Turicibacter **modifies host bile acids and lipids in a strain-specific manner**

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<u>ABSTRACT</u>

Bacteria from the *Turicibacter* genus are prominent members of the mammalian gut microbiota

and are associated with alterations in dietary fat and body weight, but the specific connections

between these symbionts and host physiology are poorly understood. We genomically and

phenotypically characterized a diverse set of mouse- and human-derived *Turicibacter* strains,

and found they group into three clades that differ in their transformations of bile acids. We

identified *Turicibacter* bile salt hydrolases that confer strain-specific differences in bile

deconjugation. Colonization with individual *Turicibacter* strains led to changes in host bile acid

profiles, generally aligning with those produced *in vitro*. Further, colonizing mice with another

bacterium expressing bile-modifying genes from these strains decreased serum cholesterol,

triglycerides, and adipose tissue mass. This work identifies genes that enable diverse

Turicibacter strains to differentially modify host bile acids and lipid metabolism, and positions

multiple *Turicibacter* strains as candidates for altering host fat biology.

MAIN TEXT

Introduction

The gut microbiota forms complex relationships with its host organism, modulating broad aspects of host physiology including metabolism[1,2] and neurobiology[3,4]. Often, the connections between the gut microbiota and host physiology are easiest to decipher through presence/absence of large sectors of the microbial community (examples in [5–7]), but in some cases, specific microbial features and/or taxa serve important roles in host physiology[8–10].

The bacterium *Turicibacter sanguinis* is the best-studied species of the *Turicibacter* genus, which is prevalent in the gut microbiota of several animals, including humans[11], mice[7], cows[12], pigs[13], and chickens[14]. *Turicibacter* can reach relative abundances of >20% in the rodent small intestine[15] and 0.5% in the human fecal microbiota[16,17]. A study of 1126 sets of twins found *Turicibacter* was a highly heritable taxon in the human fecal microbiota[18], supporting associations between *Turicibacter* abundance and host genetics found in Diversity Outbred mouse collections[19–21]. Long-standing co-evolutionary connections between this taxon and humans are suggested by the high abundance of *Turicibacter* sequences that have been measured in ancient and non-industrial human gut microbiotas[17,22–24].

The mammalian gut microbiota has long been associated with obesity[25,26], but studies often provide stronger correlations than mechanistic determinants of these relationships, indicating a further need for fundamental interrogation into connections between the microbiota and host fat[27]. Numerous microbiota community profiling studies reveal correlations between *Turicibacter* and features of host fat metabolism, such as adiposity and dietary lipids[28–33], but the nature of these correlations varies by study[34,35]. We recently observed that the type strain of *T. sanguinis,* MOL361[36,37], broadly alters the host serum lipidome while decreasing serum

cholesterol and triglycerides in mice[38]. This same strain was also reported to modify certain bile

species *in vitro*[21], suggesting at least one potential means by which *Turicibacter* can influence

host lipid status. Based on these findings, we hypothesized that there may be variations in the

functional activity of *Turicibacter* strains that account for differences in host bile and lipid

biology, providing a mechanism to connect this taxon to aspects of host physiology.

Results

Turicibacter *isolates separate into genetically distinguishable strains*

To better understand the diversity within the *Turicibacter* genus, we gathered nine

isolates from the fecal microbiotas of mice and humans that had been identified as *T. sanguinis*

based on their 16S rRNA gene sequence (97% full length 16S rRNA gene sequence similarity

cutoff, **Supplementary Table 1**). Two of these isolates had been previously identified (human-

derived type strain MOL361 and H121, which was derived from contaminated germ-free

mice[36,39]); five had been isolated but not published (human isolates 18F6, T46, and T129, and

mouse isolates 1E2 and TA25); and two were isolated from a human fecal sample specifically

for this study (GALT-E2 and GALT-G1) using an array-based isolation and cultivation platform

