colonization. Feces were collected at necropsy, serial 300 diluted and plated under anaerobic conditions on LYH-BHI + PGM to confirm colonization with 301 consortia members. Representative colonies of each strain identified by colony morphology 302 were picked from plates, 16S PCR amplified, and Sanger sequenced (Eton Bioscience) to confirm colonization of appropriate strains in recipient mice. 303

304

## 305 Histopathologic scoring

Colons from mice given DSS were flushed, formalin fixed, and paraffin embedded followed by sectioning and staining with hematoxylin and eosin. Scoring of colitis/colonic inflammation was performed based on evaluation of mucosal damage by acute inflammation, by crypt abscess, mucosal architectural distortion and proportion of the involvement of colon as previously described<sup>56</sup>. Briefly, epithelial damage by acute inflammation was graded into 4 categories (0-3; 0=no inflammation. 1=mild, 2=moderate and 3=severe inflammation with

312	ulceration). Mucosal damage with crypt abscess graded into 2 categories (0=absent and
313	1=present). Extent of acute inflammation was graded into 4 categories (0-3; 0=no inflammation,
314	1=mucosal, 2=submucosal and 3=transmural). Mucosal architectural distortion was graded into
315	4 categories which includes the percentage of length of colon involvement (0-3; 0=normal
316	architecture, 1= mild/focal or 10%, 2=moderate/20-30%, and 3=severe/ >40% of the entire
317	length). Proportion of the total involvement was evaluated by the percentage of length of colon
318	involved by colitis into 4 categories (0-3; 0=no colitis, 1=1-10% of the total length, 2=20-30%
319	and 3=>40% of the total evaluated length of colon). All histologic scoring was performed in a
320	blinded fashion by a board-certified gastrointestinal pathologist (S.A.).
321	For II10 <sup>-/-</sup> experimental colitis studies, histologic inflammation was quantified in ileal,
322	cecal and colonic (proximal, distal, rectal) tissue segments using a well-validated rubric by
323	blinded histopathology scoring on a scale of 0-4 for each segment, as previously described <sup>27, 56,</sup>
324	<sup>57</sup> . Total histology score was calculated by summation of all 5 tissue segment scores for a scale
325	of 0-20.
326	
327	Fecal lipocalin-2 quantification
328	Fecal samples were homogenized in PBS with 0.1% Tween 20, incubated at 4°C for 12
329	hours, then centrifuged to yield clear supernatant for lipocalin-2 ELISA, performed according to
330	the manufacturer's instructions (DY1857, R&D Systems) <sup>58</sup> .
331	
332	Measurements of mucus thickness and quality
333	Segments of harvested colons from mice containing a fecal pellet were preserved in
334	fresh Carnoy's fixative solution (methanol:chloroform:glacial acetic acid, 60:30:10) then
335	sequentially washed in methanol, ethanol and xylenes, as previously described <sup>17</sup> . Tissues were

then paraffin-embedded and sectioned (5  $\mu m$ ), followed by staining with Alcian Blue, and mucus

337	thickness was measured in 20-50 regions of each colon in a blinded manner using ImageJ			
338	software (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD), as previously described <sup>17</sup> .			
339	To determine differences in mucus quality on the surface of the epithelium and within			
340	goblet cells, Periodic acid Schiff (PAS) staining was performed. Stained slides were scanned			
341	using an Aperio Image Scope (ScanScope, Aperio, CA) and used to count the PAS-positive			
342	pixels by the Aperio Color Deconvolution algorithm, as previously described <sup>17</sup> .			
343				
344	qRT-PCR			
345	For measurements of mammalian gene expression, RNA was isolated from tissues			
346	using QIAzol Lysis Reagent (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's protocol. RNA concentration			
347	was measured using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer. cDNA was synthesized using			
348	2000 ng total RNA and reverse transcriptase qScript SuperMix (Quanta). Quantitative real-time			
349	PCR was performed using specific primers on a QuantStudio 7 Real-Time PCR System			
350	(Applied Biosystems) using PowerTrack SYBR Green PCR Master Mix and oligo (dT) primers			
351	according to the user's manual. Actb expression was used as internal control for gene			
352	expression. The $\Delta\Delta$ CT method was used to calculate relative fold expression. Primer			
353	sequences are shown in <b>Table S2</b> .			
354	For bacterial abundance and bacterial gene expression analysis, DNA was extracted			
355	from fecal samples using the QIAamp DNA Fast Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen) per the manufacturer's			
356	instructions. For each sample, 10 ng of DNA was used for qRT-PCR using PowerTrack SYBR			
357	green PCR master mix on a QuantStudio 7 PCR Machine. Bacterial primers sequences are			
358	shown in <b>Table S2</b> . Relative abundance was calculated by the $\Delta\Delta$ CT method using universal			
359	16S primers as control.			
360				
361	Bile acid analysis			

