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Gut microbiome response to a modern Paleolithic diet in a Western lifestyle context

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## 26 **Abstract**

27 The progressive reduction of gut microbiome (GM) biodiversity along human evolutionary history  
28 has been found to be particularly exacerbated in Western urban compared to traditional rural  
29 populations, and supposed to contribute to the increasing incidence of chronic non-communicable  
30 diseases. Together with sanitation, antibiotics and C-section, the Western diets, low in microbiota-  
31 accessible carbohydrates (MACs) while rich in industrialized and processed foods, are considered  
32 one of the leading causes of this shrinkage. However, significant questions remain unanswered,  
33 especially whether high-MAC low-processed diets may be sufficient to recover GM diversity in  
34 Western urban populations. Here, we profiled the GM structure of urban Italian subjects adhering to  
35 the modern Paleolithic diet (MPD), a dietary pattern featured by high consumption of MACs and  
36 low-to-zero intake of refined sugars and processed foods, and compared data with other Italian  
37 individuals following a Mediterranean Diet (MD), as well as worldwide traditional hunter-gatherer  
38 populations from previous publications. Notwithstanding a strong geography effect on the GM  
39 structure, our results show an unexpectedly high degree of GM biodiversity in MPD subjects, which  
40 well approximates that of traditional populations. Increasing the consumption of MACs at the  
41 expense of refined sugars, and minimizing the intake of processed foods, both hallmarks of the  
42 MPD, could be the key to rewild the Western microbiota, counteracting the loss of GM diversity  
43 and thus restoring evolutionarily important functionality to our gut for improved human health.

44

## 45 **Introduction**

46 In order to understand the specificities of the human microbiome assembly, extensive meta-analyses  
47 of human and non-human primate microbiomes have been recently carried out [1,2]. This  
48 comparative approach has highlighted the reduction of individual biodiversity as one of the  
49 distinctive features of the human gut microbiome (GM) [1]. Interestingly, this hallmark has been  
50 found to be exacerbated in Western urban populations, which show even more marked compression

51 of personal diversity than traditional and rural counterparts [3-6]. Consistent with the disappearing  
52 microbiota hypothesis [7], the dramatic shrinkage of individual GM diversity in Western urban  
53 populations depicts a maladaptive microbiome state that has been supposed to contribute to the  
54 rising incidence of chronic non-communicable diseases, such as obesity, diabetes, asthma and  
55 inflammatory bowel disease [8-11]. Consequently, in recent years, a large body of research has  
56 been devoted to understanding the mechanisms leading to the diversity loss in the Western urban  
57 GM. It is in this scenario that the multiple-hit hypothesis has been advanced [8]. According to this  
58 theory, the progressive reduction of human GM diversity has occurred at multiple stages along the  
59 recent transition to modern urban societies, and several aspects typical of the urbanization process -  
60 such as sanitation, antibiotics, C-section and Western diet - have been pointed out as contributing  
61 factors. In particular, the reduction in quantity and diversity of Microbiota-Accessible  
62 Carbohydrates (MACs) in the diet has been considered one of the leading causes of the  
63 disappearing GM in Western urban populations [8]. Recently defined, MACs include fermentable  
64 fibers that - indigestible by the host - become available as an energy source for a specific GM  
65 fraction enriched in Carbohydrate Active Enzymes (CAZymes) [8,12]. Moreover, food additives,  
66 emulsifiers and xenobiotics – ubiquitous in industrially processed foods – have recently been shown  
67 as important additional drivers of GM diversity shrinkage [13].  
68 All currently available studies exploring the disappearing GM are based on the comparison between  
69 Western urban and traditional rural populations [3-6,14-16]. Consistently, the observed GM  
70 differences are likely to be the result of the combined action of several covariates in addition to the  
71 diet – i.e. ethnicity, geographical origin, climate, subsistence, medication, hygiene and life sharing –  
72 and do not allow to weight the importance of the single determinants. Indeed, to the best of our  
73 knowledge, no study has been specifically designed to dissect the role of MACs deprivation and  
74 xenobiotics exposure as driving factors forcing the compression of GM diversity in Western urban  
75 populations.

76 In the last few years, the Modern Paleolithic Diet (MPD), with high intake of vegetables, fruit, nuts,  
77 eggs, fish and lean meat, while excluding grains, dairy products, salt and refined sugar, has attracted  
78 substantial public attention in the Western world because of its potential multiple health benefits  
79 [17-20]. Being enriched in MACs and completely excluding industrially processed food, the MPD  
80 pattern represents a model of Western urban diet ideal for disentangling the impact of MACs and  
81 food xenobiotics on the human GM.

82 In the present work, we profiled the GM structure of 15 Italian subjects following the MPD and  
83 compared it with that of Italian individuals largely adhering to the Mediterranean Diet (MD) from  
84 our previous works [5,21]. Notwithstanding the small sample size, our GM exploratory study gave  
85 us the unique opportunity to assess to what extent the consumption of high amounts of MACs along  
86 with the exclusion of industrially processed food, may counteract the GM diversity reduction as  
87 observed in Western urban populations. Indeed, the comparison between MPD and Western diets in  
88 subjects living in the same country allows excluding the impact of confounding drivers of GM  
89 variation, such as geography, ethnicity, medication, hygiene and subsistence [14,15,21]. In order to  
90 extend the GM comparison at the meta-population level, we expanded our meta-analysis by  
91 including publically available microbiome data from traditional hunting and gathering populations  
92 showing high GM diversity, such as the Hadza from Tanzania, from our previous publication [5],  
93 the Matses from Peru [6], and the Inuit from the Canadian Arctic [22].

94 According to our data, increased consumption of unprocessed foods and dietary MACs, as observed  
95 in MPD individuals, is sufficient, even in a Western context, to recover the levels of GM diversity  
96 typically found in traditional rural populations. Although the mechanisms underlying the human-  
97 microbiome interactions are still far from being fully understood, the possibility of rewilding the  
98 modern microbiota through the diet could be the key to restore evolutionarily important  
99 functionality to the gut, ultimately improving our health.