(see Methods). We performed shotgun short read sequencing and created draft assemblies of

each isolate genome. Comparisons of the 16S rRNA gene phylogeny (**Fig. 1a**), general genome

characteristics (**Fig. 1b**), or specific genome sequence (**Fig. 1c, d**) revealed that even with this

fairly small sample of the 16S rRNA gene-based "*T. sanguinis*" species designation, there were

at least three distinct subgroups: two from humans (exemplar isolates MOL361 and H121, with

99.3% full length 16S rRNA gene similarity), and one from mice (exemplar strain 1E2, 97.5%

and 97.8% 16S rRNA gene similarity with MOL361 and H121, respectively). Genomic

alignments indicated a substantial amount of shared DNA sequences within members of the

same subgroups (within group average nucleotide identity [ANI] all >98.3%) with the remaining

amount of genetic variation indicating smaller genetic differences between related isolates. These

within-subgroup shared sequences were distinct from members of the other two subgroups

(intergroup ANI: MOL361-H121=76.80%, MOL361-1E2=74.95%, H121-1E2=77.43%). It is

important to note that the H121-group genomically resembles the newly described species

Turicibacter bilis[13] (98.8% ANI), currently the only other named species from this genus.

Overall, these genomic differences suggest distinct evolutionary histories that correspond at least

partially with host origin.

Turicibacter *isolates differ in their impact on host fat biology and circulating metabolome*

Previous findings revealed that monocolonizing mice with *T. sanguinis* MOL361 altered

host fat tissue and circulating lipids[38]. Due to the large genomic variation between our

Turicibacter strains, we predicted that they would vary in their effects on host lipid biology. We

chose representative isolates from each of the distinct phylogenetic subgroups (MOL361, H121

and T129, and 1E2) and measured their effects on circulating metabolites and adipose tissue in

monocolonized mice relative to germ-free (GF) and conventionalized controls (*i. e.* gavaged with

complete microbiota, CONV). Compared to GF littermates, CONV mice had decreased levels of

several dicarboxylate fatty acids, long-chain fatty acids, and long-chain acyl carnitines, with a

broad increase in short- and medium-chain acyl carnitines (**Fig. 2a**). Consistent with a previous

report[38], colonization with individual *Turicibacter* strains also induced widespread alterations in

host serum lipids, with many strain-level differences in host lipid alterations (**Fig. 2a,**

Supplementary Table 2). Compared to GF controls, MOL361 increased a subset of long-chain

acyl carnitines, and decreased many long-chain saturated fatty acids and dicarboxylic acids. In

addition, colonization with MOL361 elicited significant decreases in host cholesterol (**Fig. 2b**).

Compared to GF, H121 colonization significantly increased serum levels of several medium-

chain fatty acids, dicarboxylic acids, and short-, medium- and long-chain acyl carnitines. 1E2

colonization had a smaller overall effect on host lipids, but led to a decrease in several

dicarboxlyate fatty acids (**Fig. 2a**), At the tissue level, three of the four *Turicibacter* strains

stimulated increases in epididymal/gonadal white adipose tissue (e/gWAT) mass in comparison

to GF controls, but H121 did not (**Fig. 2c**). Consistent with this, H121 showed the smallest

e/gWAT adipocyte size within fat pads (**Supplementary Fig. 1a-f**). This may be due to lower

colonization of H121 in both the small intestine and the colon (**Supplementary Fig. 1g, h**)

These results indicate that there is not necessarily a connection between changes in specific lipid

species and mass of adipose tissue.

Bile acids can affect circulating host lipids by altering fat digestion and systemic

hormonal signaling[40]. They are produced by the host and released into the small intestine, where

they promote digestion of fats by facilitating micelle formation, and can also act through

receptors like the farnesoid X receptor (FXR)[40] and GPBAR1/TGR5[41]. Gut bacteria can modify

bile acids, primarily through transformations like deconjugation. Previous reports found that

MOL361 can broadly modify bile acids *in vitro*[21], so to determine if these abilities allowed

MOL361 and other *Turicibacter* strains to modify host bile acids *in vivo*, we profiled serum bile

acids in *Turicibacter*-monocolonized mice. Though each strain uniquely impacted host serum

metabolites, we noted some patterns in bile acids across monocolonized mice in comparison to

either their GF or CONV controls. (Note: bile species with amino acid conjugants are typically

referred to as "bile salts," but for simplicity, we will herein refer to both conjugated and

unconjugated bile species as "bile acids"). Colonization with MOL361 led to a general decrease

in taurine-conjugated primary bile acids (**Fig. 3a**). 1E2 and H121 led to significant increases in

glycine-conjugated primary bile acids above normally low levels in GF or CONV mice (**Fig. 3b**).