362 Fecal and ileal samples were dried in a vacuum centrifuge then homogenized in 500 μL

363 of cold 80% methanol. Liver samples were homogenized using the same method but without 364 prior drying. Bacterial supernatants were mixed with cold 80% methanol in a 1:9 ratio. Following homogenization or mixing, samples were centrifuged at 14,000 rcf for 20 minutes at 4°C and the 365 supernatant was collected and dried down using a vacuum centrifuge then stored at -80° C prior 366 367 to analysis. Bile Acid analysis was performed as previously described on a Vanguish UHPLC system coupled to a Q Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific)<sup>17</sup>. 368 369 Relative quantitation was normalized to dry weight of fecal/ileal samples or protein 370 concentration of livers. Analysis was performed at the Proteomics & Metabolomics Core Facility 371 of Weill Cornell Medicine. 372 MALDI Mass Spectrometry Imaging 373 374 Tissue preparation and imaging was performed following a previously published 375 method<sup>59</sup>. Briefly, mouse colons were processed into Swiss-rolls, embedded in 5% 376 carboxymethylcellulose, and stored at -20°C. Serial frozen sectioning was performed for paired 377 MALDI imaging and standard H&E staining. MALDI imaging was conducted on a rapifleX mass 378 spectrometer (Bruker Daltonics) within metabolite mass range in negative ion detect mode at 50 379 um spatial resolution. The TCA deprotonated ion with a mass-to-charge ratio of 514.284 m/z 380 was detected, and the average intensity of the mass spectrometry signal for TCA determined using SCiLS Lab software (Bruker Daltronics). 381 382 383 16S rRNA Analysis

Frozen fecal samples were shipped to Molecular Research (Shallowater, TX) for 16S
rRNA profiling, performed as previously described<sup>17</sup>. DNA was extracted with the Powersoil
DNA Kit (Qiagen). The 16S rRNA gene V4 variable region was targeted for PCR amplification,
followed by Illumina HiSeq short-read sequencing. Sequencing outputs were processed and
taxonomically classified as previously described<sup>17</sup>. Operational taxonomic units were defined by

- 389 clustering at 97% similarity (3% divergence) and classified by BLASTn against an RDPII/NCBI
- 390 derived database. Statistical analysis and visualization of principal coordinates analysis (PCoA)
- 391 plots were performed with the Shiny application *Plotmicrobiome* (Sun et al. GitHub
- 392 https://github.com/ssun6/plotmicrobiome).
- 393

394 Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH)

395 Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) was performed as previously described<sup>17, 60</sup> on

 $4\mu$ m histologic sections of Carnoy's-fixed paraffin-embedded colon tissue using an A.

397 muciniphila-specific FISH probe (S-SMUC-1437-a-A-20: Cy-3-50-

398 CCTTGCGGTTGGCTTCAGAT-30)<sup>17, 60</sup>. Slides spotted with multiple control bacteria (*E. coli, P* 

399 *vulgaris, K pneumoniae, S equi, S bovis*) not-reactive to the A.M. FISH probe were used to

400 confirm probe specificity<sup>17, 60</sup>.

