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Theresa Streidl

University Hospital of RWTH, Aachen, Germany

Isabel Karkossa

Helmholtz-Centre for Environmental Research, Leipzig, Germany

Rafael R. Segura Munoz

University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Claudia Eberl

Ludwig-Maximilians-University of Munich

Alex Zaufel

Medical University, Graz, Austria

See next page for additional authors

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Authors

Theresa Streidl, Isabel Karkossa, Rafael R. Segura Munoz, Claudia Eberl, Alex Zaufel, Johannes Plagge, Robert Schmaltz, Kristin Schubert, Marijana Basic, Kai Markus Schneider, Mamdouh Afify, Christian Trautwein, Rene Tolba, Barbel Stecher, Heidi L. Doden, Jason M. Ridlon, Josef Ecker, Tarek Moustafa, Martin von Bergen, Amanda Ramer-Tait, and Thomas Clavel

RESEARCH PAPER



The gut bacterium *Extibacter muris* produces secondary bile acids and influences liver physiology in gnotobiotic mice

Theresa Streidl^a, Isabel Karkossa^b, Rafael R. Segura Muñoz^c, Claudia Eberl^d, Alex Zaufel^e, Johannes Plagge^f, Robert Schmaltz^c, Kristin Schubert^b, Marijana Basic^g, Kai Markus Schneider^{h,i}, Mamdouh Afify^{j,k}, Christian Trautwein^h, René Tolba^j, Bärbel Stecher^{d,l}, Heidi L. Dodon^{m,n}, Jason M. Ridlon^{m,n}, Josef Ecker^f, Tarek Moustafa^e, Martin von Bergen^{b,o}, Amanda E. Ramer-Tait^{b,c,p}, and Thomas Clavel^{b,a}

^aFunctional Microbiome Research Group, Institute of Medical Microbiology, University Hospital of RWTH, Aachen, Germany; ^bDepartment of Molecular Systems Biology, Helmholtz-Centre for Environmental Research, Leipzig, Germany; ^cDepartment of Food Science & Technology, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, NE, USA; ^dMax Von Pettenkofer Institute of Hygiene and Medical Microbiology, Ludwig-Maximilians-University of Munich, Munich, Germany; ^eDivision of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Department of Internal Medicine, Medical University, Graz, Austria; ^fResearch Group Lipid Metabolism, ZIEL Institute for Food & Health, Technical University, Munich, Germany; ^gInstitute for Laboratory Animal Science, Hannover Medical School, Hannover, Germany; ^hDepartment of Internal Medicine III, University Hospital of RWTH, Aachen, Germany; ⁱDepartment of Microbiology, Perelman School of Medicine, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA, USA; ^jInstitute for Laboratory Animal Science, Faculty of Medicine, University Hospital of RWTH, Aachen, Germany; ^kClinic for Cardiology (Internal Medicine I), University Hospital of RWTH, Aachen, Germany; ^lGerman Center for Infection Research (DZIF); Partner Site Munich, Munich, Germany; ^mMicrobiome Metabolic Engineering Theme, Carl R. Woese Institute for Genomic Biology, Urbana, IL, USA; ⁿDepartment of Animal Sciences, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, Urbana, Illinois, USA; ^oInstitute of Biochemistry, Leipzig University, Leipzig, Germany; ^pNebraska Food for Health Center, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Hannover, NE, USA

ABSTRACT

Extibacter muris is a newly described mouse gut bacterium which metabolizes cholic acid (CA) to deoxycholic acid (DCA) via 7 α -dehydroxylation. Although bile acids influence metabolic and inflammatory responses, few *in vivo* models exist for studying their metabolism and impact on the host. Mice were colonized from birth with the simplified community Oligo-MM¹² with or without *E. muris*. As the metabolism of bile acids is known to affect lipid homeostasis, mice were fed either a low- or high-fat diet for eight weeks before sampling and analyses targeting the gut and liver. Multiple Oligo-MM¹² strains were capable of deconjugating primary bile acids *in vitro*. *E. muris* produced DCA from CA either as pure compound or in mouse bile. This production was inducible by CA *in vitro*. Ursodeoxycholic, chenodeoxycholic, and β -muricholic acid were not metabolized under the conditions tested. All gnotobiotic mice were stably colonized with *E. muris*, which showed higher relative abundances after HF diet feeding. The presence of *E. muris* had minor, diet-dependent effects on Oligo-MM¹² communities. The secondary bile acids DCA and surprisingly LCA and their taurine conjugates were detected exclusively in *E. muris*-colonized mice. *E. muris* colonization did not influence body weight, white adipose tissue mass, liver histopathology, hepatic aspartate aminotransferase, or blood levels of cholesterol, insulin, and paralytic peptide (PP). However, proteomics revealed shifts in hepatic pathways involved in amino acid, glucose, lipid, energy, and drug metabolism in *E. muris*-colonized mice. Liver fatty acid composition was substantially altered by dietary fat but not by *E. muris*. In summary, *E. muris* stably colonized the gut of mice harboring a simplified community and produced secondary bile acids, which affected proteomes in the liver. This new gnotobiotic mouse model can now be used to study the pathophysiological role of secondary bile acids *in vivo*.