Monocolonization with MOL361, 1E2 and H121 led to increases in the mean levels of

unconjugated primary bile acids, with 1E2 and H121 reaching statistical significance (**Fig. 3c**),

potentially reflecting bile acid deconjugation by these bacteria. Further, these patterns were

largely reflected in levels of individual primary bile acids including conjugated and unconjugated

versions of cholate, chenodeoxycholate, and β-muricholate (**Fig. 3d-k**), as well as conjugated

and unconjugated secondary bile acid derivatives of ursodeoxycholate, 3-dehydrocholate, and 7-

ketodeoxycholate (**Fig. 3l-o**). Importantly, colonization with either MOL361 or, to a less

significant extent 1E2, led to decreases in primary and secondary tauro-conjugated bile acids,

whereas colonization with H121 or T129 did not (**Fig. 3a, e, h, k, n**). Female mice displayed the

most significant *Turicibacter*-associated changes in circulating bile species, lipids, and

cholesterol, indicating sex-dependent responses to *Turicibacter* colonization (**Supplementary**

Fig. 2a-c). This sex difference has also been reported in C57BL/6 mice monocolonized with *T.*

sanguinis MOL361, albeit with a directionally different change in adipocyte size[38]. Overall,

these data demonstrate that colonization with *Turicibacter* differentially alters serum bile acids,

lipids, and cholesterol, as well as host fat mass, in a strain-dependent manner.

Turicibacter *strains differ in their ability to modify host bile acids*

Based on the large genetic variation between the *Turicibacter* strains (**Fig. 1**) and the

differences in serum lipid and bile acid profiles seen in response to colonization with different

strains (**Fig. 2**), we posited that these strains differ in their ability to modify bile acids. To test

this, we grew each of our nine isolates to stationary phase in rich medium supplemented with a

sub-inhibitory concentration of five bile species[21]: cholic acid (CA), chenodeoxycholic acid

(CDCA), deoxycholic acid (DCA), taurocholic acid (TCA) and glycochenodeoxycholic acid

(GCDCA). We then used liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) to characterize the

resulting bile transformations performed by each isolate (**Fig. 4a**). We discovered that the strains

not only differed in their ability to modify this combination of bile species, but also that these

capabilities generally mirrored the groupings identified in genomic comparisons (**Fig. 4b**).

MOL361, 18F6, and GALT-E2 deconjugated both tauro- and glyco- bile acids, and also

dehydrogenated CA and CDCA (**Fig. 4b**). 1E2 and TA25 deconjugated tauro- bile acids, but did

not detectably deconjugate glyco- bile acids or perform dehydrogenation (**Fig. 4b**). H121 and

T129 deconjugated glyco- bile acids, but did not readily deconjugate tauro- bile acids nor

perform detectable dehydrogenation (**Fig. 4b**). T46 and GALT-G1 did not have bile-modifying

capacity that mirrored their genetic phylogeny; T46 genomically resembled the MOL361 group

but performed modifications similar to the H121 group (*i.e.* glyco- but not tauro- deconjugation,

minimal dehydrogenation), whereas GALT-G1, which genomically resembled the H121 group,

performed more MOL361-like transformations (*i.e.* glyco- and tauro-deconjugation,

dehydrogenation of CDCA) (**Fig. 1, 4b, Supplementary Fig. 3**). Overall, each strain performed

at least one of three bile transformations, with some showing capacity for all three (**Fig. 4b,**

Supplementary Fig. 3).

To confirm these intragroup distinctions, we chose one isolate from each of the

subgroups (MOL361, H121, 1E2), and grew them in the presence of four primary conjugated

bile acids: TCA, taurochenodeoxycholic acid (TCDCA), glycocholic acid (GCA), and GCDCA.

