

THE JOURNAL OF NUTRITION

Official Publication of the American Society for Nutrition

The Journal of Nutrition
NUTRITION/2011/157420
Version 1

Galacto-oligosaccharides have prebiotic activity in a dynamic in vitro
colon model using a ^{13}C labeling technique

Annet J.H. Maathuis, Ellen G. van den Heuvel, Margriet H.C.
Schoterman, and Koen Venema

This paper includes additional materials for review purposes. To view additional materials, click on the [\[Download Supplemental Files\]](#) link available in the Full MS Info view of the manuscript. To reach this manuscript view, go to <http://submit.nutrition.org>, and log in to your account. Enter the Reviewer Area and click on [Active Reviews](#).

Instructions for Authors: <http://jn.nutrition.org/site/misc/fora.xhtml>

Galacto-oligosaccharides have prebiotic activity in a dynamic *in vitro* colon model using a ¹³C labeling technique^{1,2,3}

Annet J.H. Maathuis⁴, Ellen G. van den Heuvel⁵, Margriet H.C. Schoterman⁶, Koen Venema^{4*}.

⁴ TNO Earth, Environmental and Life Sciences, Research Group Pharmacokinetics and Human Studies, P. O. Box 360, 3700 AJ Zeist, the Netherlands

⁵ FrieslandCampina Research, P. O. Box 87, 7400 AB, Deventer, the Netherlands

⁶ FrieslandCampina Domo, P. O. Box 1551, 3800 BN, Amersfoort, the Netherlands

¹ This study was sponsored by FrieslandCampina Domo.

² Author disclosure: A.J.H. Maathuis, E.G. van den Heuvel, M.H.C. Schoterman and K. Venema have no conflicts of interest.

³ Supplemental Figures 1 and 2 and Supplemental Table 1 are available as Online Supporting Material with the online posting of this paper at <http://jn.nutrition.org>

Running title: Prebiotic effect of galacto-oligosaccharides

Word count: 6246

Number of figures: 5, of which one (Figure 3) in color

Number of tables: 3

Online Supporting Materials: 1 Word file containing 1 table and 2 figures

Author list for indexing: Maathuis, van den Heuvel, Schoterman, Venema

* Address for correspondence: koen.venema@tno.nl

Key words: galacto-oligosaccharides, prebiotic, ¹³C labeling, gut microbiota, synbiotic

Abbreviations used: BCFA, branched-chain fatty acids, CFU, colony-forming units, FOS, fructo-oligosaccharides, GOS, galacto-oligosaccharides, I-Chip, intestinal chip, LC-MS, liquid chromatography- mass spectrometry, rRNA, ribosomal RNA, SIEM, standard ileal efflux medium, SIP, stable isotope probing, TIM-2, TNO *in vitro* model of the colon.

1 ABSTRACT

2

3 Galacto-oligosaccharides (GOS) are considered to be prebiotic, although the
4 contribution of specific members of the microbiota to GOS fermentation and the exact
5 microbial metabolites that are produced upon GOS fermentation are largely unknown.
6 We aimed to determine this using uniformly ^{13}C -labeled GOS. The normal (control)
7 medium, unlabeled or ^{13}C -labeled GOS was added to a dynamic, validated, *in vitro*
8 model of the large-intestine (TIM-2) containing an adult-type microbiota. Liquid-
9 chromatography mass-spectrometry was used to measure incorporation of ^{13}C -label
10 into metabolites. 16S-rRNA stable isotope probing coupled to a phylogenetic
11 microarray was used to determine label incorporation in microbial biomass. The
12 primary members within the complex microbiota that were directly involved in GOS
13 fermentation were shown to be *Bifidobacterium longum*, *B. bifidum*, *B. catenulatum*,
14 *Lactobacillus gasseri* and *L. salivarius*, in line with the prebiotic effect of GOS,
15 although some other species incorporated ^{13}C -label also. GOS fermentation led to an
16 increase in acetate (+49%) and lactate (+23%) compared to the control. Total organic
17 acid production was 8.50 and 7.52 mmol per gram carbohydrate fed, for the GOS and
18 control experiments, respectively. At the same time the cumulative production of
19 putrefactive metabolites (branched-chain fatty acids and ammonia) was reduced by
20 55%. Cross-feeding of metabolites from primary GOS-fermenters to other members
21 of the microbiota was observed. The main finding of this study is direct proof of the
22 prebiotic activity of GOS. In addition, its high potential for use in combination with
23 certain probiotic strains for synbiotic purposes was shown as well.

24 INTRODUCTION

25 The benefits of a healthy, well balanced gut microbiota include increased
26 colonization resistance, stimulation of the immune system, and production of butyrate
27 (1). A healthy gut microbiota should be dominated by beneficial bacteria such as
28 bifidobacteria and lactobacilli. The composition of the microbiota can be influenced
29 by external factors, for example by the feeding of prebiotics (1). Prebiotics are “non-
30 digestible food ingredients that beneficially affect the host by selectively stimulating
31 the growth and/or activity of one or a limited number of bacteria in the colon” (2),
32 thereby improving host health. Examples of prebiotics are galacto-oligosaccharides,
33 fructo-oligosaccharides and inulin (3). Fermentation of prebiotics leads to the
34 production of short-chain fatty acids which are beneficial to the host, for example by
35 providing energy for the host epithelial cells (4), inhibiting pathogen growth (3), and
36 increasing mineral absorption (5, 6). Also, a role of prebiotics in obesity and other
37 metabolic disorders has been proposed (7). On the other hand, the microbiota can
38 produce toxic compounds. For example by shifting from carbohydrate to protein
39 fermentation resulting in the formation of branched-chain fatty acids (8), hydrogen
40 sulfide, ammonia and phenolics (9, 10). The fermentation of prebiotics has been
41 shown to reduce production of these putrefactive compounds (10). Current studies on
42 the physiological properties and health benefits of prebiotics are focused on
43 immunomodulation, preventing diarrhea, their role in metabolic disorders, and
44 increasing calcium absorption (5, 7, 11).

45 Although the ultimate model for determining functional food effects is the
46 human being, this ‘model’ has various drawbacks, such as ethical constraints and
47 limitations in sampling from the bowel. Use of dynamic laboratory *in vitro* models,
48 which closely simulate the successive kinetic conditions in the gastro-intestinal tract,

49 including an active microbiota, allows comparison of different ingested products
50 under identical and standardized conditions. The TNO *in vitro* model of the colon
51 (TIM-2) has been validated using data from sudden-death individuals (12-16).

52 A phylogenetic micro-array platform such as the human Intestinal Chip [or I-
53 Chip; (17, 18)] enables fast and efficient analyses of microbial populations, allowing
54 changes in composition that occur in the microbiota as a consequence of differences
55 in diet and/or differences in health status, to be detected.

