

Gut Microbiome of Indonesian Adults Differently Associated with Obesity and type 2 Diabetes under Varied Dietary Habits: A Cross-sectional Study in an Asian Developing City, Yogyakarta

Phatthanaphong Therdtatha

Department of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Faculty of Agriculture, Kyushu University

Yayi Song

Department of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Faculty of Agriculture, Kyushu University

Masaru Tanaka

Department of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Faculty of Agriculture, Kyushu University

Mariyatun Mariyatun

Faculty of Agricultural Technology, Universitas Gadjah Mada

Miisaroh Almunifah

Faculty of Agricultural Technology, Universitas Gadjah Mada

Nancy Manurung

Faculty of Agricultural Technology, Universitas Gadjah Mada

Siska Indriarsih

Faculty of Agricultural Technology, Universitas Gadjah Mada

Yi Lu

Department of Applied Biological Chemistry, Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Sciences, The University of Tokyo

Koji Nakagata

Department of Applied Biological Chemistry, Graduate School of Agricultural and Life Sciences, The University of Tokyo

Katsuya Fukami

Material Management Center of Kyushu University

Tetsuo Ikeda

Endoscopy and Endoscopic Surgery, Fukuoka Dental College

Yuan-Kun Lee

Department of Microbiology and Immunology, National University of Singapore

Endang Rahayu

Faculty of Agricultural Technology, Universitas Gadjah Mada

Jiro Nakayama (✉ nakayama@agr.kyushu-u.ac.jp)

Department of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Faculty of Agriculture, Kyushu University

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4

5 Phatthanaphong Therdtatha¹, Yayi Song¹, Masaru Tanaka¹, Mariyatun Mariyatun²,
6 Miisaroh Almunifah², Nancy Eka Putri Manurung², Siska Indriarsih², Yi Lu³, Koji
7 Nakagata³, Katsuya Fukami⁴, Tetsuo Ikeda^{5,6}, Yuan-Kun Lee⁷, Endang Sutriswati
8 Rahayu², and Jiro Nakayama^{1*}

9

10 ¹Department of Bioscience and Biotechnology, Faculty of Agriculture, Kyushu
11 University, 744 Motooka, Nishi-ku, Fukuoka, 819-0395, Japan

12 ²Faculty of Agricultural Technology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, 55281,
13 Indonesia

14 ³Department of Applied Biological Chemistry, Graduate School of Agricultural and
15 Life Sciences, The University of Tokyo, 1-1-1 Yayoi, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo, 113-8657,
16 Japan

17 ⁴Material Management Center of Kyushu University, 744 Motooka, Nishi-ku,
18 Fukuoka, 819-0395, Japan

19 ⁵Department of Surgery and Science, Graduate School of Medical Sciences, Kyushu
20 University, 3-1-1 Maidashi, Higashi-ku, Fukuoka, 812-8582, Japan

21 ⁶Endoscopy and Endoscopic Surgery, Fukuoka Dental College, 2-15-1 Tamura,
22 Sawara-ku, Fukuoka, 814-0193, Japan

23 ⁷Department of Microbiology and Immunology, National University of Singapore, 5
24 Science Drive 2, Singapore, 117545, Singapore

25

26 ***Correspondence:**

27 Jiro Nakayama

28 Email: nakayama@agr.kyushu-u.ac.jp

29

30 **Authors' email addresses**

31

32 Phatthanaphong Therdtatha: vo_21851@hotmail.com

33 Masaru Tanaka: msr456852@gmail.com

34 Yayi Song: lana745143663@gmail.com

35 Mariyatun: maria_slimshady@yahoo.com

36 Miisaroh Almunifah: almunifah@gmail.com

37 Nancy Eka Putri Manurung: nancyekaputri@gmail.com

38 Siska Indriarsih: siskaindriarsih@gmail.com

39 Lu Yi: ly22999@hotmail.com

40 Koji Nakagata: aknagata@mail.ecc.u-tokyo.ac.jp

41 Katsuya Fukami: kfukami@mmc.kyushu-u.ac.jp

42 Tetsuo Ikeda: t-ikeda@surg2.med. kyushu-u.ac.jp

43 Yuan-Kun Lee: micleeyk@nus.edu.sg

44 Endang Sutriswati Rahayu: endangsrahayu@ugm.ac.id

45 Jiro Nakayama: nakayama@agr.kyushu-u.ac.jp

46

47 **Abstract**

48

49 Indonesia is a developing country facing the national problem of the growing
50 obesity and diabetes in its population due to recent drastic dietary and lifestyle
51 changes. To understand the interface between the gut microbiome, diet, and health of
52 Indonesian people, we characterized fecal microbiomes and metabolomes of 75
53 Indonesian adults in Yogyakarta City, including 21 obese people and 25 type 2
54 diabetes (T2D) patients, together with their dietary and medical records. Variations of
55 microbiomes showed a triangular distribution in the principal component analysis,
56 driven by three dominant bacterial genera, namely *Bacteroides*, *Prevotella*, and
57 *Romboutsia*. The *Romboutsia*-driven microbiome, characterized by low bacterial
58 diversity and high primary bile acids, was associated with fat-driven obesity. The
59 *Bacteroides*-driven microbiome, which counteracted *Prevotella* but was associated
60 with *Ruminococcaceae* concomitantly increased with high-carbohydrate diets,
61 showed positive correlation with T2D indices but negative correlation with body mass
62 index. Notably, *Bacteroides fragilis* was increased in T2D patients with a decrease of
63 fecal conjugated bile acids, particularly tauroursodeoxycholic acid, a farnesoid X
64 receptor antagonist with anti-diabetic activity, while these features disappeared in
65 patients administered metformin. These results indicate that the gut microbiome status
66 of Indonesian adults is differently associated with obesity and T2D under their varied
67 dietary habits.

68

69 **Introduction**

70

71 The Asian microbiome project (AMP) was established in 2009 with the aim
72 of investigating the links between different traditional diets, gut microbiome, and
73 health. Thus far, the AMP has conducted three phases of research in ten countries¹⁻³
74 (<http://www.agr.kyushu-u.ac.jp/lab/microbt/AMP/>). These outcomes suggest that
75 modernization occurring in Asian countries remodeling the gut microbiome of Asians
76 with dietary changes. Therefore, a question arises as to how the remodeled gut
77 microbiome affects the health of Asian people. To answer this question, we are
78 conducting AMP phase IV with the aim of focusing on obesity and diabetes as
79 lifestyle diseases, most probably sensitized by dietary change.

80 Since gut microbes interact with host immune and hormonal systems via cell
81 components or metabolites, alterations of the gut microbiome and its function may be
82 crucially involved in metabolic disorders, such as obesity and T2D^{4,5}. To address this
83 notion, many studies have attempted to identify microbiome features associated with
84 the development of these diseases. In previous studies, although the gut microbiome
85 of obese individuals mostly expressed low bacterial diversity reflecting the gut
86 dysbiosis^{6,7}, T2D individuals showed variable results^{8,9} suggesting external complex
87 factors, including drug intake, host genetic factors, and their surrounding
88 environmental factors, including changing dietary habits^{9,10}.

89 Gut bacteria digest complex carbohydrates and fermentatively produce short
90 chain fatty acids (SCFAs) and intermediate metabolites, such as lactate and
91 succinate¹¹. Since it is known that these products are directly or indirectly involved in
92 metabolic and energy homeostasis^{12,13}, it is believed that dysfunction of their

93 biosynthesis is linked to metabolic diseases. In addition, much attention has been paid
94 to bile acids (BAs), which are synthesized by the host but derivatized by gut microbes
95 through deconjugation, dehydroxylation, and epimerization. In addition to their
96 original function as lipid surfactants, BAs have hormonal functions through host
97 receptors, such as farnesoid X receptor (FXR)¹⁴ and the membrane protein Takeda G
98 protein-coupled receptor 5 (TGR5)¹⁵. These receptors transmit intestinal BA signals
99 to the liver, thereby regulating host energy and metabolic homeostasis. Since
100 bacterially derived BAs have stronger activity with the receptors, BA metabolism in
101 the intestine is crucial for host homeostasis, and its disorder may lead to metabolic
102 diseases¹⁶. It is also noted that BAs have antimicrobial effects, which may be involved
103 in the structure of the gut microbiome by providing selective pressure of bile-sensitive
104 bacteria¹⁷.

105 Obesity in Asia is now catching up with the West due to economic growth in
106 many Asian countries in recent decades. There are factors contributing to the
107 prevalence of this disease, including migration from rural to urban areas and rapid
108 socioeconomic transition, both of which are associated with lifestyle changes among
109 Asian people, such as reduced physical activity and intake of an energy-dense diet¹⁸.
110 Obesity is correlated with T2D via the development of insulin resistance by adipose
111 tissue in the body¹⁹, although not all obese individuals develop T2D, suggesting an
112 anti-T2D mechanism may be present in metabolically normal obese subjects^{20,21}. On
113 the other hand, Asian people are at a high risk of diabetes even though they are not
114 obese^{22,23}, while the form of diabetes occurring in the context of obesity²⁴ in Asia has
115 been increasing gradually. This emerging risk can be explained by three main causes:
116 heredity, physiologies, and dietary consumption behaviors among Asians^{25,26}. In

117 particular, changes in dietary patterns in Asian modernization from a plant-based
118 traditional diet rich in complex carbohydrates to Western-type modern diet rich in
119 animal fat and simple sugars sensitize Asians to the risk of diabetes²⁷.

120 Indonesia is a highly populated country representative Southeast Asia in
121 terms of lifestyle and diet, notably a rice-based daily diet with high glycemic index.
122 Our previous study in AMP phase I and phase II indicated that the majority of
123 Indonesian people harbor a gut microbiome highly populated by *Prevotella*, which is
124 predominantly found in people in developing countries or vegetarians^{1,28,29}. However,
125 the dietary habits in Indonesia have modernized remarkably in the past
126 quarter-century, which appears to be associated with a dramatic increase in obesity
127 and diabetes populations, accounting for 5.7% and 7.0%, respectively of Indonesia's
128 258 million people in 2016³⁰. To investigate the status of Indonesian microbiota
129 associated with obesity and T2D, we performed a pilot-scale cross-sectional study in
130 Yogyakarta City as a representative of a developing city in Asia.

131

132 **Results**

133

134 **Physical characteristics of our Indonesian subjects and their trends in** 135 **macronutrient consumption**

136

137 In this study, we targeted only male subjects to avoid the effect of
138 microgenderome, which may contribute to gender bias in our results, notably the
139 effect of postmenopausal hormonal change on the gut microbiome occurring during
140 the ages targeted in this study³¹. Physical and clinical characteristics of the subjects

141 are shown in [Table 1](#) and [Supplementary Table S1](#). All subjects were grouped into
142 two sets of dependent subjects by using characteristic criteria of hemoglobin A1c
143 (HbA1c) to classify the set of non-T2D and T2D groups, and BMI to classify the set
144 of lean, overweight, and obese groups, respectively. Age significantly differed
145 between the T2D and non-T2D groups, and it was adjusted in later statistical analyses
146 to investigate the correlation between the microbiome and T2D. Seven subjects in the
147 T2D group were treated with the anti-diabetic drug, metformin.

148 To capture the trends in nutrient consumption of our Indonesian subjects, we
149 performed statistical analyses using their seven-day dietary records. As shown by the
150 average of all subjects ([Supplementary Table S2](#)), the balance of macronutrients was
151 in the range of WHO recommendations (carbohydrates, 55% to 75%; protein, 10% to
152 15%; fat, 15% to 30%; https://www.who.int/nutrition/topics/5_population_nutrient/en/) although the fat
153 consumption rate was close to its upper range at 30%. There was an obvious trend of
154 increase in energy consumption from all three macronutrients from lean to obese
155 groups. The fat consumption rate in the obese group was averaged to be 32.1% of the
156 total energy corresponding to 670 kcal, which was significantly higher than 430 kcal
157 in the lean group ($p = 0.001$, in pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum test with Bonferroni
158 adjustment). On the other hand, between non-T2D and T2D groups, the carbohydrate
159 consumption was significantly lower and the relative consumption of protein was
160 significantly higher in the T2D group. Multiple linear regression analysis with the
161 three macronutrient intakes showed that fat consumption was a major determinant of
162 BMI in the non-T2D group ($p = 0.042$, beta = 0.43) ([Supplementary Table S3](#)). On
163 the other hand, no correlation between the macronutrients and BMI was found in the
164

165 multiple linear regression analysis in the T2D group. This appears to be because the
166 majority of T2D patients in this study were on dietary restriction ([Supplementary](#)
167 [Table S1](#)).

168

169 **Gut microbiome variance of our Indonesian subjects is driven by three bacterial**
170 **genera**

171

172 To determine the gut microbiome variance of our Indonesian subjects, we
173 analyzed the bacterial taxonomic compositions of fecal samples from 75 Indonesian
174 male adults, including obese and T2D subjects, by using amplicon sequencing of the
175 16S rRNA V3-V4 region. Subsequently, we profiled their microbiome variation by
176 principal component analysis (PCA) based on the genus composition of each sample
177 ([Fig. 1A](#)). The biplot showed a triangular distribution of 75 samples, driven by three
178 dominant genera: *Bacteroides* (g24), *Prevotella* (g22), and *Romboutsia* (g70). To
179 examine the microbial community driven by the three genera, the samples placed at
180 each edge of the triangle were grouped and their genus composition was averaged
181 within each group (pie charts in [Fig. 1A](#)). As a result, three types of bacterial
182 community, each dominated by *Bacteroides*, *Prevotella*, and *Romboutsia*, were shown
183 evidently. Furthermore, the *Romboutsia*-driven group was evidently characterized
184 with high BMI, while subjects with high fasting blood glucose (FBG) levels were
185 clustered in the *Bacteroides*-driven group ([Fig. 1B](#)).

