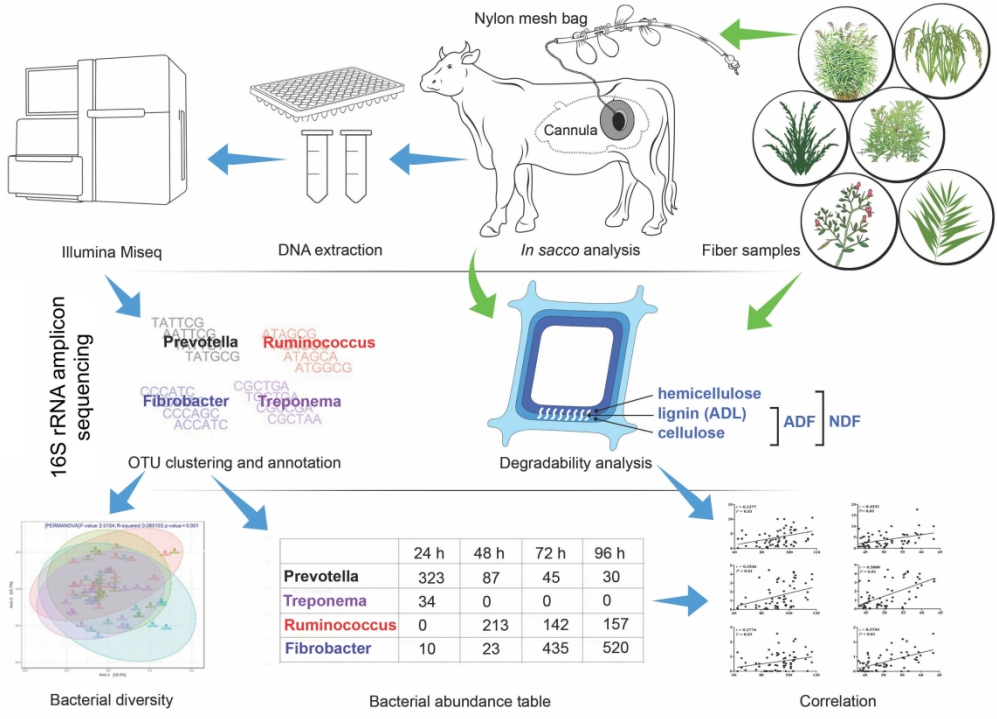


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Temporal changes in microbial communities attached to forages with different lignocellulosic compositions in the cattle rumen

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4 **Temporal changes in microbial communities attached to forages with different lignocellulosic compositions in**
5 **the cattle rumen**
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Abstract

The attachment of rumen microbes to feed particles is critical to feed fermentation, degradation and digestion. However, the extent to which the physicochemical properties of feeds influence the colonization by rumen microbes is still unclear. We hypothesized that rumen microbial communities may have differential preferences for attachments to feeds with varying lignocellulose properties. To this end, the structure and composition of microbial communities attached to six common forages with different lignocellulosic compositions were analyzed following *in situ* rumen incubation in male Taleshi cattle. The results showed that differences in lignocellulosic compositions significantly affected the inter-sample diversity of forage-attached microbial communities in the first 24 hours (h) of rumen incubation, during which the highest dry matter degradation was achieved. However, extension of the incubation to 96 h resulted in the development of more uniform microbial communities across the forages. *Fibrobacteres* were significantly overrepresented in the bacterial communities attached to the forages with the highest neutral detergent fiber contents. *Ruminococcus* tended to attach to the forages with low acid detergent lignin contents. The extent of dry matter fermentation was significantly correlated with the populations of Fibrobacteraceae, unclassified Bacteroidales, Ruminococcaceae and Spirochaetacea. Our findings suggested that lignocellulosic compositions, more specifically the cellulose components, significantly affected the microbial attachment to and thus the final digestion of the forages.

Keywords: microbiome, microbiota, rumen, rumen incubation, 16S rRNA gene sequencing, rumen fermentation, biomass degradation

Introduction

The gastrointestinal tracts (GIT) of ruminant animals have evolved to allow the colonization by a diverse community of symbiotic microorganisms belonging to three taxonomic domains of life, i.e. Archaea, Bacteria and Eukarya. Particularly, as the first and the largest compartment of ruminant stomach, rumen is the main site of microbial colonization and fermentation. Without the aid of such microorganisms, the host ruminants cannot digest and convert plant lignocellulosic biomasses into energy and other essential metabolites (Jami and Mizrahi 2012; Mackie 2002). It is estimated that almost 70% of the energy requirement of ruminants is supplied by this microbial fermentation (Bergman 1990). In addition to their crucial role in animal nutrition and production, the GIT microorganisms remain vital to animal health, physiology and immunity against pathogenic microbes (Guarner and Malagelada 2003; Hungate 2013).

Bacteria are the major colonizers in the rumen and consequently make the greatest contribution to plant biomass fermentation, degradation and digestion. Early studies on rumen microbial communities relied largely on culture-based approaches, which were limited to the bacteria that can grow on culture medium. With the advances in next-generation sequencing technologies, culture-independent approaches have gained preference, enabling researchers to achieve a deeper insight into precise composition and structure of rumen bacterial communities. The latest high throughput amplicon-based 16S ribosomal RNA gene (rRNA) sequencing studies suggest that rumen bacterial communities of most ruminants are mainly affiliated to the phyla of Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, Proteobacteria, Fibrobacteres, Spirochaetes, Actinobacteria, Tenericutes and Verrucomicrobia, which collectively account for greater than 99% of the total rumen bacterial communities (Godoy-Vitorino *et al.* 2012; Jami *et al.* 2013; Jami and Mizrahi 2012; Zened *et al.* 2013). Microbial communities are dynamic in the rumen and depend on the host species and its diet, age, physiology and health status (Godoy-Vitorino *et al.* 2012; Jami *et al.* 2013; Jami and Mizrahi 2012; Kocherginskaya *et al.* 2001; Kong *et al.* 2010; Petri *et al.* 2012). Under normal physiological conditions, diet is the major driver to determine the composition and structure of rumen bacterial communities (Petri *et al.* 2012). Interestingly, the amount of dietary fiber is a key factor shaping the growth and multiplication of cellulolytic bacteria in the rumen. Changing dietary fiber content or substituting the fiber with easily fermentable carbohydrates has a profound impact on the community of rumen microbiota and may result in metabolic diseases, such as subacute ruminal acidosis (Khafipour *et al.* 2009; Petri *et al.* 2017).

Members of the rumen bacterial communities differ in their preferences for attachment to feed particles and rumen wall, therefore they are accordingly categorized into particle-attached (tightly attached to feed particles), liquid borne (freely available in liquid fraction) and epimural (attached to rumen epithelium) communities (De Mulder *et al.* 2017; Gharechahi *et al.* 2015; Kong *et al.* 2010; Sadet *et al.* 2007). The attachment of rumen microbial communities to feed particles is a key step in the process of rumen fermentation and digestion (McAllister *et al.* 1994) and it occurs shortly after feed entry into the rumen. Analysis of microbial communities associated with perennial ryegrass following *in situ* rumen incubation in Holstein–Friesian cows or steers shows that microbial attachment initiates within five minutes (min) of its rumen entry and stabilizes between 15 and 30 min of its rumen incubation (Edwards *et al.* 2007; Huws *et*

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3 *al.* 2013). A recent analysis of temporal changes in bacterial community attached to wheat straw in Holstein cow
4 rumen demonstrates that the first wave of microbial-based biomass degradation occurs within 30 min of its rumen
5 entry. The community of bacteria attached to feed particles during this time retains even after 72 hours (h) of the
6 rumen incubation (Jin *et al.* 2018). The degree of dry matter (DM) degradation differs among forages during the initial
7 hours of their rumen entry (Cheng *et al.* 2017; Liu *et al.* 2016). The community composition of particle-attached
8 microbes also varies among feeds and is likely influenced by the chemical compositions of feeds because cellulolytic
9 bacteria such as *Fibrobacter*, *Ruminococcus*, *Butyrivibrio* and unclassified *Treponema* tend to attach to feeds with
10 relatively high neutral detergent fiber (NDF, Cheng *et al.* 2017; Liu *et al.* 2016). The community of feed particle-
11 attached bacteria also changes over the incubation time. For instance, rumen microbiota attachment to switchgrass in
12 Friesian cow occurs at two successive stages: The first wave takes place immediately after its rumen entry (within the
13 first 30 min) and is characterized by high abundances of Bacteroidia and Clostridia. The second wave, however, occurs
14 after 16 h of its rumen incubation, during which the populations of Spirochaeta and Fibrobacteria become dominant
15 (Piao *et al.* (2014).

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23 There is limited knowledge on rumen bacteria diversity, their preference for attachment to and degradation of feeds
24 with extreme values of cellulose and/or hemicellulose. Understanding the dynamics of bacteria attached to feeds at
25 high level of lignification provides opportunities to improve the nutrient efficiency of low-quality forages through
26 pre-treatments or manipulation of rumen microbial communities. We hypothesized that rumen bacterial communities
27 differ in lignocellulose degrading capacities and thus show preference for attachment to feeds with different levels of
28 lignification. We therefore aimed to evaluate whether the rumen microbes have any preference for attachment to
29 forages with different cellulose and/or hemicellulose contents. We also explored the dynamic changes in microbial
30 communities attached to the forages under prolonged incubation in the cattle rumen (e.g. up to 96 h with 24 h sampling
31 intervals). Overall, our 16S rRNA genes-based diversity analysis revealed significant differences in the composition
32 and structure of microbial communities attached to different forages.

33 34 35 36 37 38 **Materials and methods**

39 40 41 ***In situ* rumen incubation and sample collection of the forages**

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43 All experimental procedures relevant to animals were approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experiments of
44 the Animal Science Research Institute of Iran. Rumen cannulation was performed according to the American College
45 of Veterinary Surgeons (ACVS) using a two-stage rumen cannulation technique (Martineau *et al.* 2015).

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48 Six common lignocellulosic forages, including camelthorn (*Alhagi persarum*, AP; both stem and leaves), common
49 reed (*Phragmites australis*, CR; stem and leaves), date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*, DP; leaves), kochia (*Kochia*
50 *scoparia*, KS; both stem and leaves), rice straw (*Oryza sativa*; cultivar Hashemi, RS; both stem and leaves) and
51 salicornia (*Salicornia persica*, SC; both stem and leaves), were selected for *in situ* rumen incubation. Dried forage
52 materials were cut into pieces of approximately 2 mm in length and an equal amount of the pieces (5 ± 0.05 g) was
53 weighed into heat-sealed nylon bags (5×10 cm; 50 μ m pore size). Three rumen-cannulated, purebred bulls (Taleshi
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3 cattle, an Iranian local breed with a historical origin of *Bos taurus* mixed with *Bos indicus*) aged between 2.5 and 3
4 years were used for this study. Forty-eight heat-sealed bags, eight per forage, were simultaneously placed into each of
5 the three rumens shortly after the cannulated bulls were offered the first meal in the morning. The bulls were housed
6 together in a stable, fed on a mixed diet containing 70% wheat straw and 30% concentrate and provided free access
7 to water. Two nylon bags from each of the six forages were retrieved from each rumen after 24, 48, 72 and 96 h of the
8 incubation, washed thoroughly with distilled water three times to remove liquid borne and loosely attached microbes,
9 which may not have a discriminating preference for attachment to forages with different lignocellulose properties, and
10 finally squeezed by hands with sterile gloves to remove excess water. The bags were then transferred in liquid nitrogen
11 to the laboratory where one replicate was stored at -70 °C for subsequent DNA extraction while the other was
12 processed for physicochemical analysis.
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18 **Physicochemical analysis of the incubated forage materials**

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21 The forage lignocellulosic biomasses were analyzed for dry matter (DM) and the contents of neutral detergent fiber
22 (NDF), acid detergent fiber (ADF) and acid detergent lignin (ADL) before and after the rumen incubation. DM was
23 determined following 48 h air-drying of the samples in a fan-assisted oven maintained at 55 °C. The dried material
24 was grounded to pass through a 1-mm sieve for the measurements of NDF, ADF and ADL according to the established
25 procedures (Goering 1970; Van Soest *et al.* 1991). Cellulose content was estimated by subtracting ADL from ADF
26 while hemicellulose content was measured by subtracting ADF from NDF.
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30 **Microbial cell recovery and metagenomic DNA extraction**

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33 Microbial cells firmly attached to the forages were subsequently stripped by incubating individual samples on ice in
34 a dissociation buffer containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween 80, 1% (v/v) methanol and 1% (v/v) tertiary butanol (adjusted at
35 pH 2), which has been particularly adapted for the dissociation of microbial cells from the rumen solid digesta. The
36 samples were vigorously vortexed every 1 min and this step was repeated at least 5 times. The forage materials were
37 sedimented by centrifugation at 500 × g and the liquid supernatant containing microbial cells was transferred to a new
38 container. This step was repeated at least three times and the collected liquids were centrifuged at 12000 × g for 10
39 min to sediment the detached microbial cells. Metagenomic DNA from the detached cells was extracted using the
40 QIAamp® DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol for the isolation
41 of DNA from stools for pathogen detection. The quality and quantity of the extracted DNA were evaluated by an
42 agarose gel electrophoresis (0.8%) and a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA).
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49 **PCR amplification and Illumina sequencing of 16S rRNA gene**

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51 The V3-V4 hypervariable region of 16S rRNA gene was amplified using the universally conserved primer set S-D-
52 Bact-0341-b-S-17 (5'-CCT ACG GGN GGC WGC AG-3') and S-D-Bact-0785-a-A-21 (5'-GAC TAC HVG GGT
53 ATC TAA TCC-3'), which generated a fragment of 464 bp suitable for paired-end sequencing using the Illumina
54 MiSeq System (Illumina Inc. San Diego, CA, USA). PCR amplification was performed in triplicate in a 25 µL reaction
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3 containing 12.5 μ L 2 \times PCR master mix (Qiagen), 1 μ L (10 pM) of each primer, 30 ng of microbial DNA and 5-9 μ L
4 of double-distilled water. The PCR condition consisted of an initial denaturation at 94 $^{\circ}$ C for 4 min followed by 30
5 cycles of 94 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 s, 55 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 s and 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 s, and a final extension at 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 5 min. PCR products
6 were purified and 2 μ L of each reaction was used as a template for the second round of PCR, during which the Illumina
7 adaptors and barcode sequences were incorporated to the 5'-end of the amplified products. The second PCR was also
8 performed in triplicate under the same running condition except the number of cycles were limited to 15. The PCR
9 amplicons were recovered using the Qiaquick[®] Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen), quantified fluorometrically, pooled in
10 equimolar quantities and paired-end sequenced (PE300) using the Illumina MiSeq System at Macrogen Inc. (Seoul,
11 South Korea).

12 **Sequence analysis**

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20 Quality filtered paired-end sequences were joined using the Flash with --max-overlap option set to 200 (Magoc and
21 Salzberg 2011). Sequences failed to be assembled were discarded. The joined FASTQ files were processed using
22 split_libraries_fastq.py script in the QIIME pipeline v1.9.1 (Caporaso *et al.* 2010b). This script demultiplexed
23 sequences and filtered out sequences shorter than 200 bp or longer than 1000 bp, along with those containing
24 ambiguous bases with a mean quality score < 20, having runs of six or more of the same nucleotides, carrying a
25 missing quality score and including > two mismatches from the primer sequences. The multiplexed sequences were
26 searched against the latest Ribosomal Database Project (RDP release 11.5, containing 3,356,809 16S rRNA sequences)
27 to identify and discard chimeric sequences using the VSEARCH v2.8.3 operated under default setting (Rognes *et al.*
28 2016). Non-chimeric sequences were then used to pick operational taxonomic units (OTUs) using the
29 pick_de_novo_otus.py script in the QIIME pipeline as described in details in our previous paper (Gharechahi *et al.*
30 2017). OTUs were defined at 97% identity using the Uclust (Edgar 2010). The most abundant sequence in each OTU
31 cluster was selected as being a representative; and these sequences were then aligned against the Greengenes core set
32 (gg_13_8; (DeSantis *et al.* 2006)) using the PyNAST aligner with a minimum sequence identity of 75% (Caporaso *et*
33 *al.* 2010a). Taxonomies were assigned to each OTU using the Ribosomal Database Project naïve Bayesian classifier
34 (Wang *et al.* 2007) by applying a minimum confidence value of 0.8. The OTU table was filtered for low abundant
35 OTUs using the filter_otus_from_otu_table.py script with --min_count_fraction option set to 0.00001 (discarding
36 OTUs represented by < 0.001% of the sequences) and then rarefied to the sequencing depth at 4660 reads
37 corresponding to the number of reads in the sample with the smallest set of sequences. Rarefaction plots and alpha
38 diversity indices, including Shannon, Simpson, Good's_coverage and Chao1, were calculated using the
39 core_diversity_analyses.py script in the QIIME pipeline. Beta diversity indices, including weighted and unweighted
40 Unifrac phylogenetic distance matrices, were constructed with the rarefied OTU table as input and visualized through
41 the principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) plots in the MicrobiomeAnalyst web server (Dhariwal *et al.* 2017).