401

## 402 In vitro bacterial culture and treatment

L. johnsonii BAA-3147 and A. muciniphila BAA-835 from frozen stocks were cultured 403 404 overnight in MRS or LYH-BHI + 0.5% mucin, respectively, the day before the experiments. A. 405 muciniphila BAA-835 was cultured in an anaerobic chamber (Coy Laboratory) with mixed gas 406 (90% N2, 5% CO2 and 5% H2; 37°C), and L. johnsonii BAA-3147 was cultured under aerobic conditions (37°C with shaking at 150 rpm). The overnight cultures were diluted with fresh media 407 408 with or without 1 mM taurocholate to A. muciniphilla BAA-835 (once at OD600 of 1-1.1) and to L. johnsonii (once at OD600 of 0.7-0.8). The diluted cultures were immediately distributed into 409 410 two sets of tubes for 0 and 24 h time points, each in triplicate. The time 0 h samples were 411 transferred to ice immediately to prevent bacterial activity on taurocholate. Optical densities were measured at each time point for normalization. The cultures were then centrifuged at 412 3,000 rpm for 20 min at 4°C and the supernatants were filtered through a 0.2 µm syringe filter 413 414 and kept at -80°C until BA measurements.

415

## 416 Statistical analysis

For the comparison of DAI across different mice groups, linear mixed-effects models for 417 longitudinal data analysis were used. Model assumption was confirmed using residual 418 419 diagnosis. Time (in days) was treated as a continuous variable to assess the trend in DAI. An 420 interaction term between diet group and time was used to compare the trends across groups. 421 The covariance structure used to model the correlated longitudinal measurements from the 422 same mice was unstructured (UN), selected based on Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) from a 423 set of possible structures. For the comparison of numeric values observed or calculated at the end of experiments, Wilcoxon rank-sum tests or simple linear regression models were used. 424 425 These analyses were applied to the following variables: % body weight change, histology score, 426 gene expression, colon length, bacterial abundance, mucus thickness, mucus quality, and bile 427 acid ratios. A P-value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant and analyses were 428 performed using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC).

429 Statistical analysis of BA levels. The BA dataset was filtered to remove BA with >50% 430 missing values. Normalization of raw metabolite levels was performed by probabilistic quotient 431 normalization followed by log2-transformation and imputation of missing values by k-nearest neighbor (KNN). BA differences were quantified by log2 fold change from the PP diet group. 432 433 Linear models with diet as the independent variable were used to calculate statistical significance. The Benjamini-Hochberg method with an FDR cut-off of 0.2 was used for multiple 434 hypothesis correction. Analyses were performed with the maplet package (version 1.2.1) in R<sup>61</sup>. 435 436 **Figure Legends** 437

# 438 Figure 1. Dietary beef protein worsens murine colitis compared to other protein sources

439 A-D, C57BL/6 mice were fed isocaloric diets containing protein isolate derived from beef (BP),

soy (SP), egg whites (EP), casein (CP), or pea (PP) for 7 days, followed by administration of 1%

441 DSS for 7 days, while being continued on the respective diets. Disease activity index (DAI) was 442 measured during DSS exposure (A), percent of body weight change relative to day 0 of DSS exposure was calculated following 7 days of DSS administration (B) and histologic score was 443 444 assessed in colons on day 7 of DSS administration (C). n = 6 mice per group. Representative histologic images of colons from BP or PP-fed mice are shown (D). E-G, germ-free II10<sup>-/-</sup> mice 445 446 were inoculated with mouse-adapted (MA) pooled human IBD patient fecal microbiota (IMM-447 HM2) then fed diets containing BP or PP for 14 days. Weight change relative to day 0 was measured (E), representative histologic images of colons are shown (left side) and total 448 histology score was assessed (right side) (F), and relative gene expression of cytokines were 449 measured in colons (G), on day 14. n = 7-8 mice per group. H-J, germ-free  $II10^{-/-}$  mice were 450 451 inoculated with a second MA pooled human IBD patient fecal microbiota (IMM-g2) then fed BP 452 or PP diets for 8 days. Weight changes relative to day 0 were measured (H), representative 453 histologic images of colons are shown (left side) and rectal histology score was assessed (right side) (I), and relative gene expression of cytokines were measured in colons (J), on day 8. n = 454 455 4-6 mice per group. Data representative of 3 (E-G), and 3 (H-J) independent experiments. \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01; \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\*\*\*P<0.0001. Bar plots show mean and standard deviation. 456 457