56 Use of stable-isotope labeled substrates (primarily ^{13}C) allows one to
57 unambiguously identify which metabolites are produced from a specific substrate, by
58 analyzing the presence of ^{13}C -atoms in the metabolites using LC-MS (19). By
59 measuring the ^{13}C -incorporation in microbial biomass (e.g. 16S-rRNA), using Stable
60 Isotope Probing, micro-organisms that ferment the substrate can be identified (19, 20).

61 Galacto-oligosaccharides are chains of galactose with a terminal glucose
62 produced through the enzymatic conversion of lactose with the enzyme β -
63 galactosidase. They occur naturally in human milk (11, 21, 22). Consumption of GOS
64 is believed to lead to several beneficial effects such as reduced risk of infections,
65 immune-modulating effects and improvement of mineral absorption (21, 23). These
66 could be attributed to the bifidogenic effect of GOS. However, limited knowledge is
67 available on the mechanisms in the gut that underlie these effects.

68 The aim of this study was to establish the prebiotic effect of (^{13}C -labeled)
69 GOS. An additional aim was to predict which probiotic bacteria have high potential
70 for use in combination with GOS for synbiotic purposes. This was studied in TIM-2,
71 simulating the *in situ* situation in the human adult colon. Production of (^{13}C -labeled)
72 microbial metabolites was measured using LC-MS. Changes in the composition of the
73 microbiota were measured using SIP coupled to the use of the I-Chip.

74

75 MATERIALS AND METHODS

76 *Test products.* Universally ^{13}C -labeled- and unlabeled GOS were supplied by Royal
77 FrieslandCampina Domo (Amersfoort, The Netherlands). ^{13}C -labeled GOS was
78 enzymatically produced from ^{13}C -labeled lactose (Omicron Biochemicals, Inc., USA).
79 Labeled and unlabeled GOS (Vivinal[®] GOS) were purified such that monosaccharides
80 and most of the lactose were removed, as these components are digested and absorbed
81 in the small intestine (composition: galactose, glucose, lactose and oligosaccharides
82 were 0.2, 0.3, 1.0 and 98.5% respectively).

83

84 *Test system.* The study was performed in TNO's *in vitro* model of the proximal large
85 intestine, TIM-2, as described in detail earlier (12, 14-18). Briefly, the model
86 consisted of glass units, each with a flexible wall inside. Peristaltic movements were
87 achieved by pumping water (37°C) at regular intervals into the space between the
88 glass unit and the flexible walls. To simulate the pH of the proximal colon, the pH
89 was set at 5.8 and controlled by secretion of 2M NaOH into the system. Water and
90 fermentation products were removed from the lumen through the dialysis system,
91 consisting of semi-permeable hollow fibers. This maintained physiological
92 concentrations of microbial metabolites and prevented accumulation of metabolites to
93 toxic levels. The model contained an inlet system for the delivery of food. The system
94 was kept anaerobic by flushing with nitrogen gas, which allowed for the growth of a
95 dense, complex microbiota, comparable to that found in the proximal colon of humans
96 (12, 15, 16).

97

98 *Origin of the microbiota.* To create a standardized microbiota, fresh stools of eight
99 healthy Dutch adult volunteers (age range 25-57 y; 3 male; 5 female) were obtained

100 (after signing an informed consent). These were pooled and used as an inoculum in a
101 fed batch fermentor simulating the caecum conditions as described earlier (16) except
102 that the method was optimized through the use of 200 g of pooled fresh stools instead
103 of 20 g. The standardized microbiota was aliquoted, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen
104 and stored at -80 °C until it was used as inoculum in TIM-2 (16).

105

106 *Standard Ileal Efflux Medium.* As a standard medium fed to TIM-2, SIEM (Tritium
107 Microbiology, Eindhoven, The Netherlands) was used as described earlier (24). SIEM
108 contained the following carbohydrates: pectin, xylan, arabinogalactan, amylopectin,
109 starch, reflecting the major components in a normal Western diet. SIEM was dosed at
110 62 mL/day using a syringe. Other details are described elsewhere (15, 17). Total
111 carbohydrates supplied by SIEM was 7.4 g/d, whereas 10 g/d was used in the GOS
112 experiments.

113

114 *Conduct of the TIM-2 experiments.* At the start of the experiment each TIM-2 unit
115 was inoculated with 30 mL of the standardized microbiota and 80 mL of two times
116 diluted SIEM. Normal SIEM was fed continuously through the food container. The
117 microbiota was allowed to adapt to the model and SIEM for 16 h (**Fig. 1**). After this
118 adaptation period there was a 2 hour starvation period to allow fermentation of all
119 available standard carbohydrates in the system. This period was neither intended to
120 nor sufficient to remove all non-labeled microbial metabolites (not shown).

121 Thereafter the long-term study started (a 3 d test period; $n=2$), in which the five
122 standard carbohydrates present in SIEM were replaced by unlabeled purified GOS.
123 Samples were taken from the lumen and from the dialysate starting after the starvation
124 period (set as time-point 0) and after 24, 48 and 72 hours of feeding GOS. After 24

125 and 48 h a total lumen sample of 25 mL was removed from the system to simulate
126 passage of chyme from the proximal to the distal colon. During this 3 day period the
127 microbiota was allowed to adapt to GOS. Thereafter, a short-term study started ($n=1$),
128 in which 1 gram of ^{13}C -labeled GOS was supplied to TIM-2 (Fig. 1), following
129 another starvation period of 2 h to allow fermentation of all unlabeled GOS. The ^{13}C -
130 labeled GOS was added as a bolus and was the only substrate. No SIEM was added
131 during the subsequent 8 h. Samples were taken from both lumen and dialysate starting
132 after the starvation period (time-point 74) and 1, 2, 4 and 8 h after the addition of the
133 ^{13}C -labeled GOS. A third long-term TIM-2 experiment was performed as a control
134 (fed with the standard carbohydrates from SIEM, instead of GOS; $n=1$) to compare
135 the effect of GOS with that of the control on the production of health-beneficial and
136 toxic metabolites and on the microbiota composition (Fig. 1).

137

138 *Analytical methods.* SCFA (acetate, propionate, *n*-butyrate) and BCFA (*i*-butyrate and
139 *i*-valerate) analyses were performed as described earlier (15). Samples for ammonia
140 and lactate analyses were analyzed enzymatically as described earlier (15), and were
141 automated on a Roche Cobas Mira Plus autoanalyzer (Roche, Almere, the
142 Netherlands). Concentrations of all metabolites in the samples were calculated based
143 on calibration curves, using a series of standard solutions with known concentrations.