42 **Statistical analysis**

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3 Statistically significant differences in physicochemical data, including DM, NDF, ADF, ADL, cellulose and
4 hemicellulose contents, were analyzed by one-way ANOVA using the general linear model (GLM) procedure in the
5 SAS software v9.3 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Permutational multivariate analysis of variance
6 (PERMANOVA) was performed using the adonis function of R-package vegan v2.5-5 to test for significant
7 differences between community compositions of forage-attached microbial communities. In addition, permutation
8 multivariate analysis of group dispersions (PERMDISP) based on the betadisper function of the vegan was used to
9 test for the homogeneity of dispersions (variances). Differences in taxa abundances among forages and sampling
10 intervals were estimated using analysis of composition of microbes (ANCOM) based on relative abundances of OTUs
11 summarized at various taxonomic levels (Mandal *et al.* 2015). Means were compared by Duncan's Multiple Range
12 test (DMRT) in PAST v3.26 given Bonferroni p-value cutoff < 0.05 (Hammer *et al.* 2001). Error correction was done
13 based on the number of groupwise comparisons performed at each taxonomic level. The Pearson's correlation analysis
14 was performed using the corr.test function of the psych package v1.8.12 and p-values were corrected using Bonferroni
15 method based on the total number of correlations calculated for each variable separately. For all tests, p-values less
16 than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.
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24 **Results**

25 **Physicochemical properties of the rumen-incubated forages**

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27 The six forages were analyzed for the contents of NDF, ADF, ADL, cellulose and hemicellulose before their rumen
28 incubation (Figure 1). They showed different NDF contents ($p < 0.05$), being the highest in common reed (CR) but
29 the lowest in both camelthorn (AP) and rice straw (RS). Most of them also contained different ADF contents ($p <$
30 0.05), being the highest in AP but the lowest in both RS and salicornia (SC). The contents of ADL also differed
31 significantly between the forages ($p < 0.05$), with AP being the highest at 2 times that in date palm (DP), three times
32 those in SC, CR and kochia (KS; the latter two with similar contents at $p > 0.05$) and 6 times the lowest value in RS
33 (24.86% vs 4.06%). CR carried the highest cellulose followed by DP, RS, KS and SC while AP contained the lowest
34 cellulose ($p < 0.05$). SC possessed the highest amount of hemicellulose followed by CR, KS, RS, DP and AP. Overall,
35 all the six forages had different physicochemical properties in terms of their relative contents of hemicellulose,
36 cellulose and lignin.
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44 **Lignocellulosic biomass degradation following the rumen incubation**

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46 The six forages were monitored for their changes in the contents of DM, NDF, ADF, ADL, cellulose and hemicellulose
47 during the rumen incubation (Figure 1 and Figure S1). DM degradation was the fastest in AP but the slowest in CR
48 (42% vs 34%, $p < 0.05$) during the first 24 h of the incubation. DM degradation was completed in AP at 24 h but
49 continued in CR and KS until 48 h, and in DP, RS and SC up to 96 h of the incubation, with RS having the highest
50 degraded DM (66%) followed by SC (56%) and DP (53%). AP, DP and KS demonstrated similar trends of
51 significantly increased NDF, ADF, ADL and cellulose contents ($p < 0.05$), mirrored in their patterns of DM
52 degradations, mostly within the first 24 h, but their hemicelluloses decreased continuously ($p < 0.05$ in most cases)
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3 following the incubation. However, the patterns of these five fiber-related parameters were significantly segregated
4 among CR, RS and SC during the incubation. Although ADF and ADL were significantly increased but celluloses
5 were remarkably declined in CR and SC ($p < 0.05$), their NDF and hemicelluloses showed contrasting patterns, being
6 significantly reduced in CR while steadily accumulated in SC ($p < 0.05$) throughout the incubation. ADF, cellulose
7 and hemicellulose in RS maintained stable levels while its NDF and ADL were slightly increased ($p < 0.05$) along the
8 incubation. It was apparent that the initial differences in fiber-related physicochemical properties significantly affected
9 the rumen digestion of the six forages.
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13 14 **16S rRNA gene sequencing** 15

16 The paired-end sequencing of PCR amplicons from the V3-V4 region of 16S rRNA gene resulted in 5,945,300 pairs
17 of raw sequences (averaged at 82,573 sequences per sample) with an average length of 300 bp. Sequences were joined
18 into 4,421,604 full-length amplicons at an average of $61,411 \pm 38,275$ per sample. The uneven sequencing depths
19 across samples may be due to the true differences in microbial abundance of samples or the technical variations
20 introduced during library preparation and sequencing. Although the numbers of sequences varied greatly among the
21 forages and across the lengths of the rumen incubation, there was a general pattern of a steady increase from the lowest
22 at 24 h (averaged at 44,100 per sample) to the highest at 72 h (averaged at 95,823 per sample).
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28 **Sequencing data analysis** 29

30 Before processing the amplicon sequences for OTU picking, they were subjected to a single round of quality filtering,
31 resulting in 3,602,510 high quality sequences, of which 994,147 (27%) were identified to be chimeric and thus
32 discarded from further analyses. The qualified sequences (2,493,285) were clustered at 97% similarity level into
33 110,804 OTUs, of which 106,982 (96.4%, representing 202,403 sequences) were labeled as low abundant features
34 (e.g. those representing reads with frequencies less than 0.001% of the total sequences) and therefore filtered out from
35 the OTU table. Finally, 3,822 clean OTUs representing 2,290,882 sequences were subjected to further downstream
36 analyses. To assess whether our sequencing effort provided sufficient sequencing depths to describe the diversity of
37 forage-attached microbiotaes, rarefaction curves describing the numbers of observed OTUs, species richness (Chao1),
38 Shannon and Simpson diversity at various sequencing depths were generated for all samples (Figure S2a-d).
39 Rarefaction analysis based on observed species and species richness revealed incomplete sampling of microbiota
40 ~~attached to the forages~~ and thus indicated that highly diverse microbial communities attached to the forages ~~with~~
41 ~~different lignocellulose properties~~(Figure S2a and b). ~~However,~~ Shannon (Figure S2c) and Simpson indices (Figure
42 S2d) ~~also showed reached plateaus, indicating that the majority of the diversity was explored that forage-attached~~
43 ~~microbiota had not been evenly sampled.~~
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51 **Microbial diversity analysis** 52

53 Differences in alpha diversity indices of forage-attached microbiota were mostly limited to the first 24 h of the rumen
54 incubation, during which the maximal differences in microbial attachment occurred (Figure S3). At this time, CR and
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3 RS (two forages with the highest initial cellulose contents) had the lowest while AP and KS (two forages with the
4 lowest initial cellulose contents) had the highest average observed species and species richness. CR and RS also
5 showed the lowest average Shannon index, indicating their limited microbial diversity ($p < 0.05$). Diversity indices in
6 almost all forages were not affected by the incubation length (Figure S4) except that CR had very low alpha diversity
7 measures at 24 h of its incubation ($p < 0.05$). All samples showed a high Good's coverage (> 0.91 , data not shown) at
8 all sampling intervals, indicating that our sequencing effort figured out $> 90\%$ of the microbial diversity attached to
9 the forages. However, the uneven sequencing depths did not allow us to fully explore the diversity of forage-attached
10 microbiota. Considering potential random errors due to limited numbers of experimental animals and replicates in this
11 study, such differences in alpha diversity indices among the forages were not robust enough to be interpreted with any
12 biological significance.
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18 Beta diversity analysis also showed limited variations among the forages as well as across the lengths of the rumen
19 incubation. Weighted Unifrac dissimilarity matrix, which considered taxa relative abundances and their phylogenetic
20 distances, explained 21% and 26% of the variations among the forages and across the lengths of the incubation,
21 respectively. PERMANOVA revealed that at least some forages (e.g. CR and SC) had different microbial communities
22 (Figure 2a, $p < 0.001$) while testing for homogeneity of group dispersions (sample distance from group centroid)
23 identified no significant difference between group dispersions (Figure 2b, PERMDISP $p > 0.1$). Nevertheless,
24 differences in microbial communities across the incubation lengths (Figure 2c, PERMANOVA $p < 0.001$) appeared
25 to be mainly affected by within-group dispersions, either by the forage types or inter-animal variations, particularly
26 during the first 24 h (Figure 2d, PERMDISP $p < 0.05$). At this time, CR-attached microbiota was well-separated from
27 those attached to other forages. The entire microbial community structure showed a clear shift among the forages
28 during the incubation because differences in the microbiota were apparent at 24 h but disappeared in later sampling
29 intervals (Figure 2c and d). This finding suggested the existence of a strong preference of rumen microbiota for
30 attachment to the forages of different digestibility while the rate and extent of such preference were quickly
31 compromised after the initial hours of rumen digestion (24 h).
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40 **Forage-attached microbial community**

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42 A total of 18 bacterial phyla and one archaeal phylum were identified from the forage-attached microbial communities
43 colonized in the Taleshi cattle rumen. The communities were dominated by phyla Firmicutes (45%) and Bacteroidetes
44 (41%) followed with Fibrobacteres (5%), Spirochaetes (3%) and Proteobacteria (2%). Variations in the abundances
45 of major bacterial phyla attached to the forages have been depicted in Figure 3a. The ANCOM analysis followed by
46 Duncan's post hoc test revealed differential abundances of Bacteroidetes, Fibrobacteres, Lentisphaerae and
47 Spirochaetes among the forages (Figure 3b, ANCOM $p < 0.05$). Bacteroidetes were significantly overrepresented in
48 AP and CR compared with DP and SC (DMRT Bonferroni $p < 0.001$). Interestingly, fiber-utilizing bacteria belonging
49 to Fibrobacteres were observed in more than 9% of the reads of CR and SC (two forages with the highest initial NDF
50 contents) but in less than 2% of the reads of AP and KS ($p < 0.05$) and also in DP and RS (Figure 3a). CR contained
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3 more Lentisphaerae compared with other forages ($p < 0.001$) while SC carried more Spirochaetes relative to AP ($p <$
4 0.02).
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7 At the family level (Figure S5), the forage-attached microbes were affiliated to 76 families, of which nine showed
8 differential abundances among the forages, including Bacteroidaceae, Clostridiaceae, Fibrobacteraceae,
9 Victivallaceae, Christensenellaceae, Lachnospiraceae, Spirochaetaceae, Oxalobacteraceae and RFP12 (ANCOM $p <$
10 0.05). Interestingly, Victivallaceae were significantly overrepresented in CR compared with other forages ($p < 0.05$),
11 while Bacteroidaceae was significantly enriched in CR and RS compared with AP, DP, KS and SC. Oxalobacteraceae
12 was more abundant in KS and SC than in AP, CR, DP and RS ($p < 0.05$). Members of Fibrobacteraceae also more
13 frequently appeared in CR and SC compared with AP, KS and RS with the lowest initial NDF contents ($p < 0.02$),
14 while those of Clostridiaceae and Lachnospiraceae were underrepresented in CR compared with other forages ($p <$
15 0.05).
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21 Particle-attached microbiota were affiliated to 119 genera (taxonomic level 6), of which 12 displayed differential
22 abundances among the forages (ANCOM $p < 0.05$, Figure 4) most of which were among high abundant members of
23 rumen community which are known to play key roles in plant lignocellulose degradation, including *Ruminococcus*,
24 *Fibrobacter*, *Prevotella*, *Treponema*, *Lachnospira*, *Succinivibrio*, *Pseudobutyribrio*, *Butyribrio*, *Oxalobacter*,
25 *Clostridium*, BF311 and *Succiniclasticum*. *Ruminococcus* and members of BF311 were more dominant in RS than in
26 AP, KS and SC ($p < 0.001$). *Fibrobacter* were more highly represented in CR and SC. Species of *Lachnospira* were
27 present in 0.3% of the reads of AP and KS ($p < 0.05$) but only 0.11% of CR and 0.09% of SC. *Succinivibrio* were
28 overrepresented in AP and SC compared with CR ($p < 0.05$). Species of *Prevotella* were more abundant in CR (> 21%
29 of the reads) than in DP and SC ($p < 0.008$). Compared to other forages, CR carried less *Butyribrio* and
30 *Pseudobutyribrio* species ($p < 0.007$).
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36 **Changes in forage-attached microbes during the rumen incubation**

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39 In order to examine whether the community composition of forage-attached microbes changed during the rumen
40 incubation, the relative abundances of the microbes were tracked at 24 h intervals (Figure 5). The abundances of eight
41 out of the 119 bacterial genera showed significant differences among the incubation lengths (Bonferroni corrected p
42 < 0.05). Interestingly, the proportions of cellulolytic bacteria belonging to unclassified Ruminococcaceae linearly
43 increased with the incubation lengths in AP, KS and SC. The proportion of *Fibrobacter* sharply dropped after the first
44 24 h and reached to an average of 4% between 48 and 96 h of the incubation in CR. Members of *Pseudobutyribrio*
45 linearly decreased in AP and KS while those of *Butyribrio* increased in CR with the incubation lengths. Members
46 of *Clostridium* increased in SC but those of *Prevotella* and unclassified Paraprevotellaceae decreased with the
47 incubation lengths, which were consistent with findings of Cheng *et al.* (2017).
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52 **Relationship between lignocellulose degradation and forage-attached microbial communities**

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3 The Pearson's correlation between the initial physicochemical properties of the forages and the composition of the
4 forage-attached microbiota during initial hours (24 h) of the rumen incubation was performed to determine whether
5 rumen microbes preferred specific forages for attachment. Only correlations with p-values (Bonferroni-corrected) less
6 than 0.05 were considered to have significant biological terms. This analysis demonstrated that the prevalence of the
7 family Fibrobacteraceae ($r = 0.77$, $p = 0.03$) was positively correlated with NDF contents of the forages. At the genus
8 level, the abundance of *Fibrobacter* ($r = 0.77$, $p = 0.05$) was positively but an unclassified Erysipelotrichaceae genus
9 p-75-a5 ($r = -0.79$, $p = 0.03$) was negatively correlated with NDF contents in the forages. When hemicellulose contents
10 were considered, a negative correlation with members of the family Pirellulaceae ($r = -0.79$, $p = 0.02$) was detected.
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15 We also correlated microbial profiles with physicochemical properties of the forages during the rumen incubation.
16 This analysis revealed that the prevalence of the families Fibrobacteraceae ($r = 0.83$, $p = 0.03$ in CR),
17 Anaeroplasmataceae ($r = 0.82$, $p = 0.04$ in CR), Prevotellaceae ($r = 0.83$, $r = 0.04$ in KS) and Paraprevotellaceae ($r =$
18 0.85 , $p = 0.02$ in SC) were positively but Ruminococcaceae ($r = < -0.85$, $p < 0.01$ in CR and SC) and unclassified
19 Bacteroidales ($r = -0.84$, $p = 0.05$ in RS) were negatively correlated with DM contents of the forages. Particularly,
20 members of Ruminococcaceae were positively correlated with ADF, ADL and hemicellulose contents in CR, DP and
21 SC ($r > 0.8$ and $p < 0.04$), the forages with the highest initial NDF contents (Figure 1). The population of
22 Lachnospiraceae was also positively correlated ($r = 0.83$, and $p = 0.04$) with cellulose content in CR.
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28 To ascertain whether there was any relationship between the rumen microbiota and lignocellulose degradation, an
29 additional Pearson's correlation analysis was performed between DM loss and the relative abundance of forage-
30 attached microbial communities during the rumen incubation. Interestingly, DM degradation was positively correlated
31 with the prevalence of the families Fibrobacteraceae ($r > 0.76$, $p < 0.001$ in CR) and Spirochaetaceae ($r = 0.91$, $p =$
32 0.0004 in KS) but was negatively correlated with species belonging to unclassified Bacteroidales ($r < -0.82$, $p < 0.05$
33 in CR and DP), Ruminococcaceae ($r = -0.83$, $p = 0.04$ in CR), Mogibacteriaceae ($r < -0.82$, $p < 0.05$ in CR and RS)
34 and Erysipelotrichaceae ($r = -0.87$, $p = 0.01$ in CR). The correlations of cellulose and hemicellulose degradations
35 with the abundances of forage-attached microbes also showed similar patterns.
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41 Discussion