This supported the same pattern seen above; MOL361 deconjugated both groups of bile acids,

1E2 preferentially deconjugated tauro-conjugates, and H121 preferentially deconjugated glyco-

conjugates (**Fig. 4c**). MOL361 and 1E2 displayed broad deconjugation of tauro-conjugates and

were able to process at least six taurine-conjugated bile acids (**Fig. 4d**). These data reveal that

while all tested strains are efficient modifiers of bile species, their specific transformations differ

in a strain-dependent manner, potentially reflecting functions that influence their differential

effects on host lipid biology.

Turicibacter genomes have different repertoires of bile salt hydrolases

The different bile modification abilities across strain subgroups suggested that each contained unique repertoires of bile-modifying genes. We annotated the strain genomes and searched for classes of genes known to perform the deconjugation and dehydrogenation transformations we observed.

Certain bacteria from the gut microbiota dehydrogenate hydroxyl groups from the steroid core of bile acids[42], increasing their polarity and modulating their affinity for host bile acid receptors[43]. We searched the *Turicibacter* genomes for homologs of the characterized 7α-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (7α-HSDH[21]) from *Clostridium absolum*[44]. This revealed genes with 57% amino acid identity in MOL361, 18F6, T46, and GALT-E2, and homologs with 59% amino acid identity in H121 and T129 (**Supplementary Fig. 4a**). Though the H121-derived putative homolog had higher overall sequence identity than the MOL361-derived homolog, it lacked certain features predicted to be critical for dehydrogenase activity, such as the analogous Asp38 that is catalytically critical for this reaction[44]. Because *in vitro* experiments showed only isolates from the MOL361 group performed bile dehydrogenation, we cloned the putative 7α-HSDH homolog from MOL361 into *E. coli* C41-pLys and then grew these cells in individual unconjugated bile acids that can be dehydrogenated: CA, CDCA, and DCA. Indeed, the protein encoded by the gene removed the mass equivalent of two hydrogens from CA (**Supplementary Fig. 4b, c**). Background transformation by *E. coli* prevented clear evidence of CDCA dehydrogenation by this putative 7α-HSDH homolog (**Supplementary Fig. 4d**), but this homolog did not act on DCA (**Supplementary Fig. 4e**), supporting its annotation as a 7α-HSDH.

Conjugation increases bile acid solubility and emulsification ability[45], while deconjugation reverses these effects, leading to decreased dietary lipid absorption. To identify

Turicibacter bile salt hydrolase (*bsh*) genes responsible for the strain-specific differences in bile

deconjugation, we first searched our assembled genomes for annotations of "choloylglycine

hydrolase," the broad category that includes these genes. Of these annotated genes, we identified

eight groups of potentially homologous sequences, and found that each *Turicibacter* strain

encodes putative choloylglycine hydrolases from at least two of the eight groups (**Fig. 5a, b**).

Isolates within the same phylogenetic and phenotypic subgroups largely shared similar

sequences (**Fig. 5a, b**). To assay the function of the strain-specific putative *bsh* genes, we cloned

and individually expressed one representative sequence from each of the eight putative

choloylglycine hydrolase groups in *E. coli* C41-pLys and measured the ability of these

engineered bacteria to perform the deconjugations we observed in our native *Turicibacter*. We

cultured the individual *E. coli* strains to stationary phase in the presence of two tauro- (TCA,

TCDCA) or glyco- (GCA, GCDCA) bile acids, then measured their ability to deconjugate these

bile acid pools. We found that *E. coli* expressing four of the eight putative *bsh* gene groups

showed deconjugation activity against at least one of the bile acids (**Fig. 5b-e**). From MOL361,

one BSH (group IV) is tauro-specific, and one (group I) deconjugates both glyco- and tauro-

conjugates (**Fig. 5c, d**). 1E2 shares a tauro-specific BSH with MOL361 (group IV), and has

another BSH (group III) with moderate activity on TCDCA (**Fig. 5c, d**). H121 has a BSH (group

II) with activity on TCDCA and GCDCA (**Fig. 5c, d**), although this was blunted when presented

with the combined four bile acids (**Fig. 5e**), potentially because of competitive inhibition.