144

145 *^{13}C -labeled SCFA and ^{13}C -lactate.* ^{13}C -SCFA and ^{13}C -lactate were measured
146 essentially according to Meesters et al. (25), with some modifications. LC-MS
147 analysis was performed on an LTQ Orbitrap system consisting of a Surveyor AS
148 Autosampler, and a Surveyor MS pump, equipped with an LTQ Orbitrap mass
149 detector (Thermo Fisher Scientific, San Jose, USA). Separation was carried out using

150 an IOA-2000 ion-exchange column (150x6.5 mm, 8 μ m, Grace Alltech, Breda, the
151 Netherlands) at 90°C with an isocratic flow of 0.15 mmol/L benzoic acid in water (0.6
152 mL/min). Detection was carried out using atmospheric pressure chemical ionization in
153 the negative ionization mode.

154

155 *Stable Isotope Probing.* RNA-Stable Isotope Probing was performed as described
156 earlier (12, 26, 27). After fractionation the samples were analyzed with the I-Chip
157 (see below). Based on the presence of ribosomal RNA in the heavy fractions
158 (fractions 1 and 2) at t2 and/or t4 a subset of the I-Chip-signals was further
159 investigated. This subset corresponded to those microbes that had fermented ^{13}C -GOS
160 and had incorporated the ^{13}C -label in their rRNA. The signals in all fractions were
161 summed, and the individual signals were expressed as a percentage ratio of this sum.

162

163 *Micro-array analysis of the microbiota.* The composition of the microbiota was
164 analyzed using the I-Chip as described earlier (17, 18). The I-Chip contains roughly
165 400 probes, some for phylogenetic groups (*e.g. Actinomycetes*), some for group-level
166 detection (*e.g. all Bifidobacterium* species) and some for detection of individual
167 species (*e.g. Bifidobacterium longum*). Taxonomic selection was confirmed and
168 expanded based on massive parallel sequencing of 16S rDNA. For each species
169 represented on the microarray a unique short oligonucleotide sequence
170 (approximately 20 nt) from within the 16S rDNA was used, for which just one
171 nucleotide mismatch already resulted in an absence (or very strong decrease) of signal
172 after hybridization. DNA was isolated from 200 mg of the luminal samples at the start
173 and at the end of the long-term TIM-2 experiments as described earlier (17, 18). The
174 rRNA from the density gradient fractions of the short-term experiments was

175 converted to cDNA as described earlier (26). Hybridization signals were quantified by
176 calculating the mean of all pixel values of each spot and calculating the local
177 background of each spot. For each spot a signal to background ratio was calculated.
178 Spots having a minimal number of observations of more than double their local
179 background were selected for further analyses (17, 18).
180

181 RESULTS

182 *Long-term study*

183 *Production of beneficial microbial metabolites.* The absolute amount of SCFA
184 (acetate, propionate and *n*-butyrate) produced in TIM-2 was higher after 72 hours in
185 the two experiments with GOS (231 and 203 mmol, *n*=2) compared to the control
186 experiment (144 mmol, *n*=1). To exclude differences in amount of carbohydrate
187 feeding in the control (7.4 g/day; *n*=1) versus the GOS experiments (10 g/day; *n*=2),
188 the values were corrected to express SCFA production in mmol/g of carbohydrate fed
189 to TIM-2. Even then the production of SCFA was higher on GOS (**Table 1, Fig. 2**). In
190 the GOS experiments the ratio of acetate to the total SCFA was higher (70%)
191 compared to control (52%), while the ratio of propionate was lower (7% for GOS and
192 19% for control) and the proportion of butyrate was slightly lower (24% and 29% for
193 GOS and control, respectively).

194 When also taking lactate production into account, the total amount of organic
195 acids (SCFA + lactate) per gram of carbohydrates fed was on average 8.50 mmol and
196 7.52 mmol in the GOS and control experiments, respectively (Table 1). No difference
197 was observed in the ratio between L- and D-lactate (Table 1). The amount of organic
198 acids produced in this long-term experiment is the sum of the acids originating from
199 carbohydrates and those originating from protein. In the short-term study described
200 below, it was possible to determine the exact amount of SCFA and lactate produced
201 from the labeled substrate, due to ¹³C incorporation into the metabolites.

202

203 *Production of putrefactive microbial metabolites.* Because the BCFA (*i*-butyrate and
204 *i*-valerate) and ammonia come from protein fermentation, they cannot be expressed as
205 'per gram carbohydrate', but are expressed as absolute amounts. Total BCFA

206 production was highest for the control experiment (0.3 mmol and 3.0 mmol for the
207 GOS and control experiment, respectively; **Table 2**). In addition the cumulative
208 amount of ammonia produced in the control experiment was more than double that
209 produced in the GOS experiments (Table 2).

210

211 *Microbiota composition assessed using the I-Chip*. Not all probes on the I-Chip gave
212 a signal above background noise, meaning that these micro-organisms are not present
213 above the level of detection of the method (approximately 10^7 CFU/g). The I-Chip is
214 semi-quantitative due to the different sequences (G-C content) of each probe.

215 Hybridization intensity does not necessarily reflect abundance, because these G-C
216 differences result in different hybridization efficiencies. However, by comparing
217 signals before and after addition of GOS, an absolute change in numbers of microbial
218 species can be determined. The shift in signals over time from the two TIM-2
219 experiments with GOS was compared to the shift in signals over time measured for
220 the control experiment. Data is expressed as those probes that showed an increase or
221 decrease in signal compared to control (**Fig. 3**). The different shades of green signify
222 2, 10, 20, 40 or 60-fold higher signals compared to the control, whereas the different
223 shades of red indicate 2, 10, or 20-fold lower signals compared to the control. GOS
224 increases several *Bifidobacterium* species as well as all bifidobacterial species
225 recognized by the overall bifidobacterial probe (group-probe). *B. bifidum* and *B.*
226 *catenulatum* were most affected (Fig. 3). GOS also increased several *Lactobacillus*
227 species, specifically *L. gasseri* and *L. salivarius*. Not only beneficial microbes were
228 induced, but also for example *Enterobacteriaceae* and *Klebsiella*. Species/groups that
229 were reduced compared to the control include different *Bacteroides* species,
230 *Eubacterium halii*, *Prevotella* and *Lactococcus* (Fig. 3).