100

## 101 **Results**

102

### 103 **Diet and gut microbiome structure in Italian adults following the** 104 **modern Paleolithic diet**

105 Fifteen healthy individuals who have been following the MPD for at least one year were recruited  
106 from different urban areas across Italy (Lombardia, Piemonte, Emilia-Romagna, Toscana, Umbria,  
107 Lazio, Campania, Molise, Puglia and Calabria regions). Specifically, 3 female and 12 male adults,  
108 with an average age of 39.2 years (range, 26 – 57) and average Body Mass Index (BMI) of 22.1  
109 kg·m<sup>-2</sup> (range, 19.4 – 25.7), were enrolled in our cohort (S1 Table).

110 The MPD adopted by the 15 subjects is mainly based on the consumption of unprocessed foods,  
111 with high intake of vegetables, fruit, nuts, eggs, fish and lean meat, while excluding grains, dairy  
112 products, salt and refined sugar. The daily total calorie intake, as well as that of macro- and micro-  
113 nutrients, assessed through 7-day weighted food intake records (7D-WRs), are reported in S2 Table.

114 The average daily energy intake of the enrolled cohort is 1,843.45 kcal (range, 1,563 – 2,186 kcal).  
115 The percentage of macronutrients is distributed as follows: fat, 51.02%; protein, 30.14%;  
116 carbohydrate, 18.84% (Fig 1A). With regard to lipids, 51.65% of total calories are from  
117 monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs), 30.93% from saturated fatty acids (SFAs) and 17.42% from  
118 polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) (Fig 1B). The average daily fiber intake is 14.64 g/1000 kcal.

119 The GM structure of MPD Italian adults was profiled through 16S rRNA gene sequencing of fecal  
120 DNA. A total of 864,439 high-quality reads (mean ± sd, 57.6 ± 19.7; range, 25,142 – 95,924) were  
121 generated and clustered in 7,483 OTUs. The phyla Firmicutes (relative abundance, mean ± sem,  
122 65.1 ± 2.1 %) and Bacteroidetes (24.6 ± 2.2 %) dominate the gut microbial ecosystem, with  
123 Proteobacteria (4.4 ± 1.6 %), Actinobacteria (3.4 ± 0.8%) and Verrucomicrobia (1.2 ± 0.5 %) as  
124 minor components. At family level, *Ruminococcaceae* (26.7 ± 1.7 %), *Lachnospiraceae* (18.7 ± 1.4

125 %), *Bacteroidaceae* ( $13.7 \pm 1.8$  %) and *Prevotellaceae* ( $7.4 \pm 2.4$  %) are the dominant GM  
126 constituents. The most abundant ( $\geq 5\%$ ) bacterial genera are *Bacteroides*, *Prevotella*, and  
127 *Faecalibacterium*, while *Coprococcus*, *Ruminococcus*, *Blautia*, *Lachnospira*,  
128 *Phascolarctobacterium*, *Streptococcus*, *Roseburia*, *Akkermansia*, *Oscillospira* and [*Eubacterium*]  
129 represent minor components of the microbial ecosystem (range  $4.4 \pm 0.7$  % -  $1.0 \pm 0.4$  %) (Fig 2).

130

131 **Fig 1. Macronutrient composition of the modern Paleolithic diet.** (A) Bar plots of the percent  
132 caloric contribution of fat, protein and carbohydrate per subject, based upon weighted food intake  
133 records over 7 days. The pie chart shows the summary of the average macronutrient intake for the  
134 entire cohort. (B) Pie chart of the lipid type summary. PUFAs: polyunsaturated fatty acids; MUFAs:  
135 monounsaturated fatty acids; SFAs: saturated fatty acids.

136 **Fig 2. Phylogenetic structure of the gut microbiome of Italian adults adhering to the modern**  
137 **Paleolithic diet.** Bar plots of the genus-level composition of the gut microbiome of the enrolled  
138 subjects. The pie chart shows the average relative abundance of bacterial genera. Only bacterial  
139 genera with relative abundance  $> 0.5$  % are shown. \* = Unclassified.

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## 141 **Gut microbiome diversity in MPD Italian adults and comparison with** 142 **other Western urban populations and traditional communities**

143 In order to investigate whether the adherence to the MPD is sufficient to promote a more diverse  
144 GM ecosystem - even in a Western urban context - we compared the GM diversity between the 15  
145 MPD subjects and 143 urban Italians with different level of adherence to the MD, whose GM  
146 composition was described in De Filippis *et al.* [21] and Schnorr *et al.* [5]. Moreover, to extend the  
147 meta-analysis to a global level, the GM structural profiles of the following traditional hunter-  
148 gatherer populations were included: 27 Hadza from Tanzania [5], 25 Matses from Peru [6], and 21  
149 Inuit from Canada [22]. According to our findings, significant differences in the GM biodiversity

150 among the study groups were detected (Simpson index, P-value =  $2.6 \times 10^{-15}$ ; Shannon index, P-  
151 value =  $2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ ; Kruskal-Wallis test) (Fig 3). Interestingly, the GM diversity observed for  
152 MPD subjects far exceeds that of urban Italians adhering to the MD (Simpson index, P-value =  $2.5$   
153  $\times 10^{-7}$ ; Shannon index, P-value =  $6.1 \times 10^{-9}$ ; Wilcoxon test), and is even greater than that observed  
154 in Matses (P-value = 0.0082; 0.0039) and Inuit (P-value = 0.00075; 0.0027). On the other hand, no  
155 significant difference was found between MPD individuals and the Hadza (P-value = 0.39; P-value  
156 = 0.26).