186 It is statistically confirmed that BMI, HbA1c, and FBG were regressed on the
187 PCA ordination ([Supplementary Fig. S1](#)). Both indicators of T2D, namely HbA1c and
188 FBG, increased toward the *Bacteroides* loading vector, while BMI increased toward

189 the *Romboutsia* loading vector. Moreover, it was found that some indices reflecting
190 the condition of gut microbiota were highly correlated with PCA ordination. The first
191 is the number of observed OTUs (NOO), a known indicator of microbiome
192 community richness, was high in the center of the PCA ordination and lower toward
193 the edges of the triangle, particularly the direction of the *Romboutsia* loading vector
194 ([Supplementary Fig. S1D](#)). The level of fecal primary bile acids was increased in the
195 *Romboutsia*-driven region, while it was mostly depleted in the *Bacteroides*-driven
196 region ([Supplementary Fig. S1E](#)). The level of succinate was also increased in the
197 *Romboutsia*-driven region, while it was close to depleted in the belt spanning between
198 *Bacteroides*- and *Prevotella*-driven edges ([Supplementary Fig. S1F](#)). Primary bile
199 acids were intermediate metabolites from conjugated bile acid and secondary bile
200 acids. In addition, succinate is also known as an intermediate metabolite between
201 propionate and butyrate. The microbial community appeared to lose the full metabolic
202 functionality for SCFA and bile acids in samples of the PC2-negative region with
203 high concentrations of these metabolic intermediates.

204

205 **Gut microbiome features of our obese or T2D Indonesian subjects**

206

207 To determine abnormalities in the gut microbiome of our obese Indonesian
208 subjects, we compared bacterial composition between non-T2D obese subjects (BMI
209 $> 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$, HbA1c $< 6.5\%$) and non-T2D lean subjects (BMI $\leq 25 \text{ kg/m}^2$, HbA1c $<$
210 6.5%) using the linear discriminant analysis effect size (LEfSe) ([Fig. 2A](#)). The results
211 indicated that a broad range of taxonomic groups, including common gut microbiome
212 families, Ruminococcaceae, Bacteroidaceae, and unclassified families of Clostridiales,

213 declined in the obese group, while genus *Romboutsia* was significantly increased in
214 the obese group. NOO was significantly lower in the obese group, in which the
215 number of OTUs of commensal groups such as Lachnospiraceae, Ruminococcaceae,
216 and Bacteroidaceae decreased significantly (Fig. 2C). Namely, in the obese subjects,
217 *Romboutsia* outgrew the commensal group, which is most likely dysbiosis.

218 On the other hand, the Lefse analysis to compare the gut microbiome
219 differences between T2D and non-T2D groups showed that a narrow range of
220 taxonomic groups, such as *Bacteroides fragilis* (OTU151) and four Lachnospiraceae
221 species were altered in the T2D group (Fig. 2B). Alpha-diversity indices did not
222 significantly differ between these two groups (Fig. 2B). These results indicated that
223 our Indonesian T2D subjects had a local alteration unlike dysbiosis in their gut
224 microbiota.

225 To confirm the compositional change with obesity and diabetes, we
226 performed cross analysis over the different BMI and FBG subgroups (Fig. 2D).
227 Among these subgroups, the *Romboutsia*-overgrown biome of the non-T2D obese
228 subgroup and the *Prevotella*-deprived biome of the T2D lean subgroup were
229 remarkable, while the trend of dysbiosis, namely a decrease in Clostridiales such as
230 *Faecalibacterium* and *Coprococcus* with increasing obesity, was confirmed within the
231 non-T2D group but not in the T2D group. The outgrowth of *Romboutsia* was also not
232 observed in the T2D obese subgroup. Interestingly, the non-T2D obese subjects with
233 a higher ratio of *Romboutsia* had a high concentration of succinate in their feces,
234 which is known to be involved in the control of blood glucose levels and may suggest
235 that *Romboutsia* in these obese subjects acts to control the host blood glucose level
236 (Supplementary Fig. S2).

237

238 **Association of gut microbiome of our Indonesian subjects with diets, obesity, and**
239 **T2D**

240

241 To determine the association of the gut microbiome with diets and host
242 metabolic status, four key taxa, namely the three driving genera *Prevotella*,
243 *Bacteroides*, and *Romboutsia*, and one core family of Ruminococcaceae, were
244 subjected to a series of linear regression analyses (Fig. 3). First, we calculated the
245 correlation of the four key taxa to each macronutrient intake ratio by using 75
246 individual datasets. Results are shown in Fig. 3A, 3B and 3C, revealing that
247 *Romboutsia* and Ruminococcaceae have opposite associations with fat and
248 carbohydrate, respectively.

249 Subsequently, we analyzed the correlation of the four key taxa with obesity
250 and T2D. To adjust for confounding effects among the host factors and inter-bacterial
251 interactions, we performed a multiple linear regression analysis. For obesity, we used
252 BMI as the dependent variable, and total energy intake of the host and abundances of
253 the four key bacterial groups as the independent variables. To remove the
254 confounding effect of T2D including drug and diet therapies, we used non-T2D
255 subjects for this analysis. Normal distribution was confirmed with $p > 0.05$ in the
256 skewness and kurtosis tests for the 50 samples of BMI values. The results of the
257 initial trial using all samples did not satisfy the global validation of linear model
258 assumptions, due to an outlier with unusual dietary records. Therefore, the second
259 trial was performed by excluding the one outlier, which satisfied the linear model
260 assumptions. Fig. 3D shows the estimates of regression coefficients (95% CI) of each

261 bacterial group to BMI, in which the upper and lower lines were estimated by
262 applying these four bacteria data altogether or individually as dependent variables in
263 the regression analysis. The results statistically support the model that *Bacteroides*
264 and Ruminococcaceae negatively correlate with BMI, while *Romboutsia* positively
265 correlates with BMI.

266 For the correlation with FBG as an index for T2D, age and BMI of each
267 sample donor were included as dependent variables and the subjects administered
268 metformin were excluded. Instead of FBG values, their inverse square values showing
269 normal distribution were used as independent variables. The relative abundance data
270 of the four key taxa were applied together or individually in the multiple regression
271 analysis. However, none of the four bacterial groups showed statistically significant
272 correlation, although the coefficient of *Bacteroides* was nearly significant ([Fig. 3D](#)).
273 Therefore, abundance data of each *Bacteroides* OTU were applied independently to
274 the multiple regression model. *B. fragilis* (OTU151) showed a significantly negative
275 correlation with the inverse square of FBG, whereas the dominant species of
276 *Bacteroides*, (OTU23) also showed a significantly negative, but weak correlation.

277 Taken together with the obtained correlation information, we created a path
278 diagram showing the linkage among diets, the microbiome, and host metabolism ([Fig.](#)
279 [3E](#)). Ruminococcaceae was positively correlated with carbohydrate intake ratio but
280 negatively with BMI, whereas *Romboutsia* was positively correlated with fat intake
281 ratios and BMI. *Bacteroides* tended to be co-abundant with Ruminococcaceae and
282 negatively correlated with BMI. *Bacteroides* also showed a marginally positive
283 correlation with FBG, wherein subdominant *B. fragilis* showed a strong positive
284 correlation with FBG. *Prevotella*, which was the most dominant genus in our

285 Indonesian subjects, competed with the other dominant groups, notably *Bacteroides*,
286 but did not correlate directly with the indices of diet, obesity, and T2D.

287

288 **Potential microbiome markers for fat-driven obesity in Indonesian subjects**

289

290 To cover the correlation of microbiome to diet, obesity, and diabetes in more
291 detail, all families, genera, and OTUs were applied to the same regression model (see
292 the OTU table in Supplementary Table S4 and the results in [Supplementary Tables S5,](#)
293 [S6, S7, S8, S9](#)). Many taxa were correlated particularly with carbohydrate and fat
294 intake ratios and obesity. In obesity, two genera, namely *Oscillibacter* and
295 *Coprococcus*, showed an apparent negative correlation with BMI, in addition to
296 *Romboutsia*'s positive correlation with BMI, while *Bacteroides* and Ruminococcaceae
297 were negatively correlated with BMI ([Supplementary Fig. S3](#)). Moreover, at the OTU
298 level, OTU36 and OTU89 which are closely related to *Coprococcus* sp. and
299 *Oscillibacter valericigenes*, respectively, were positively correlated with carbohydrate
300 intake ratio, negatively with fat intake ratio, and BMI negatively ([Supplementary](#)
301 [Table S5, S6, Supplementary Fig. S4](#)). Multiple linear regression using the abundance
302 of these two OTUs as independent variables explained the variance of non-T2D
303 subjects at 31.0% for fat intake ratio, 32.0% for carbohydrate intake ratio, and 38.0%
304 for BMI. This suggests that these two OTUs are microbiome markers for fat-driven
305 obesity in Indonesia.

306

307 **Alteration of bile acid metabolism in microbiota of our obese and T2D**
308 **Indonesian subjects**

309

310 First, we compared the amount of each BA group among the different BMI
311 groups ([Fig. 4A, Supplementary Table S10](#)). To coincide with the previous analysis in
312 [Supplementary Fig. S1](#), the level of the primary BA group (CA+CDCA) was
313 increased in the obese group compared with the lean group, while the
314 7 α -dehydroxylated BA group (DCA+LCA) was significantly lower in the obese group
315 than in the overweight group. Additionally, the relative ratio of the 7 α -dehydroxylated
316 group to total BA (7dOH ratio: DCA+LCA/Total BA) was estimated in order to
317 represent the total BA conversion rate to the main end product, and was found to be
318 reduced in the obese group, although it was not significant due to high variance. On
319 the other hand, in the T2D group, the 7dOH ratio was mostly close to one and
320 significantly higher than that in the non-T2D group, while conjugated BAs, primary
321 BAs, and UDCA were mostly depleted ([Fig. 4B, Supplementary Table S11](#)).
322 Interestingly, the conjugated BA level was recovered in the T2D patients with
323 metformin administration, while the primary BA level and UDCA level were not
324 recovered. The correlation of each bile acid level with FBG level was further
325 analyzed using Spearman correlation analysis ([Supplementary Table S12](#)). Two
326 glycine-conjugated BAs, namely GLCA and GUDCA, and two taurine conjugated
327 BAs, TLCA and TUDCA, showed negative correlations with FBG, while UDCA
328 showed a stronger negative correlation.

329 Subsequently, we calculated the correlation of the key bacteria groups with
330 the abundance of each BA molecule in feces ([Fig. 5](#)). *Prevotella* showed a unique
331 correlation profile that was positive for all BAs, except for 7 α -dehydroxylated BAs,
332 although they were not statistically significant. *Bacteroides* did not show any

333 significant correlation to these BAs and *B. dorei* (OTU23) did not either, whereas *B.*
334 *fragilis* (OTU151) showed a significant negative correlation with some conjugated
335 BAs including TUDCA, which is known to have a function to control blood glucose
336 levels as an antagonist of FXR. *Ruminococcaceae* showed significant correlations
337 with many BAs, such as a strong negative correlation with primary BAs, moderate
338 negative correlation with UDCA and some conjugated bile acids. In addition,
339 *Ruminococcaceae* showed a strong positive correlation with the 7dOH ratio,
340 suggesting the presence of *Ruminococcaceae* species, such as OTU64 and OTU41,
341 which are strongly involved in 7 α -dehydroxylation ([Supplementary Fig. S5A & S5B](#)).
342 However, the abundance of *Ruminococcaceae* did not differ between the T2D and
343 non-T2D groups ([Fig. 6A](#)). On the other hand, it was found that the abundance of
344 *Bacteroides*, notably *B. fragilis*, was higher in the T2D group, but decreased to the
345 basal level in the patients treated with metformin, as opposed to the conjugated BA
346 level. *B. fragilis* promotes T2D through the reduction of conjugated UDCAs with
347 antagonistic activity against FXR, while metformin cures T2D by decreasing *B.*
348 *fragilis*³². In our Indonesian subjects, the conjugated BAs were mostly depleted when
349 carrying a high number of OTU151 ([Supplementary Fig. S5C](#)). However, note that
350 deconjugated UDCA “UDCA” showed higher negative correlation to FBG
351 ([Supplementary Table S12](#)), although not *B. fragilis* but *Ruminococcaceae* and the
352 two OTUs, OTU64 and OTU41, showed significant negative correlation with UDCA
353 and positive correlation with 7dOH-ratio ([Fig. 5](#) and [Supplementary Fig. S5A, S5B,](#)
354 [S5D & S5E](#)). It appears that the increase in *Ruminococcaceae* with strong
355 7 α -dehydroxylation activity may outcompete the 7-epimerization of CDCA to UDCA
356 catalyzed by some other commensal bacteria, such as *Fusicatenibacter*

357 *saccharivorans* (OTU11) that showed a positive correlation with the fecal UDCA
358 level ([Supplementary Fig. S5F](#)).

359 Finally, we profiled the abundances of the three key bacteria and three
360 anti-diabetic UDCAAs in the order of FBG ([Fig. 6B](#)). This clearly indicates that the
361 patients with high FBG levels and without metformin administration were highly
362 colonized by *B. fragilis*, and lacked *Prevotella* and both conjugated and unconjugated
363 UDCA.