231

232 *Short-term study*

233 ¹³C- metabolite production. ¹³C-labeled SCFA and ¹³C-lactate were measured using
234 LC-MS. The different isotopomers are indicated by their molecular mass (=M) + a
235 number indicating the number of ¹³C-atoms in the molecule. For example, M+2-
236 propionate means two ¹³C-atoms in a C₃-molecule of propionate, whereas M+3-
237 propionate indicates that all carbon-atoms were ¹³C-labeled. The peak of fully, M+3
238 labeled lactate was produced after approximately 2 hours (**Fig. 4A**). Most (95%) of
239 the labeled lactate found was the M+3 lactate isotopomer, but also some partly
240 labeled isotopomers of lactate were produced. Comparable to lactate, the amount of
241 fully labeled acetate (M+2) produced also reached a plateau after approximately 2
242 hours (**Supplemental Fig. 1A**). Partly labeled acetate was also produced (**Fig. 4B**).
243 The major isotopomer of ¹³C-propionate was the fully labeled isotopomer (M+3),
244 whereas most of the ¹³C-butyrate was produced as M+2 (Fig. 4B and **Supplemental**
245 **Fig. 1B and 1C, respectively**).

246

247 *Stable isotope probing.* After density-gradient centrifugation and fractionation (26)
248 samples were analyzed using the I-Chip. The signals in all fractions (1 [heavy] to 8
249 [light]) were summed, and the individual signals were expressed as the percentage
250 ratio of this sum. This made it possible to see shifts in the density of the rRNA,
251 indicative of incorporation of the ¹³C-label in the RNA. Probes, that corresponded to
252 the microbes that had incorporated the label in their rRNA, were investigated in more
253 depth (Fig. 3; probes indicated with a +). For *B. bifidum* (**Fig. 5A**), the amount of
254 rRNA in the different fractions was expressed over time. On time-point 0, when no
255 label was added yet, most of the rRNA was present in fraction 4. Two hours after

256 addition of the ^{13}C -labeled GOS, rRNA was also found in the heavy fractions 1 and 2.
257 Four hours after addition of the label, rRNA was still found in fractions 1 and 2.
258 However, eight hours after addition of the ^{13}C -labeled GOS, rRNA was no longer
259 detected in fraction 1 (Fig. 5A). This indicated dilution of the incorporated ^{13}C -atoms
260 in the biomass. Altogether, this is indicative of *B. bifidum* being able to incorporate
261 the ^{13}C -label into its biomass, indicating that *B. bifidum* was directly stimulated by
262 GOS. Other representative results are shown for the family-probe
263 *Enterobacteriaceae* and *L. gasseri* (Fig. 5B and 5C, respectively). Several
264 bifidobacteria (*B. catenulatum*, *B. bifidum* and *B. longum* - in decreasing order of
265 importance) and lactobacilli (*L. gasseri* and *L. salivarius*) were fermenting the ^{13}C -
266 GOS (based on the incorporation of ^{13}C in their rRNA; Fig. 3 and Supplemental Fig.
267 2). Of these, *B. bifidum*, *B. catenulatum*, *L. gasseri* and *L. salivarius* were also
268 stimulated in the long-term experiments (Fig. 3). Also the genus or group-specific
269 probes for bifidobacteria and lactobacilli showed a shift in signal towards the high-
270 density fractions. The remaining probes of species which also incorporated ^{13}C in
271 their rRNA, but to a lower extent, correspond to a multitude of microbes, namely the
272 *Bacteroidetes* group-probe, *Collinsella aerofaciens*, *Enterococcus hirae*, *Eubacterium*
273 *siraerum*, the *Enterobacteriaceae*-group probe, *Vagococcus fluvialis*, *Clostridium*
274 *disporicum* and a probe covering *Salmonella Typhi* and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* (data
275 not shown).

276 DISCUSSION

277 It is not clear whether in the gut microbiota bifidobacteria are stimulated directly or
278 indirectly by GOS, or which specific species of bifidobacteria are stimulated. Nor is it
279 exactly known which microbial metabolites are produced. Although there are
280 numerous reports on the bifidogenic nature of GOS (see (21) for a recent review and
281 (28-31) for other recent material), the evidence that bifidobacteria (and lactobacilli)
282 are stimulated by GOS is indirect. Therefore, we studied this using a stable-isotope
283 approach, allowing the unambiguous identification of microbes involved in
284 fermentation of the labeled substrates and the metabolites that are produced from it.
285 We have shown, in previous experiments, that shifts in the composition of the
286 microbiota in TIM-2 over a period of 3 days are predictive for what appears over
287 longer periods of time (16). SIP allows linking of the phylogenetic identity of a
288 micro-organism with its ecological function in a complex microbial community (12,
289 26). SIP results were interpreted in combination with the phylogenetic micro-array I-
290 Chip (17, 18). qRT-PCR using the 16S rRNA gene as the target gene for amplification
291 showed that there is a linear relationship between the signal on the I-Chip and the
292 number of cells present over at least four orders of magnitude (unpublished data;
293 $R^2=0.93$). Label incorporation was highest after 2-4 hours, indicating fast
294 fermentation of GOS. After 8 hours there was already dilution of the incorporated
295 ^{13}C -atoms in the biomass. Based on the incorporation of ^{13}C in their rRNA, *B. bifidum*,
296 *B. catenulatum*, *L. gasseri* and *L. salivarius* especially fermented the ^{13}C -GOS.
297 However, ^{13}C incorporation in the rRNA was found for a multitude of other microbes,
298 albeit to a lesser extent. Examples are *Klebsiella* and *Enterobacteriaceae*, which are
299 micro-organisms very commonly found in the gut, consisting of harmless as well as
300 potentially harmful strains (32). The increase in these micro-organisms was relatively

301 small compared to the increase seen for the beneficial micro-organisms *Lactobacillus*
302 and *Bifidobacterium*. From the species/groups that were reduced compared to the
303 control, *Prevotella* specifically can be considered an “unhealthy” micro-organism,
304 especially in the oral cavity (33). Thus, we hypothesize that the microbiota
305 composition on GOS shifted the colonic environment towards a more healthy milieu.
306 The strength of the combination of SIP and the I-Chip is that it allowed for the exact
307 identification of those species that fermented GOS because only those micro-
308 organisms incorporate the label.