157 The PCoA based on Bray-Curtis distances was next used to assess overall genus-level  
158 compositional differences in the GM structure between study groups. Our data show clear  
159 separation of GM profiles by provenance and, within the Italian cohort, by dietary pattern (P-value  
160  $< 1 \times 10^{-5}$ , permutation test with pseudo-*F* ratios) (Fig 4A). Interestingly, MPD subjects show a low  
161 level of interpersonal GM variation (Bray-Curtis distances, mean  $\pm$  SD,  $0.42 \pm 0.095$ ),  
162 approximating that observed for the Hadza ( $0.36 \pm 0.092$ ) (Fig 4B). Finally, to identify the bacterial  
163 drivers with a statistically significant contribution (permutation correlation test, P-value  $< 0.001$ ) to  
164 the sample ordination, we superimposed the genus relative abundance on the PCoA plot (S1 Fig).  
165 According to our data, the microorganisms characterizing the Italian cohort are *Bacteroides*,  
166 *Collinsella*, *Coprococcus* and *Blautia*. The genera *Clostridium*, *Prevotella*, [*Prevotella*],  
167 *Catenibacterium* and *Oscillospira* were found to be associated with Hadza and Matses, while  
168 *Sutterella* and *Parabacteroides* with Inuit.

169

170 **Fig 3. The gut microbiome of Italian subjects following the modern Paleolithic diet shows**  
171 **intermediate biodiversity between Western urban and traditional populations.** Box and scatter  
172 plots showing the alpha diversity values, measured with Simpson and Shannon indices, for each  
173 study population (i.e. urban Italians adhering to the modern Paleolithic diet from the present study,  
174 urban Italians adhering to the Mediterranean diet [21], Hadza from Tanzania [5], Matses from Peru  
175 [6], and Inuit from Canadian Arctic [22]). Different letters in the box plots indicate significant

176 differences (P-value < 0.05, Wilcoxon test). MPD = Modern Paleolithic Diet; MD = Mediterranean  
177 Diet.

178 **Fig 4. Beta diversity of the fecal microbiome of Italian subjects following the modern**  
179 **Paleolithic diet compared with other Western urban populations and traditional**  
180 **communities.** (A) The PCoA plot shows the Bray-Curtis distances between the genus-level  
181 microbiota profiles of urban Italians adhering to the modern Paleolithic diet from the present study,  
182 urban Italians adhering to the Mediterranean diet [21], Hadza from Tanzania [5], Matses from Peru  
183 [6], and Inuit from Canadian Arctic [22]. A significant segregation among study populations was  
184 found (P-value <  $1 \times 10^{-5}$ ; permutation test with pseudo- $F$  ratios). (B) Boxplots represent the  
185 interpersonal variation, in terms of Bray-Curtis distances between genus-level microbiota profiles.  
186 Different letters in the boxplots indicate significant differences (P-value < 0.05, Wilcoxon test).  
187 MPD = Modern Paleolithic Diet; MD = Mediterranean Diet.

188

## 189 **Discussion**

190 Herein we compared the GM compositional structure and diversity of 15 urban Italian adults  
191 adhering to the MPD with previously published data from 143 urban Italian adults largely adhering  
192 to the MD [5,21] and 73 traditional hunter-gatherers, including 27 Hadza from Tanzania [5], 25  
193 Matses from Peru [6], and 21 Inuit from Canada [22]. According to our findings, the study groups  
194 segregate by geographical origin, with a further separation within the Italian cohort reflecting the  
195 diet pattern (MPD vs MD). This provenance-dependent effect on the human GM structure probably  
196 involves the concomitant action of several covariates, which concur in shaping the GM structure,  
197 such as geography, ethnicity, lifestyle and dietary habits. The Italian origin of the GM seems to be  
198 defined by a higher abundance of *Bacteroides*, *Collinsella*, *Coprococcus* and *Blautia*, bacterial  
199 genera commonly found within Western microbiomes [3-6]. According to the literature, the



200 separation due to geography seems to be less evident among the traditional populations, with  
201 Matses and Hadza sharing a high abundance of *Prevotella* [5,6].

202 These data confirm recent findings that demonstrate the predominance of host location and  
203 ethnicity, with respect to diet, as determinants of human GM variation [14,15]. However, despite  
204 the overall Western-like configuration, the MPD-associated GM structure stands out from that of  
205 Italians adhering to the MD for a much higher degree of biodiversity, which well approximates that  
206 observed in traditional hunter-gatherers. Since the Italian subjects of our cohort share the  
207 provenance and all that it entails, including the lifestyle, it can be hypothesized that the MPD-  
208 associated bloom in GM diversity is accounted for by the peculiarities of the MPD compared to the  
209 MD. Though the two diets are similar in many respects – i.e. high intake of fruit, vegetables, fish  
210 and nuts, as well as low glycemic load – the MPD is in fact distinguished by: (i) greater  
211 consumption of MACs, mainly from wild plant foods; (ii) total exclusion of industrially processed  
212 products; (iii) higher intake of unsaturated fatty acids, especially MUFAs, from olive oil, nuts and  
213 meat; (iv) no consumption of foods containing refined sugars [17-20]. It is, therefore, tempting to  
214 speculate that these MPD distinctive features may be sufficient to support the consolidation of a  
215 highly diversified GM layout, thus counteracting the loss of GM biodiversity, typically observed in  
216 Western urban populations as compared to traditional communities [3-6].

217 In conclusion, our findings shed some light on the possibility of recovering GM diversity in  
218 Western urban populations through diet. Increasing the consumption of MACs at the expense of  
219 refined sugars, and minimizing the intake of processed foods, both hallmarks of the MPD, could  
220 indeed act synergistically in facilitating the regain of an eubiotic level of GM diversity. Moreover,  
221 the high intake of MUFAs, as found in the MPD, suggests that these fatty acids could play a role in  
222 supporting the increase in GM diversity, which is worthy of being further explored in larger  
223 cohorts.

224

## 225 **Materials and methods**

226

### 227 **Subjects and sample collection**

228 Fifteen healthy individuals following a MPD for at least one year were recruited from different  
229 urban areas across Italy (Lombardia, Piemonte, Emilia-Romagna, Toscana, Umbria, Lazio,  
230 Campania, Molise, Puglia and Calabria regions). Anthropometric data and stool samples were  
231 collected from each participant who had not taken antibiotics in the previous 3 months. Fecal  
232 samples were immediately frozen at -20°C and then delivered to the laboratory of the Microbial  
233 Ecology of Health Unit (Dept. Pharmacy and Biotechnology, University of Bologna, Bologna,  
234 Italy) where they were stored at -80°C until processing. Each subject was asked to fill in a 7-day  
235 weighted food intake record (7D-WR), with the total food and beverage consumption, as previously  
236 described [23]. Daily total calorie intake as well as that of macro- and micro-nutrients were  
237 assessed through the MètaDieta® software version 3.7 (METEDA). Written informed consent was  
238 obtained from all volunteers. All work was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Sant'Orsola-  
239 Malpighi Hospital, University of Bologna (ref. number, 118/2015/U/Tess).