364

365 **Discussion**

366

367 Crosstalk between human gut microbiota, obesity, and diabetes has been
368 studied, but it is still not much in developing Asian countries, tending to increase
369 metabolic disease populations in reflection of changes in dietary environment. In this
370 study, we conducted a cross-sectional study of Indonesian subjects to investigate
371 microbiome and metabolome features associated with obesity and T2D as well as
372 their dietary habits and medical records. As a result, variations in fecal microbiome
373 and metabolome found in the 75 subjects reflected the metabolic and dietary indices
374 of the hosts.

375 The gut microbiome of the obese group was characterized by a dysbiosis-like
376 microbiota community, in which *Romboutsia* abnormally increased in correlation
377 with fat intake. *Romboutsia*, which is a member of the family Peptostreptococcaceae,
378 is an obesity-related genus that positively correlates with lipid profiles and lipogenesis
379 in the liver³³ as well as BMI³⁴. Instead of *Romboutsia* overgrowth, potentially
380 beneficial commensal bacteria were largely decreased in the obese group, notably

381 butyrate-producing bacteria, including *Faecalibacterium*, *Roseburia*, *Coprococcus*,
382 and *Oscillibacter*. Moreover, this dysbiosis-like status was reflected by the
383 dysfunction of bile acid metabolism, as discussed later in this discussion section.

384 Although obesity is a risk factor for T2D, lean T2D is also highly prevalent
385 in Asia^{22,23}. In addition, the gut microbiota was characterized distinctively between
386 obese and T2D subjects in this study, including a large portion of lean T2D subjects.
387 The gut microbiota of T2D subjects with high FBG was characterized by *Bacteroides*
388 overrepresenting in place of *Prevotella*, which is usually dominant in healthy
389 Indonesian people¹. Notably, the *Prevotella* level was significantly decreased in the
390 lean T2D subjects (Fig. 2D). Several studies have indicated that *Bacteroides* shows an
391 antagonistic correlation with *Prevotella*, as observed as enterotypes^{1-3,28,29,35,36}.
392 Notably, a recent study has indicated that *Bacteroides*'s enterotype is associated with
393 a high risk of T2D due to increased levels of lipopolysaccharide in blood, causing
394 decreased insulin sensitivity, while *Prevotella* is antagonistic against the formation
395 and function of the *Bacteroides* enterotype³⁶. It is known that *Prevotella* strongly
396 depends on carbohydrates in diet^{35,37} and is a potent propionate producer with
397 indigestible carbohydrate fermentation³⁸. Propionate has been shown to trigger the
398 secretion of the gut peptides glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) and peptide YY (PYY),
399 which are involved in the regulation of appetite, glucose metabolism, and reducing
400 inflammation³⁹. Furthermore, *Prevotella* occasionally produces succinate as an
401 intermediate fermentation product, which is known to improve glucose homeostasis
402 via intestinal gluconeogenesis⁴⁰, although no positive correlation between *Prevotella*
403 and succinate was observed in this study. Interestingly, in this study, high levels of
404 succinate were instead found in the feces of non-T2D obese subjects in association

405 with an increase of the *Romboutsia* population. However, these are a line of studies
406 showing non-beneficial aspects of bacteria-derived succinate, overrepresented as a
407 result of dysbiosis. Notably, a recent human study showed that blood succinate level
408 increases in association with FBG and certain groups of gut bacteria including
409 *Prevotella*⁴¹. There are controversies over whether *Prevotella* and succinate benefit
410 human health¹³. Further studies on Indonesian obesity and T2D, each showing
411 different aspects in the gut microbiome, may allow us to understand the link between
412 these major bacteria and metabolites in the intestine of humans with metabolic
413 diseases.

414 The fecal BA profile of our Indonesian patients significantly reflected the gut
415 microbiome status under metabolic diseases, as summarized in Fig. 7. Generally, BAs
416 synthesized in conjugated form in the liver are secreted into the duodenum via the
417 gallbladder. Thereafter, they are deconjugated by bacterial bile salt hydroxylase
418 (BSH) and further metabolized by bacterial 7 α -dehydroxylase or 7 β -hydroxysteroid
419 dehydrogenase to form secondary BAs. In our obese subjects, the primary BA level
420 was remarkably increased with the increase in *Romboutsia*, suggesting impairment of
421 BA metabolism in the intestinal microbiome. As mentioned previously, the
422 *Romboutsia*-enriched microbiome had dysbiosis-like features lacking in the
423 commensal group. Notably, a concomitant decrease in Ruminococcaceae, including
424 some OTUs apparently involved in 7 α -dehydroxylation (Supplementary Fig. S5),
425 appears to cause dysfunction of 7 α -dehydroxylation. Ruminococcaceae was positively
426 correlated with carbohydrate consumption, while *Romboutsia* did with fat
427 consumption, as shown in Fig. 3E. It appears that Ruminococcaceae basically
428 constitutes the core microbiome of Indonesian people depending on a

429 high-carbohydrate diet as well as *Prevotella*. Dehydroxylated BAs tend to have higher
430 activity for both TGR5 and FXR activations^{32,42}, the impairment of BA metabolism in
431 obese subjects appeared to have an adverse impact on metabolic homeostasis. Of note,
432 a recent study has demonstrated that oral gavage of *Parabacteroides distasonis*
433 alleviates obesity and metabolic dysfunction in mice via the production of succinate
434 and secondary bile acids, suggesting that these microbiome metabolites are involved
435 in host metabolic homeostasis⁴³ as well as our findings.

436 In our T2D subjects, depletion of conjugated BAs and UDCA was obvious
437 where UDCA was statistically more correlated with FBG. UDCA and TUDCA indeed
438 improve glucose metabolism⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶. As mentioned in the results section,
439 7α-dehydroxylation by Ruminococcaceae appears to compete with 7-epimerization of
440 CDCA, resulting in UDCA. On the other hand, the depletion of conjugated BAs,
441 including TUDCA, can be explained by over-representation of *B. fragilis* as
442 elucidated by a previous study³². This study suggests that *B. fragilis* is involved in
443 T2D through its BSH function, which causes the loss of conjugated BAs, notably
444 GUDCA and TUDCA, functioning as an FXR antagonist and improving glucose
445 homeostasis. Metformin has been reported to inhibit the growth of *B. fragilis* due to
446 suppression of folate metabolism required for methionine biosynthesis³². Indeed, *B.*
447 *fragilis* was strongly reduced in our metformin-administered patients. Metformin is
448 also known to reduce proximal bile acid resorption, and it enhances the interaction of
449 BAs with TGR5 in the distal gut, leading to an increase in GLP-1 secretion and a
450 reduction in blood glucose⁴⁷. Some reports have shown that metformin administration
451 increases fecal BA levels, which coincides with the observations in our subjects^{48,49}
452 ([Fig. 4B](#)). However, it should be noted that a number of gut bacterial species other

453 than *B. fragilis* have BSH activity⁵⁰, suggesting a further underlying mode of action
454 involved in the microbiome-diabetes axis in Indonesian people. It should also be
455 noted that the subjects treated with metformin mostly did not recover from T2D, but
456 recovered the level of conjugated BAs without UDCA. Recovery of UDCA levels in
457 addition to conjugated BAs might be required for the recovery of diabetes and might
458 be a target for the therapy following metformin.

459 There are limitations to this study noted as follows. The sample size was not
460 as large enough to satisfy adequate statistical power, suggesting that more samples
461 would be required to confirm the results of this study. Information on disease and
462 treatment history were not captured precisely, not allowing us to address the link
463 between the microbiome, disease treatment, and disease progress. Moreover, the
464 sampling city was limited to Yogyakarta, suggesting that studies in different cities are
465 required to capture the status of the entire Indonesian population.

466 In conclusion, this study indicates two types of gut microbiota, each of which
467 is differently associated with obesity and T2D. High-fat diet-driven Indonesian
468 obesity is associated with *Romboutsia*-driven gut microbiome dysbiosis with the loss
469 of intestinal secondary BAs in association with a decrease in commensal
470 *Ruminococcaceae*. T2D in the Indonesian subjects is associated with an increase in
471 *Bacteroides* with the loss of conjugated BAs known to have anti-diabetic activity, and
472 this alteration is reversed in patients receiving metformin treatment. Taken together,
473 the altered fecal bile acid profiles in our Indonesian male subjects represent gut
474 microbiome status linking host metabolic disorder. The precise mechanism of the
475 microbiome's interplay with food and drug components warrants further study.

476

477 **Materials and methods**

478

479 **Ethics declaration**

480

481 This study was approved by the Ethics Committees of the Faculty of
482 Agriculture at Kyushu University (No. 17-55) and Universitas Gadjah Mada (UGM)
483 No.KE/FK/1017/EC/2018). All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant
484 guidelines and regulations. Written informed consent was obtained from all subjects
485 participating in this study. We entered and analyzed all samples and questionnaire
486 data anonymously and will publish all data anonymously using patient numbers.

487

488 **Study design**

489

490 In this study, Indonesian adult males who lived in Yogyakarta City were
491 recruited. Subject screening was performed based on inclusion and exclusion of the
492 study criteria (see [Supplementary methods](#) for more details). Physical and clinical
493 data of the subjects were measured at Universitas Gadjah Mada hospital. Subjects
494 who qualified for the inclusion criteria were further involved in the activity for seven
495 days by filling out the questionnaire, including subjects' daily notes, medical records,
496 and dietary records. On the 8th day, subjects were asked to collect their fecal samples
497 using the sampling kits provided by the researchers, and they were asked to submit
498 the complete questionnaire. Eventually, 75 subjects were included in this study. The
499 75 subjects were classified into two groups related to diabetes (T2D and non-T2D)
500 according to FBG value as well as three groups according to BMI values⁵¹

501 (18.0 kg/m² < lean ≤ 25.0 kg/m², 25.0 kg/m² < overweight ≤ 30.0 kg/m², and obese >
502 30 kg/m²). T2D diagnosis was defined by the criteria⁵² of HbA1c ≥ 6.5%.
503 Demographic and clinical characteristics of the subjects are shown in **Table 1** and
504 [Supplementary Table 1](#).

505

506 **Dietary information**

507

508 The seven-day dietary information of participants was collected by a
509 self-report recording menu, ingredients, and quantity of every meal in the week. The
510 energy (kcal) and amount (g, mg, and µg) of each nutrient were estimated according
511 to the dietary records applied to the NutriSurvey-free software, version 2007
512 supplemented with the Indonesian food database
513 (<http://www.nutrisurvey.de/index.html>). In addition, T2D subjects were asked about
514 ongoing dietary restriction therapy using a questionnaire.

515

516 **Fecal sample collection and transportation process**

517

518 The subjects collected four parts of fresh feces voided onto a sheet using a
519 small spatula equipped with a stool collection tube (76 mm × 20 mm, Sarstedt,
520 Germany). Two of them were transferred into 2 mL of RNAlater (Invitrogen, Thermo
521 Fisher Scientific, Lithuania) to preserve DNA for 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing.
522 The other two were transferred into 2 mL methanol to inactivate enzymes and
523 preserve metabolites for metabolome analysis. Immediately after collection, the feces
524 in the solution were shaken several times to be suspended in tubes containing five

525 zirconia balls, YTZ®-2.5 mm (Nikkato, Sakai, Japan). The collected samples were
526 transferred to the laboratory in UGM within 24 h. After the arrival of samples, the
527 feces in both solutions were briefly homogenized by vortexing for 30 s. Then, the
528 samples for the microbiome analysis were stored at -20 °C and those for the
529 metabolome analysis were stored at -80 °C. Immediately before transporting samples
530 to Kyushu University in Japan, 1 mL of the feces were homogenized in methanol
531 before being transferred into a 1.5 mL fresh microtube. The methanol was evaporated
532 using a vacuum centrifugal evaporator (MV-100 Micro Vac; Tomy Medico, Japan)
533 without heating. The methanol-treated fecal pellet and the feces in RNAlater were
534 transferred to Kyushu University in Japan within 24 h by air transportation under
535 temperature control (<8 °C). Then, the samples were kept at -80 °C for metabolome
536 and -20 °C for the 16S rRNA gene test until the analyses.

537

538 **16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing and sequence data process**

539

540 Bacterial genomic DNA was extracted from fecal samples using the
541 bead-beating method as described by Matsuki *et al.*, (2004)⁵³ (see [Supplementary](#)
542 [methods](#)). High-throughput 16S rRNA gene sequence analysis was performed as in
543 our previous work³. The V3-V4 region of the bacterial 16S rRNA gene was amplified
544 from the fecal genomic DNA (1 ng) using TaKaRa Ex Taq® HS (Takara Bio, Kusatsu,
545 Japan) and universal primers: Bakt_341F
546 (5-CGCTCTCCGATCTCTGCCTACGGGNNGCWGCAG-3) and Bakt_805R
547 (5-TGCTCTCCGATCTGACGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3)⁵⁴. The sequence
548 data were processed using the UPARSE pipeline in USEARCH v9.2.64 software

549 (<http://drive5.com/usearch/download.html>)⁵⁵ (see details in Supplementary methods).
550 The taxonomy of OTUs was identified with cut-off values higher than 0.8 in SINTAX
551 algorithm⁵⁶ with the reference sequence database of RDP training set v16
552 (<https://sourceforge.net/projects/rdp-classifier/>). OTU table in supplementary Table
553 S4 shows the assigned taxonomy and rarefied counts of each OTU for each sample.