309 The production of mainly fully ^{13}C -labeled isotopomers of the microbial metabolites
310 indicates they are produced by direct fermentation of the uniformly labeled GOS.
311 Production of partly labeled isotopomers might indicate an indirect pathway, so called
312 cross-feeding, where several microbes cooperate in the production of the metabolite
313 (12). Most (95%) of the detected lactate and acetate isotopomers were fully labeled,
314 but also some partly-labeled isotopomers were produced. For example, M+1 acetate
315 was detected, which is indicative of the Wood-Ljungdahl pathway, which couples a
316 labeled CO_2 to an unlabeled CO_2 (through formate). The major butyrate isotopomer
317 was produced as M+2. This can be produced by coupling of a fully-labeled and an
318 unlabeled acetate in a cross-feeding reaction, or by conversion of lactate to butyrate
319 by butyrogenic microbes, such as *Clostridium* species (34). Due to the fact that ^{13}C -
320 lactate and ^{13}C -acetate production reached their plateaus after 2 hours we concluded
321 that the ^{13}C -GOS was completely fermented after 2 hours, in agreement with the label
322 incorporation in the biomass. However, even after 8 hours, label was still being
323 incorporated in ^{13}C -labeled propionate and butyrate. The production of these did not
324 start directly after intake of the ^{13}C -labeled GOS, but only after a delay of
325 approximately 1 hour, again indicative of cross-feeding. The production of lactate

326 corresponded perfectly to the stimulation of bifidobacteria and lactobacilli by GOS. In
327 addition, the acetate production can be explained (in part) by its production by
328 bifidobacteria, as this genus produces almost equal amounts of lactate and acetate
329 during fermentation of carbohydrates (35). Thus, the use of a stable-isotope labeled
330 substrate uniquely allowed the determination of the food-web occurring in a complex
331 mixture of microbes such as the colonic microbiota.

332 SCFA and lactate are metabolites considered beneficial for the host, because they can
333 be used by the cells of the body as an energy source (4, 8, 36). Furthermore, SCFA
334 reduce the pH in the colon which is known to inhibit pathogen growth (3). The
335 absolute amounts of SCFA and lactate produced in TIM-2 were higher in the long-
336 term experiment with GOS compared to the control experiment. When corrected for
337 the amount of substrate added, there still was more acid production upon GOS
338 fermentation (8.5 mmol/g) compared to the control (7.5 mmol/g). Lactate only
339 accumulates when fermentation is fast, whereas otherwise it is converted into other
340 SCFA (primarily propionate and butyrate) and does not accumulate (34). Thus, lactate
341 accumulation during the GOS experiments corroborates that GOS was fermented
342 quickly. The amount of organic acids produced in the long-term study was the sum of
343 acids originating from carbohydrates and those originating from protein and other
344 fermentable substrates. Only in the experiment with the ¹³C-labeled GOS could the
345 exact amount of SCFA and lactate produced from the substrate be distinguished from
346 those produced from other, unlabeled substrates such as protein. BCFA and ammonia
347 are toxic metabolites produced only from protein fermentation, a process which is
348 generally believed to be putrefactive (8, 9, 37-39). This usually occurs when there
349 fermentable carbohydrate is no longer present. Although a healthy person can handle
350 a limited amount of these toxic metabolites, the balance of health promoting and toxic

351 metabolites produced by the colonic microbiota, is thought to be important for a
352 healthy colon. In the long-term study, total BCFA production was highest for the
353 control experiment, indicating higher protein fermentation in these experiments. This
354 is corroborated by the fact that, in the control experiment, the cumulative amount of
355 ammonia produced was more than double that of the GOS experiments. Thus, we
356 show that the addition of 10 g/day of GOS results in suppression of protein
357 fermentation, as has been shown earlier for GOS, FOS and inulin *in vitro* as well as *in*
358 *vivo* (15, 40).

359 Previously, we have tested fermentation of ^{13}C -labeled starch (12), and ^{13}C -inulin (41)
360 in the same *in vitro* model. The cumulative production of the different metabolites in
361 the experiments with these three ^{13}C -labeled substrates is compared in **Table 3**.

362 Because lactate was not measured quantitatively during the inulin fermentation, exact
363 comparison with GOS for this metabolite cannot be made. However based on
364 estimated peak-areas of GC analyses, lactate was produced in similar amounts as
365 acetate in experiments with unlabeled inulin (unpublished data). On starch there was
366 negligible lactate production. Together this indicates that GOS produced the highest
367 amount of lactate. Butyrate production was highest on starch, as expected, as starch is
368 considered to lead to high butyrate amounts in the colon (42). The sum of all
369 metabolites measured was in the same range, considering that lactate was not
370 quantitatively measured. Inulin was shown to primarily stimulate a species related to
371 *Dorea longicatena* in the same *in vitro* model when using SIP (41). In addition, RNA
372 of *Bifidobacterium adolescentis* was found to be present in the fractions with high
373 density, corroborating the bifidogenic nature of inulin. However, the GOS used in this
374 study had a clearer bifidogenic effect than the inulin previously used. Interestingly, *B.*
375 *adolescentis* seems to play a role in potato starch fermentation also, albeit a minor one

376 (12). It appears that GOS, in comparison to inulin and starch, is able to stimulate the
377 infant-type bifidobacteria (*B. bifidum* and *B. longum*) rather than the adult-type (43),
378 even when a microbiota originating from adults was used in these experiments.
379 Each labeled experiment was performed as a single experiment ($n=1$), because of the
380 high reproducibility of the computer-controlled system. However, confirmation of
381 these experiments, also *in vivo*, is required.
382 In conclusion, GOS is specifically fermented by bifidobacteria and lactobacilli based
383 on the fact that they show the highest incorporation of ^{13}C -label in 16S-rRNA.
384 Coupled to production of labeled lactate and acetate, this unambiguously corroborates
385 the conclusion that GOS is a prebiotic. Potentially, these results allow for selection of
386 species or strains from the intestinal microbiota that could be used together with GOS
387 as synbiotics. From the results obtained, *B. catenulatum*, *B. bifidum* or *L. gasseri*
388 seem particularly suitable for this application.

389

390 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

391 We would like to thank Wim Mengerink for the production of labeled GOS, Jos van
392 der Vossen and Hakim Rahaoui for performing the SIP and I-Chip analyses, and Leon
393 Coulier for LC-MS measurements.

394

395 STATEMENT OF AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS TO MANUSCRIPT

396 M. H. C. S., E. G. v.d. H. and K. V. designed research. A. J. H. M. conducted research
397 and analyzed the data. A. J. H. M. and K. V. wrote the paper. K. V. had primary
398 responsibility for final content. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

LITERATURE CITED

1. Quigley EM. Prebiotics and probiotics; modifying and mining the microbiota. *Pharmacol Res.* 2010;61:213-8.
2. Roberfroid M. Prebiotics: the concept revisited. *J Nutr.* 2007;137:830S-7S.
3. Tuohy KM, Rouzaud GC, Bruck WM, Gibson GR. Modulation of the human gut microflora towards improved health using prebiotics--assessment of efficacy. *Curr Pharm Des.* 2005;11:75-90.
4. Hamer HM, Jonkers D, Venema K, Vanhoutvin S, Troost FJ, Brummer RJ. Review article: the role of butyrate on colonic function. *Aliment Pharmacol Therapeut.* 2008;27:104-19.
5. Bongers A, van den Heuvel EGHM. Prebiotics and the bioavailability of minerals and trace elements. *Food Rev Intl.* 2003;19:397-422.
6. Weaver CM, Martin BR, Nakatsu CH, Armstrong AP, Clavijo A, McCabe LD, McCabe GP, Duignan S, Schoterman MH, van den Heuvel EG. Galactooligosaccharides improve mineral absorption and bone properties in growing rats through gut fermentation. *J Agric Food Chem.* 2011;59:6501-10.
7. Roberfroid M, Gibson GR, Hoyles L, McCartney AL, Rastall R, Rowland I, Wolvers D, Watzl B, Szajewska H, et al. Prebiotic effects: metabolic and health benefits. *Br J Nutr.* 2010;104 Suppl 2:S1-63.
8. Mortensen PB, Clausen MR. Short-chain fatty acids in the human colon: relation to gastrointestinal health and disease. *Scand J Gastroenterol,* 1996;216:S132-48.
9. MacFarlane S, MacFarlane GT. Proteolysis and amino acid fermentation. In: Gibson GR, MacFarlane GT, editors. *Human Colonic Bacteria: Role in Nutrition, Physiology and Pathology.* Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 1995. p. 75-100.