Collectively, these findings reveal that *Turicibacter* strains contain a range of bile salt hydrolases

with deconjugation preferences for different bile acids.

Strain- and substrate-specific bile salt hydrolases from Turicibacter *differentially alter host lipid*

composition

Given that *Turicibacter* colonization broadly modified host lipid and bile pools (**Fig. 2**),

and that bile transformations have been previously shown to alter host lipids[46,47], we predicted

that expressing *Turicibacter* bile-modifying genes outside the context of *Turicibacter*

colonization would be sufficient to impact host lipid biology. To measure the individual effects

of these bile acid transformations, we expressed *Turicibacter bsh* genes off of a genomically-

integrated high expression vector[48] in the common gut bacterium *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*.

This bacterium was chosen because it stably colonizes the murine gut, and unlike *E. coli* C41-

pLys, contains a homolog of a characterized 7α-HSDH similar to that of *T. sanguinis*

MOL361[49,50], allowing the engineered bacteria to more completely mimic *Turicibacter* bile

transformations. These strains generally transformed tauro- and glyco- conjugated bile acids as

predicted based on the BSH characterization in *E. coli*, including preferential TCDCA

transformation, indicating they were capable of performing *Turicibacter*-like bile

transformations (**Fig. 6a, Supplementary Fig. 5**). However, the *B. thetaiotaomicron* strain that

expressed *bsh* (group III) from strain 1E2 more completely transformed glyco-conjugated bile

acids than the strain expressing *bsh* (group II) from H121, counter to the *E. coli* findings. This

observation led us to not use the *bsh* (group II)-expressing strain further. Additionally, we

noticed *in vitro* growth and bile transformation defects in *B. thetaiotaomicron* expressing *bsh*

(group I) from MOL361 (**Supplementary Fig. 6**), that we could compensate for by extending

the growth period to better reach cell numbers seen in shorter incubations for the other strains

(**Fig. 6b, Supplementary Fig. 5**).

We monocolonized mice with the *bsh*-expressing *B. thetaiotaomicron* strains and

assessed their circulating lipid profiles and abdominal WAT mass. We found that expressing

individual *Turicibacter bsh* genes in the *B. thetaiotaomicron* background was sufficient to

significantly alter host colonic bile levels (**Fig. 6c**) and the absolute abundance of 346 circulating

lipid species (**Fig. 6d, Supplementary Table 3**). In particular, expression of either the group I or

group IV *bsh* led to a decrease in triglycerides (**Fig. 6d, e**). Expressing the tauro-specific *bsh*

(group IV) from MOL361 also decreased diacylglycerides (**Fig. 6g**). Expressing the broader

specificity *bsh* (group I) from MOL361 also led to a decrease of phosphatidylglycine,

phosphatidylserine, and cholesterol (**Fig. 6d-f, h, i**). Despite having broad capacity for

transformation, *B. thetaiotaomicron* expressing *bsh* (group III) from 1E2 did not alter host lipid

profiles as much as the other strains **(Fig. 6d-i**). On a tissue-level, *bsh*-expression also altered

WAT storage in the colonized mice, with the tauro-specific BSH (group IV) significantly

reducing WAT mass (**Fig. 6j**). Similar to our findings with *Turicibacter* monocolonization, we

also observed a sex difference in BSH responses, with male mice showing more consistent

decrease in triglycerides in response to the tauro-specific BSH from MOL361, and females

showing more consistent triglyceride responses to the broadly deconjugating BSH

(**Supplementary Fig. 7, 8**). In all, these results demonstrated that expressing strain-specific *bsh*

genes from *Turicibacter*, especially those able to process the abundant taurine-conjugated bile

acids present in the murine intestine, is sufficient to drastically alter host lipid biology.