554

555 Statistical analysis

556

557 Statistical analyses and graphics were made using RStudio software, version
558 1.0.153 (<https://rstudio.com/>) with R software, version 3.5.1
559 (<http://www.r-project.org>) and Stata/SE, version 12.0. To compare physiological
560 indices, bacterial relative abundance, alpha-diversities, and the level of bacterial
561 metabolites, Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare two groups. Pairwise
562 Wilcoxon rank-sum with Bonferroni or Holm adjustment were used to compare more
563 than two groups, except for the comparison of NOO among the different BMI groups
564 in Fig. 2(C) in which Welch's *t*-test was used. Regression and correlation analysis of
565 bacterial abundance and other indices were calculated by the lm function in R for
566 normally distributed independent variables, or Spearman's rank correlation in Stata
567 for non-normally distributed variables. Validation of the established linear model was
568 performed using the gvlma function in R. For the linear regression analysis,
569 regression of microbiome or host physiological indices onto PCA ordination was
570 performed with the ordisurf function from the vegan package in R.

571

572 Alpha-diversity analysis

573

574 As alpha-diversity indices, the number of observed OTUs (NOO)⁵⁷, Shannon
575 Wiener index⁵⁸, and PD_whole_tree⁵⁹ were determined at a sequence depth of 9,050
576 reads per sample with 10 random iterations using the alpha_rarefaction.py script in
577 QIIME (http://qiime.org/scripts/alpha_rarefaction.html).

578

579 **Beta diversity analysis**

580

581 PCA was performed based on the genus composition of the 75 samples using
582 rda function in the R vegan package (<https://cran.r-project.org/package=vegan>) and
583 plotted by using ggplot function in ggplot2 package
584 (<https://cran.r-project.org/package=ggplot2>). Regressions of physical and microbiome
585 indices to the PCA ordination were calculated using ordisurf function from the R
586 vegan package and plotted by using ggplot function in the ggplot2 package.

587

588 **Linear discriminant analysis effect size (LEfSe)**

589

590 LEfSe was calculated using an online galaxy, version 1.0
591 (<https://huttenhower.sph.harvard.edu/galaxy/>)⁶⁰. Bacterial composition data of all
592 subjects from phylum to OTU levels in which species are represented by OTU were
593 subjected to linear discriminant analysis (LDA) using a one-against-all strategy. The
594 taxa showing an LDA score higher than 3.0 at a *p* value less than 0.05 were selected
595 as enriched taxa in each group.

596

597 **NMR metabolomics**

598

599 Fecal samples were processed for quantitative NMR according to the method
600 previously described⁶¹. Dried faecal pellets were thoroughly suspended in 700 µL of
601 PBS buffer (100 mM, pH 7.4, in MagniSolv deuterated water; Merck, Darmstadt,
602 Germany) containing 4 mM sodium 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionate-2,2,3,3-d₄ (TSP-d₄;
603 Fujifilm Wako Pure Chemical, Osaka, Japan) as an internal standard by vortexing.
604 Thereafter, the cell debris was removed by centrifugation at 9,100 × g for 10 min at
605 4 °C, twice, and 500 µL of supernatant was filled in a 5 -mm diameter NMR tube
606 (Hilgenberg, Malsfeld, Germany). The remaining supernatant and fecal pellet in the
607 tube were kept at -80 °C for the next bile acid quantification.

608 The 400 MHz ¹H-NMR was quantitatively measured at 25 °C without
609 spinning the tube on a JNM-ECZ400S (JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The spectrum was
610 obtained by a standard ¹H-NMR pulse sequence with 90° pulse and 10 s delay time,
611 while suppressing the water signal by using a presaturation method. The number of
612 scans was 64. The obtained FID signal was subjected to Fourier transformation to
613 yield the ¹H NMR spectra, which was thereafter manually phased, baseline corrected,
614 and integrated in JEOL Delta v5.3.1. The chemical shift and integration were
615 referenced to TSP-d₄ at 0.00 ppm and 9 protons, respectively. The concentrations of
616 major SCFAs, namely acetate, propionate, butyrate, succinate, and lactate, were
617 determined according to the integration of peaks at the corresponding chemical shifts.

618

619 **Fecal bile acid measurement**

620

621 After the NMR analysis, the sample in the NMR tube was returned to the
622 tube containing the fecal pellet and then dried using a Speedvac concentrator at a
623 vacuum pressure rate of 50 torr/min without heating (Savant SPD1010; Thermo
624 Scientific, USA). BAs were then extracted from the faecal pellet by ethanol
625 containing an internal standard of 20 nM nor-deoxycholic acid (NDCA; Santa Cruz
626 Biotechnology, USA) at 60 °C for 30 min and subsequently at 100 °C for 3 min.
627 Thereafter, the ethanol extract was purified using an Oasis HLB cartridge column and
628 then subjected to LC-MSMS analysis (LCMS-8050, Shimadzu, Japan). The methods
629 in detail are described by Tanaka *et al.*⁶².

630

631 **Accession numbers of 16S rRNA gene sequences**

632

633 Raw sequence data from this study were deposited in the DNA Data Bank of
634 Japan (DDBJ; <https://www.ddbj.nig.ac.jp/index-e.html>). The DDBJ sequence read
635 archive was DRA009596 under BioProject no. PRJDB9293, containing the accession
636 links of fecal sampling data under Biosample from SAMD00204586 to
637 SAMD00204659.

638

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847

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849

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856

857 **Author contributions**

858

859 Conception and design of study: P.T., K.F., T.I., Y.K.L., E.S.R., J.N. Sample
860 collection: M.M., M.A., N.E.P.M., S.I., E.S.R. Acquisition of data: P.T., Y.S., M.T.,
861 Y.L., K.N., J.N. Analysis and/or interpretation of data: P.T., T.I., Y.K.L., E.S.R., J.N.
862 Writing the manuscript: P.T., J.N., T.I., Y.K.L., E.S.R., J.N.

863

864 **Competing interests**

865

866 We declare that we have no competing interests.

867

868 **Figure legends**

869

870 **Figure 1| Fecal microbiome variation of the 75 Indonesian adults driven by three**
871 **genera and their relation to obesity and diabetes** (A) Principal component analysis
872 plot of the 75 microbiomes of Indonesian subjects. The sample ordination and genus
873 loadings were calculated according to the genus composition of 75 stool samples. The
874 BMI and FBG of each sample donor are represented by the dot size and color
875 according to the indicated scales. The samples localized in each edge of these 75
876 samples ordination were selected and circled with the first two letters of the driving
877 genera, namely Ba of *Bacteroides*, Pr of *Prevotella*, and Ro of *Romboutsia*. The genus

878 composition was averaged within the circle and graphed in the pie charts. (B) Box
879 plot of BMI and FBG in the three clusters. Red and blue asterisks represent
880 statistically higher and lower than the other groups with $p < 0.05$ in the pairwise
881 Wilcoxon rank-sum test with Bonferroni adjustment.

882

883 **Figure 2| Fecal microbiome features associated with obesity and T2D|** (A) LEfSe
884 showing taxa distinguishing non-T2D obese subjects as compared to non-T2D lean
885 subjects. The Lefse analysis was performed using bacterial composition data of fecal
886 samples from phylum to OTU levels, in which species were represented by OTUs
887 (Supplementary Table S4). The LDA scores were calculated by using the Wilcoxon
888 rank-sum test and the taxonomic groups showing LDA scores higher than 3.0 with p
889 < 0.05 were highlighted by the indicated color on the cladogram. (B) LEfSe showing
890 taxa distinguishing T2D lean subjects as compared to non-T2D lean subjects. The
891 LEfSe analysis were performed by the same methods as (A). (C) Comparison of the
892 number of OTUs observed in each sample among non-T2D lean, non-T2D
893 overweight, non-T2D obese, and T2D subjects. The number of observed OTUs
894 (NOO) was estimated for each family and stacked in the bar graph accompanied with
895 box plot showing the distribution of total NOO. Welch t-test was performed to
896 examine the statistical difference as compared to the non-T2D lean group and total
897 NOO and the families with statistically lower NOO were marked by less-than a sign.
898 (D) Cross comparison of genus composition among lean, overweight, and obese
899 subgroups and between T2D and non-T2D subgroups. Asterisk represents results that
900 are statistically higher in the indicated group in the comparison between non-T2D and

901 T2D subgroups of the same BMI group ($p < 0.05$ in Wilcoxon rank-sum test). Letters,
902 “a” and “b”, represent those statistically higher in the lean subgroup compared to
903 the obese subgroup and vice versa within the non-T2D group ($p < 0.05$ in pairwise
904 wilcoxon rank-sum test with Bonferroni adjustment among lean, overweight, and
905 obese subgroups).

906

907 **Figure 3| Association of intestinal bacteria with dietary macronutrients and host**
908 **metabolic indices** (A) Single linear regression analysis was performed to estimate
909 correlation of each bacteria group’s abundance to macronutrient consumption of the
910 host using the dataset of non-T2D subjects. Estimates with CI95 were shown in the
911 forest plot. (B and C) Scatter plot correlating with host carbohydrate consumption
912 ratio and the abundance of Ruminococcaceae (B) and *Romboutsia* (C). CI95 range is
913 colored. (D) Multiple linear regression analysis was performed to estimate the
914 correlation of each bacterial abundance to BMI and FBG, respectively. Regression to
915 BMI was estimated using the relative abundance of the four bacterial groups and host
916 total energy consumption of non-T2D subjects. One subject (no. 303) was removed as
917 an outlier to satisfy the assumption for linear regression. For regression to FBG, FBG
918 values were converted to their inverse square values showing normal distribution and
919 were then used as independent variables. The relative abundance of the four bacterial
920 groups and host age and host BMI were used as dependent variables. The estimates
921 with CI95 were shown (upper lines). Also, the relative abundance of the four bacteria
922 and two *Bacteroides* species was solely used as the multiple regression analysis with
923 host BMI and age and the estimates with CI95 were shown (lower lines for the upper

924 four bacteria). (E) Path diagram showing correlations among the four driving bacterial
925 groups, energies from diets, host BMI and FBG. Red and blue arrows represent
926 negative and positive correlations, respectively. The number besides the line shows
927 the correlation coefficient between the connected two valuables.

928

929 **Figure 4| Comparison of fecal BA concentrations between different BMI groups**
930 **(A) and among the non-T2D group and metformin-treated and non-treated T2D**
931 **groups (B)** The distribution of each BA group concentration ($\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry feces) was
932 graphed in box plots. The statistical difference between groups was calculated by the
933 pairwise Wilcoxon rank-sum with Holm adjustment and p value lower than 0.05 was
934 denoted.

935

936 **Figure 5| Correlation of the abundance of key taxa with the concentration of bile**
937 **acid molecules in feces** Spearman correlation between relative abundance of these
938 key taxa and concentration of each bile acid molecule was investigated using fecal
939 samples of 71 Indonesian subjects. Spearman's rho value was shown. Bold letters
940 represent statistically significance ($p < 0.05$).

941

942 **Figure 6| Distribution of the key bacteria and anti-diabetic UDCAs among our**
943 **Indonesian subjects (A)** Comparison of abundance of the key taxa among non-T2D,
944 metformin-treated T2D, and non-treated T2D groups. (B) Relative abundance of

945 genera *Prevotella*, *Bacteroides* and *B. fragilis* (upper graph) and GUDCA, TUDCA,
946 and UDCA (lower graph) in our 75 Indonesian subjects ordered by the FBG level.
947 Red line indicates FBG. Red asterisks above the graph indicate subjects administered
948 metformin. Blue crosses in the bottom graph indicate the samples lacking in the bile
949 acid data.

950

951 **Figure 7| Hypothesized model of the key taxa-related BA metabolism in**
952 **Indonesian gut linking to obesity and T2D** (A) In healthy lean subjects, conjugated
953 BAs, secreted into the upper intestine are reabsorbed into the liver via apical sodium
954 bile salt transporter (ASBT). Unabsorbed BAs are deconjugated by bacterial bile salt
955 hydroxylase (BSH). Non-digested conjugated BAs, particularly TUDCA and
956 GUDCA, contribute to glucose homeostasis through the antagonistic inhibition of
957 FXR signaling. In the lower intestine, the deconjugated BAs are further metabolized
958 by bacterial 7 α -dehydroxylase (7 α -dOH) or 7 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase to form
959 7 α -dehydroxylated BAs, namely DCA, LCA, and UDCA, respectively. The highly
960 diversified commensal taxon, Ruminococcaceae, is mainly involved in the
961 7 α -dehydroxylation. The primary and secondary BAs act agonistic with different
962 affinity to TGR5 and FXR, which coordinate metabolic homeostasis. (B) In the obese
963 subjects, fecal primary BA level was increased with the increase of *Romboutsia* and
964 decrease of Ruminococcaceae. (C) In the T2D subjects, TUDCA and GUDCA was
965 decreased with the increase of *B. fragilis* equipped with strong BSH activity. The lack
966 of antagonistic activity of TUDCA and GUDCA to FXR impairs glucose homeostasis.
967 UDCA showing anti-diabetic aspect was also decreased with increase of

968 *Ruminococcaceae*. (D) Metformin elevates the concentration of total BAs by
969 inhibiting ASBT and inhibits the growth of *B. fragilis*, which eventually improve
970 glucose homeostasis.