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received 31 May 2020
Revised 9 October 2020
Accepted 11 November 2020

KEYWORDS


Lipids; bile acids; gut microbiota; synthetic community; *Extibacter muris*; 7 α -dehydroxylation; gut-liver axis

Introduction

The gut microbiome, *i.e.* the community of microbes residing in the intestine of humans and other animals, plays an important role in host health and the development of chronic diseases such as metabolic disorders and liver cancer.^{1,2} In contrast to the high number of studies focusing on

shifts in fecal microbiomes under disease conditions, there is a limited amount of data on how microbe-host interactions function, with few models available to study those interactions.^{3,4} Hence, there is an urgent need for experimental studies dissecting mediators of microbe-host interactions, such as the myriad of metabolites produced by

CONTACT Thomas Clavel, tclavel@ukaachen.de; KGMI-peerreview@journals.tandf.co.uk Functional Microbiome Research Group, Institute of Medical Microbiology, University Hospital of RWTH, Aachen, Germany.

 Supplemental data for this article can be accessed on the publisher's website.

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microbes. Bile acids are among the best examples of such metabolites: they are synthesized in the liver in the form of conjugated primary bile acids that, once secreted in the small intestine, can be metabolized by gut bacteria. This bacterial metabolism substantially impacts the bioavailability and bioactivities of bile acids, which are known to regulate inflammatory and metabolic responses.⁵ Thus, it is essential to study the bacteria capable of converting bile acids.

The enzymatic reactions involved in bile acid metabolism by gut bacteria start with deconjugation (the removal of amino acid residues bound to primary bile acids) via bile salt hydrolase (BSH) activity.⁶ Free primary bile acids can then be metabolized further via removal of hydroxyl groups (dehydroxylation), oxidation (dehydrogenation), or epimerization.⁷ Whereas BSH activity is known to be carried out by a variety of phylogenetically diverse taxa,⁸ including species able to colonize the small intestine, the other reactions are thought to be restricted to bile acids escaping re-absorption in the ileum and catalyzed by a more restricted number of bacterial species colonizing distal parts of the gut. Whilst the so far best studied bile acid-dehydroxylating bacterium in the human gut is *Clostridium scindens*, species from mice are either unknown or, if already isolated, have not been taxonomically described and deposited in reference culture collections. One secondary bile acid-producing species that we have recently cultured and characterized from the mouse gut microbiota is *Extibacter muris*, the first representative of a novel genus which is able to metabolize the primary bile acids cholic acid (CA) to deoxycholic acid (DCA) via 7 α -dehydroxylation.^{9,10}

Considering the influence of bile acids on metabolic and inflammatory responses and the scarcity of experimental studies using bile acid-metabolizing gut bacteria,^{11–16} the goal of the present work was to assess the effects of targeted colonization by *E. muris* *in vivo*. To that end, germ-free mice were associated with the minimal bacterial community Oligo-MM^{12,17} with or without *E. muris* and fed one of two experimental diets varying in fat content. The main focus was to study responses in the liver because of its functional relevance for lipid metabolism.

Results

In vitro metabolism of bile acids

As a foundation for later *in vivo* experiments, we aimed to clarify the metabolism of bile acids by the Oligo-MM¹² strains and *Extibacter muris* *in vitro*.

First, due to the release of bile acids by the host in conjugated form, Oligo-MM¹² strains were tested for BSH activity via incubation with either TDCA or GDCA in both agar- and broth-based assays. Three Oligo-MM¹² strains were consistently positive across the different assays: *Bacteroides caecimuris* DSM 26085, *Bifidobacterium animalis* DSM 26074, and *Enterococcus faecalis* DSM 32036 (Figure 1a). *Clostridium innocuum* DSM 26113 and *Flavonifractor plautii* DSM 26117 deconjugated TDCA but not GDCA, which tended to inhibit the growth of several strains under the conditions tested. *Muribaculum intestinale* DSM 28989 showed inconsistent results depending on the combination of bile acid tested and assay used: it was positive for TDCA on agar and GDCA in broth. *Lactobacillus reuteri* DSM 32035 was positive for GDCA deconjugation both on agar and in broth. The other Oligo-MM¹² members either tested negative for all reactions or their growth was inhibited by addition of the bile acids (*Acutalibacter muris* DSM 26090, *Akkermansia muciniphila* DSM 26127, *Blautia coccoides* DSM 26115, *Enterocloster clostridioformis* DSM 26114, *Turicimonas muris* DSM 26109).

The previously observed ability of *E. muris* to produce DCA¹⁰ was confirmed, albeit at an amount approx. 24-fold lower than the positive control strain *C. scindens* (0.75 vs. 18 μ M, respectively) (Figure 1b). The fact that the amount of DCA produced did not mirror the decrease in CA concentrations suggests the formation of intermediates (e.g. 3, 7, 12-oxo bile acids) not measured by the quantification method used. *E. muris* did not convert UDCA and CDCA into LCA when provided as single substrates under the conditions tested (Figure 1b). When incubated in the presence of mouse bile (1:300 dilution), *E. muris* produced up to 2.2 μ M DCA, which was still ca. 6.5-fold lower than the complex mouse cecal microbiota used as positive control (Figure 1c). Moreover, *E. muris* was not able to catalyze the isomerization of β MCA into ω MCA.