458 Figure 2. Gut bacteria are causally linked to beef protein-worsening of colitis

459 A-C, C57BL/6J mice were fed beef protein (BP) or pea protein (PP)-containing diets or beef protein diet and administered a five-antibiotic cocktail (ampicillin, gentamicin, metronidazole, 460 neomycin, vancomycin<sup>17</sup>) in drinking water for 14 days (BP + Abx), then all mice were given 1% 461 462 DSS in drinking water for 7 days while being continued on control or antibiotics-containing water. Disease Activity Index (DAI) was measured during DSS exposure (A), colon length was 463 464 measured on day 7 (B) and histologic inflammation of colons was assessed on day 7 (C). n = 8 mice per group. D-F, germ-free  $II10^{-2}$  mice were fed sterile BP or PP diets for 14 days. 465 Representative histologic images of colons are shown (D), histology score was assessed (E) 466

467	and relative gene expression of <i>II1b</i> was measured in colons (F), on day 14. n = 4-5 mice per		
468	group. G-I, germ-free wild-type mice were inoculated with colonic luminal fecal contents of		
469	specific pathogen-free mice fed BP or PP diets for 7 days. Recipient mice were then fed		
470	standard chow and administered 1% DSS for 7 days and DAI was calculated (G), colon length		
471	was measured (H) and histologic inflammation of colons was assessed (I), on day 10. $n = 9-10$		
472	per group; data are representative of 2 independent experiments. *P<0.05; **P<0.01;		
473	***P<0.001; ****P<0.0001. Bar plots show mean and standard deviation.		
474			
475	Figure 3. Beef protein consumption promotes A. muciniphila expansion and gut barrier		
476	defects		
477	A-C, C57BL/6J mice were fed either beef protein (BP) or pea protein (PP)-containing diets for 7		
478	days then fecal samples were subjected to 16S rRNA sequencing. Results are displayed as		

479 principal coordinate analysis on day 7 (A) and as percent abundance of each species on days 0

480 and 7 (B) (those species <1% in overall abundance are labeled as 'Other'). qRT-PCR was

481 performed on fecal DNA to measure relative abundance of major populations found in either diet

group (C). D-F, C57BL/6J wild-type mice were fed BP or PP diets for 7 days then colons were

483 harvested and fixed to preserve the mucus layer. Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization was

482

484 performed to identify *A. muciniphila* (indicated by orange structures) (D), Alcian blue staining

485 was carried out to measure mucus thickness (representative images shown on left side and

486 quantification of staining shown on right side; bracket indicates mucus layer on images) (E), and

487 periodic acid Schiff staining was performed to quantify mucus quality (representative images

488 shown on left side and quantification of staining shown on right side) (F). n = 6 per group. G-H,

germ-free *II10<sup>-/-</sup>* mice were inoculated with *A. muciniphila*, a defined consortium of *Escherichia* 

490 coli, Enterococcus faecalis, and Ruminococcus gnavus alone or in combination with A.

491 muciniphila and fed BP diet. Representative histologic images of ceca are shown (left side) and

492 total histology score was assessed (right side) (G) and relative expression of inflammatory

cytokine genes was measured (H) in the ceca of mice on day 14. n = 7-9 per group, data
representative of 2 independent experiments. \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01; \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\*\*\*P<0.0001. Bar</li>
plots show mean and standard deviation.