971

973

974 **Tables**

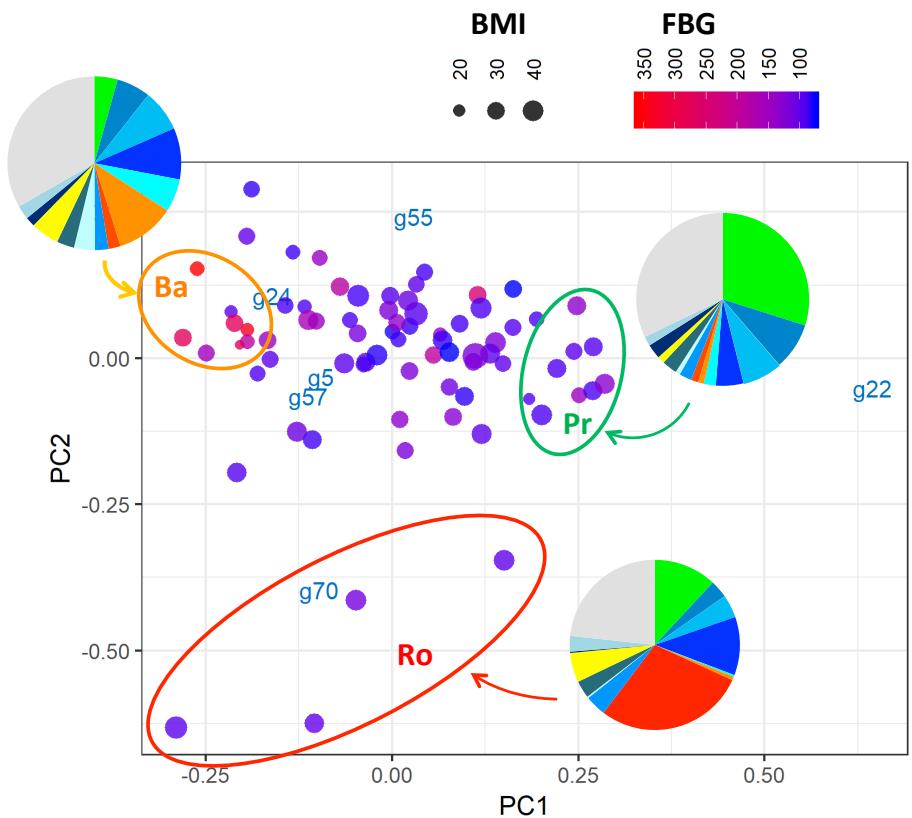
Category:	Non-T2D			T2D			<i>p</i> value ¹	<i>p</i> value ²
	Lean	Overweight	Obese	Lean	Overweight	Obese		
No.	25	7	18	11	11	3		
Gender	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male	Male		
Age (years)	47.4±8.0	42.6±2.6	44.2±6.2	52.4±7.7	52.5±5.8	46.0±7.8	0.0015	0.0824
Body height (cm)	166.2±6.1	171.0±5.4	167.0±4.2	170.2±5.2	163.1±4.0	165.3±5.5	0.4100	0.4739
Body weight (kg)	63.2±7.6	83.7±5.6	92.5±10.9	63.9±8.1	71.5±3.5	104.0±31.4	0.1500	2.31×10 ⁻¹²
BMI (kg/m ²)	22.9±1.7	28.6±1.6	33.1±2.9	22.0±2.0	26.9±1.5	37.9±10.2	0.2700	1.89×10 ⁻¹⁴
Anti-diabetic drugs (no.)	0	0	0	3	4	0		
HbA1C (%)	5.7±0.3	5.3±0.3	5.7±0.3	9.6±2.7	8.7±1.3	7.3±1.0	2.1×10 ⁻¹²	0.2961
Fasting blood glucose (mg/dL)	93.1±11.9	89.0±3.7	96.6±10.9	221.5±84.3	161.9±53.8	138.0±22.3	4.3×10 ⁻¹²	0.4084

975

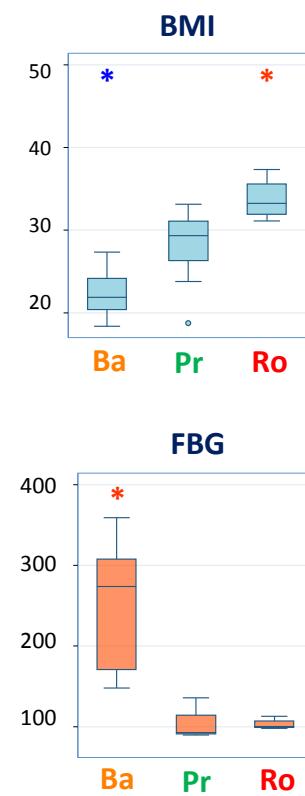
976 **Table 1| Demographic and clinical characteristics of 75 Indonesian subjects in this study** ¹The statistical significance between
 977 non-T2D and T2D groups was assessed by Wilcoxon rank-sum test. ²The statistical significance between lean, overweight, and obese
 978 groups was assessed by Kruskal Wallis and subsequently pairwise Wilcoxon rank-sum with Bonferroni adjustment.

979

(A)

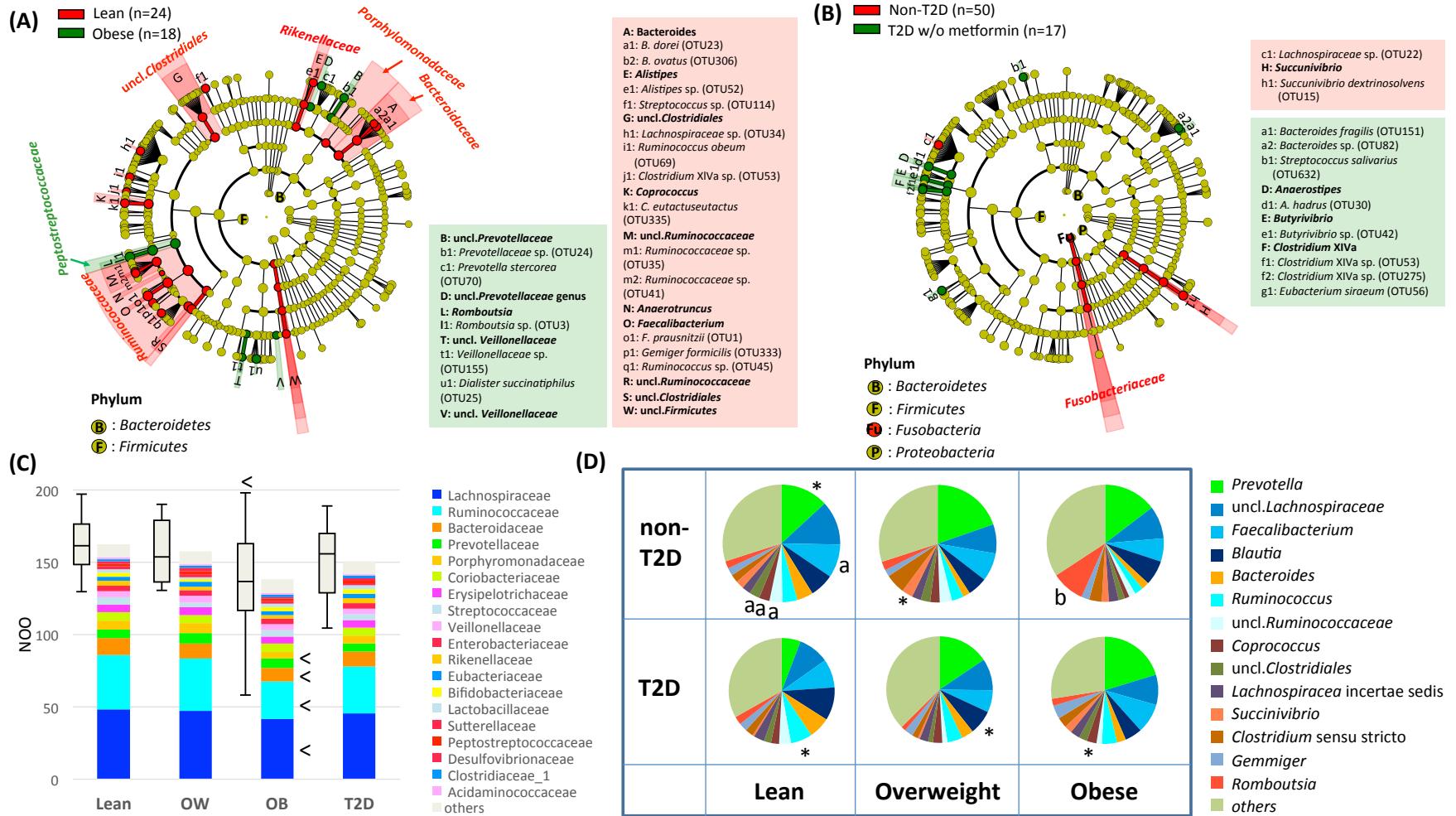


(B)