240

### 241 **Microbial DNA extraction**

242 Total bacterial DNA was extracted from each stool sample using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit  
243 (QIAGEN) with the modifications previously described by Biagi *et al.* [24]. In brief, 250 mg of  
244 fecal samples were suspended in 1 ml of lysis buffer (500 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 50  
245 mM EDTA, 4% (w/v) SDS), added with four 3-mm glass beads and 0.5 g of 0.1-mm zirconia beads  
246 (BioSpec Products) and homogenized using a FastPrep instrument (MP Biomedicals) with three  
247 bead-beating steps at 5.5 movements/sec for 1 min, and 5-min incubation in ice between treatments.  
248 After incubation at 95°C for 15 min, stool particles were pelleted by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm

249 for 5 min. Nucleic acids were precipitated by adding 260  $\mu$ l of 10 M ammonium acetate and one  
250 volume of isopropanol. The pellets were then washed with 70% ethanol and suspended in TE  
251 buffer. RNA was removed by treatment with 2  $\mu$ l of DNase-free RNase (10 mg/ml) at 37°C for 15  
252 min. Protein removal and column-based DNA purification were performed following the  
253 manufacturer's instructions (QIAGEN). DNA was quantified with the NanoDrop ND-1000  
254 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies).

255

## 256 **16S rRNA gene sequencing**

257 For each sample, the V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified using the S-D-Bact-0341-  
258 b-S-17/S-D-Bact-0785-a-A-21 primers [25] with Illumina overhang adapter sequences. PCR  
259 reactions were performed in a final volume of 25  $\mu$ l, containing 12.5 ng of genomic DNA, 200 nM  
260 of each primer, and 2X KAPA HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (Kapa Biosystems, Roche), in a Thermal  
261 Cycler T (Biometra GmbH) with the following gradient: 3 min at 95°C for the initial denaturation,  
262 25 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 30 sec, annealing at 55°C for 30 sec and extension at 72°C for  
263 30 sec, and a final extension step at 72°C for 5 min. PCR products of around 460 bp were purified  
264 using a magnetic bead-based system (Agencourt AMPure XP; Beckman Coulter) and sequenced on  
265 Illumina MiSeq platform with the 2  $\times$  250 bp paired-end protocol, according to the manufacturer's  
266 guidelines (Illumina). Briefly, each indexed library was prepared by limited-cycle PCR using  
267 Nextera technology, and further purified as described above. The libraries were subsequently  
268 pooled at equimolar concentrations, denatured with 0.2 N NaOH, and diluted to 6 pM before  
269 loading onto the MiSeq flow cell. Sequencing reads were deposited in MG-RAST (ID: ...).

270

## 271 **Bioinformatics and statistics**

272 Raw sequences were processed using a pipeline that combines PANDAseq [26] and QIIME [27].  
273 The UCLUST software [28] was used to bin high-quality reads into operational taxonomic units

274 (OTUs) at 0.97 similarity threshold through an open-reference strategy. Taxonomy was assigned  
275 through the RDP classifier, using the Greengenes database as a reference (release May 2013).  
276 Chimera filtering was performed by using ChimeraSlayer [29]. All singleton OTUs were discarded.  
277 16S rRNA gene sequencing data of our cohort were compared with publicly available data from the  
278 following previous studies: De Filippis *et al.* [21] (127 Italians; NCBI Sequence Read Archive  
279 (SRA) accession number: SRP042234), Schnorr *et al.* [5] (16 Italians and 27 Hadza hunter-  
280 gatherers from Tanzania; MG-RAST ID: 7058), Obregon-Tito *et al.* [6] (25 Matses hunter-gatherers  
281 from Peru; NCBI SRA: PRJNA268964), and Girard *et al.* [22] (21 Inuit from the Canadian Arctic;  
282 Qiita ID: 10439). Alpha diversity was assessed using the Shannon and Simpson indices. Beta  
283 diversity was evaluated using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity measure. All statistical analysis was  
284 performed in R 3.3.2, using R Studio 1.0.44 and the libraries *vegan*, *made4* and *stats*. The  
285 significance of data separation in the Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) of Bray-Curtis  
286 distances was tested using a permutation test with pseudo-*F* ratios (function *Adonis* of *vegan*).  
287 Superimposition of bacterial genera on the PCoA plot was performed using the *envfit* function of  
288 *vegan*. Wilcoxon test was used to assess significant differences between groups (for intra- and inter-  
289 individual diversity), while Kruskal–Wallis test was used for multiple comparisons. P-values were  
290 corrected for false discovery rate (FDR, Benjamini-Hochberg) and P-values  $\leq 0.05$  were considered  
291 statistically significant.