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43 In this study, we investigated the relationship between biomass degradation of and microbial attachment to six
44 common lignocellulosic forages varying in their physicochemical properties, including percentages of NDF, ADF,
45 ADL and the contents of cellulose and hemicellulose. Forages containing the highest cellulose contents [(common
46 reed (CR) vs. camelthorn (AP)] were degraded to a limited extent during the initial hours of their rumen incubation.
47 The total DM degradation was mainly determined by NDF contents of the forages, because as rice straw (RS) with
48 the lowest initial NDF (77.4%) had the fastest (66%) while CR with the highest initial NDF (87.2%) had the lowest
49 (42%) DM loss over 96 h of the incubation. Variability in DM degradation of feeds reflected the differences in
50 lignocellulose composition of their cell walls (Bruno-Soares *et al.* 2000; Jančík *et al.* 2010). The rate and extent of
51 DM fermentation in the rumen determines the nutrition efficiency of feeds to ruminants (Jančík *et al.* 2010).
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3 The 16S rRNA gene sequencing data allowed taxonomic identification and quantification of the rumen microbiota
4 tightly attached to the forages. Rarefaction analysis based on the indices reflecting species richness and species relative
5 abundance, e.g. Shannon and Simpson (Kim *et al.* 2017), indicated that the majority of the diversity of rumen
6 microbiota attached to the forages was already sampled-not sufficiently and evenly sampled. Alpha diversity analysis
7 also showed a limited biologically significant difference among the forages, which could likely be attributed to a high
8 microbial heterogeneity among animals included in the study. The changes in diversity measures were largely
9 restricted to the initial hours of rumen incubation when maximal DM degradation occurred. The differences in species
10 richness and evenness were linked to cellulose contents of the forages, where CR and RS with the highest cellulose
11 contents displayed limited species diversity. This result was in agreement with the data on rice straw and alfalfa hay
12 being fed to Holstein cows, in which more bacteria attached to alfalfa with lower NDF (Liu *et al.* 2016). These findings
13 suggested that only a limited fraction of rumen microbiota was capable of attachment to feeds with high lignocellulose
14 contents.
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21 Analysis of community structure of forage-attached microbiota by Unifrac dissimilarity matrix revealed significant
22 differences among the forages and across the length of rumen incubation. Particularly, CR-attached microbiota was
23 well separated from those of other forages at the first 24 h of the incubation. In addition, microbiota attached to CR
24 and SC, the two forages with the highest initial NDF contents, were also distantly clustered while those of other
25 forages did not show any apparent separation, indicating the similarity of their communities. These variations could
26 likely be determined by the nature of the forages, e.g., their chemical compositions. Unifrac diversity measure also
27 showed that extension of the incubation time contributed to the increased similarity across the samples, as reflected
28 by the overlapped clustering in the PCoA plots for most samples collected at 72 and 96 h of the incubation. This could
29 be explained by the fact that initial DM degradation resulted in the reduction of digestible components but the
30 accumulation of indigestible residues which had quite similar properties across the forages, thus favoring the
31 attachment of structurally similar communities of rumen microbiota. Huws *et al.* (2013) also observed similar changes
32 in the microbial communities attached to perennial ryegrass following its rumen incubation.
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39 Members of Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Fibrobacteres, Spirochaetes and Proteobacteria were dominant in all samples,
40 accounting for greater than 96% of the bacterial communities attached to the forages, consistent with the findings for
41 rice straw and alfalfa hay (Liu *et al.* 2016). The abundance of these bacterial phyla varied among the forages and
42 across the incubation lengths. Particularly, species of Bacteroidetes were more abundantly attached to the forages with
43 high ADF contents (AP and CR). Bacteroidetes were among highly abundant members of the rumen microbiota being
44 best recognized for their saccharolytic activities. The presence of a high number of pectinolytic and cellulolytic
45 enzymes in their genomes clustered with other lignocellulose degrading enzymes into polysaccharide utilization loci
46 (PUL) suggested that they are also actively involved in pectin, hemicellulose and cellulose degradation (Gharechahi
47 and Salekdeh 2018; Lapebie *et al.* 2019; Naas *et al.* 2014). Within this phylum, members of the families
48 Bacteroidaceae, Prevotellaceae and Paraprevotellaceae displayed significant differences among the forages.
49 Particularly, Bacteroidaceae were significantly overrepresented in the forages with the lowest initial ADL contents
50 (CR and RS). At the genus-level, this differential abundance was only affiliated to the BF311, an uncultured and
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3 unknown rumen bacterium. Prevotellaceae were particularly positively correlated with DM degradation, suggesting
4 their active role in lignocellulose degradation in the rumen. *Prevotella* spp. are abundant members of the rumen
5 microbiome that have a high genetic diversity and thus the ability to thrive on a wide range of substrates, including
6 cellulose, hemicellulose, pectin, proteins and peptides (Dodd *et al.* 2010; Golder *et al.* 2014). They are known for their
7 xylanolytic properties in the rumen and thus play an important role in fiber degradation (Dodd *et al.* 2010).
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11 Fibrobacteres were predominantly represented in microbiota attached to the forages with the highest NDF contents
12 [e.g. CR and Salicornia (SC)]. They are known to produce a battery of cellulolytic enzymes capable of degrading
13 cellulose as a sole carbon source (Flint *et al.* 2008; Suen *et al.* 2011). The association of forage NDF content with the
14 prevalence of *Fibrobacter* is also recently observed in the cow rumen microbiota (Liu *et al.* 2016). In contrast to
15 Fibrobacteres, the genera *Clostridium*, *Shuttleworthia* and *Ruminococcus* tended to attach the forages with limited
16 NDF and cellulose contents. This is consistent with previous findings on the preference of *Ruminococcus* species for
17 attachment to high quality sugar-rich hays (Klevenhusen *et al.* 2017). Ruminococcaceae showed a strong negative
18 correlation with total DM contents in the forages as well. Shinkai *et al.* (2010) also reported that members of
19 Fibrobacteres, including *F. succinogenes*, abundantly attached to less digestible fibers while those of
20 Ruminococcaceae, specifically *R. flavefaciens*, preferred easily digestible fibers and thus were infrequently detected
21 in the stem parts of hays. The rate and extent of fiber degradation by *F. succinogenes* are also greater than *R. albus*
22 and *R. flavefaciens* (Kobayashi *et al.* 2008). Early microscopy analysis indicated that *R. albus* is less commonly
23 attached to plant cell walls while *F. succinogenes* forms extensive microcapsula enveloping the cell walls (Chesson
24 *et al.* 1986). The community of unclassified Ruminococcaceae tended to linearly expand in AP, KS and SC following
25 their rumen incubation. This finding suggested that the degradation of surface accessible fibers turned forage residues
26 into favored substrates for the attachment by species of Ruminococcaceae. A declined abundance of species of
27 *Ruminococcus* has been reported in the cow rumen when the starch content of diet was increased (Zened *et al.* 2013).
28 *Ruminococcus* spp. have been equipped with specialized mechanisms for fiber adhesion and degradation, in which
29 multiple carbohydrate degrading enzymes assemble into multienzyme cellulosome complexes capable of attachment
30 to and degradation of polysaccharides in various plant cell walls (Bayer *et al.* 2004; Doi and Kosugi 2004).
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41 Recently, Huws *et al.* (2016) reported that microbial colonization of perennial ryegrass occurred at two successive
42 stages: The primary (the first 1-2 h after its rumen entry) and the secondary phases (4-8 h). It was the secondary phase,
43 during which the maximal DM degradation was achieved and the proportion of *Succinivibrio* spp. decreased while
44 those of *Pseudobutyrvibrio*, *Roseburia* and *Ruminococcus* spp. increased. Piao *et al.* (2014) also observed that the
45 populations of *Pseudobutyrvibrio* and *Ruminococcus* spp. increased during their secondary colonization to
46 switchgrass in the Friesian cow rumen. The microbial communities attached to feeds during the primary phase were
47 believed to utilize soluble and easily accessible nutrients while those colonized feeds during the secondary phase were
48 considered to be the true lignocellulose degraders (Huws *et al.* 2016; Liu *et al.* 2016). In this study, an increased
49 prevalence of *Butyrivibrio* was noted in CR. *Butyrivibrio* spp. are known for their proteolytic, hemicellulolytic and
50 biohydrogenating activities (Krause *et al.* 2003). Liu *et al.* (2016) reported a strong positive correlation between the
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3 abundance of *Butyrivibrio* spp. and the crude protein contents in the rice straw and alfalfa hay, suggesting their
4 preference for the attachment to proteinaceous components of the feeds.
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7 In summary, our results demonstrated that physicochemical compositions of the forages, more specifically their
8 cellulose contents, were among the major factors influencing microbial attachments and thus lignocellulose
9 degradation in the cattle rumen. No taxonomic lineage was found to be specific of a particular forage, suggesting that
10 most rumen microbes had an inherent tendency for attachment to lignocellulosic substrates. However, differential
11 attachments to the forages by rumen microbiota suggested that the physicochemical properties were the key factors
12 influencing the rate of microbial attachment. Our results also revealed that members of the rumen microbiota competed
13 for their attachments to the forages with different lignocellulose compositions mostly during the initial hours of the
14 rumen incubation. However, after the degradation of easily digestible components in the forages, relatively uniform
15 microbial communities developed on their surface.
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21 It should be noted that the bacterial community composition detected in each forage at each sampling interval may
22 not necessarily reflect the actual abundance of microbes due to an inherent bias in sample collection, processing and
23 storage as well as DNA extraction and PCR amplification, which may cause over- or under-representation of some
24 taxa. For example, a recent comparative analysis of various DNA extraction methods used in rumen microbiome
25 analyses argued that DNA extraction method can have an adverse effect on the community composition of rumen
26 samples and may associate with an increased or decreased abundance of some specific taxa (Henderson *et al.* 2013).
27 Particularly, the inclusion of a physical lysis step using bead-beating method increased the efficacy of DNA extraction
28 from Gram-positive bacteria (Knudsen *et al.* 2016). The extent to which our DNA extraction method, in which the
29 physical lysis step was not included, affected community composition of the forage-attached microbiota was unknown.
30 In addition, the high number of PCR cycles may increase the number of PCR artifacts and bias the microbial
31 compositions.
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43 Beijing. The paper contributes to the CGIAR Research Program on Livestock.
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47 **Figure legends**

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49 **Figure 1.** Differences among the six forages in dry matter (DM) and percentages of neutral detergent fiber (NDF),
50 acid detergent fiber (ADF), acid detergent lignin (ADL), cellulose and hemicellulose before (0 h) and after 24, 48, 72,
51 and 96 h of the rumen incubation. The solid circle and error bar in each boxplot show mean and standard deviation,
52 respectively. Statistically significant differences were determined using one-way ANOVA. Means were compared
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3 using Duncan's multiple range test and are labelled with different letters at each sampling interval for $p < 0.05$. AP,
4 camelthorn; CR, common reed; DP, date palm; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia.
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7 **Figure 2.** Beta diversity analysis of rumen microbial communities attached to the six forages during the rumen
8 incubation. PCoA plots show the distribution of samples based on weighted Unifrac distance matrix, in which samples
9 are grouped according to the forages (a) and the sampling intervals (b). Significant differences were tested using
10 PERMANOVA with a p-value cutoff 0.01. The percentage of variation explained by each principle coordinate is
11 indicated next to the corresponding axis. The homogeneity of dispersions was also tested for this diversity measure to
12 examine variance differences between the forages (c) and the sampling intervals (d). Significant differences were
13 determined using the betadisper function of R package vegan v2.5-5 at 999 permutations. P-values < 0.05 were
14 considered statistically significant. For each treatment, data in triplicate representing three separate bags, were
15 included. AP, camelthorn; CR, common reed; DP, date palm; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia.
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21 **Figure 3.** (a) The proportions of reads (mean \pm SD) assigned to the major bacterial phyla ($n = 7$) detected in the forage-
22 attached microbial communities. The relative abundances were calculated based on the proportion of reads assigned
23 to each phylum in the rarefied OTU table at an even sequencing depth of 4660 reads. (b) Box plots show relative
24 abundance of phyla differentially attached to the forages. Statistically significant differences were calculated based on
25 the analysis of composition of microbes (ANCOM) using $p < 0.05$ following Duncan's multiple range test for
26 comparison of the means. Center lines indicate the median value, boxes the interquartile range and red squares the
27 mean. Means with different letters differ at Bonferroni corrected $p < 0.05$. AP, camelthorn; CR, common reed; DP,
28 date palm; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia.
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33 **Figure 4.** The log of relative abundances of genera differentially attached to the six forages following the rumen
34 incubation. Differential abundances were statistically tested using ANCOM with a p-value cutoff < 0.05 . Means were
35 compared using Duncan's multiple range test only accepting Bonferroni corrected p-values < 0.05 . Boxplots labeled
36 with different letters show statistically significant differences. Center line represents median value. AP, camelthorn;
37 CR, common reed; DP, date palm; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia.
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41 **Figure 5.** The average relative abundances of taxa (genus level) differentially represented in microbial communities
42 attached to the six forages during the rumen incubation (up to 96 h with 24 h intervals). Statistically significant
43 differences were calculated using ANCOM and means were compared using Duncan's multiple range test. Error bars
44 represent standard deviations and their lengths are adjusted at 95% confidence interval. Means with different letters
45 are statistically significant at Bonferroni corrected $p < 0.05$. No taxa were found to be differentially represented in DP.
46 AP, camelthorn; CR, common reed; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia. "Un" refers to unclassified.
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51 **Supplementary materials**

52 **Figure S1.**

53 Changes in DM contents and percentages of NDF, ADF, ADL, cellulose and hemicellulose in six forages during the
54 rumen incubation. The solid circle in each boxplot shows mean and error bars represent standard deviation.
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3 Statistically significant differences were determined using one-way ANOVA. Means were compared using Duncan's
4 multiple range test and labelled with different letters for $p < 0.05$.
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6 **Figure S2.**

7 Alpha diversity analysis through rarefaction plots. (a) Rarefaction curves showing the increase in number of observed
8 OTUs; (b) Species richness (number of observed OTUs + number of unobserved OTUs, Chao1); (c) Shannon; and (d)
9 Simpson diversity indices on Y-axis as a function of the number of reads sampled on X-axis.
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12 **Figure S3.**

13 Alpha diversity indices of rumen microbiota attached to the six forages with different lignocellulosic compositions at
14 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours of the rumen incubation. Alpha diversity indices were measured based on OTUs present at an
15 even sequencing depth of 4,660 reads (corresponding to the sequencing depth of the sample with the lowest number
16 of reads) in all samples. Statistically significant differences were determined using one-way ANOVA and means were
17 compared by Duncan's multiple range test. * p value < 0.05 , ** p value < 0.01 and *** p value < 0.001 .
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20 **Figure S4.**

21 Alpha diversity analysis of rumen microbial communities attached to the six forages during the rumen incubation. The
22 OTU table for each forage was sampled at an even sequencing depth ($n = 4660$) and diversity measures were calculated
23 using `plot_richness` function of R package `phyloseq` and visualized using `geom_boxplot` function of R package
24 `ggplot2`. Statistically significant differences were calculated using one-way ANOVA at p -value cutoff of 0.05.
25 Differences between means were determined using Duncan's multiple range test in PAST v3.26. * p value < 0.05 , **
26 p value < 0.01 and *** p value < 0.001 .
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30 **Figure S5.**