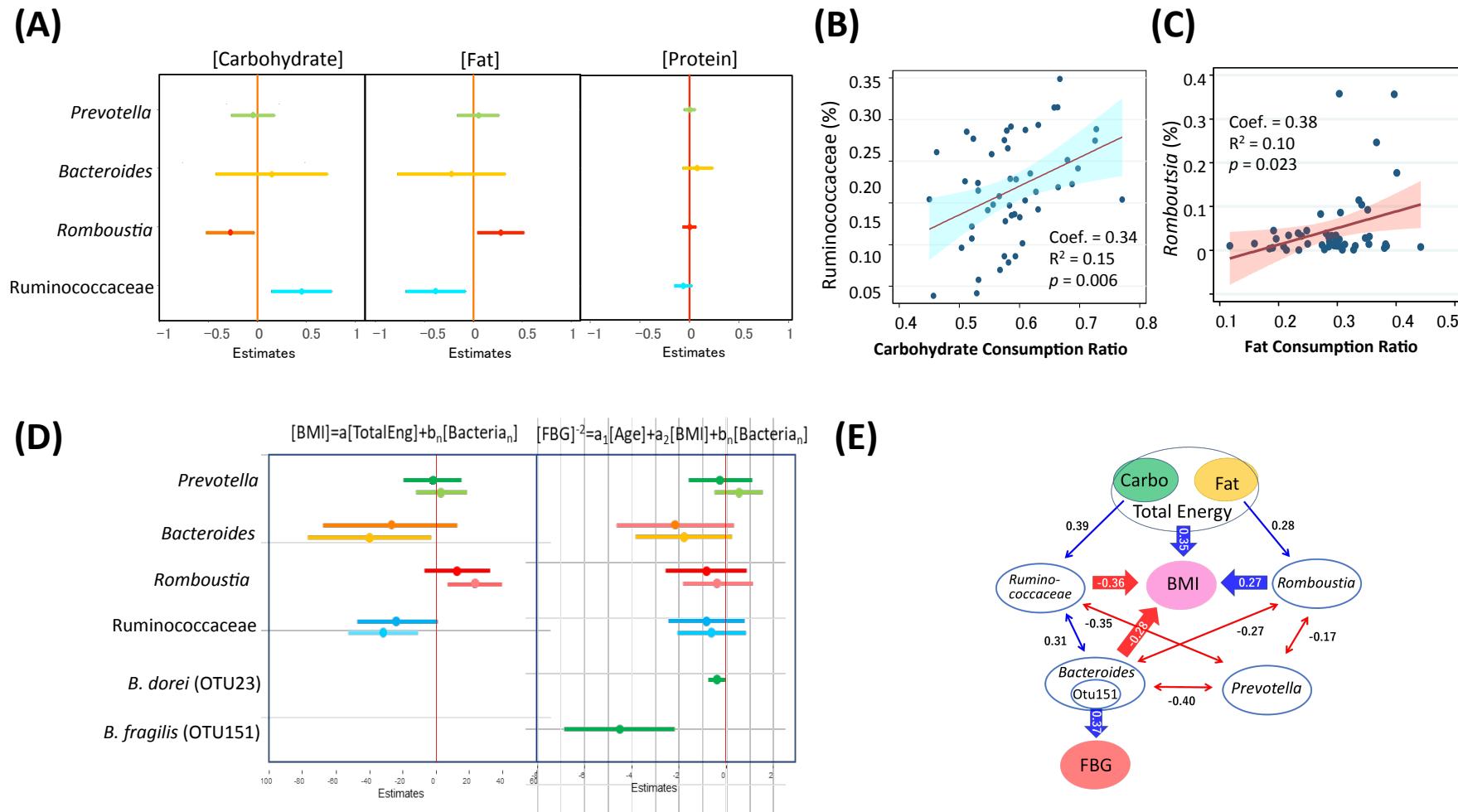
980
981

982 **Figure 1|**



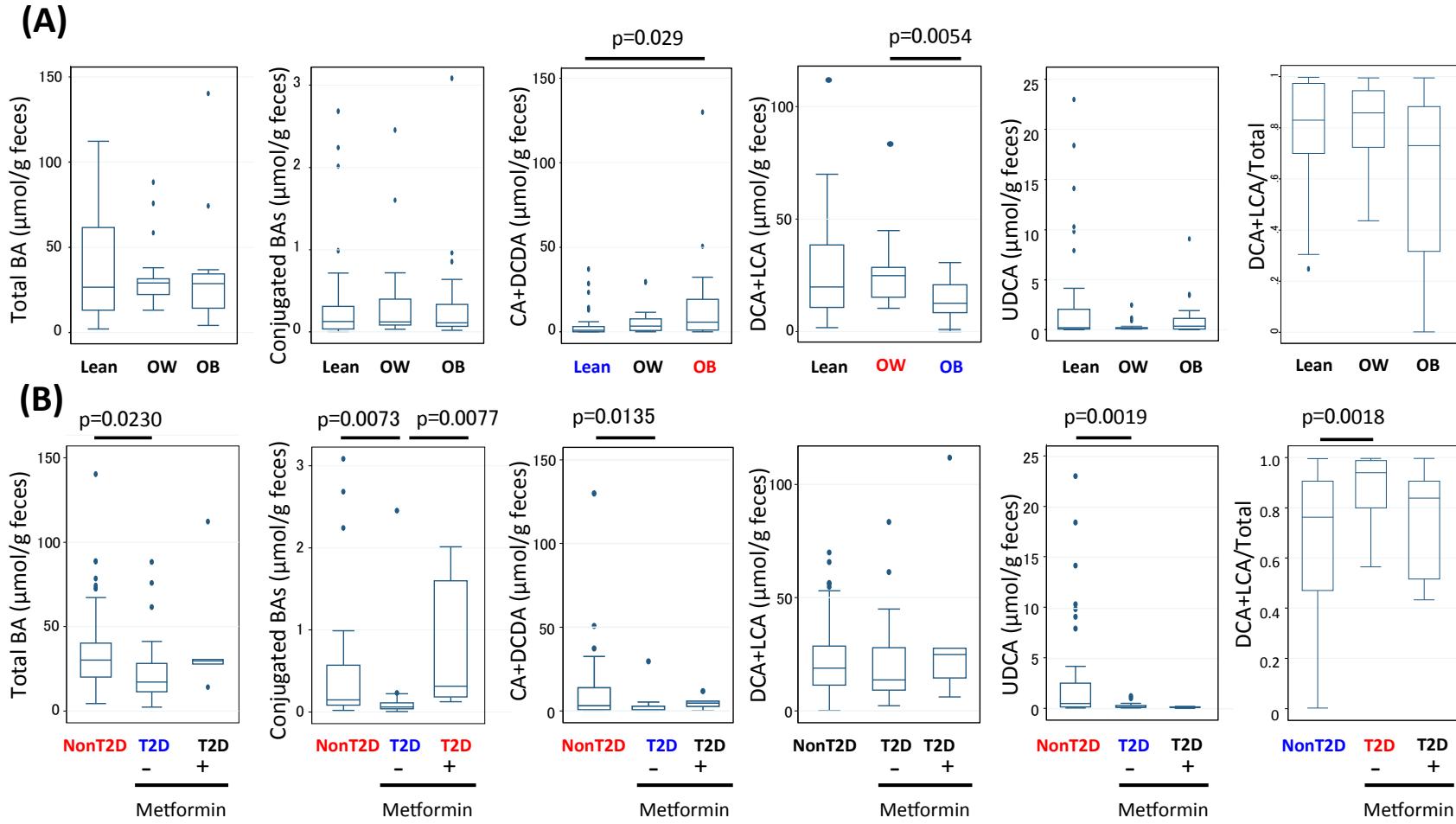
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984 **Figure 2|**



985

986 **Figure 3|**

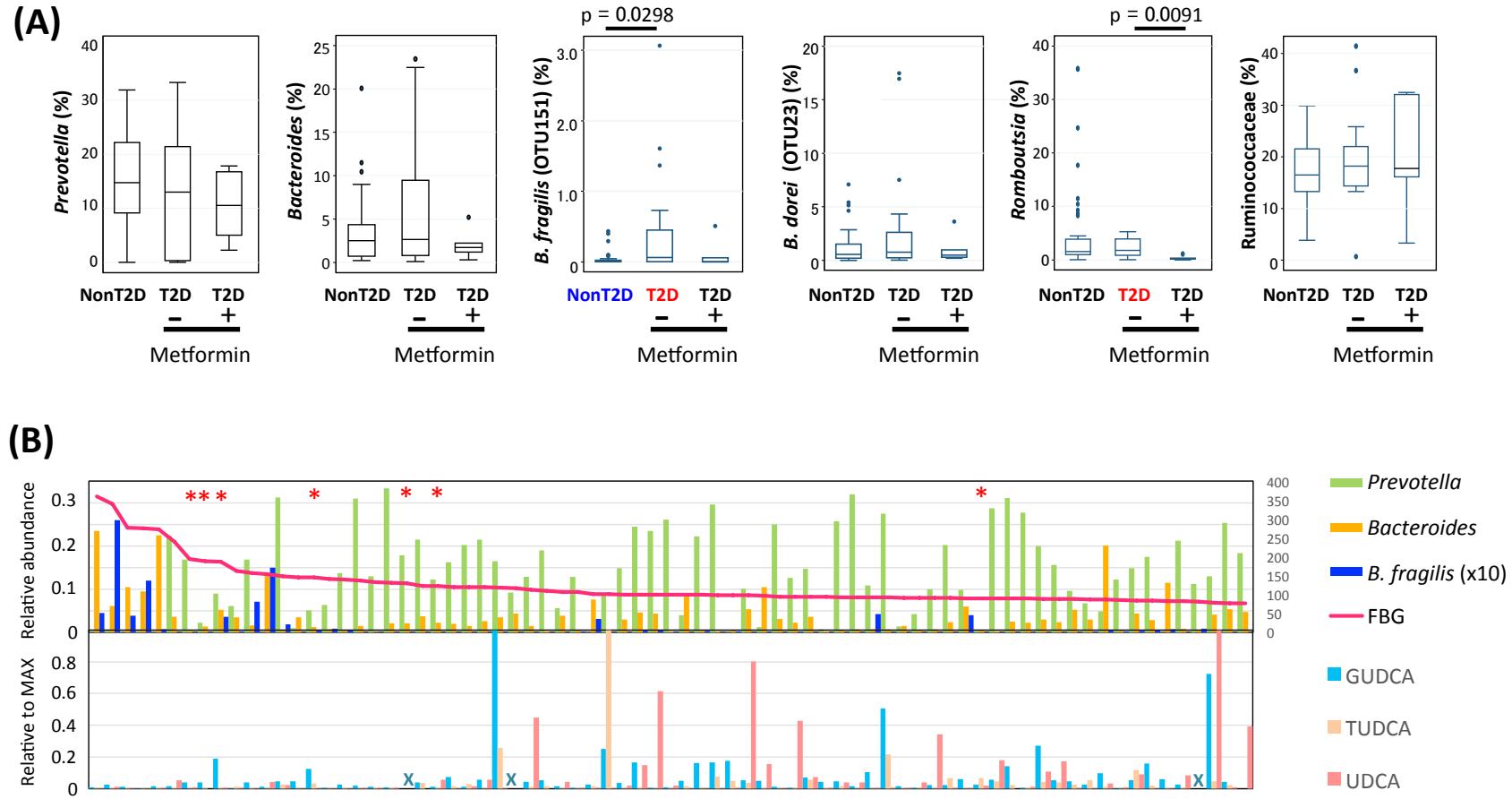


987

988 **Figure 4|**

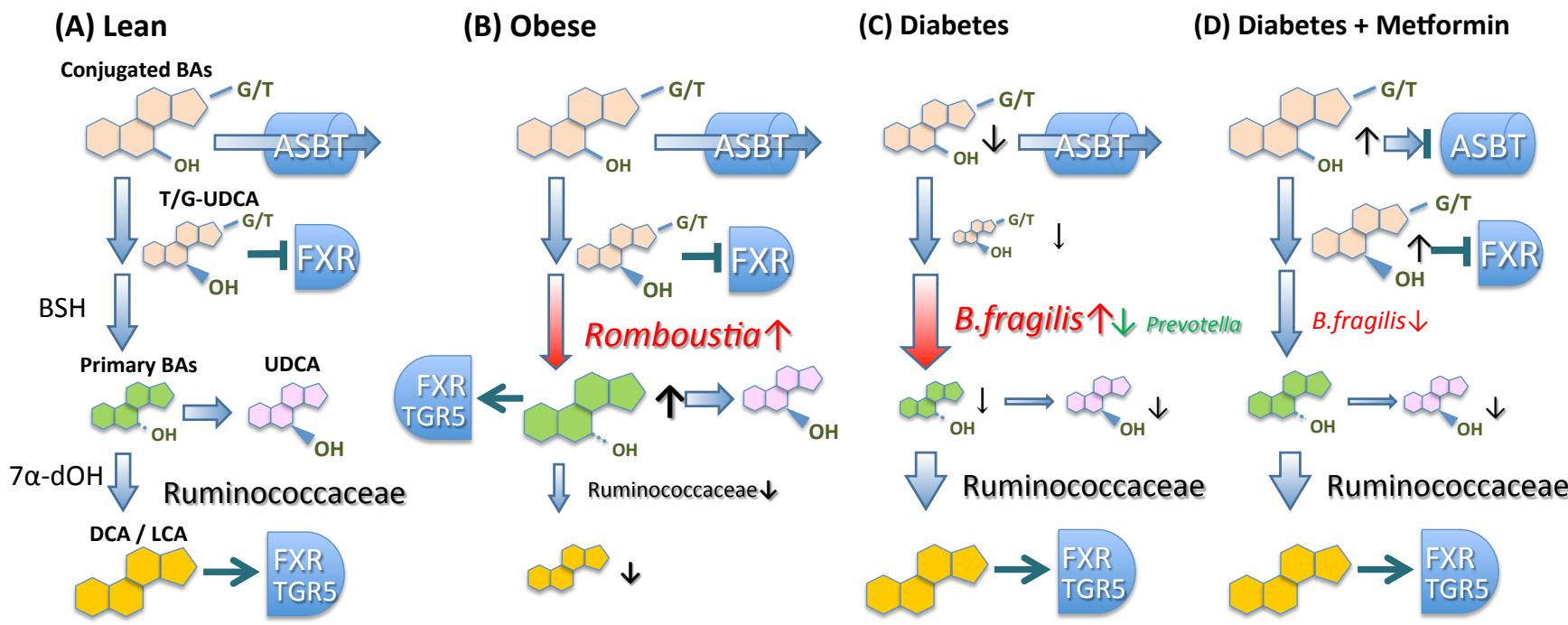
Type	BA	<i>Prevotella</i>	<i>Bacteroides</i>	<i>B. dorei</i>	<i>B. fragilis</i>	<i>Romboustia</i>	<i>Ruminococcaceae</i>	
Glycine	GCA		0.040	-0.038	-0.076	-0.120	-0.296	-0.294
conjugated	GCDCA		0.154	-0.043	-0.049	-0.178	-0.226	-0.348
	GDCA		0.103	-0.015	-0.079	-0.120	-0.263	-0.091
	GLCA		0.056	-0.092	-0.172	-0.060	-0.060	0.173
	GUDCA		0.120	-0.069	-0.095	-0.101	0.013	-0.220
Turine	TCA		0.080	0.123	0.101	-0.020	-0.028	-0.022
conjugated	TCDCA		0.106	0.008	0.029	-0.255	-0.203	-0.339
	TDCA		0.197	-0.112	-0.091	-0.265	-0.161	-0.417
	TLCA		0.194	-0.085	-0.088	-0.195	-0.061	-0.269
	TUDCA		0.169	-0.029	0.046	-0.281	-0.041	-0.473
Primary BA	CA		0.109	-0.111	-0.026	-0.218	-0.003	-0.578
	CDCA		0.212	-0.089	-0.007	-0.229	-0.023	-0.534
Secondary BA (7 β -dehydroxy)	UDCA		0.110	0.062	0.165	-0.154	-0.003	-0.314
Secondary BA (7 α -dehydroxy)	DCA		-0.078	0.066	0.036	-0.039	-0.208	0.142
	LCA		-0.140	0.168	0.118	0.010	-0.179	0.378
7dOH-ratio (DCA+LCA/total)			-0.165	0.067	-0.020	0.211	-0.014	0.514
	Total		-0.133	0.129	0.144	-0.150	-0.129	-0.154