10. Rowland IR. Toxicology of the colon: role of the intestinal microflora. In: Gibson GR, Macfarlane GT, editors. *Human Colonic Bacteria: Role in Nutrition, Physiology, and Pathology*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 1995. p. 155–74.
11. Nauta A, Bakker-Zierikzee AM, C. SH. Galacto-Oligosaccharides. In: Finocchiaro ET, Cho SS, editors. *Handbook of Prebiotics and Probiotics Ingredients - Health Benefits and Food Applications*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press 2010. p. 75-94. DOI: 10.1201/9781420062151.ch4.
12. Kovatcheva-Datchary P, Egert M, Maathuis A, Rajilic-Stojanovic M, de Graaf AA, Smidt H, de Vos WM, Venema K. Linking phylogenetic identities of bacteria to starch fermentation in an in vitro model of the large intestine by RNA-based stable isotope probing. *Environ Microbiol*. 2009;11:914-26.
13. Minekus M. Development and validation of a dynamic model of the gastrointestinal tract [PhD thesis]. Utrecht; ISBN 90-393-1666-X: University Utrecht; 1998.
14. Minekus M, Smeets-Peeters M, Bernalier A, Marol-Bonnin S, Havenaar R, Marteau P, Alric M, Fonty G, Huis in't Veld JH. A computer-controlled system to simulate conditions of the large intestine with peristaltic mixing, water absorption and absorption of fermentation products. *Appl Microbiol Biotechnol*. 1999;53:108-14.
15. van Nuenen MHMC, Meyer PD, Venema K. The effect of various inulins and *Clostridium difficile* on the metabolic activity of the human colonic microbiota in vitro. *Microb Ecol Health Dis*. 2003;15:137-44.
16. Venema K, van Nuenen HMC, Smeets-Peeters M, Minekus M, Havenaar R. TNO's in vitro large intestinal model: an excellent screening tool for functional food and pharmaceutical research. *Ernährung/Nutrition* 2000;24:558-64.

17. Maathuis A, Hoffman A, Evans A, Sanders L, Venema K. The effect of the undigested fraction of maize products on the activity and composition of the microbiota determined in a dynamic in vitro model of the human proximal large intestine. *J Am Coll Nutr.* 2009;28:657-66.
18. Rose DJ, Venema K, Keshavarzian A, Hamaker BR. Starch-entrapped microspheres show a beneficial fermentation profile and decrease in potentially harmful bacteria during in vitro fermentation in faecal microbiota obtained from patients with inflammatory bowel disease. *Br J Nutr.* 2010;103:1514-24.
19. de Graaf AA, Venema K. Gaining insight into microbial physiology in the large intestine: a special role for stable isotopes. *Adv Microb Physiol.* 2008;53:73-168.
20. Egert M, de Graaf AA, Smidt H, de Vos WM, Venema K. Beyond diversity: functional microbiomics of the human colon. *Trends Microbiol.* 2006;14:86-91.
21. Venema K. Intestinal fermentation of lactose and prebiotic lactose derivatives, including human milk oligosaccharides. *Intl Dairy J.* 2012;22:123-40.
22. Coulier L, Timmermans J, Bas R, Van Den Dool R, Haaksman I, Klarenbeek B, Slaghek T, Van Dongen W. In-depth characterization of prebiotic galacto-oligosaccharides by a combination of analytical techniques. *J Agric Food Chem.* 2009;57:8488-95.
23. Elia M, Cummings JH. Physiological aspects of energy metabolism and gastrointestinal effects of carbohydrates. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2007;61 Suppl 1:S40-74.
24. Gibson GR, Cummings JH, Macfarlane GT. Use of a three-stage continuous culture system to study the effect of mucin on dissimilatory sulfate reduction and methanogenesis by mixed populations of human gut bacteria. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 1988;54:2750-5.

25. Meesters RJ, van Eijk HM, ten Have GA, de Graaf AA, Venema K, van Rossum BE, Deutz NE. Application of liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry to measure the concentrations and study the synthesis of short chain fatty acids following stable isotope infusions. *J Chromatogr B Analyt Technol Biomed Life Sci.* 2007;854:57-62.
26. Egert M, de Graaf AA, Maathuis A, de Waard P, Plugge CM, Smidt H, Deutz NE, Dijkema C, de Vos WM, Venema K. Identification of glucose-fermenting bacteria present in an in vitro model of the human intestine by RNA-stable isotope probing. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol.* 2007;60:126-35.
27. Whiteley AS, Thomson B, Lueders T, Manefield M. RNA stable-isotope probing. *Nat Protoc.* 2007;2:838-44.
28. Walton GE, van den Heuvel EG, Kusters MH, Rastall RA, Tuohy KM, Gibson GR. A randomised crossover study investigating the effects of galacto-oligosaccharides on the faecal microbiota in men and women over 50 years of age. *Br J Nutr.* 2011:1-10.
29. Davis LM, Martinez I, Walter J, Goin C, Hutkins RW. Barcoded pyrosequencing reveals that consumption of galactooligosaccharides results in a highly specific bifidogenic response in humans. *PLoS One.* 2011;6:e25200.
30. Albrecht S, Schols HA, van Zoeren D, van Lingen RA, Groot Jebbink LJ, van den Heuvel EG, Voragen AG, Gruppen H. Oligosaccharides in feces of breast- and formula-fed babies. *Carbohydr Res.* 2011;346:2173-81.
31. Davis LM, Martinez I, Walter J, Hutkins R. A dose dependent impact of prebiotic galactooligosaccharides on the intestinal microbiota of healthy adults. *Int J Food Microbiol.* 2010;144:285-92.