292

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297

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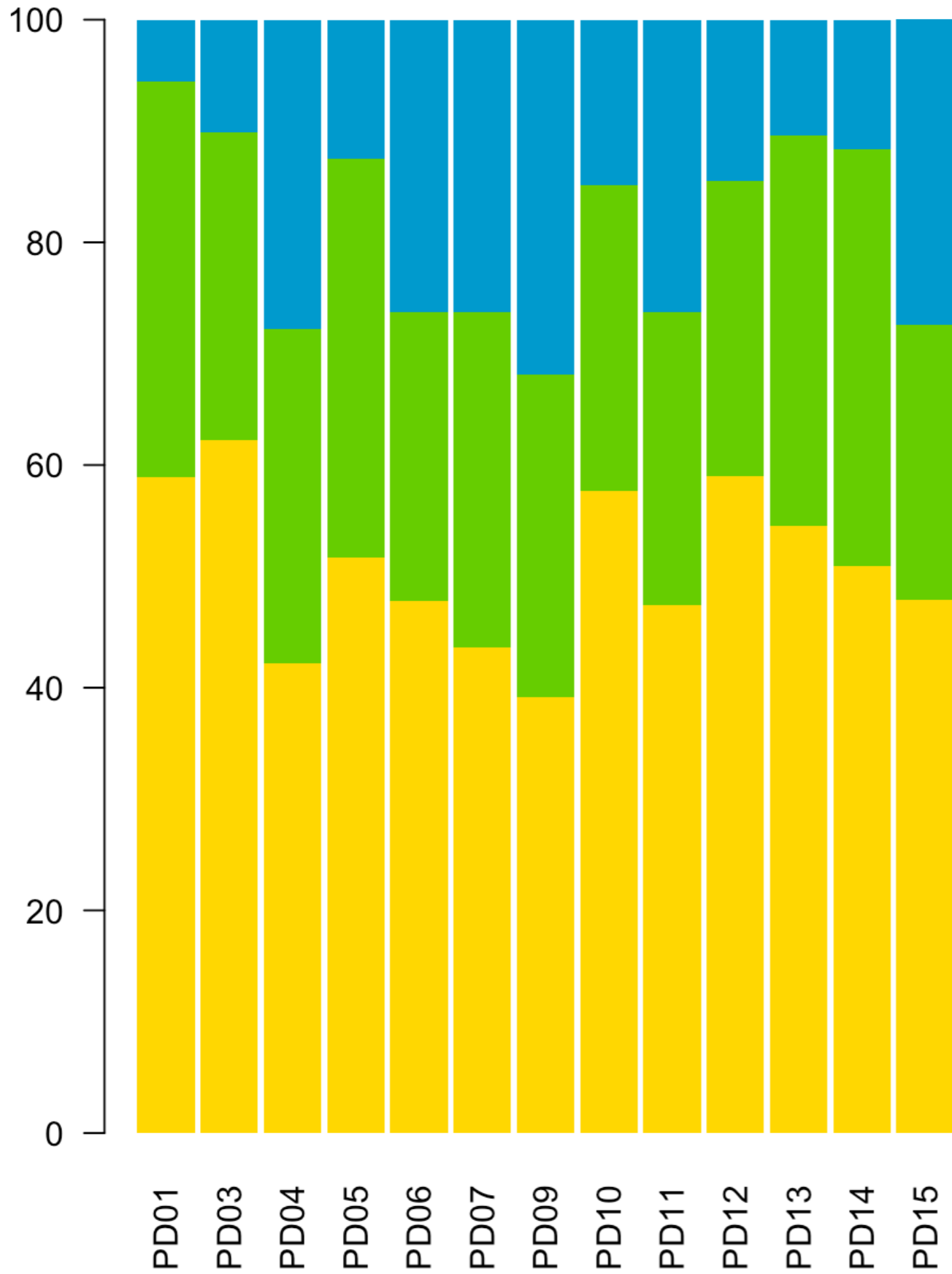
## 375 **Supporting information**

- 376 **S1 Fig. Superimposition of the genus relative abundance on the PCoA plot.** Arrows represent  
377 the direction of significant correlations (permutation correlation test, P-value < 0.001). MPD =  
378 Modern Paleolithic Diet; MD = Mediterranean Diet.
- 379 **S1 Table. Anthropometric data of the enrolled cohort.**
- 380 **S2 Table. MPD macro- and micro-nutrients summary based on MétaDieta output.**