989 **Figure 5|**



990

991 Figure 6|



992 **Figure 7|**

Figures

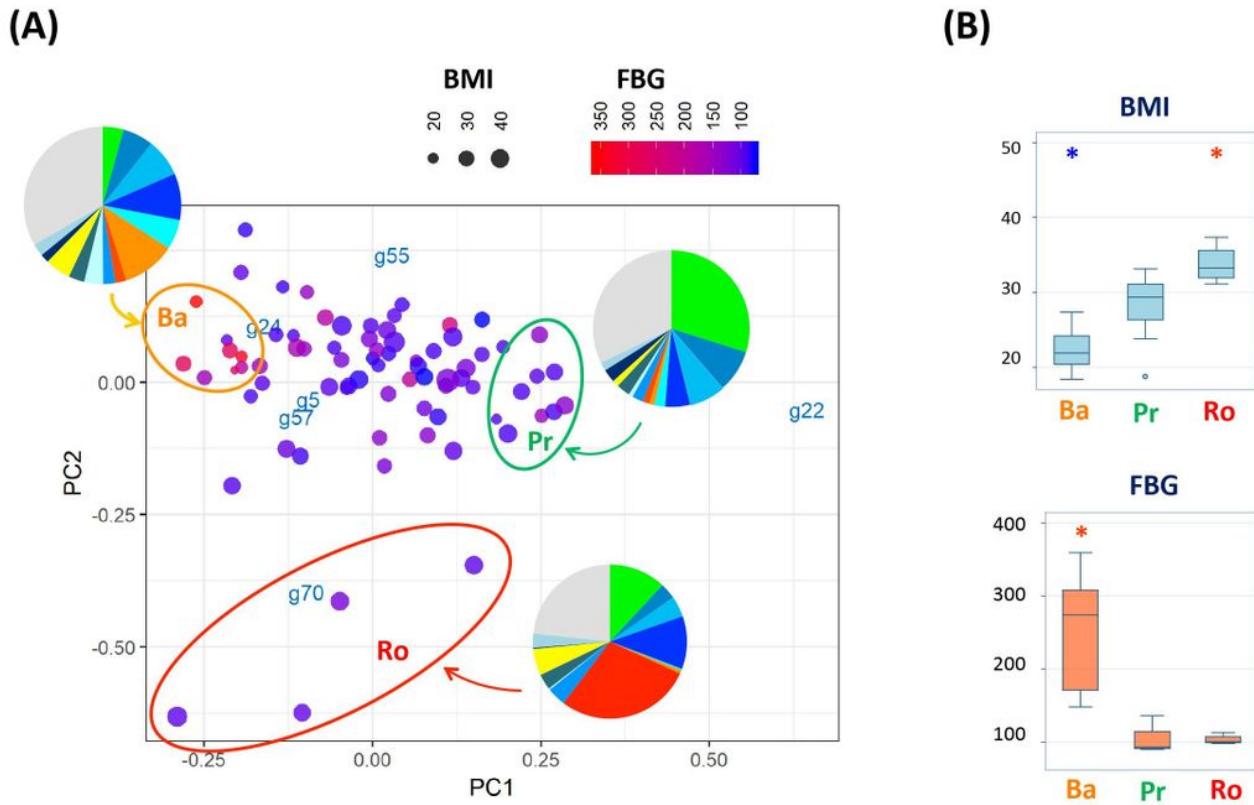


Figure 1

Fecal microbiome variation of the 75 Indonesian adults driven by three genera and their relation to obesity and diabetes (A) Principal component analysis plot of the 75 microbiomes of Indonesian subjects. The sample ordination and genus loadings were calculated according to the genus composition of 75 stool samples. The BMI and FBG of each sample donor are represented by the dot size and color according to the indicated scales. The samples localized in each edge of these 75 samples ordination were selected and circled with the first two letters of the driving genera, namely Ba of *Bacteroides*, Pr of *Prevotella*, and Ro of *Romboutsia*. The genus composition was averaged within the circle and graphed in the pie charts. (B) Box plot of BMI and FBG in the three clusters. Red and blue asterisks represent statistically higher and lower than the other groups with $p < 0.05$ in the pairwise Wilcoxon rank-sum test with Bonferroni adjustment.

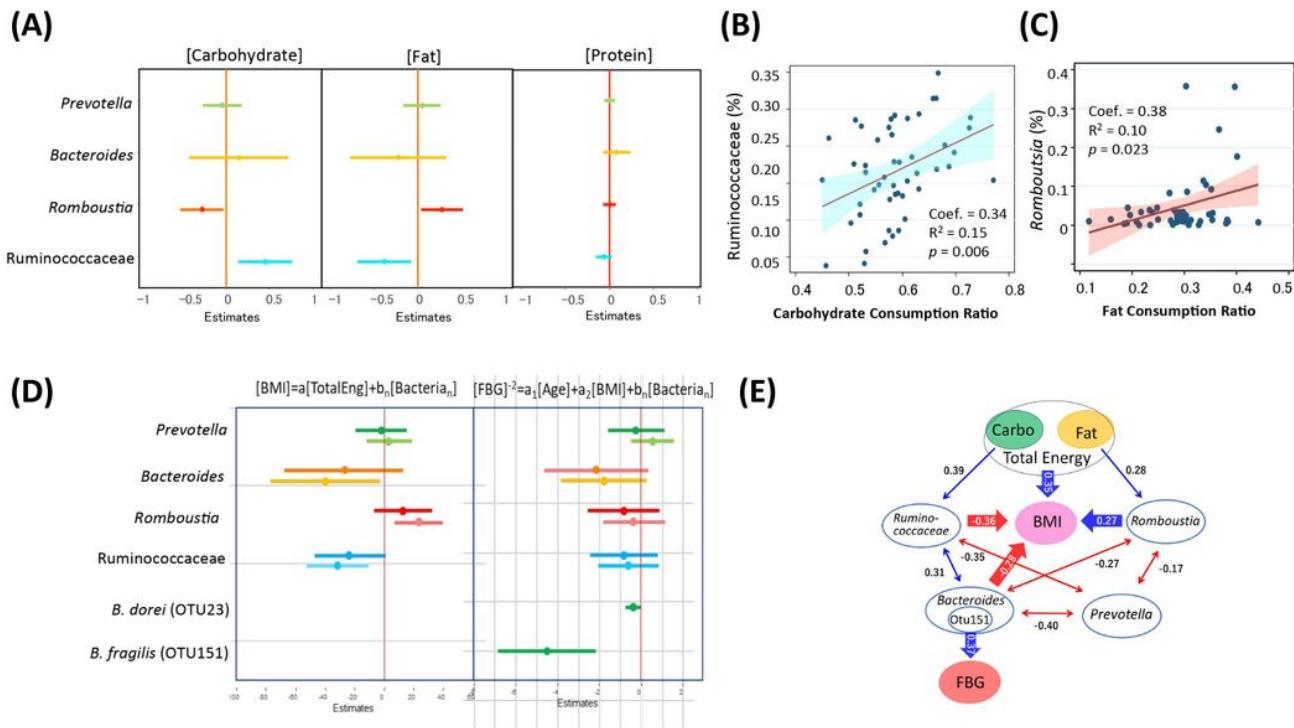


Figure 2

Fecal microbiome features associated with obesity and T2D | (A) LEfSe showing taxa distinguishing non-T2D obese subjects as compared to non-T2D lean subjects. The LEfSe analysis was performed using bacterial composition data of fecal samples from phylum to OTU levels, in which species were represented by OTUs (Supplementary Table S4). The LDA scores were calculated by using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test and the taxonomic groups showing LDA scores higher than 3.0 with $p < 0.05$ were highlighted by the indicated color on the cladogram. (B) LEfSe showing taxa distinguishing T2D lean subjects as compared to non-T2D lean subjects. The LEfSe analysis were performed by the same methods as (A). (C) Comparison of the number of OTUs observed in each sample among non-T2D lean, non-T2D overweight, non-T2D obese, and T2D subjects. The number of observed OTUs (NOO) was estimated for each family and stacked in the bar graph accompanied with box plot showing the distribution of total NOO. Welch t-test was performed to examine the statistical difference as compared to the non-T2D lean group and total NOO and the families with statistically lower NOO were marked by less-than a sign. (D) Cross comparison of genus composition among lean, overweight, and obese subgroups and between T2D and non-T2D subgroups. Asterisk represents results that are statistically higher in the indicated group in the comparison between non-T2D and T2D subgroups of the same BMI group ($p < 0.05$ in Wilcoxon rank-sum test). Letters, “a” and “b”, represent those statistically higher in the lean subgroup compared to the obese subgroup and vice versa within the non-T2D group ($p < 0.05$ in pairwise wilcoxon rank-sum test with Bonferroni adjustment among lean, overweight, and obese subgroups).

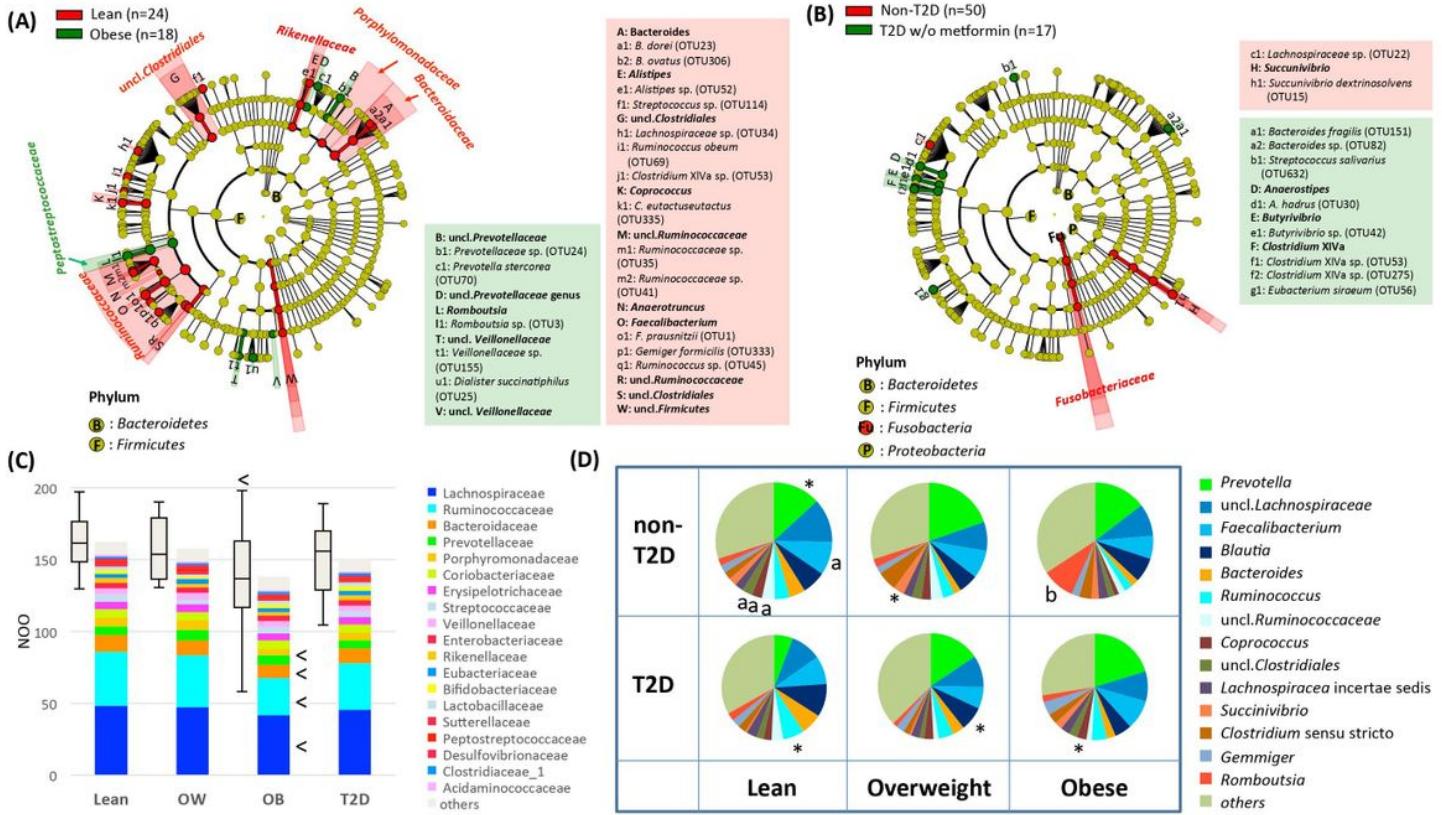


Figure 3

Association of intestinal bacteria with dietary macronutrients and host metabolic indices (A) Single linear regression analysis was performed to estimate correlation of each bacteria group's abundance to macronutrient consumption of the host using the dataset of non-T2D subjects. Estimates with CI95 were shown in the forest plot. (B and C) Scatter plot correlating with host carbohydrate consumption ratio and the abundance of Ruminococcaceae (B) and Romboutsia (C). CI95 range is colored. (D) Multiple linear regression analysis was performed to estimate the correlation of each bacterial abundance to BMI and FBG, respectively. Regression to BMI was estimated using the relative abundance of the four bacterial groups and host total energy consumption of non-T2D subjects. One subject (no. 303) was removed as an outlier to satisfy the assumption for linear regression. For regression to FBG, FBG values were converted to their inverse square values showing normal distribution and were then used as independent variables. The relative abundance of the four bacterial groups and host age and host BMI were used as dependent variables. The estimates with CI95 were shown (upper lines). Also, the relative abundance of the four bacteria and two Bacteroides species was solely used as the multiple regression analysis with host BMI and age and the estimates with CI95 were shown (lower lines for the upper four bacteria). (E) Path diagram showing correlations among the four driving bacterial groups, energies from diets, host BMI and FBG. Red and blue arrows represent negative and positive correlations, respectively. The number besides the line shows the correlation coefficient between the connected two variables.