496

### 497 Figure 4. Bacteria-mediated bile acid changes facilitate colitis severity

498 A-B, WT C57BL/6J mice were fed diets containing either beef protein (BP) or pea protein (PP)-499 containing diets for 7 days and the relative abundance of bile acids was measured in feces. The 500 average percent of primary vs. secondary or conjugated vs. unconjugated bile acids in each diet 501 group is shown (A) and those BAs that displayed significantly different abundance (FDR<0.1) 502 are shown as log2 fold-change in PP-fed mice relative to BP-fed mice (B). C, taurocholic acid (TCA) (1mM) was administered to culture medium of L. johnsonii and A. muciniphila and the 503 504 levels of cholic acid were measured in the supernatants after 24 hours and reported as relative 505 to either species cultured in the absence of TCA. D-F, C57BL/6J WT mice were fed either BP or 506 PP diets and given daily oral gavage of PBS or fed PP and gavaged daily with TCA (0.35mg/kg) for 7 days, then administered 1% DSS in drinking water for 7 days, while continuing oral 507 508 administration. Disease Activity Index (DAI) was measured over 7 days (D), colon length was 509 measured on day 7 (E) and histologic inflammation of colons was assessed on day 7 (F). G-J. aerm-free *II10<sup>-/-</sup>* mice were inoculated with mouse-adapted pooled human IBD patient fecal 510 511 microbiota (IMM-HM2) then fed BP or PP diets containing cellulose or BP diet containing psyllium (BP + psyllium) for 14 days. Weight changes relative to day 0 were calculated (G), 512 513 fecal lipocalin-2 (f-Lcn) was measured (H), total histology score was assessed (I), and relative gene expression of inflammatory cytokines in colons was measured (J), on day 14. n = 10-11 514 mice per group. K-L, WT specific pathogen-free mice were fed the diets described in panel G for 515 516 7 days and feces were collected to measure the relative abundance of L. johnsonii by gRT-PCR 517 (K) and the ratio of cholic acid to taurocholic acid (CA:TCA) in fecal samples (L). n = 10-11 mice

per group. \*P<0.05; \*\*P<0.01; \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\*\*\*P<0.0001. Bar plots show mean and standard</li>
deviation.

520

521 Supplementary Figure Legends

## 522 Figure S1. Long-term beef protein feeding in specific pathogen free wild-type mice does

523 **not induce signs of colitis.** Mice were fed chow, or purified diet containing beef protein (BP) or

524 pea protein (PP) isolate for 8 weeks. Disease activity index (DAI) was measured weekly (A) and

relative expression of *Tnfa* and *II1b* was measured in colons at the end of the study (B). n = 6

526 mice per group. Bar plots show mean and standard deviation.

527

## 528 Figure S2. Relative bacterial species abundance of individual mice fed beef or pea

529 protein-containing diets. Species abundance in feces from individual mice is reported prior to

530 (A) and 7 days following (B) administration of diets containing beef protein (BP) or pea protein

531 (PP) isolate. Those species appearing in abundance <1% in all conditions are labeled as

532 'Other'.

533

534 Figure S3. Dietary protein source does not affect goblet cell mucus quality. C57BL/6J

535 mice were fed either beef protein (BP) or pea protein (PP)-containing diets for 7 days then

536 periodic acid Schiff staining was performed to quantify mucus quality within goblet cells.

537 Representative images (A) and quantification of staining (B) are shown. Bar plots show mean

538 and standard deviation.

539

540 Figure S4. Taurocholic acid localizes to the colonic epithelium following oral

541 administration to mice. C57BL/6J WT mice were administered daily oral gavage of PBS or

- taurocholic acid (TCA) (0.35mg/kg) for 7 days and colon tissue sections were subjected to
- 543 MALDI-MSI to determine localization (A) and relative abundance (B) of TCA in each group. TCA

- group is normalized to vehicle group in panel B. n = 4 samples per group. \*\*P<0.01. Bar plots
- show mean and standard deviation.
- 546

# 547 Figure S5. Psyllium supplementation protects against beef protein diet-induced

- 548 **worsening of DSS-induced colitis.** WT specific pathogen free mice were fed beef protein (BP)
- or pea protein (BP) diets containing cellulose or BP diet containing psyllium (BP + Psyllium) for
- 550 7 days. Mice were then administered 1% dextran sodium sulfate (DSS) and Disease Activity
- 551 Index (DAI) was measured over 7 days (A) and colon length was measured on day 7 (B). Bar
- 552 plots show mean and standard deviation.
- 553