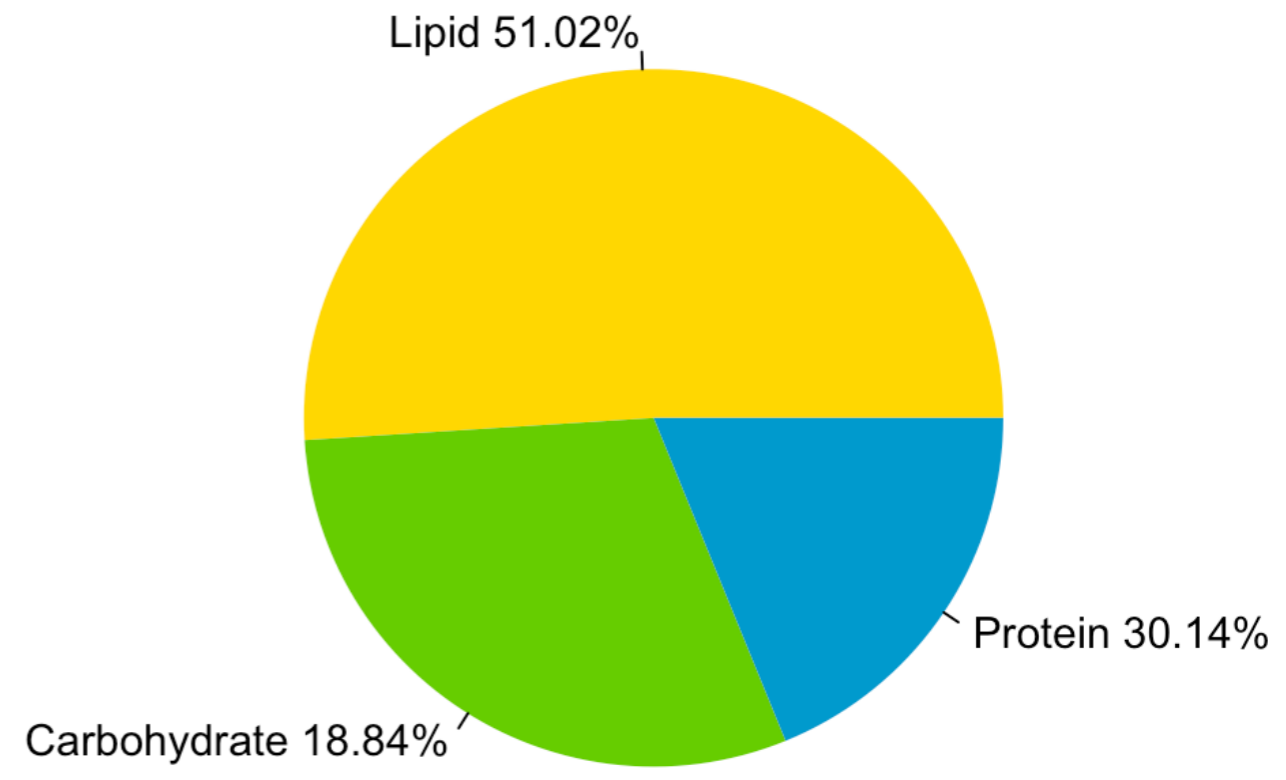


**A**

**Percent caloric contribution per subject**

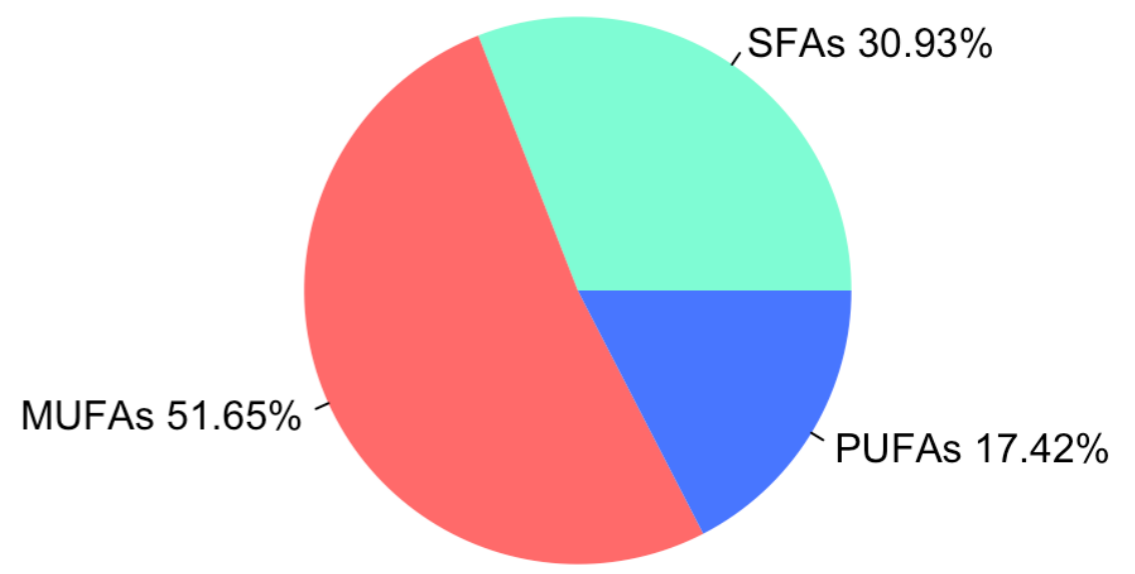