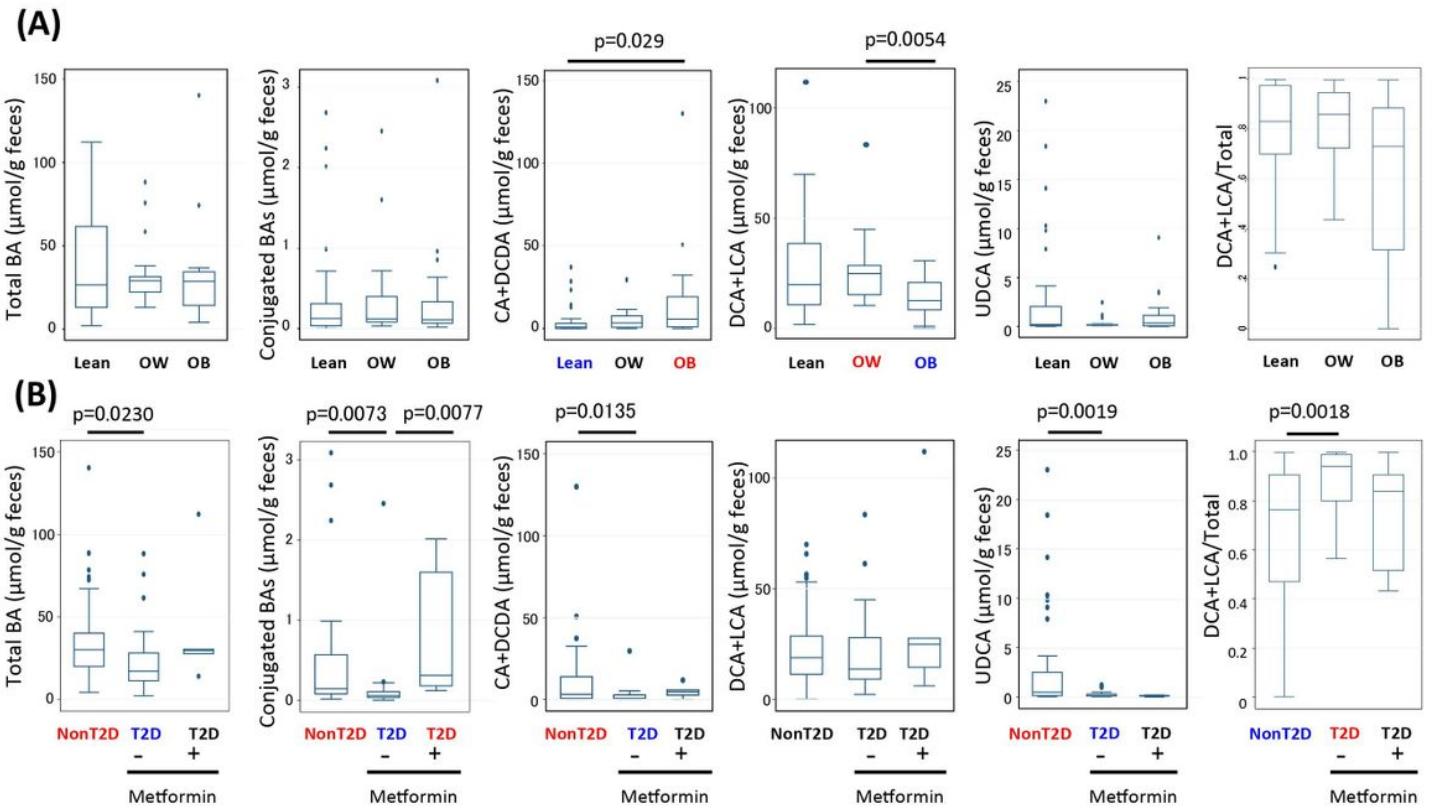


Figure 4

Comparison of fecal BA concentrations between different BMI groups (A) and among the non-T2D group and metformin-treated and non-treated T2D groups (B). The distribution of each BA group concentration ($\mu\text{mol/g}$ dry feces) was graphed in box plots. The statistical difference between groups was calculated by the pairwise Wilcoxon rank-sum with Holm adjustment and p value lower than 0.05 was denoted.

Type	BA	<i>Prevotella</i>	<i>Bacteroides</i>	<i>B. dorei</i>	<i>B. fragilis</i>	<i>Romboustia</i>	Ruminococcaceae	
Glycine	GCA		0.040	-0.038	-0.076	-0.120	-0.296	-0.294
conjugated	GCDCA		0.154	-0.043	-0.049	-0.178	-0.226	-0.348
	GDCA		0.103	-0.015	-0.079	-0.120	-0.263	-0.091
	GLCA		0.056	-0.092	-0.172	-0.060	-0.060	0.173
	GUDCA		0.120	-0.069	-0.095	-0.101	0.013	-0.220
Turine	TCA		0.080	0.123	0.101	-0.020	-0.028	-0.022
conjugated	TCDCA		0.106	0.008	0.029	-0.255	-0.203	-0.339
	TDCA		0.197	-0.112	-0.091	-0.265	-0.161	-0.417
	TLCA		0.194	-0.085	-0.088	-0.195	-0.061	-0.269
	TUDCA		0.169	-0.029	0.046	-0.281	-0.041	-0.473
Primary BA	CA		0.109	-0.111	-0.026	-0.218	-0.003	-0.578
	CDCA		0.212	-0.089	-0.007	-0.229	-0.023	-0.534
Secondary BA (7β-dehydroxy)	UDCA		0.110	0.062	0.165	-0.154	-0.003	-0.314
Secondary BA (7α-dehydroxy)	DCA		-0.078	0.066	0.036	-0.039	-0.208	0.142
	LCA		-0.140	0.168	0.118	0.010	-0.179	0.378
7dOH-ratio (DCA+LCA/total)			-0.165	0.067	-0.020	0.211	-0.014	0.514
	Total		-0.133	0.129	0.144	-0.150	-0.129	-0.154

Figure 5

Correlation of the abundance of key taxa with the concentration of bile acid molecules in feces Spearman correlation between relative abundance of these key taxa and concentration of each bile acid molecule was investigated using fecal samples of 71 Indonesian subjects. Spearman's rho value was shown. Bold letters represent statistically significance ($p < 0.05$).

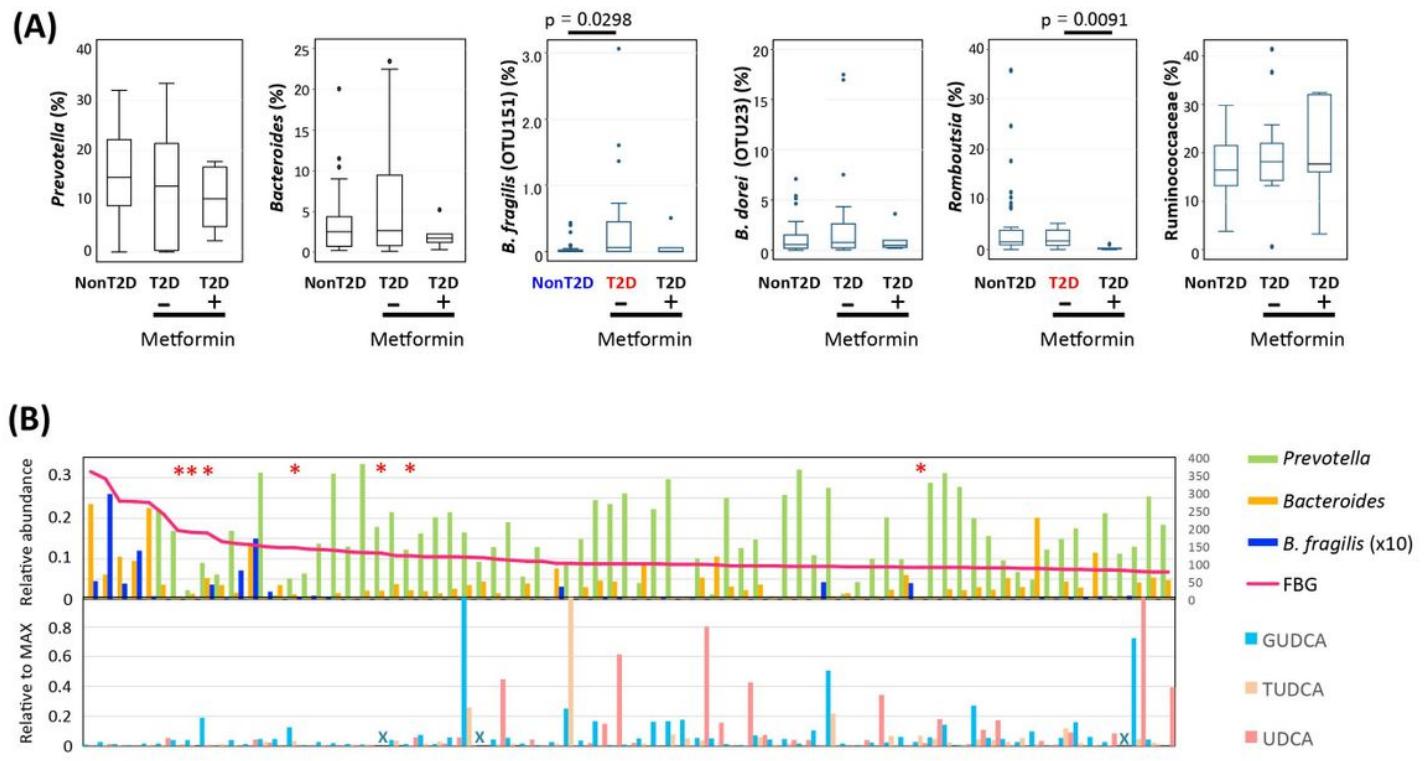


Figure 6

Distribution of the key bacteria and anti-diabetic UDCAAs among our Indonesian subjects (A) Comparison of abundance of the key taxa among non-T2D, metformin-treated T2D, and non-treated T2D groups. (B) Relative abundance of genera *Prevotella*, *Bacteroides* and *B. fragilis* (upper graph) and GUDCA, TUDCA, and UDCA (lower graph) in our 75 Indonesian subjects ordered by the FBG level. Red line indicates FBG. Red asterisks above the graph indicate subjects administered metformin. Blue crosses in the bottom graph indicate the samples lacking in the bile acid data.

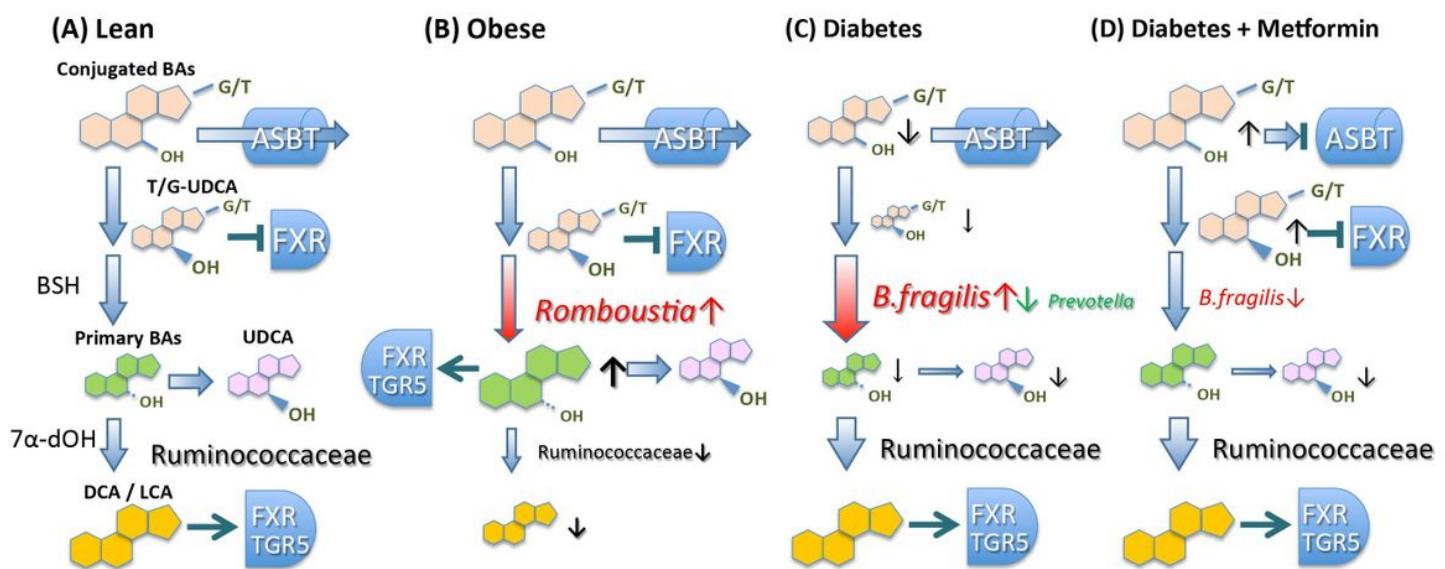


Figure 7

Hypothesized model of the key taxa-related BA metabolism in Indonesian gut linking to obesity and T2D

(A) In healthy lean subjects, conjugated BAs, secreted into the upper intestine are reabsorbed into the liver via apical sodium bile salt transporter (ASBT). Unabsorbed BAs are deconjugated by bacterial bile salt hydroxylase (BSH). Non-digested conjugated BAs, particularly TUDCA and GUDCA, contribute to glucose homeostasis through the antagonistic inhibition of FXR signaling. In the lower intestine, the deconjugated BAs are further metabolized by bacterial 7 α -dehydroxylase (7 α -dOH) or 7 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase to form 7 α -dehydroxylated BAs, namely DCA, LCA, and UDCA, respectively. The highly diversified commensal taxon, Ruminococcaceae, is mainly involved in the 7 α -dehydroxylation. The primary and secondary BAs act agonistic with different affinity to TGR5 and FXR, which coordinate metabolic homeostasis.

(B) In the obese subjects, fecal primary BA level was increased with the increase of *Romboutsia* and decrease of *Ruminococcaceae*.

(C) In the T2D subjects, TUDCA and GUDCA was decreased with the increase of *B. fragilis* equipped with strong BSH activity. The lack of antagonistic activity of TUDCA and GUDCA to FXR impairs glucose homeostasis. UDCA showing anti-diabetic aspect was also decreased with increase of *Ruminococcaceae*.

(D) Metformin elevates the concentration of total BAs by inhibiting ASBT and inhibits the growth of *B. fragilis*, which eventually improve glucose homeostasis.

Supplementary Files

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- [IndonesiaSupplementaryFigures.pdf](#)
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