31 The proportions of reads affiliated to OTUs at the taxonomic level of family in the six forages during the rumen
32 incubation. Data for each sampling interval is the mean of three biological replicates corresponding to three bags
33 retrieved one each from the three cannulated bulls. For each forage, the OTU table is rarefied to the sequencing depth
34 of the sample with the lowest number of reads.
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For Peer Review

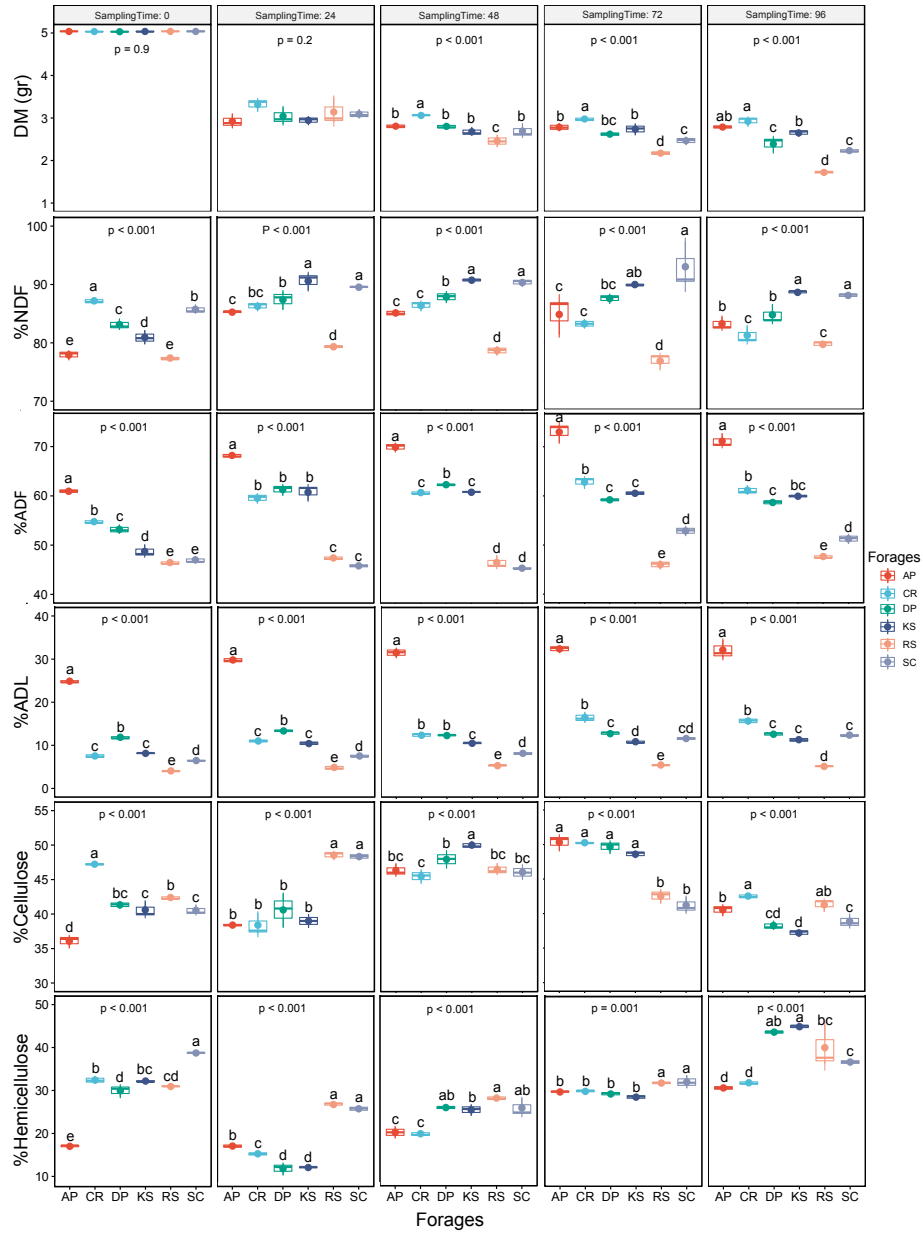


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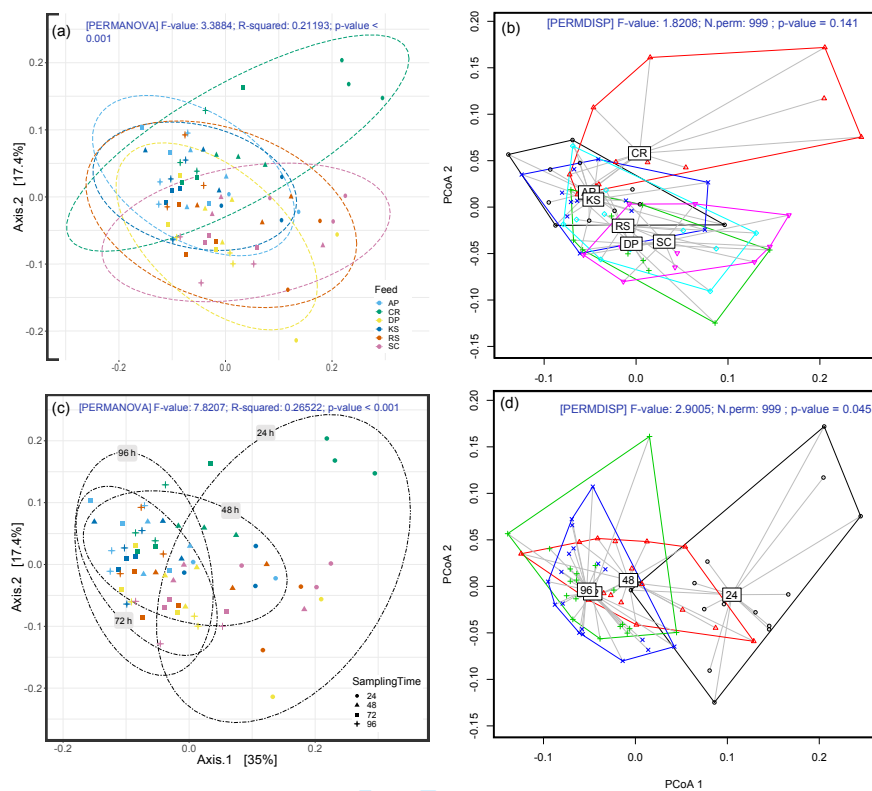


Figure 2.

Review

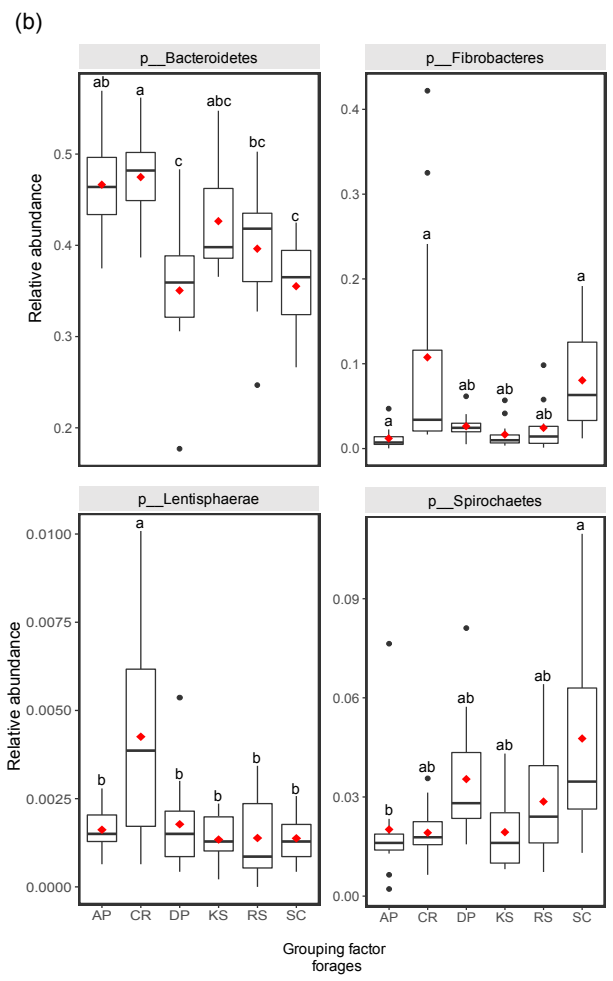
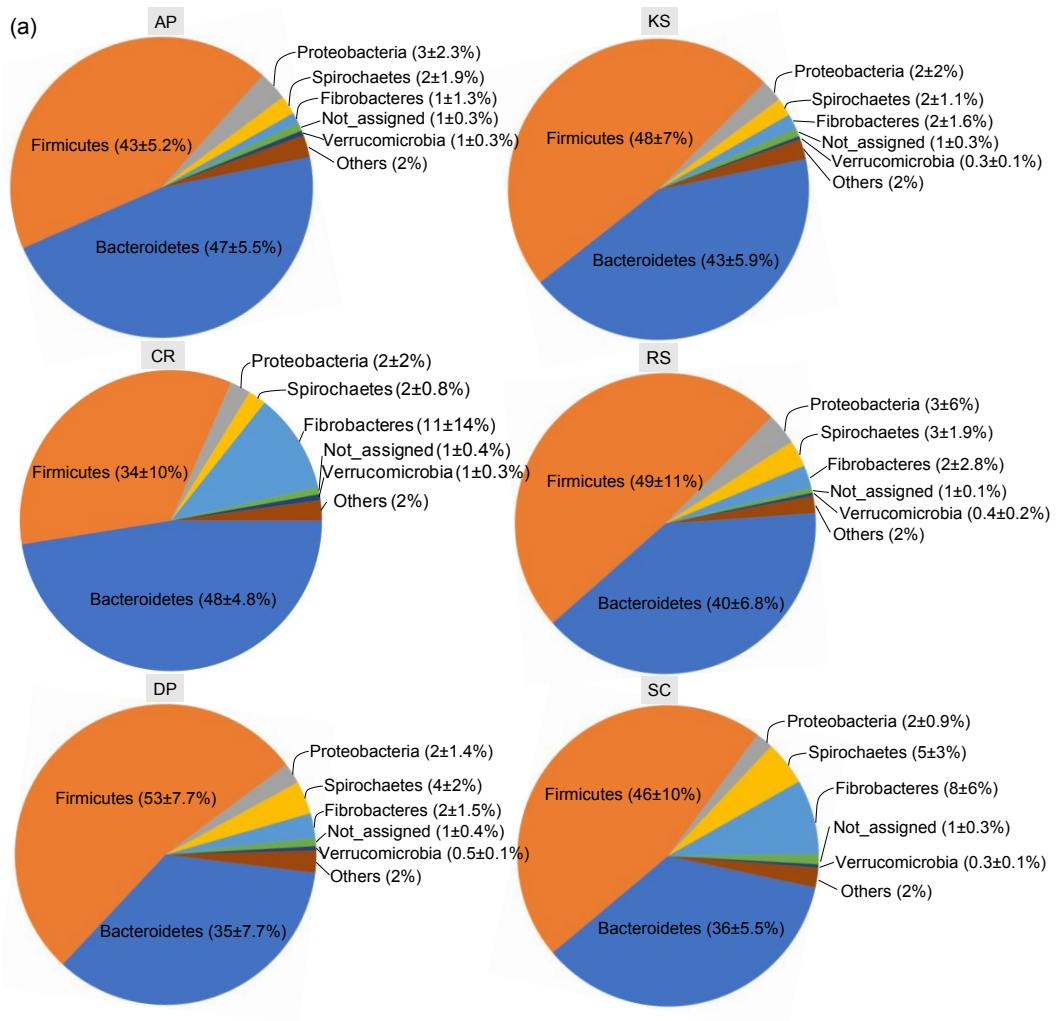


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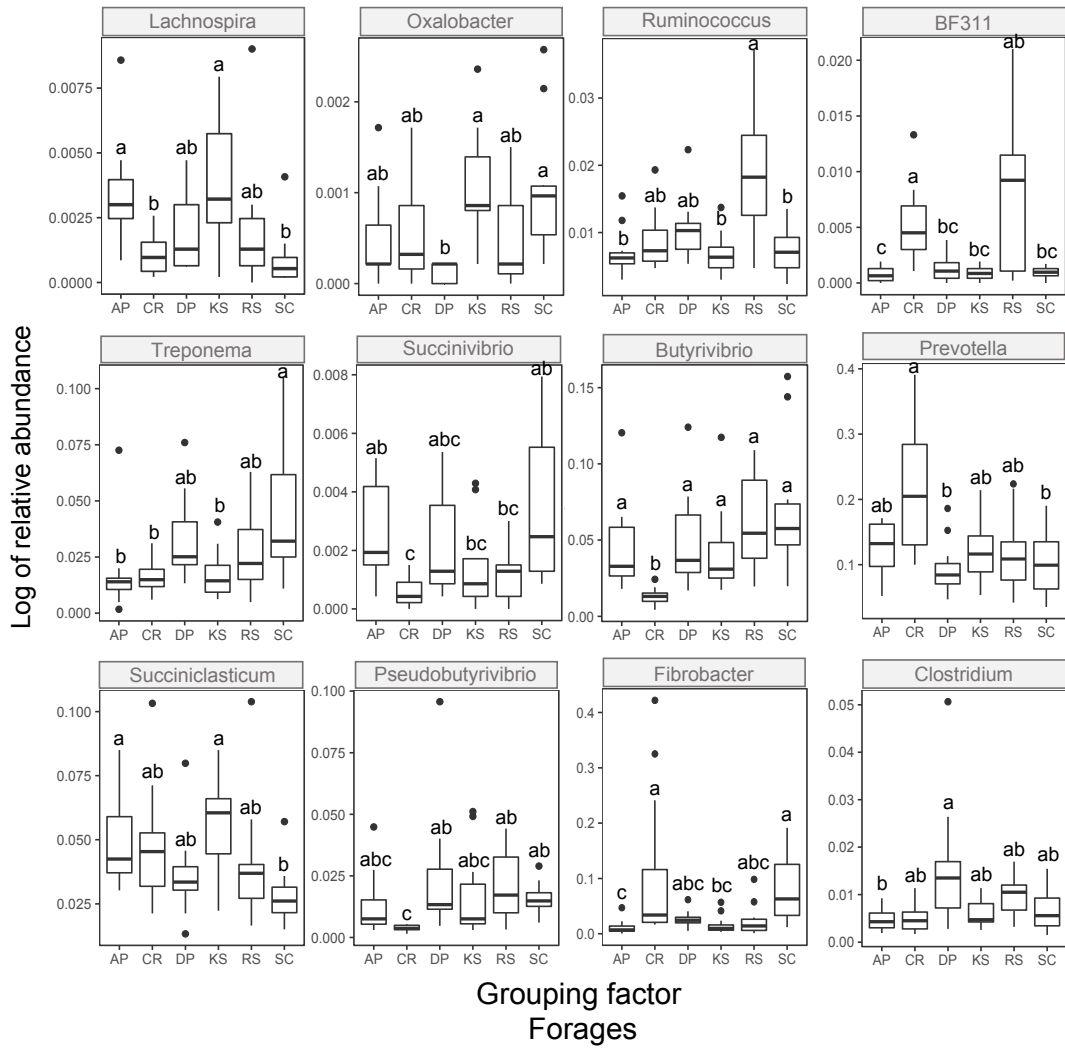


Figure 4

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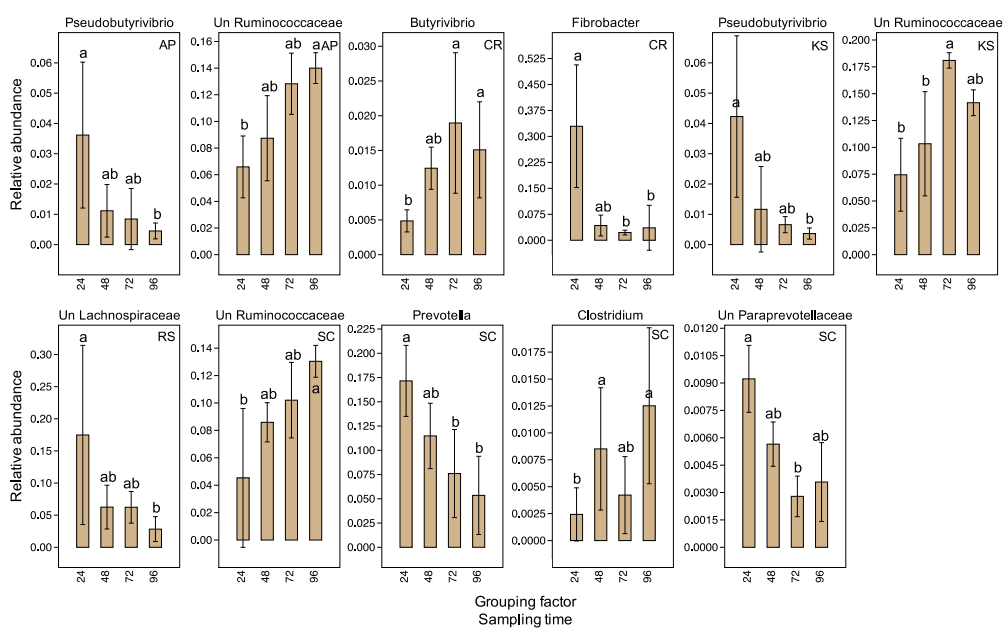


Figure 5.