32. Hancock V, Vejborg RM, Klemm P. Functional genomics of probiotic *Escherichia coli* Nissle 1917 and 83972, and UPEC strain CFT073: comparison of transcriptomes, growth and biofilm formation. *Mol Genet Genomics*. 2010;284:437-54.
33. Robertson D, Smith AJ. The microbiology of the acute dental abscess. *J Med Microbiol*. 2009;58:155-62.
34. Morrison DJ, Mackay WG, Edwards CA, Preston T, Dodson B, Weaver LT. Butyrate production from oligofructose fermentation by the human faecal flora: what is the contribution of extracellular acetate and lactate? *Br J Nutr*. 2006;96:570-7.
35. Kandler O. Carbohydrate metabolism in lactic acid bacteria. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek*. 1983;49:209-24.
36. Macfarlane GT, Cummings JH. Fermentation reactions in the large intestine. In: Roche AF, editor. *Short-chain fatty acids: metabolism and clinical importance Report of the Tenth Ross Conference on Medical Research*. Columbus, OH: Ross Laboratories; 1991. p. 5-10.
37. Hambly RJ, Rumney CJ, Cunninghame M, Fletcher JM, Rijken PJ, Rowland IR. Influence of diets containing high and low risk factors for colon cancer on early stages of carcinogenesis in human flora-associated (HFA) rats. *Carcinogenesis*. 1997;18:1535-9.
38. Clinton SK. Dietary protein and carcinogenesis. In: Rowland IR, editor. *Nutrition, Toxicity and Cancer*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press; 1992. p. 455-79.
39. Matsui T, Matsukawa Y, Sakai T, Nakamura K, Aoike A, Kawai K. Effect of ammonia on cell-cycle progression of human gastric cancer cells. *Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 1995;7 Suppl 1:S79-81.

40. Rowland IR, Tanaka R. The effects of transgalactosylated oligosaccharides on gut flora metabolism in rats associated with a human faecal microflora. *J Appl Bacteriol.* 1993;74:667-74.
41. Kovatcheva-Datchary P. Analyzing the functionality of the human intestinal microbiota by stable isotope probing [PhD thesis]. Wageningen, ISBN: 978-90-8585-685-6: University of Wageningen; 2010.
42. Bird AR, Conlon MA, Christophersen CT, Topping DL. Resistant starch, large bowel fermentation and a broader perspective of prebiotics and probiotics. *Benef Microbes.* 2010;1:423-31.
43. Lee JH, O'Sullivan DJ. Genomic insights into bifidobacteria. *Microbiol Mol Biol Rev.* 2010;74:378-416.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 Set-up of the experiments performed in TIM-2. ↓: moment of sampling; ↓↓: start of the short-term experiment.

Figure 2 Daily cumulative production of short-chain fatty acids (SCFA) expressed as per gram carbohydrate fed. Data are presented as individual values: GOS: $n=2$ (A); control: $n=1$ (B).

Figure 3 Probes on the I-Chip which show differential hybridization in the long-term TIM-2 experiments with GOS. Bacteria that build in the ^{13}C label in their biomass were measured by stable isotope probing (SIP) and are indicated with a plus-symbol. r1 and r2: the two individual long-term experiments with unlabeled GOS.

Figure 4 Cumulative amount of the ^{13}C -labeled lactate (A) and SCFA isotopomers (B) produced in TIM-2 after the 8 h short-term experiment; $n = 1$. In Supplemental Figure 1 of the Online Supporting Material additional kinetic graphs for acetate, propionate and butyrate are shown.

Figure 5. Distribution of the rRNA over the different fractions and over time for *Bifidobacterium bifidum* (A), *Enterobacteriaceae* (B), and *Lactobacillus gasseri* (C) after density-gradient ultracentrifugation. In Supplemental Figure 2 of the Online Supporting Material additional graphs are shown for *B. catenulatum*, *B. longum* and *L. salivarius*.

TABLE 1 Organic acid production in TIM-2 after 72 h expressed as per gram carbohydrate added¹

| | acetate | propionate | <i>n</i> -butyrate | lactate | % L- and D-lactate | total SCFA+lactate |
|---------|---------------|------------|--------------------|------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| | <i>mmol/g</i> | | | | | |
| GOS | 5.50, 4.49 | 0.49, 0.49 | 1.71, 1.69 | 1.09, 1.45 | 64.9% L; 35.1% D | 8.78, 8.22 |
| Control | 3.38 | 1.21 | 1.9 | 1.03 | 66.5% L; 33.5% D | 7.52 |

¹Data are presented as individual values (GOS: *n*=2; control *n*=1). In Supplemental

Table 1 of the Online Supporting Material the total cumulative amount of SCFA and lactate produced over the 72 h TIM-2 experiment is shown.

TABLE 2 Absolute cumulative BCFA and ammonia production after 72 hours¹

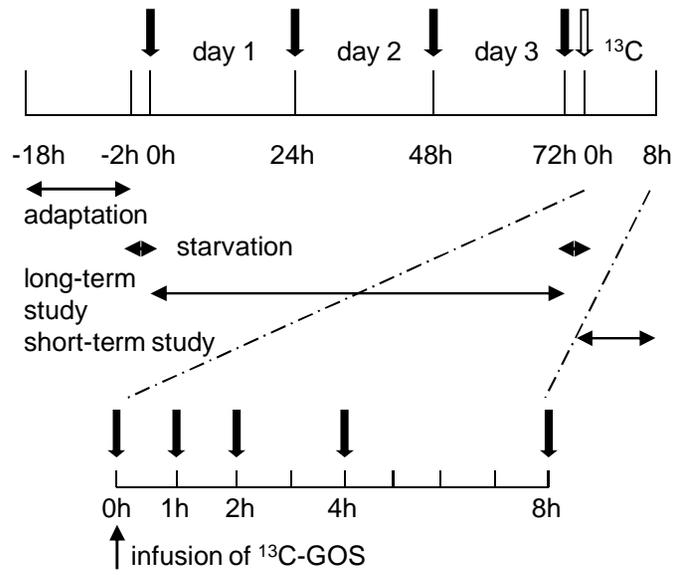
| | <i>i</i> -butyrate | <i>i</i> -valerate <i>mmol</i> | ammonia |
|---------|--------------------|-----------------------------------|------------|
| GOS | 0.21, 0.19 | 0.13, 0.10 | 22.1, 22.0 |
| Control | 0.88 | 2.16 | 47.0 |