Discussion

Results from this study show that *Turicibacter* bacteria from the mammalian gut

microbiota modulate host bile and lipid compositions in a strain-dependent manner. We

identified and characterized five novel *Turicibacter* genes capable of performing bile

transformations (four *bsh*, one 7α-HSDH), and revealed that expression of individual *bsh* genes

is sufficient to broadly and differentially alter host lipid profiles. Further, we found that while

bile-transforming genes are present in all our surveyed *Turicibacter* strains, the specific

transformation capacity of BSH variants differed by strain in a manner consistent with host

environment co-evolution: bile acids in the human gut are a mix of taurine- and glycine-

conjugants, whereas murine bile acids are predominantly taurine-conjugants[51,52], providing

different bile environments that are preferentially processed by *Turicibacter* strains isolated from

their respective gastrointestinal tracts. This close connection between host-specific bile

composition and bacterial modifications may be due in part to the bile sensitivity previously

exhibited by MOL361 and/or the high abundance of *Turicibacter* in the small intestine, causing

these bacteria to more strongly associate with host genes for bile reabsorption and lumenal bile

levels than other bile-modifying gut bacteria[21,53–57].

This work displays metabolic consequences of colonization by specific gut bacteria and

improves the resolution of our understanding connecting specific taxa—in this case, at the strain

level—with host physiology. In rodent and human studies, *Turicibacter* relative abundance often

negatively correlates with dietary fats[29,31,58–62] and host adiposity[28,33,63], but some studies have

shown opposite relationships[30,64,65]. This could be a result of the phenotypic diversity identified

here among *Turicibacter* isolates wherein the host may experience different lipid outcomes

depending on their own specific *Turicibacter* strains, but could also vary with other features such

as host genetics and sex[21,38] (**Supplementary Fig. 2, 7, 8**). Importantly, effects of *Turicibacter*

colonization could also be influenced by biogeographic organization of an individual's

microbiota; in addition to the specific taxonomic membership*, Turicibacter* positioning in the

small and large intestine may affect host consequences from their respective bile modifications

by transforming bile pools in either section of the gut tract. Despite genomic and localization

differences between them, we found that MOL361 and H121 induced lipid metabolite changes

that indicate increases in fatty acid oxidation, suggesting that these strains at least share features

that alter host fatty acid metabolism.

Further research into *bsh* gene regulation in the *Turicibacter* genus, the relationship

between bile and *Turicibacter* colonization and transmission behaviors, as well as the native

functionality of the putative BSH and 7α-HSDH homologs we tested, will further explain how

these bacteria wields their bile modifications in the intestine. Interestingly, several of the *in vitro*

bile transformations, specifically increases in unconjugated bile acids, were generalizable

between our *in vitro* characterizations and *Turicibacter* colonization, whereas concurrent *in vivo*

increases in certain conjugated bile acids seen during 1E2 and H121 colonization indicate the

possibility of more complex interactions between host bile production and *Turicibacter*

colonization. The fact that the specificity and activity of the individual BSH homologs differed

when expressed in different bacterial backgrounds indicates that other unknown cellular or

environmental factors influence the way individual BSH act *in vivo*. This may also include

mechanisms that modify the functionality of proteins encoded by the other putative BSH

homologs we identified from *Turicibacter* which did not deconjugate the specific tauro- or

glyco-conjugated bile acids used in our experiments. These findings may influence the ways that

bile-modifying genes can be employed to shape host lipid profiles through microbiota

engineering, positioning certain microbial species as more appropriate vectors to impart specific

host effects. It will also be informative to determine what other activities performed by

Turicibacter lead to WAT gain in colonized animals, which contrasted findings from colonizing

mice with specific *bsh*-overexpressing strains of *B. thetaiotaomicron*. Given this finding, it is

likely that *Turicibacter* also influences host lipids through other mechanisms in addition to the

bile transformations we characterized.

Our work also connects specific *Turicibacter* members and BSH activity with specific

host outcomes. Though some host responses such as broadly decreased triglycerides were

consistent across our BSH-recipient mice, the exact lipid and cholesterol responses differed,

indicating that the type of deconjugations might have differing connections with host physiology.