**Macronutrient summary**

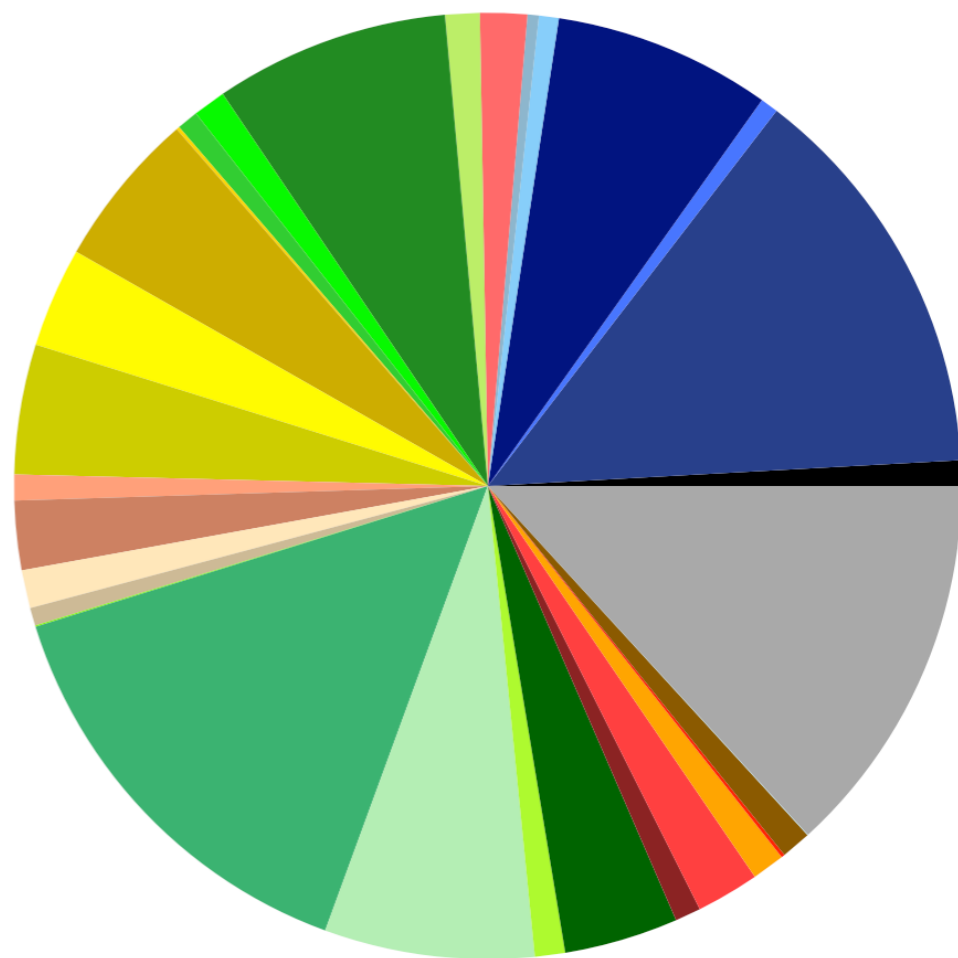
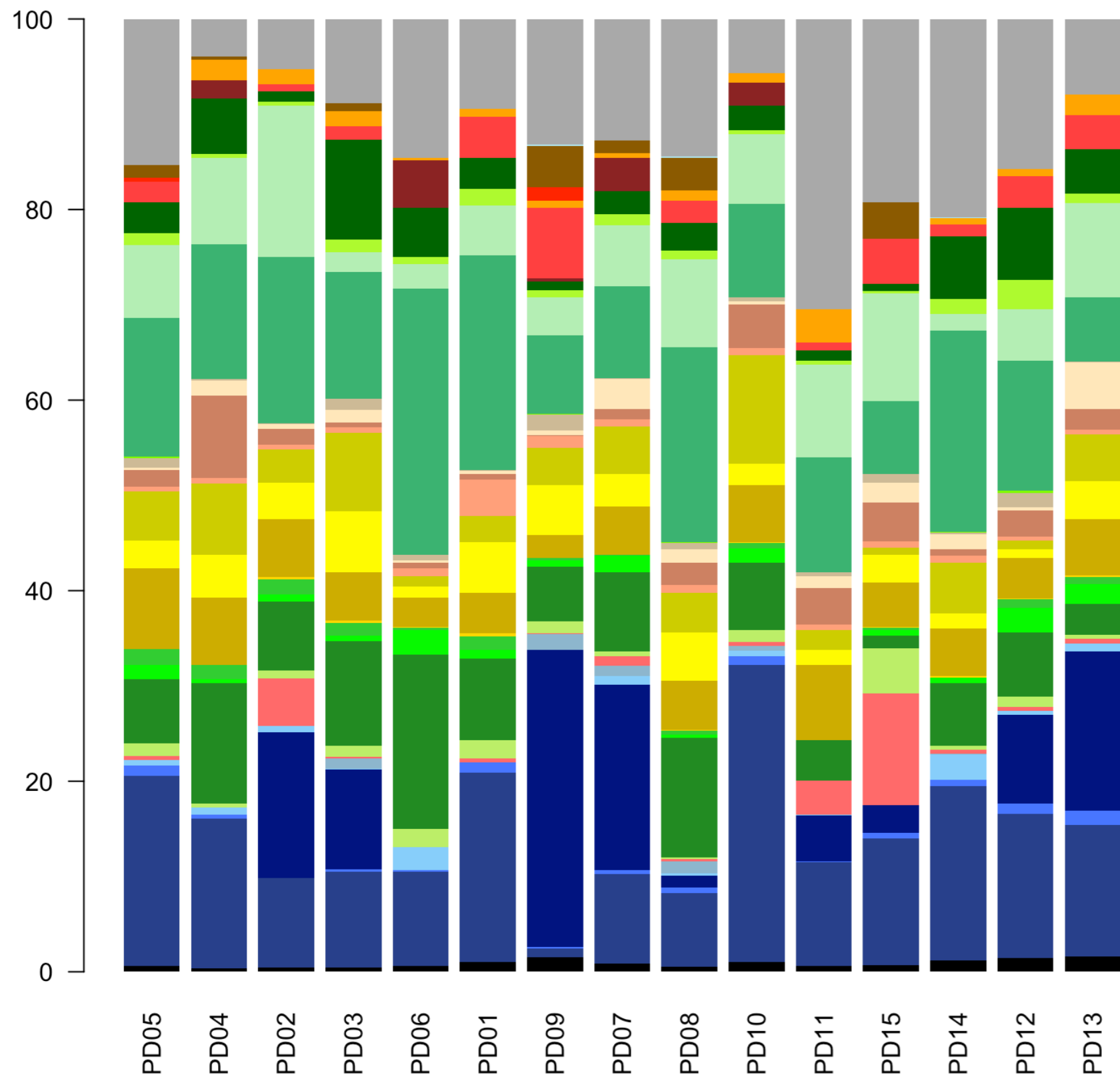