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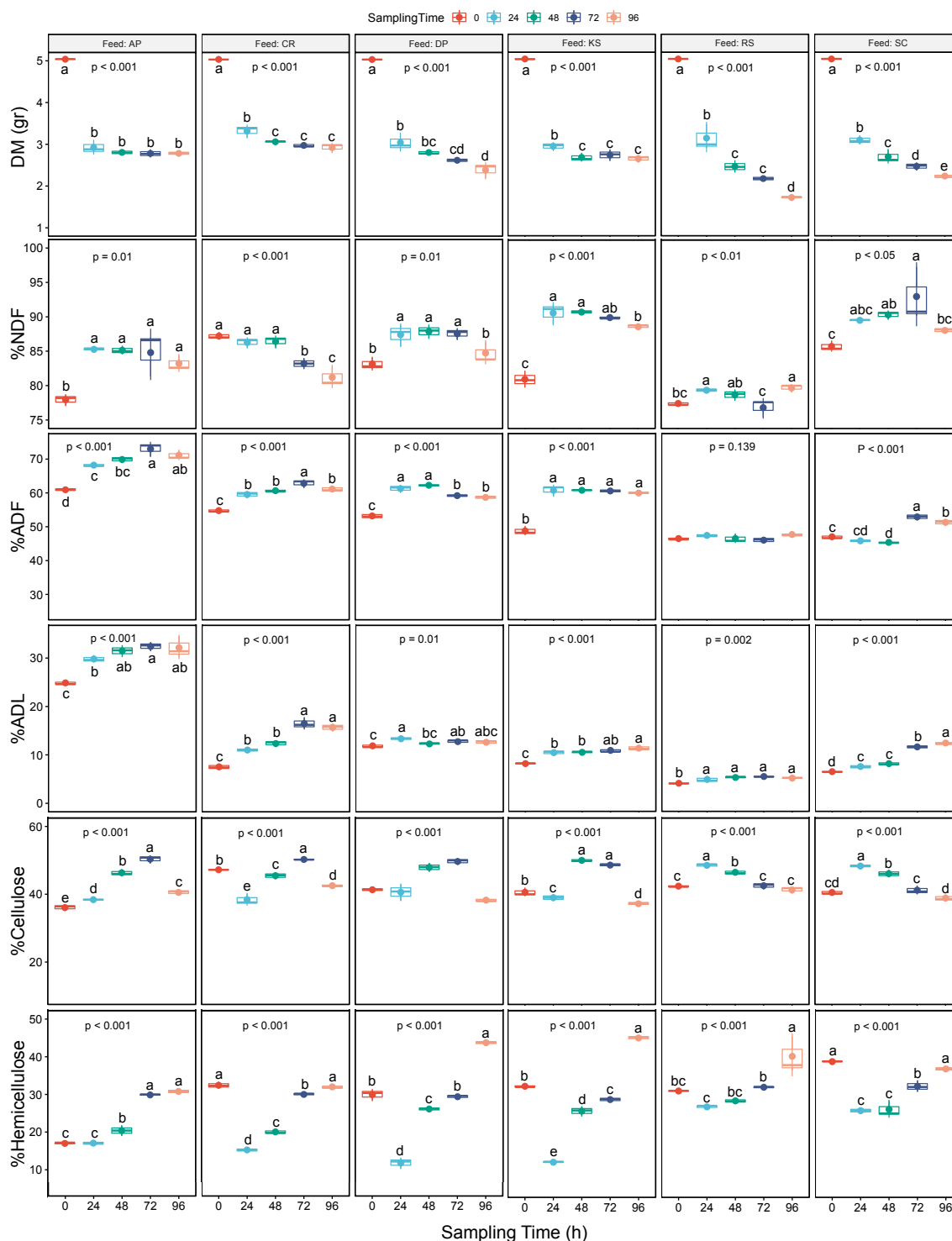


Figure S1.

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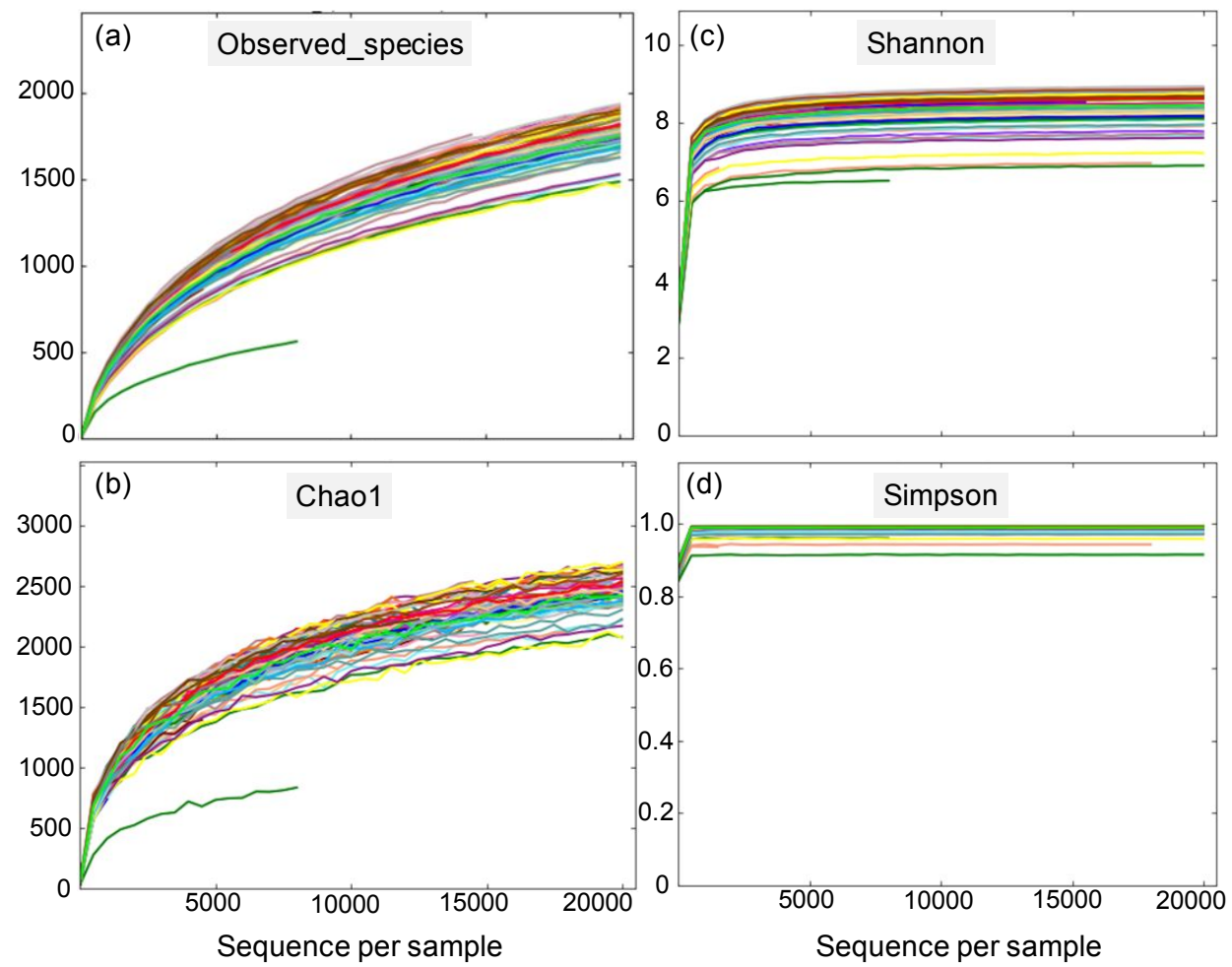


Figure S2.

view

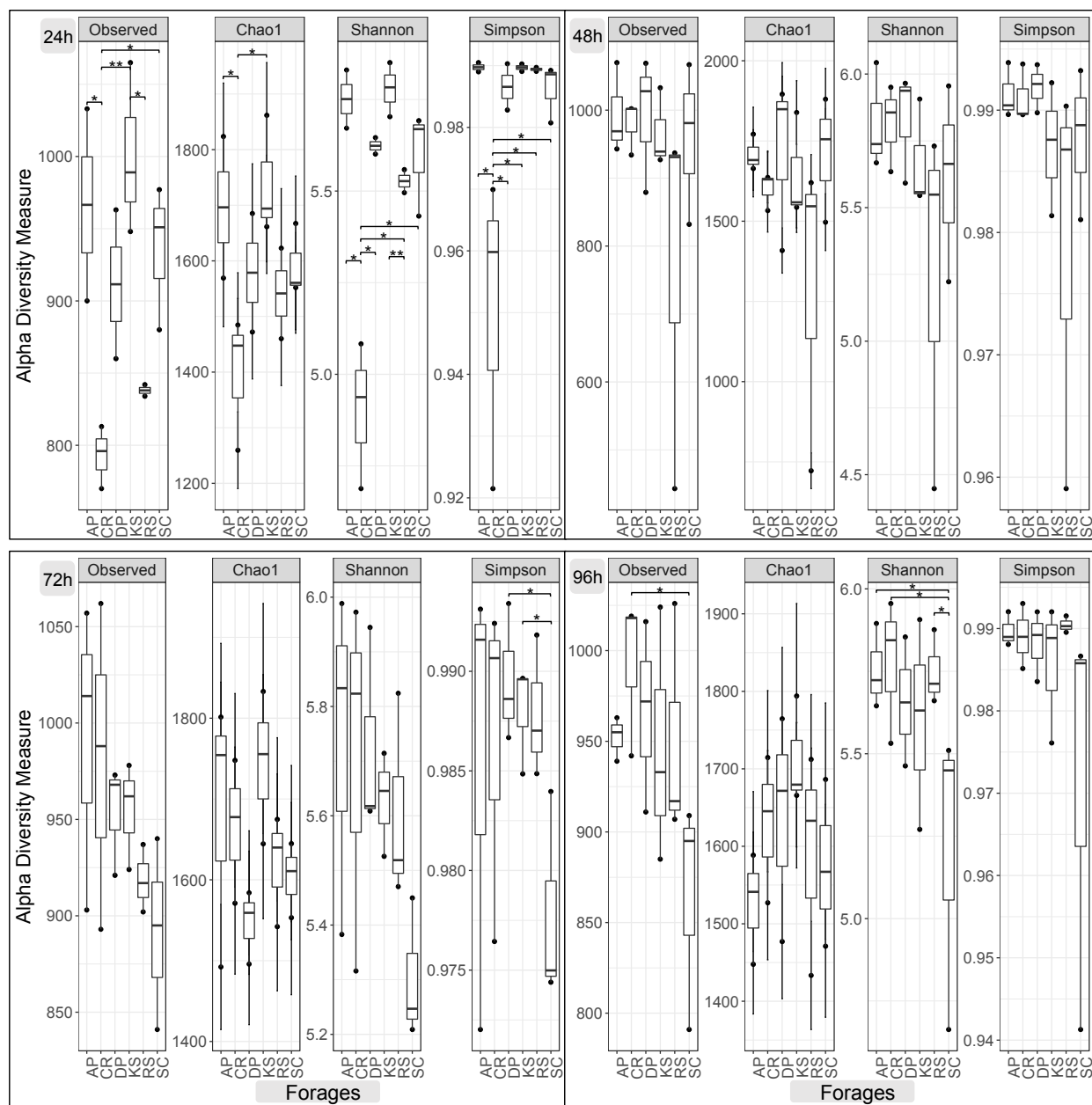


Figure S3.

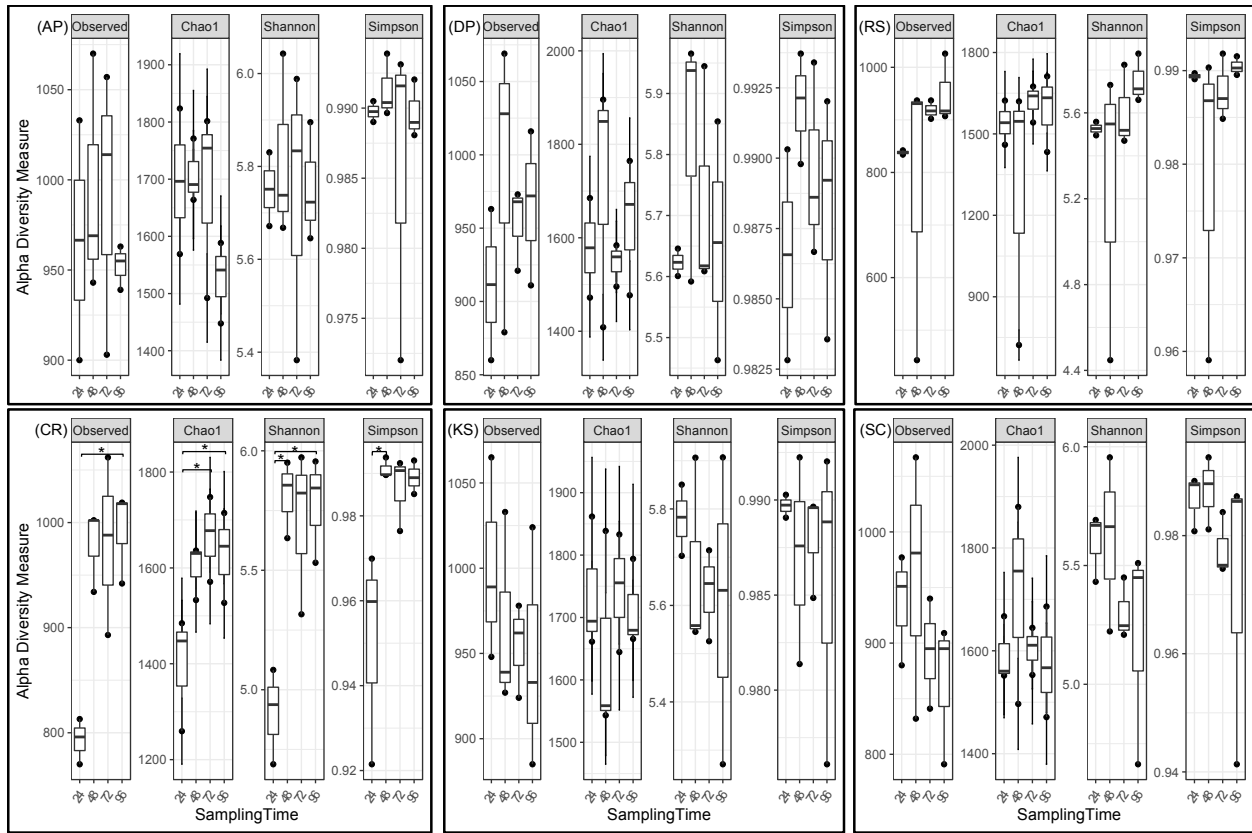


Figure S4.