555

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Figure 1





AM

EER+AM

ll1b

Tnfa

EER

Figure 3











Α



Figure S3







В

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### Beef + Beef Casein Egg Pea Sov Psyllium Ingredient gm gm gm gm gm gm Casein 0 200 0 0 0 0 Soy Protein, Supro 661 0 0 0 0 202.3 0 0 0 Egg Whites 0 210.9 0 0 Beef Protein Isolate, 226.9 0 0 0 0 226.9 Sigma 0 Pea Protein, Pure Bulk 0 0 209.1 0 0 3 L-Cystine 3 3 3 3 3 **Corn Starch** 398.486 397.486 389.286 395.486 385.329 398.486 Maltodextrin 10 132 132 132 132 132 132 Sucrose 100 100 100 100 100 100 Psyllium 0 0 0 0 0 52.63 Cellulose, BW200 50 50 50 50 50 0 Sovbean Oil 70.8 70 70.2 51.8 63 70.8 t-Butylhydroquinone 0.014 0.014 0.014 0.014 0.014 0.014 Mineral Mix S10022G 0 0 0 0 0 0 Mineral Mix S10001A 17.5 17.5 17.5 17.5 17.5 17.5 Calcium Phosphate, 17.5 17.5 17.5 17.5 17.5 17.5 Dibasic **Calcium Carbonate** 0 0 0 0 0 0 Potassium Citrate, 0 0 0 0 0 0 Monohydrate Potassium Phosphate, 0 0 0 0 0 0 Monobasic 19.2 20.2 12.9 Sodium Chloride 0 19.3 0 Vitamin Mix V10037 0 0 0 0 0 0 10 10 10 10 Vitamin Mix V10001 10 10 0 0 0.4 0 0 0 Biotin, 0.1% 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 **Choline Bitartrate** Total 1028.7 1020.2 1016.2 1011.2 1012.5 1018.2 Protein (gm) 177.0 177.0 177.0 177.0 177.0 177.0 Carbohydrate (gm) 640.5 640.5 640.5 640.5 640.5 640.5 71.0 71.0 71.0 71.0 71.0 71.0 Fat (gm) 50.0 50.0 Fiber (gm) 50.0 50.0 50.0 52.63 Protein (kcal) 708.1 708.0 708.0 707.9 707.9 708.1 2561.9 Carbohydrate (kcal) 2561.9 2561.9 2561.9 2561.8 2561.9 639.2 639.4 639.3 639.3 639.2 Fat (kcal) 638.6 3908.6 Total 3909.3 3909.3 3909.2 3909.0 3909.3 Protein (gm%) 17.2 17.3 17.4 17.5 17.5 17.2 Carbohydrate (gm%) 62.3 62.8 63.0 63.3 63.3 63.0 6.9 7.0 7.0 7.0 6.9 Fat (gm%) 7.0 Protein (kcal%) 18.1 18.1 18.1 18.1 18.1 18.1 Carbohydrate (kcal%) 65.5 65.5 65.5 65.5 65.5 65.5 Fat (kcal%) 16.4 16.3 16.4 16.4 16.4 16.4 Sodium (g/kg) 8.8 8.8 8.8 8.8 8.8 8.8

# Table S1. Experimental Diet Formulations

kcal/gm

3.8

3.8

3.8

3.9

3.9

3.8

Table S2. Primer Sequences

Murine Targets					
Gene	Туре	Sequence (5'-3')			
B-actin	Forward	GGCTGTATTCCCCTCCATCG			
	Reverse	CCAGTTGGTAACAATGCCATGT			
ll1b	Forward	TGGGCCTCAAAGGAAAGAAT			
	Reverse	CAGGCTTGTGCTCTGCTTGT			
Tnfa	Forward	ACCCTCACACTCAGATCATCTTCTC			
	Reverse	TGAGATCCATGCCGTTGG			
Bacterial PCR Targets					
Akkermansia muciniphila	Akk-16S- F	GATAGTACCACAAGAGGAAGAGACG			
	Akk-16S- R	TTCCCCCTCCATTACTCTAGTCTC			
Lactobacillus johnsonii	Ljohn- 16S-F	GCCTAGATGATTTTAGTGCTTGCAC			
	Ljohn- 16S-R	AGCAGAACCATCTTTCAAACTCTAGA			
Turicibacter sanguinis	Turi-16S- F	TGTGACGGTACCTTATGAGAAAGC			
	Turi-16S- R	GTTGACCAGTTTCCAATGACCCTC			
Universal 16s Primer	Forward	ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG			
	Reverse	ATTACCGCGGCTGCTGG			
To amplify EER	Forward	U341F 5'-CCTACGGGRSGCAGCAG-3'			
	Reverse	UA1406R 5'-ACGGGCGGTGWGTRCAA- 3'			