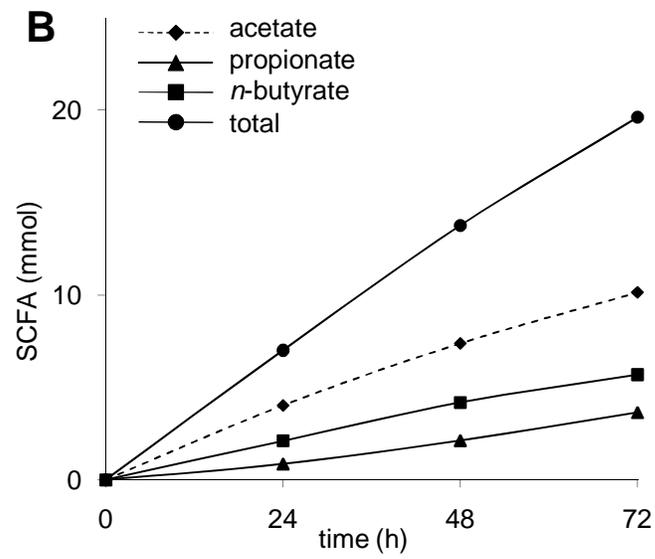
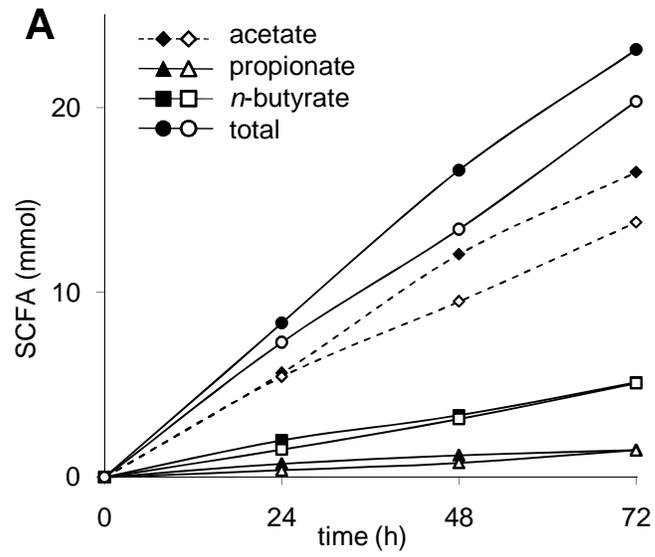
¹BCFA = branched-chain fatty acids. Data are presented as individual values (GOS: *n*=2; control *n*=1).

TABLE 3 Cumulative amount of the different ^{13}C -labeled metabolites produced from ^{13}C -labeled substrates¹

| | acetate | propionate | <i>n</i> -butyrate | lactate | reference |
|--------------------------|-------------|------------|--------------------|--------------|---------------|
| | <i>mmol</i> | | | | |
| ^{13}C - starch | ~ 5 | ~ 1 | ~ 2 | not measured | (12) |
| ^{13}C - inulin | ~ 4 | ~ 2 | ~ 0.4 | not measured | (41) |
| ^{13}C - GOS | ~ 3.2 | ~ 0.5 | ~ 1.1 | ~ 5.1 | current study |

¹ The same inoculum was used for the experiments with starch and inulin. The experiments with GOS were done at a later point in time and a different microbiota was used.





| | GOS | GOS | SIP | | GOS | GOS | SIP |
|---------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|----------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|
| | r1 | r2 | | | r1 | r2 | |
| Archeaegroup | | | | Enterobacteriaceae | | | + |
| Bacillus subtilis | | | | Enterococcus hirae | | | + |
| Bacillus subtilis | | | | Enterococcus species | | | |
| Bacteriodes species | | | | Eubacterium group 01 | | | |
| Bacteroides distasonis | | | | Eubacterium halii | | | |
| Bacteroides fragilis | | | | Eubacterium rectale | | | |
| Bacteroides group | | | | Eubacterium romicigenerans | | | |
| Bacteroides ovatus | | | | Eubacterium romicigenerans | | | |
| Bacteroides prevotella group | | | | Eubacterium siraeum | | | + |
| Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron | | | | Fibrobacter succinogenes | | | |
| Bacteroides vulgatus | | | | F.nucleatum subsp. nucleatum | | | |
| Bacteroidetes | | | + | Fusobacterium prausnitzii | | | |
| Betaproteobacteria | | | | Fusobacterium prausnitzii | | | |
| Bifidobacteriaceae | | | + | Haloanaerobiales | | | |
| Bifidobacterium adolescentis | | | | Klebsiella group 01 | | | |
| Bifidobacterium adolescentis | | | | Lactobacillaceae | | | + |
| Bifidobacterium adolescentis | | | | L.casei / L.paracasei | | | |
| B.adolescentis / B.angulatum | | | | Lactobacillus gasseri | | | + |
| Bifidobacterium angulatum | | | | Lactobacillus gasseri | | | + |
| Bifidobacterium animalis | | | | Lactobacillus group 02 | | | |
| Bifidobacterium animalis | | | | Lactobacillus sakei | | | |
| Bifidobacterium bifidum | | | + | Lactobacillus salivarius | | | + |
| Bifidobacterium bifidum | | | + | Lactococcus group 01 | | | |
| Bifidobacterium breve | | | | Lactococcus lactis | | | |
| Bifidobacterium breve | | | | Lc.lactis subsp. cremoris | | | |
| Bifidobacterium catenulatum | | | | Microbacteriaceae | | | |
| Bifidobacterium catenulatum | | | + | Micrococcaceae | | | |
| B.catenulatum group | | | + | Mollicutes | | | |
| Bifidobacterium dentium | | | | Nitrospirae | | | |
| Bifidobacterium dentium | | | | Prevotella bivia | | | |
| Bifidobacterium group 01 | | | | Prevotella group 08 | | | |
| Bifidobacterium group 02 | | | + | Ruminococcus albus | | | |
| Bifidobacterium longum | | | | Ruminococcus bromii | | | |
| Bifidobacterium longum | | | | Ruminococcus bromii | | | |
| Bifidobacterium longum | | | + | Ruminococcus clostridium grp 01 | | | |
| Bifidobacterium species | | | + | Ruminococcus obeum | | | |
| Campylobacter coli / jejuni | | | | Ruminococcus productus | | | |
| Clostridium disporicum | | | + | Salmonella Typhi / Kl.pneumoniae | | | + |
| Clostridium paraputrificum | | | | Staphylococcus aureus | | | |
| Collinsella aerofaciens | | | + | Staphylococcus saprophyticus | | | |
| Collinsella aerofaciens | | | | Streptococcus group 04 | | | |
| Coriobacteriaceae | | | | Streptococcus group | | | |
| E.cloacae / Serratia marcesens | | | | Vagococcus fluvialis | | | + |
| E.cloacae / Ser.marc/ Sal.Typhi | | | | Vagococcus species | | | + |
| E.cloacae / Ser.marc/ Sal.Typhi | | | | Yersinia enterocolitica | | | |

Fold lower : <2 <10 <20 Fold higher : >2 >10 >20 >40 >60