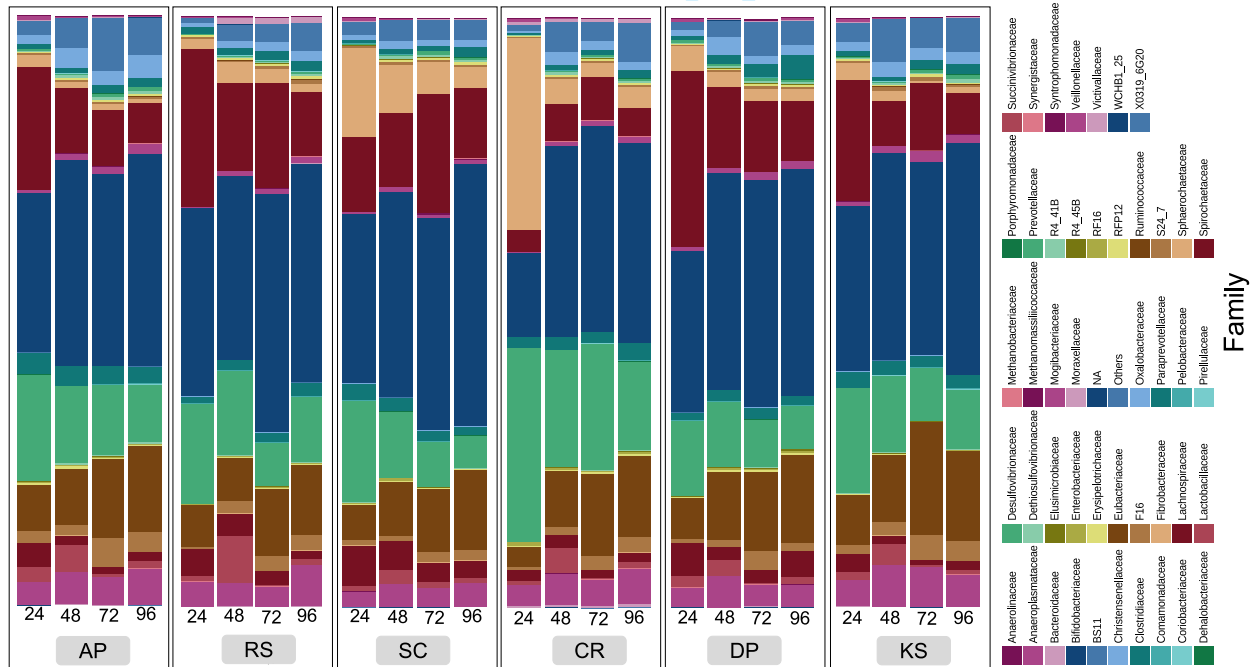


Figure S5.

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4 **Temporal changes in microbial communities attached to forages with different lignocellulosic compositions in**
5 **the cattle rumen**
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Abstract

The attachment of rumen microbes to feed particles is critical to feed fermentation, degradation and digestion. However, the extent to which the physicochemical properties of feeds influence the colonization by rumen microbes is still unclear. We hypothesized that rumen microbial communities may have differential preferences for attachments to feeds with varying lignocellulose properties. To this end, the structure and composition of microbial communities attached to six common forages with different lignocellulosic compositions were analyzed following *in situ* rumen incubation in male Taleshi cattle. The results showed that differences in lignocellulosic compositions significantly affected the inter-sample diversity of forage-attached microbial communities in the first 24 hours (h) of rumen incubation, during which the highest dry matter degradation was achieved. However, extension of the incubation to 96 h resulted in the development of more uniform microbial communities across the forages. *Fibrobacteres* were significantly overrepresented in the bacterial communities attached to the forages with the highest neutral detergent fiber contents. *Ruminococcus* tended to attach to the forages with low acid detergent lignin contents. The extent of dry matter fermentation was significantly correlated with the populations of Fibrobacteraceae, unclassified Bacteroidales, Ruminococcaceae and Spirochaetacea. Our findings suggested that lignocellulosic compositions, more specifically the cellulose components, significantly affected the microbial attachment to and thus the final digestion of the forages.

Keywords: microbiome, microbiota, rumen, rumen incubation, 16S rRNA gene sequencing, rumen fermentation, biomass degradation

Introduction

The gastrointestinal tracts (GIT) of ruminant animals have evolved to allow the colonization by a diverse community of symbiotic microorganisms belonging to three taxonomic domains of life, i.e. Archaea, Bacteria and Eukarya. Particularly, as the first and the largest compartment of ruminant stomach, rumen is the main site of microbial colonization and fermentation. Without the aid of such microorganisms, the host ruminants cannot digest and convert plant lignocellulosic biomasses into energy and other essential metabolites (Jami and Mizrahi 2012; Mackie 2002). It is estimated that almost 70% of the energy requirement of ruminants is supplied by this microbial fermentation (Bergman 1990). In addition to their crucial role in animal nutrition and production, the GIT microorganisms remain vital to animal health, physiology and immunity against pathogenic microbes (Guarner and Malagelada 2003; Hungate 2013).

Bacteria are the major colonizers in the rumen and consequently make the greatest contribution to plant biomass fermentation, degradation and digestion. Early studies on rumen microbial communities relied largely on culture-based approaches, which were limited to the bacteria that can grow on culture medium. With the advances in next-generation sequencing technologies, culture-independent approaches have gained preference, enabling researchers to achieve a deeper insight into precise composition and structure of rumen bacterial communities. The latest high throughput amplicon-based 16S ribosomal RNA gene (rRNA) sequencing studies suggest that rumen bacterial communities of most ruminants are mainly affiliated to the phyla of Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, Proteobacteria, Fibrobacteres, Spirochaetes, Actinobacteria, Tenericutes and Verrucomicrobia, which collectively account for greater than 99% of the total rumen bacterial communities (Godoy-Vitorino *et al.* 2012; Jami *et al.* 2013; Jami and Mizrahi 2012; Zened *et al.* 2013). Microbial communities are dynamic in the rumen and depend on the host species and its diet, age, physiology and health status (Godoy-Vitorino *et al.* 2012; Jami *et al.* 2013; Jami and Mizrahi 2012; Kocherginskaya *et al.* 2001; Kong *et al.* 2010; Petri *et al.* 2012). Under normal physiological conditions, diet is the major driver to determine the composition and structure of rumen bacterial communities (Petri *et al.* 2012). Interestingly, the amount of dietary fiber is a key factor shaping the growth and multiplication of cellulolytic bacteria in the rumen. Changing dietary fiber content or substituting the fiber with easily fermentable carbohydrates has a profound impact on the community of rumen microbiota and may result in metabolic diseases, such as subacute ruminal acidosis (Khafipour *et al.* 2009; Petri *et al.* 2017).

Members of the rumen bacterial communities differ in their preferences for attachment to feed particles and rumen wall, therefore they are accordingly categorized into particle-attached (tightly attached to feed particles), liquid borne (freely available in liquid fraction) and epimural (attached to rumen epithelium) communities (De Mulder *et al.* 2017; Gharechahi *et al.* 2015; Kong *et al.* 2010; Sadet *et al.* 2007). The attachment of rumen microbial communities to feed particles is a key step in the process of rumen fermentation and digestion (McAllister *et al.* 1994) and it occurs shortly after feed entry into the rumen. Analysis of microbial communities associated with perennial ryegrass following *in situ* rumen incubation in Holstein–Friesian cows or steers shows that microbial attachment initiates within five minutes (min) of its rumen entry and stabilizes between 15 and 30 min of its rumen incubation (Edwards *et al.* 2007; Huws *et*

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3 *al.* 2013). A recent analysis of temporal changes in bacterial community attached to wheat straw in Holstein cow
4 rumen demonstrates that the first wave of microbial-based biomass degradation occurs within 30 min of its rumen
5 entry. The community of bacteria attached to feed particles during this time retains even after 72 hours (h) of the
6 rumen incubation (Jin *et al.* 2018). The degree of dry matter (DM) degradation differs among forages during the initial
7 hours of their rumen entry (Cheng *et al.* 2017; Liu *et al.* 2016). The community composition of particle-attached
8 microbes also varies among feeds and is likely influenced by the chemical compositions of feeds because cellulolytic
9 bacteria such as *Fibrobacter*, *Ruminococcus*, *Butyrivibrio* and unclassified *Treponema* tend to attach to feeds with
10 relatively high neutral detergent fiber (NDF, Cheng *et al.* 2017; Liu *et al.* 2016). The community of feed particle-
11 attached bacteria also changes over the incubation time. For instance, rumen microbiota attachment to switchgrass in
12 Friesian cow occurs at two successive stages: The first wave takes place immediately after its rumen entry (within the
13 first 30 min) and is characterized by high abundances of Bacteroidia and Clostridia. The second wave, however, occurs
14 after 16 h of its rumen incubation, during which the populations of Spirochaeta and Fibrobacteria become dominant
15 (Piao *et al.* (2014).

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23 There is limited knowledge on rumen bacteria diversity, their preference for attachment to and degradation of feeds
24 with extreme values of cellulose and/or hemicellulose. Understanding the dynamics of bacteria attached to feeds at
25 high level of lignification provides opportunities to improve the nutrient efficiency of low-quality forages through
26 pre-treatments or manipulation of rumen microbial communities. We hypothesized that rumen bacterial communities
27 differ in lignocellulose degrading capacities and thus show preference for attachment to feeds with different levels of
28 lignification. We therefore aimed to evaluate whether the rumen microbes have any preference for attachment to
29 forages with different cellulose and/or hemicellulose contents. We also explored the dynamic changes in microbial
30 communities attached to the forages under prolonged incubation in the cattle rumen (e.g. up to 96 h with 24 h sampling
31 intervals). Overall, our 16S rRNA genes-based diversity analysis revealed significant differences in the composition
32 and structure of microbial communities attached to different forages.

33 34 35 36 37 38 **Materials and methods**

39 40 41 ***In situ* rumen incubation and sample collection of the forages**

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43 All experimental procedures relevant to animals were approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Experiments of
44 the Animal Science Research Institute of Iran. Rumen cannulation was performed according to the American College
45 of Veterinary Surgeons (ACVS) using a two-stage rumen cannulation technique (Martineau *et al.* 2015).

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48 Six common lignocellulosic forages, including camelthorn (*Alhagi persarum*, AP; both stem and leaves), common
49 reed (*Phragmites australis*, CR; stem and leaves), date palm (*Phoenix dactylifera*, DP; leaves), kochia (*Kochia*
50 *scoparia*, KS; both stem and leaves), rice straw (*Oryza sativa*; cultivar Hashemi, RS; both stem and leaves) and
51 salicornia (*Salicornia persica*, SC; both stem and leaves), were selected for *in situ* rumen incubation. Dried forage
52 materials were cut into pieces of approximately 2 mm in length and an equal amount of the pieces (5 ± 0.05 g) was
53 weighed into heat-sealed nylon bags (5×10 cm; 50 μ m pore size). Three rumen-cannulated, purebred bulls (Taleshi
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3 cattle, an Iranian local breed with a historical origin of *Bos taurus* mixed with *Bos indicus*) aged between 2.5 and 3
4 years were used for this study. Forty-eight heat-sealed bags, eight per forage, were simultaneously placed into each of
5 the three rumens shortly after the cannulated bulls were offered the first meal in the morning. The bulls were housed
6 together in a stable, fed on a mixed diet containing 70% wheat straw and 30% concentrate and provided free access
7 to water. Two nylon bags from each of the six forages were retrieved from each rumen after 24, 48, 72 and 96 h of the
8 incubation, washed thoroughly with distilled water three times to remove liquid borne and loosely attached microbes,
9 which may not have a discriminating preference for attachment to forages with different lignocellulose properties, and
10 finally squeezed by hands with sterile gloves to remove excess water. The bags were then transferred in liquid nitrogen
11 to the laboratory where one replicate was stored at -70 °C for subsequent DNA extraction while the other was
12 processed for physicochemical analysis.
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18 **Physicochemical analysis of the incubated forage materials**

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21 The forage lignocellulosic biomasses were analyzed for dry matter (DM) and the contents of neutral detergent fiber
22 (NDF), acid detergent fiber (ADF) and acid detergent lignin (ADL) before and after the rumen incubation. DM was
23 determined following 48 h air-drying of the samples in a fan-assisted oven maintained at 55 °C. The dried material
24 was grounded to pass through a 1-mm sieve for the measurements of NDF, ADF and ADL according to the established
25 procedures (Goering 1970; Van Soest *et al.* 1991). Cellulose content was estimated by subtracting ADL from ADF
26 while hemicellulose content was measured by subtracting ADF from NDF.
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30 **Microbial cell recovery and metagenomic DNA extraction**

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33 Microbial cells firmly attached to the forages were subsequently stripped by incubating individual samples on ice in
34 a dissociation buffer containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween 80, 1% (v/v) methanol and 1% (v/v) tertiary butanol (adjusted at
35 pH 2), which has been particularly adapted for the dissociation of microbial cells from the rumen solid digesta. The
36 samples were vigorously vortexed every 1 min and this step was repeated at least 5 times. The forage materials were
37 sedimented by centrifugation at 500 × g and the liquid supernatant containing microbial cells was transferred to a new
38 container. This step was repeated at least three times and the collected liquids were centrifuged at 12000 × g for 10
39 min to sediment the detached microbial cells. Metagenomic DNA from the detached cells was extracted using the
40 QIAamp® DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol for the isolation
41 of DNA from stools for pathogen detection. The quality and quantity of the extracted DNA were evaluated by an
42 agarose gel electrophoresis (0.8%) and a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA).
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49 **PCR amplification and Illumina sequencing of 16S rRNA gene**

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51 The V3-V4 hypervariable region of 16S rRNA gene was amplified using the universally conserved primer set S-D-
52 Bact-0341-b-S-17 (5'-CCT ACG GGN GGC WGC AG-3') and S-D-Bact-0785-a-A-21 (5'-GAC TAC HVG GGT
53 ATC TAA TCC-3'), which generated a fragment of 464 bp suitable for paired-end sequencing using the Illumina
54 MiSeq System (Illumina Inc. San Diego, CA, USA). PCR amplification was performed in triplicate in a 25 µL reaction
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3 containing 12.5 μ L 2 \times PCR master mix (Qiagen), 1 μ L (10 pM) of each primer, 30 ng of microbial DNA and 5-9 μ L
4 of double-distilled water. The PCR condition consisted of an initial denaturation at 94 $^{\circ}$ C for 4 min followed by 30
5 cycles of 94 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 s, 55 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 s and 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 s, and a final extension at 72 $^{\circ}$ C for 5 min. PCR products
6 were purified and 2 μ L of each reaction was used as a template for the second round of PCR, during which the Illumina
7 adaptors and barcode sequences were incorporated to the 5'-end of the amplified products. The second PCR was also
8 performed in triplicate under the same running condition except the number of cycles were limited to 15. The PCR
9 amplicons were recovered using the Qiaquick[®] Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen), quantified fluorometrically, pooled in
10 equimolar quantities and paired-end sequenced (PE300) using the Illumina MiSeq System at Macrogen Inc. (Seoul,
11 South Korea).

12 **Sequence analysis**

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19 Quality filtered paired-end sequences were joined using the Flash with --max-overlap option set to 200 (Magoc and
20 Salzberg 2011). Sequences failed to be assembled were discarded. The joined FASTQ files were processed using
21 split_libraries_fastq.py script in the QIIME pipeline v1.9.1 (Caporaso *et al.* 2010b). This script demultiplexed
22 sequences and filtered out sequences shorter than 200 bp or longer than 1000 bp, along with those containing
23 ambiguous bases with a mean quality score < 20, having runs of six or more of the same nucleotides, carrying a
24 missing quality score and including > two mismatches from the primer sequences. The multiplexed sequences were
25 searched against the latest Ribosomal Database Project (RDP release 11.5, containing 3,356,809 16S rRNA sequences)
26 to identify and discard chimeric sequences using the VSEARCH v2.8.3 operated under default setting (Rognes *et al.*
27 2016). Non-chimeric sequences were then used to pick operational taxonomic units (OTUs) using the
28 pick_de_novo_otus.py script in the QIIME pipeline as described in details in our previous paper (Gharechahi *et al.*
29 2017). OTUs were defined at 97% identity using the Uclust (Edgar 2010). The most abundant sequence in each OTU
30 cluster was selected as being a representative; and these sequences were then aligned against the Greengenes core set
31 (gg_13_8; (DeSantis *et al.* 2006)) using the PyNAST aligner with a minimum sequence identity of 75% (Caporaso *et*
32 *al.* 2010a). Taxonomies were assigned to each OTU using the Ribosomal Database Project naïve Bayesian classifier
33 (Wang *et al.* 2007) by applying a minimum confidence value of 0.8. The OTU table was filtered for low abundant
34 OTUs using the filter_otus_from_otu_table.py script with --min_count_fraction option set to 0.00001 (discarding
35 OTUs represented by < 0.001% of the sequences) and then rarefied to the sequencing depth at 4660 reads
36 corresponding to the number of reads in the sample with the smallest set of sequences. Rarefaction plots and alpha
37 diversity indices, including Shannon, Simpson, Good's_coverage and Chao1, were calculated using the
38 core_diversity_analyses.py script in the QIIME pipeline. Beta diversity indices, including weighted and unweighted
39 Unifrac phylogenetic distance matrices, were constructed with the rarefied OTU table as input and visualized through
40 the principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) plots in the MicrobiomeAnalyst web server (Dhariwal *et al.* 2017).