**B**

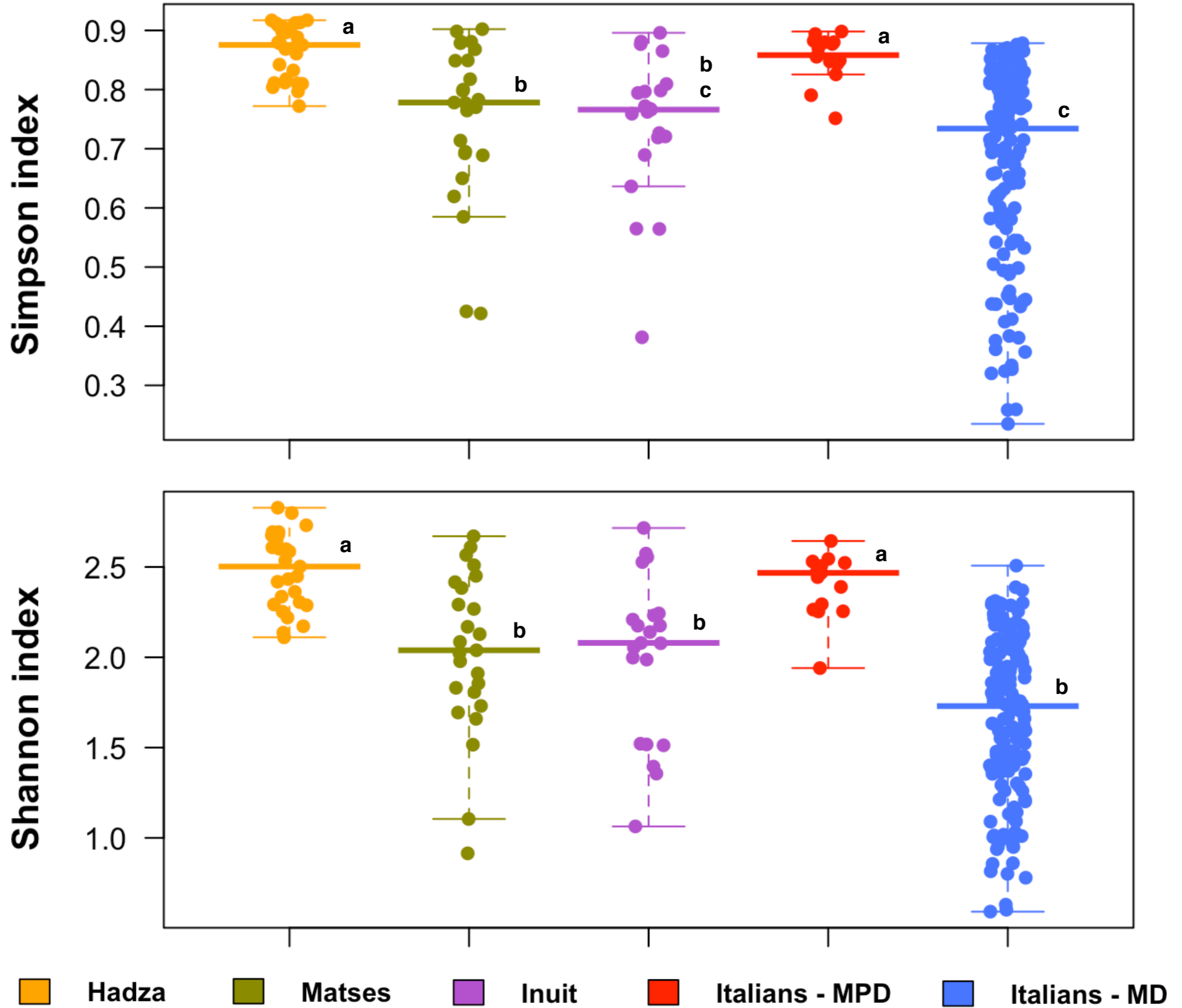
**Lipid type summary**



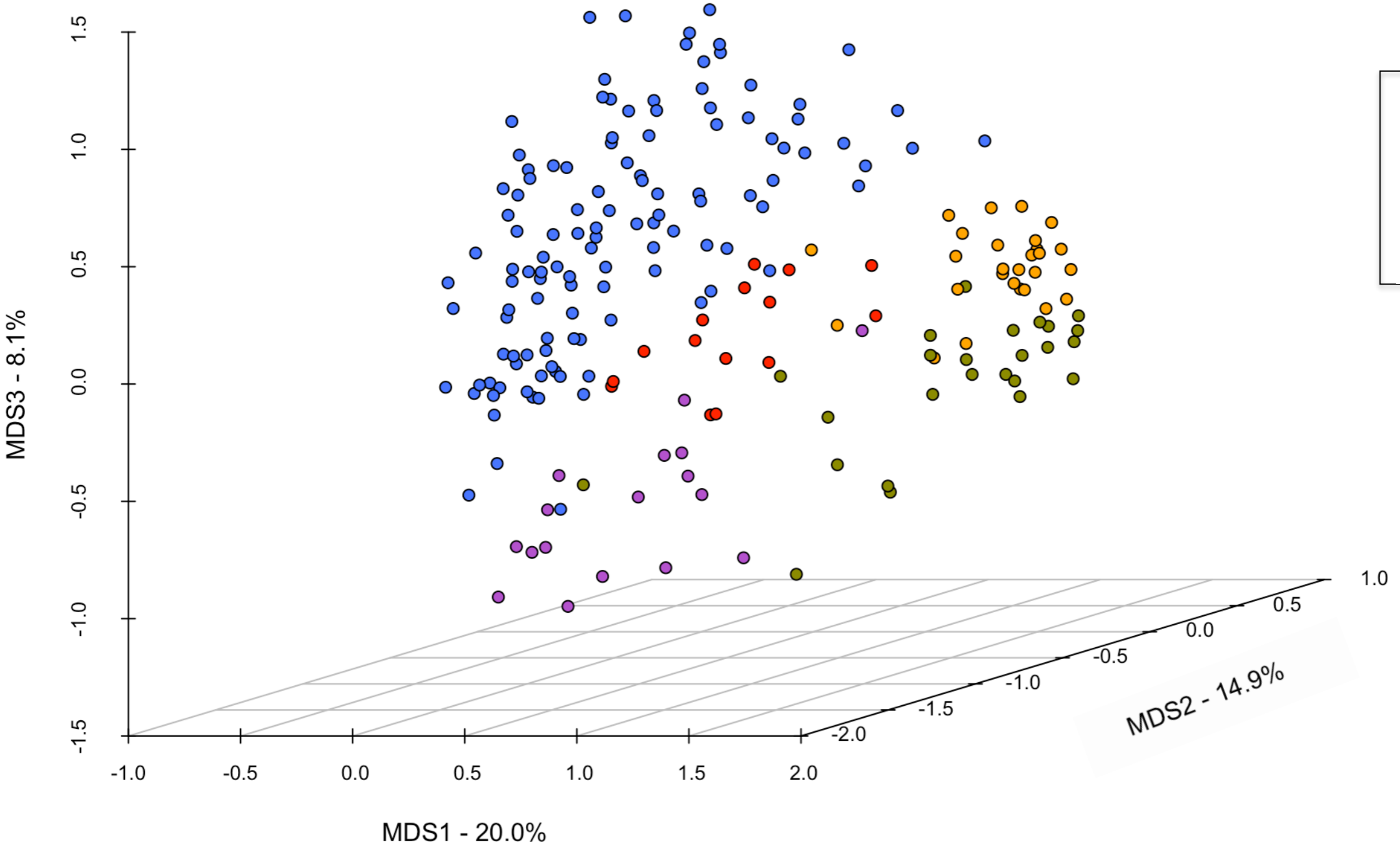
### Relative Abundance - Genus level



- |                       |                           |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|
| Other genera          | Coprococcus               |
| RF39*                 | Blautia                   |
| [Eubacterium]         | Lachnospiraceae*          |
| Catenibacterium       | Lachnospiraceae;Other     |
| Erysipelotrichaceae*  | Clostridium               |
| Phascolarctobacterium | Clostridiaceae*           |
| Dialister             | Clostridiales;Other;*     |
| Ruminococcus          | Clostridiales;Other;Other |
| Oscillospira          | Streptococcus             |
| Faecalibacterium      | S24-7                     |
| Ruminococcaceae*      | Rikenellaceae             |
| Ruminococcaceae;Other | Prevotella                |
| [Ruminococcus]        | Parabacteroides           |
| Roseburia             | Bacteroides               |
| Lachnospira           | Other*                    |
| Dorea                 |                           |



**A**



**B**