41 **Statistical analysis**

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3 Statistically significant differences in physicochemical data, including DM, NDF, ADF, ADL, cellulose and
4 hemicellulose contents, were analyzed by one-way ANOVA using the general linear model (GLM) procedure in the
5 SAS software v9.3 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Permutational multivariate analysis of variance
6 (PERMANOVA) was performed using the adonis function of R-package vegan v2.5-5 to test for significant
7 differences between community compositions of forage-attached microbial communities. In addition, permutation
8 multivariate analysis of group dispersions (PERMDISP) based on the betadisper function of the vegan was used to
9 test for the homogeneity of dispersions (variances). Differences in taxa abundances among forages and sampling
10 intervals were estimated using analysis of composition of microbes (ANCOM) based on relative abundances of OTUs
11 summarized at various taxonomic levels (Mandal *et al.* 2015). Means were compared by Duncan's Multiple Range
12 test (DMRT) in PAST v3.26 given Bonferroni p-value cutoff < 0.05 (Hammer *et al.* 2001). Error correction was done
13 based on the number of groupwise comparisons performed at each taxonomic level. The Pearson's correlation analysis
14 was performed using the corr.test function of the psych package v1.8.12 and p-values were corrected using Bonferroni
15 method based on the total number of correlations calculated for each variable separately. For all tests, p-values less
16 than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.
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24 **Results**

25 **Physicochemical properties of the rumen-incubated forages**

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27 The six forages were analyzed for the contents of NDF, ADF, ADL, cellulose and hemicellulose before their rumen
28 incubation (Figure 1). They showed different NDF contents ($p < 0.05$), being the highest in common reed (CR) but
29 the lowest in both camelthorn (AP) and rice straw (RS). Most of them also contained different ADF contents ($p <$
30 0.05), being the highest in AP but the lowest in both RS and salicornia (SC). The contents of ADL also differed
31 significantly between the forages ($p < 0.05$), with AP being the highest at 2 times that in date palm (DP), three times
32 those in SC, CR and kochia (KS; the latter two with similar contents at $p > 0.05$) and 6 times the lowest value in RS
33 (24.86% vs 4.06%). CR carried the highest cellulose followed by DP, RS, KS and SC while AP contained the lowest
34 cellulose ($p < 0.05$). SC possessed the highest amount of hemicellulose followed by CR, KS, RS, DP and AP. Overall,
35 all the six forages had different physicochemical properties in terms of their relative contents of hemicellulose,
36 cellulose and lignin.
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44 **Lignocellulosic biomass degradation following the rumen incubation**

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46 The six forages were monitored for their changes in the contents of DM, NDF, ADF, ADL, cellulose and hemicellulose
47 during the rumen incubation (Figure 1 and Figure S1). DM degradation was the fastest in AP but the slowest in CR
48 (42% vs 34%, $p < 0.05$) during the first 24 h of the incubation. DM degradation was completed in AP at 24 h but
49 continued in CR and KS until 48 h, and in DP, RS and SC up to 96 h of the incubation, with RS having the highest
50 degraded DM (66%) followed by SC (56%) and DP (53%). AP, DP and KS demonstrated similar trends of
51 significantly increased NDF, ADF, ADL and cellulose contents ($p < 0.05$), mirrored in their patterns of DM
52 degradations, mostly within the first 24 h, but their hemicelluloses decreased continuously ($p < 0.05$ in most cases)
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3 following the incubation. However, the patterns of these five fiber-related parameters were significantly segregated
4 among CR, RS and SC during the incubation. Although ADF and ADL were significantly increased but celluloses
5 were remarkably declined in CR and SC ($p < 0.05$), their NDF and hemicelluloses showed contrasting patterns, being
6 significantly reduced in CR while steadily accumulated in SC ($p < 0.05$) throughout the incubation. ADF, cellulose
7 and hemicellulose in RS maintained stable levels while its NDF and ADL were slightly increased ($p < 0.05$) along the
8 incubation. It was apparent that the initial differences in fiber-related physicochemical properties significantly affected
9 the rumen digestion of the six forages.
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13 14 **16S rRNA gene sequencing** 15

16 The paired-end sequencing of PCR amplicons from the V3-V4 region of 16S rRNA gene resulted in 5,945,300 pairs
17 of raw sequences (averaged at 82,573 sequences per sample) with an average length of 300 bp. Sequences were joined
18 into 4,421,604 full-length amplicons at an average of $61,411 \pm 38,275$ per sample. The uneven sequencing depths
19 across samples may be due to the true differences in microbial abundance of samples or the technical variations
20 introduced during library preparation and sequencing. Although the numbers of sequences varied greatly among the
21 forages and across the lengths of the rumen incubation, there was a general pattern of a steady increase from the lowest
22 at 24 h (averaged at 44,100 per sample) to the highest at 72 h (averaged at 95,823 per sample).
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28 **Sequencing data analysis** 29

30 Before processing the amplicon sequences for OTU picking, they were subjected to a single round of quality filtering,
31 resulting in 3,602,510 high quality sequences, of which 994,147 (27%) were identified to be chimeric and thus
32 discarded from further analyses. The qualified sequences (2,493,285) were clustered at 97% similarity level into
33 110,804 OTUs, of which 106,982 (96.4%, representing 202,403 sequences) were labeled as low abundant features
34 (e.g. those representing reads with frequencies less than 0.001% of the total sequences) and therefore filtered out from
35 the OTU table. Finally, 3,822 clean OTUs representing 2,290,882 sequences were subjected to further downstream
36 analyses. To assess whether our sequencing effort provided sufficient sequencing depths to describe the diversity of
37 forage-attached microbiota, rarefaction curves describing the numbers of observed OTUs, species richness (Chao1),
38 Shannon and Simpson diversity at various sequencing depths were generated for all samples (Figure S2a-d).
39 Rarefaction analysis based on observed species and species richness revealed incomplete sampling of microbiota and
40 thus indicated that highly diverse microbial communities attached to the forages (Figure S2a and b). However,
41 Shannon (Figure S2c) and Simpson indices (Figure S2d) reached plateaus, indicating that the majority of the diversity
42 was explored.
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50 **Microbial diversity analysis** 51

52 Differences in alpha diversity indices of forage-attached microbiota were mostly limited to the first 24 h of the rumen
53 incubation, during which the maximal differences in microbial attachment occurred (Figure S3). At this time, CR and
54 RS (two forages with the highest initial cellulose contents) had the lowest while AP and KS (two forages with the
55 highest initial cellulose contents) had the highest.
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3 lowest initial cellulose contents) had the highest average observed species and species richness. CR and RS also
4 showed the lowest average Shannon index, indicating their limited microbial diversity ($p < 0.05$). Diversity indices in
5 almost all forages were not affected by the incubation length (Figure S4) except that CR had very low alpha diversity
6 measures at 24 h of its incubation ($p < 0.05$). All samples showed a high Good's coverage (> 0.91 , data not shown) at
7 all sampling intervals, indicating that our sequencing effort figured out $> 90\%$ of the microbial diversity attached to
8 the forages. However, the uneven sequencing depths did not allow us to fully explore the diversity of forage-attached
9 microbiota. Considering potential random errors due to limited numbers of experimental animals and replicates in this
10 study, such differences in alpha diversity indices among the forages were not robust enough to be interpreted with any
11 biological significance.
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17 Beta diversity analysis also showed limited variations among the forages as well as across the lengths of the rumen
18 incubation. Weighted Unifrac dissimilarity matrix, which considered taxa relative abundances and their phylogenetic
19 distances, explained 21% and 26% of the variations among the forages and across the lengths of the incubation,
20 respectively. PERMANOVA revealed that at least some forages (e.g. CR and SC) had different microbial communities
21 (Figure 2a, $p < 0.001$) while testing for homogeneity of group dispersions (sample distance from group centroid)
22 identified no significant difference between group dispersions (Figure 2b, PERMDISP $p > 0.1$). Nevertheless,
23 differences in microbial communities across the incubation lengths (Figure 2c, PERMANOVA $p < 0.001$) appeared
24 to be mainly affected by within-group dispersions, either by the forage types or inter-animal variations, particularly
25 during the first 24 h (Figure 2d, PERMDISP $p < 0.05$). At this time, CR-attached microbiota was well-separated from
26 those attached to other forages. The entire microbial community structure showed a clear shift among the forages
27 during the incubation because differences in the microbiota were apparent at 24 h but disappeared in later sampling
28 intervals (Figure 2c and d). This finding suggested the existence of a strong preference of rumen microbiota for
29 attachment to the forages of different digestibility while the rate and extent of such preference were quickly
30 compromised after the initial hours of rumen digestion (24 h).
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38 **Forage-attached microbial community**

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40 A total of 18 bacterial phyla and one archaeal phylum were identified from the forage-attached microbial communities
41 colonized in the Taleshi cattle rumen. The communities were dominated by phyla Firmicutes (45%) and Bacteroidetes
42 (41%) followed with Fibrobacteres (5%), Spirochaetes (3%) and Proteobacteria (2%). Variations in the abundances
43 of major bacterial phyla attached to the forages have been depicted in Figure 3a. The ANCOM analysis followed by
44 Duncan's post hoc test revealed differential abundances of Bacteroidetes, Fibrobacteres, Lentisphaerae and
45 Spirochaetes among the forages (Figure 3b, ANCOM $p < 0.05$). Bacteroidetes were significantly overrepresented in
46 AP and CR compared with DP and SC (DMRT Bonferroni $p < 0.001$). Interestingly, fiber-utilizing bacteria belonging
47 to Fibrobacteres were observed in more than 9% of the reads of CR and SC (two forages with the highest initial NDF
48 contents) but in less than 2% of the reads of AP and KS ($p < 0.05$) and also in DP and RS (Figure 3a). CR contained
49 more Lentisphaerae compared with other forages ($p < 0.001$) while SC carried more Spirochaetes relative to AP ($p <$
50 0.02).
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3 At the family level (Figure S5), the forage-attached microbes were affiliated to 76 families, of which nine showed
4 differential abundances among the forages, including Bacteroidaceae, Clostridiaceae, Fibrobacteraceae,
5 Victivallaceae, Christensenellaceae, Lachnospiraceae, Spirochaetaceae, Oxalobacteraceae and RFP12 (ANCOM $p <$
6 0.05). Interestingly, Victivallaceae were significantly overrepresented in CR compared with other forages ($p <$
7 0.05), while Bacteroidaceae was significantly enriched in CR and RS compared with AP, DP, KS and SC. Oxalobacteraceae
8 was more abundant in KS and SC than in AP, CR, DP and RS ($p <$ 0.05). Members of Fibrobacteraceae also more
9 frequently appeared in CR and SC compared with AP, KS and RS with the lowest initial NDF contents ($p <$ 0.02),
10 while those of Clostridiaceae and Lachnospiraceae were underrepresented in CR compared with other forages ($p <$
11 0.05).
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17 Particle-attached microbiota were affiliated to 119 genera (taxonomic level 6), of which 12 displayed differential
18 abundances among the forages (ANCOM $p <$ 0.05, Figure 4) most of which were among high abundant members of
19 rumen community which are known to play key roles in plant lignocellulose degradation, including *Ruminococcus*,
20 *Fibrobacter*, *Prevotella*, *Treponema*, *Lachnospira*, *Succinivibrio*, *Pseudobutyribrio*, *Butyrivibrio*, *Oxalobacter*,
21 *Clostridium*, BF311 and *Succinoclasticum*. *Ruminococcus* and members of BF311 were more dominant in RS than in
22 AP, KS and SC ($p <$ 0.001). *Fibrobacter* were more highly represented in CR and SC. Species of *Lachnospira* were
23 present in 0.3% of the reads of AP and KS ($p <$ 0.05) but only 0.11% of CR and 0.09% of SC. *Succinivibrio* were
24 overrepresented in AP and SC compared with CR ($p <$ 0.05). Species of *Prevotella* were more abundant in CR (> 21%
25 of the reads) than in DP and SC ($p <$ 0.008). Compared to other forages, CR carried less *Butyrivibrio* and
26 *Pseudobutyribrio* species ($p <$ 0.007).
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32 **Changes in forage-attached microbes during the rumen incubation**

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35 In order to examine whether the community composition of forage-attached microbes changed during the rumen
36 incubation, the relative abundances of the microbes were tracked at 24 h intervals (Figure 5). The abundances of eight
37 out of the 119 bacterial genera showed significant differences among the incubation lengths (Bonferroni corrected p
38 $<$ 0.05). Interestingly, the proportions of cellulolytic bacteria belonging to unclassified Ruminococcaceae linearly
39 increased with the incubation lengths in AP, KS and SC. The proportion of *Fibrobacter* sharply dropped after the first
40 24 h and reached to an average of 4% between 48 and 96 h of the incubation in CR. Members of *Pseudobutyribrio*
41 linearly decreased in AP and KS while those of *Butyrivibrio* increased in CR with the incubation lengths. Members
42 of *Clostridium* increased in SC but those of *Prevotella* and unclassified Paraprevotellaceae decreased with the
43 incubation lengths, which were consistent with findings of Cheng *et al.* (2017).
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49 **Relationship between lignocellulose degradation and forage-attached microbial communities**

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51 The Pearson's correlation between the initial physicochemical properties of the forages and the composition of the
52 forage-attached microbiota during initial hours (24 h) of the rumen incubation was performed to determine whether
53 rumen microbes preferred specific forages for attachment. Only correlations with p-values (Bonferroni-corrected) less
54 than 0.05 were considered to have significant biological terms. This analysis demonstrated that the prevalence of the
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3 family Fibrobacteraceae ($r = 0.77$, $p = 0.03$) was positively correlated with NDF contents of the forages. At the genus
4 level, the abundance of *Fibrobacter* ($r = 0.77$, $p = 0.05$) was positively but an unclassified Erysipelotrichaceae genus
5 p-75-a5 ($r = -0.79$, $p = 0.03$) was negatively correlated with NDF contents in the forages. When hemicellulose contents
6 were considered, a negative correlation with members of the family Pirellulaceae ($r = -0.79$, $p = 0.02$) was detected.
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10 We also correlated microbial profiles with physicochemical properties of the forages during the rumen incubation.
11 This analysis revealed that the prevalence of the families Fibrobacteraceae ($r = 0.83$, $p = 0.03$ in CR),
12 Anaeroplasmataceae ($r = 0.82$, $p = 0.04$ in CR), Prevotellaceae ($r = 0.83$, $r = 0.04$ in KS) and Paraprevotellaceae ($r =$
13 0.85 , $p = 0.02$ in SC) were positively but Ruminococcaceae ($r = < -0.85$, $p < 0.01$ in CR and SC) and unclassified
14 Bacteroidales ($r = -0.84$, $p = 0.05$ in RS) were negatively correlated with DM contents of the forages. Particularly,
15 members of Ruminococcaceae were positively correlated with ADF, ADL and hemicellulose contents in CR, DP and
16 SC ($r > 0.8$ and $p < 0.04$), the forages with the highest initial NDF contents (Figure 1). The population of
17 Lachnospiraceae was also positively correlated ($r = 0.83$, and $p = 0.04$) with cellulose content in CR.
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22 To ascertain whether there was any relationship between the rumen microbiota and lignocellulose degradation, an
23 additional Pearson's correlation analysis was performed between DM loss and the relative abundance of forage-
24 attached microbial communities during the rumen incubation. Interestingly, DM degradation was positively correlated
25 with the prevalence of the families Fibrobacteraceae ($r > 0.76$, $p < 0.001$ in CR) and Spirochaetaceae ($r = 0.91$, $p =$
26 0.0004 in KS) but was negatively correlated with species belonging to unclassified Bacteroidales ($r < -0.82$, $p < 0.05$
27 in CR and DP), Ruminococcaceae ($r = -0.83$, $p = 0.04$ in CR), Mogibacteriaceae ($r < -0.82$, $p < 0.05$ in CR and RS)
28 and Erysipelotrichaceae ($r = -0.87$, $p = 0.01$ in CR). The correlations of cellulose and hemicellulose degradations
29 with the abundances of forage-attached microbes also showed similar patterns.
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35 Discussion

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37 In this study, we investigated the relationship between biomass degradation of and microbial attachment to six
38 common lignocellulosic forages varying in their physicochemical properties, including percentages of NDF, ADF,
39 ADL and the contents of cellulose and hemicellulose. Forages containing the highest cellulose contents [(common
40 reed (CR) vs. camelthorn (AP)] were degraded to a limited extent during the initial hours of their rumen incubation.
41 The total DM degradation was mainly determined by NDF contents of the forages, because as rice straw (RS) with
42 the lowest initial NDF (77.4%) had the fastest (66%) while CR with the highest initial NDF (87.2%) had the lowest
43 (42%) DM loss over 96 h of the incubation. Variability in DM degradation of feeds reflected the differences in
44 lignocellulose composition of their cell walls (Bruno-Soares *et al.* 2000; Jančík *et al.* 2010). The rate and extent of
45 DM fermentation in the rumen determines the nutrition efficiency of feeds to ruminants (Jančík *et al.* 2010).
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51 The 16S rRNA gene sequencing data allowed taxonomic identification and quantification of the rumen microbiota
52 tightly attached to the forages. Rarefaction analysis based on the indices reflecting species richness and species relative
53 abundance, e.g. Shannon and Simpson (Kim *et al.* 2017), indicated that the majority of the diversity of rumen
54 microbiota attached to the forages was already sampled. Alpha diversity analysis also showed a limited biologically
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3 significant difference among the forages, which could likely be attributed to a high microbial heterogeneity among
4 animals included in the study. The changes in diversity measures were largely restricted to the initial hours of rumen
5 incubation when maximal DM degradation occurred. The differences in species richness and evenness were linked to
6 cellulose contents of the forages, where CR and RS with the highest cellulose contents displayed limited species
7 diversity. This result was in agreement with the data on rice straw and alfalfa hay being fed to Holstein cows, in which
8 more bacteria attached to alfalfa with lower NDF (Liu *et al.* 2016). These findings suggested that only a limited
9 fraction of rumen microbiota was capable of attachment to feeds with high lignocellulose contents.

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14 Analysis of community structure of forage-attached microbiota by Unifrac dissimilarity matrix revealed significant
15 differences among the forages and across the length of rumen incubation. Particularly, CR-attached microbiota was
16 well separated from those of other forages at the first 24 h of the incubation. In addition, microbiota attached to CR
17 and SC, the two forages with the highest initial NDF contents, were also distantly clustered while those of other
18 forages did not show any apparent separation, indicating the similarity of their communities. These variations could
19 likely be determined by the nature of the forages, e.g., their chemical compositions. Unifrac diversity measure also
20 showed that extension of the incubation time contributed to the increased similarity across the samples, as reflected
21 by the overlapped clustering in the PCoA plots for most samples collected at 72 and 96 h of the incubation. This could
22 be explained by the fact that initial DM degradation resulted in the reduction of digestible components but the
23 accumulation of indigestible residues which had quite similar properties across the forages, thus favoring the
24 attachment of structurally similar communities of rumen microbiota. Huws *et al.* (2013) also observed similar changes
25 in the microbial communities attached to perennial ryegrass following its rumen incubation.

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27 Members of Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Fibrobacteres, Spirochaetes and Proteobacteria were dominant in all samples,
28 accounting for greater than 96% of the bacterial communities attached to the forages, consistent with the findings for
29 rice straw and alfalfa hay (Liu *et al.* 2016). The abundance of these bacterial phyla varied among the forages and
30 across the incubation lengths. Particularly, species of Bacteroidetes were more abundantly attached to the forages with
31 high ADF contents (AP and CR). Bacteroidetes were among highly abundant members of the rumen microbiota being
32 best recognized for their saccharolytic activities. The presence of a high number of pectinolytic and cellulolytic
33 enzymes in their genomes clustered with other lignocellulose degrading enzymes into polysaccharide utilization loci
34 (PUL) suggested that they are also actively involved in pectin, hemicellulose and cellulose degradation (Gharechahi
35 and Salekdeh 2018; Lapebie *et al.* 2019; Naas *et al.* 2014). Within this phylum, members of the families
36 Bacteroidaceae, Prevotellaceae and Paraprevotellaceae displayed significant differences among the forages.
37 Particularly, Bacteroidaceae were significantly overrepresented in the forages with the lowest initial ADL contents
38 (CR and RS). At the genus-level, this differential abundance was only affiliated to the BF311, an uncultured and
39 unknown rumen bacterium. Prevotellaceae were particularly positively correlated with DM degradation, suggesting
40 their active role in lignocellulose degradation in the rumen. *Prevotella* spp. are abundant members of the rumen
41 microbiome that have a high genetic diversity and thus the ability to thrive on a wide range of substrates, including
42 cellulose, hemicellulose, pectin, proteins and peptides (Dodd *et al.* 2010; Golder *et al.* 2014). They are known for their
43 xylanolytic properties in the rumen and thus play an important role in fiber degradation (Dodd *et al.* 2010).

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3 Fibrobacteres were predominantly represented in microbiota attached to the forages with the highest NDF contents
4 [e.g. CR and Salicornia (SC)]. They are known to produce a battery of cellulolytic enzymes capable of degrading
5 cellulose as a sole carbon source (Flint *et al.* 2008; Suen *et al.* 2011). The association of forage NDF content with the
6 prevalence of *Fibrobacter* is also recently observed in the cow rumen microbiota (Liu *et al.* 2016). In contrast to
7 Fibrobacteres, the genera *Clostridium*, *Shuttleworthia* and *Ruminococcus* tended to attach the forages with limited
8 NDF and cellulose contents. This is consistent with previous findings on the preference of *Ruminococcus* species for
9 attachment to high quality sugar-rich hays (Klevenhusen *et al.* 2017). Ruminococcaceae showed a strong negative
10 correlation with total DM contents in the forages as well. Shinkai *et al.* (2010) also reported that members of
11 Fibrobacteres, including *F. succinogenes*, abundantly attached to less digestible fibers while those of
12 Ruminococcaceae, specifically *R. flavefaciens*, preferred easily digestible fibers and thus were infrequently detected
13 in the stem parts of hays. The rate and extent of fiber degradation by *F. succinogenes* are also greater than *R. albus*
14 and *R. flavefaciens* (Kobayashi *et al.* 2008). Early microscopy analysis indicated that *R. albus* is less commonly
15 attached to plant cell walls while *F. succinogenes* forms extensive microcapsula enveloping the cell walls (Chesson
16 *et al.* 1986). The community of unclassified Ruminococcaceae tended to linearly expand in AP, KS and SC following
17 their rumen incubation. This finding suggested that the degradation of surface accessible fibers turned forage residues
18 into favored substrates for the attachment by species of Ruminococcaceae. A declined abundance of species of
19 *Ruminococcus* has been reported in the cow rumen when the starch content of diet was increased (Zened *et al.* 2013).
20 *Ruminococcus* spp. have been equipped with specialized mechanisms for fiber adhesion and degradation, in which
21 multiple carbohydrate degrading enzymes assemble into multienzyme cellulosome complexes capable of attachment
22 to and degradation of polysaccharides in various plant cell walls (Bayer *et al.* 2004; Doi and Kosugi 2004).
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33 Recently, Huws *et al.* (2016) reported that microbial colonization of perennial ryegrass occurred at two successive
34 stages: The primary (the first 1-2 h after its rumen entry) and the secondary phases (4-8 h). It was the secondary phase,
35 during which the maximal DM degradation was achieved and the proportion of *Succinivibrio* spp. decreased while
36 those of *Pseudobutyrvibrio*, *Roseburia* and *Ruminococcus* spp. increased. Piao *et al.* (2014) also observed that the
37 populations of *Pseudobutyrvibrio* and *Ruminococcus* spp. increased during their secondary colonization to
38 switchgrass in the Friesian cow rumen. The microbial communities attached to feeds during the primary phase were
39 believed to utilize soluble and easily accessible nutrients while those colonized feeds during the secondary phase were
40 considered to be the true lignocellulose degraders (Huws *et al.* 2016; Liu *et al.* 2016). In this study, an increased
41 prevalence of *Butyrivibrio* was noted in CR. *Butyrivibrio* spp. are known for their proteolytic, hemicellulolytic and
42 biohydrogenating activities (Krause *et al.* 2003). Liu *et al.* (2016) reported a strong positive correlation between the
43 abundance of *Butyrivibrio* spp. and the crude protein contents in the rice straw and alfalfa hay, suggesting their
44 preference for the attachment to proteinaceous components of the feeds.
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51 In summary, our results demonstrated that physicochemical compositions of the forages, more specifically their
52 cellulose contents, were among the major factors influencing microbial attachments and thus lignocellulose
53 degradation in the cattle rumen. No taxonomic lineage was found to be specific of a particular forage, suggesting that
54 most rumen microbes had an inherent tendency for attachment to lignocellulosic substrates. However, differential
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3 attachments to the forages by rumen microbiota suggested that the physicochemical properties were the key factors
4 influencing the rate of microbial attachment. Our results also revealed that members of the rumen microbiota competed
5 for their attachments to the forages with different lignocellulose compositions mostly during the initial hours of the
6 rumen incubation. However, after the degradation of easily digestible components in the forages, relatively uniform
7 microbial communities developed on their surface.
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11 It should be noted that the bacterial community composition detected in each forage at each sampling interval may
12 not necessarily reflect the actual abundance of microbes due to an inherent bias in sample collection, processing and
13 storage as well as DNA extraction and PCR amplification, which may cause over- or under-representation of some
14 taxa. For example, a recent comparative analysis of various DNA extraction methods used in rumen microbiome
15 analyses argued that DNA extraction method can have an adverse effect on the community composition of rumen
16 samples and may associate with an increased or decreased abundance of some specific taxa (Henderson *et al.* 2013).
17 Particularly, the inclusion of a physical lysis step using bead-beating method increased the efficacy of DNA extraction
18 from Gram-positive bacteria (Knudsen *et al.* 2016). The extent to which our DNA extraction method, in which the
19 physical lysis step was not included, affected community composition of the forage-attached microbiota was unknown.
20 In addition, the high number of PCR cycles may increase the number of PCR artifacts and bias the microbial
21 compositions.
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27 28 **Acknowledgements**

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31 cooperation and exchange program of the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 31461143020), and the
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33 Beijing. The paper contributes to the CGIAR Research Program on Livestock.
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37 38 **Figure legends**

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40 **Figure 1.** Differences among the six forages in dry matter (DM) and percentages of neutral detergent fiber (NDF),
41 acid detergent fiber (ADF), acid detergent lignin (ADL), cellulose and hemicellulose before (0 h) and after 24, 48, 72,
42 and 96 h of the rumen incubation. The solid circle and error bar in each boxplot show mean and standard deviation,
43 respectively. Statistically significant differences were determined using one-way ANOVA. Means were compared
44 using Duncan's multiple range test and are labelled with different letters at each sampling interval for $p < 0.05$. AP,
45 camelthorn; CR, common reed; DP, date palm; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia.
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50 **Figure 2.** Beta diversity analysis of rumen microbial communities attached to the six forages during the rumen
51 incubation. PCoA plots show the distribution of samples based on weighted Unifrac distance matrix, in which samples
52 are grouped according to the forages (a) and the sampling intervals (b). Significant differences were tested using
53 PERMANOVA with a p-value cutoff 0.01. The percentage of variation explained by each principle coordinate is
54 indicated next to the corresponding axis. The homogeneity of dispersions was also tested for this diversity measure to
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3 examine variance differences between the forages (c) and the sampling intervals (d). Significant differences were
4 determined using the betadisper function of R package vegan v2.5-5 at 999 permutations. P-values < 0.05 were
5 considered statistically significant. For each treatment, data in triplicate representing three separate bags, were
6 included. AP, camelthorn; CR, common reed; DP, date palm; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia.
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10 **Figure 3.** (a) The proportions of reads (mean \pm SD) assigned to the major bacterial phyla (n = 7) detected in the forage-
11 attached microbial communities. The relative abundances were calculated based on the proportion of reads assigned
12 to each phylum in the rarefied OTU table at an even sequencing depth of 4660 reads. (b) Box plots show relative
13 abundance of phyla differentially attached to the forages. Statistically significant differences were calculated based on
14 the analysis of composition of microbes (ANCOM) using $p < 0.05$ following Duncan's multiple range test for
15 comparison of the means. Center lines indicate the median value, boxes the interquartile range and red squares the
16 mean. Means with different letters differ at Bonferroni corrected $p < 0.05$. AP, camelthorn; CR, common reed; DP,
17 date palm; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia.
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22 **Figure 4.** The log of relative abundances of genera differentially attached to the six forages following the rumen
23 incubation. Differential abundances were statistically tested using ANCOM with a p-value cutoff < 0.05. Means were
24 compared using Duncan's multiple range test only accepting Bonferroni corrected p-values < 0.05. Boxplots labeled
25 with different letters show statistically significant differences. Center line represents median value. AP, camelthorn;
26 CR, common reed; DP, date palm; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia.
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30 **Figure 5.** The average relative abundances of taxa (genus level) differentially represented in microbial communities
31 attached to the six forages during the rumen incubation (up to 96 h with 24 h intervals). Statistically significant
32 differences were calculated using ANCOM and means were compared using Duncan's multiple range test. Error bars
33 represent standard deviations and their lengths are adjusted at 95% confidence interval. Means with different letters
34 are statistically significant at Bonferroni corrected $p < 0.05$. No taxa were found to be differentially represented in DP.
35 AP, camelthorn; CR, common reed; KS, Kochia; RS, rice straw; and SC, Salicornia. "Un" refers to unclassified.
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40 **Supplementary materials**

41 **Figure S1.**

42 Changes in DM contents and percentages of NDF, ADF, ADL, cellulose and hemicellulose in six forages during the
43 rumen incubation. The solid circle in each boxplot shows mean and error bars represent standard deviation.
44 Statistically significant differences were determined using one-way ANOVA. Means were compared using Duncan's
45 multiple range test and labelled with different letters for $p < 0.05$.
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49 **Figure S2.**

50 Alpha diversity analysis through rarefaction plots. (a) Rarefaction curves showing the increase in number of observed
51 OTUs; (b) Species richness (number of observed OTUs + number of unobserved OTUs, Chao1); (c) Shannon; and (d)
52 Simpson diversity indices on Y-axis as a function of the number of reads sampled on X-axis.
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55 **Figure S3.**

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3 Alpha diversity indices of rumen microbiota attached to the six forages with different lignocellulosic compositions at
4 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours of the rumen incubation. Alpha diversity indices were measured based on OTUs present at an
5 even sequencing depth of 4,660 reads (corresponding to the sequencing depth of the sample with the lowest number
6 of reads) in all samples. Statistically significant differences were determined using one-way ANOVA and means were
7 compared by Duncan's multiple range test. * p value < 0.05, ** p value < 0.01 and *** p value < 0.001.
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10 **Figure S4.**

11 Alpha diversity analysis of rumen microbial communities attached to the six forages during the rumen incubation. The
12 OTU table for each forage was sampled at an even sequencing depth (n = 4660) and diversity measures were calculated
13 using plot_richness function of R package phyloseq and visualized using geom_boxplot function of R package
14 ggplot2. Statistically significant differences were calculated using one-way ANOVA at p-value cutoff of 0.05.
15 Differences between means were determined using Duncan's multiple range test in PAST v3.26. * p value < 0.05, **
16 p value < 0.01 and *** p value < 0.001.
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20 **Figure S5.**

21 The proportions of reads affiliated to OTUs at the taxonomic level of family in the six forages during the rumen
22 incubation. Data for each sampling interval is the mean of three biological replicates corresponding to three bags
23 retrieved one each from the three cannulated bulls. For each forage, the OTU table is rarefied to the sequencing depth
24 of the sample with the lowest number of reads.
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