Further work will continue strengthening the exciting prospect of utilizing *Turicibacter* and/or its

bile modifications to intentionally alter host lipid biology to improve host metabolic and lipid-

associated health[66,67], as has been proposed with other bacteria[54,68]. Beyond lipid biology,

Turicibacter abundance has been correlated with diseases such as Parkinson's disease[69] and

depression[70], and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) have been found to negatively

affect *Turicibacter* growth and colonization[71], potentially because they inhibit activity of its

unique serotonin transporter[38]. SSRI use is frequently associated with metabolic side effects like

weight gain[72,73], and our findings suggests a hypothesis that connects SSRI use and these side

effects: SSRI use could diminish gut colonization of bacteria like *Turicibacter*, thus

unintentionally altering their impact on host physiology. Future work may develop strategies to

reduce interactions between SSRIs and activity of the microbiota, and minimizing the side

effects of these drugs and improving host outcomes. In all, these associations further emphasize

the importance of understanding mechanisms connecting members of the diverse *Turicibacter*

genus to host physiology.

Methods

Mouse husbandry

Adult (6-8 week old) germ-free Swiss Webster mice were used for all animal

experiments according to UCLA Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee-approved

protocols. Mice were reared in flexible gnotobiotic isolators on a 12h:12h light dark schedule on

standard chow (Labdiet 5K52, 22.1%: 16.6%: 61.3% protein: fat: carbohydrate by calories), then

were exited to autoclaved filter top cages with autoclaved chow (Labdiet 5010, 28.7%: 13.1%:

58.2% protein: fat: carbohydrate by calories) and water. After one day of cage acclimation, the

noted *Turicibacter* or *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* strain was grown in YCFA medium (see

below) overnight, pelleted by centrifugation, and resuspended in 1X PBS. Mice were colonized

by a 200µL gavage containing $\sim 10^6$ colony-forming units (CFU) of *Turicibacter* or $\sim 10^8$ CFU of

B. thetaiotaomicron. Alternatively, mice were gavaged with the same volume of PBS alone

(referred to as germ-free [GF]) or PBS-suspended fecal slurry from a specific pathogen-free

adult mouse (referred to as conventionalized [CONV]). Colonization was quantified using strain-

specific TuriSERT primers (**Supplementary Table 4)** and quantitative PCR (qPCR) from

weight-normalized contents from the distal small intestine and proximal colon after addition of

Low Abundance Microbiota Standard (Zymo) and extraction using the Zymo DNA Mini kit

(Zymo).

Bacterial culturing

Turicibacter isolates and *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* strains (**Supplementary Table 1**)

were cultured in a flexible vinyl chamber (Coy) in an anaerobic 85%/10%/5% nitrogen/carbon

dioxide/hydrogen mixture (Airgas). *Turicibacter* was grown on Schaedler's agar (BD

Biosciences) or modified YCFA[74] (pH 7.4, per liter: 100mM MOPS, 10g casitone, 2.5g yeast

extract, 2g glucose, 2g maltose monohydrate, 2g cellobiose, 44mg $MgSO_4$, 68mg $CaCl_2$, 0.9g

NaCl, 10mg hemin, 0.45g K_2HPO_4, 0.45g KH_2PO_4, 4g $NaHCO_3$, 1g cysteine, 1mg resazurin,

1.9mL glacial acetic acid, 0.7mL propionic acid, 90μL isobutyric acid, 100uL isovaleric acid,

100uL valeric acid, 10mL ATCC vitamin mixture, 0.2% Tween-80) at 37°C. Cells were normally

grown without shaking, but when appropriate, *Turicibacter* cultures were anaerobically

transferred to sealed Hungate tubes or 1.7mL microcentrifuge tubes and shaken at 225 RPM at

37°C.

For *B. thetaiotaomicron* growth curves, cultures were grown in YCFA for ~3 days at 37

°C to ensure culture saturation, then were diluted 1:100 in 1mL YCFA in plastic culture tubes.

Cells were anaerobically cultured without shaking at 37°C until the noted time points, when the

cultures were gently shaken and their absorbance was measured with a Ultraspec 10 Cell Density

Meter (Biochrom).

Escherichia coli C41-pLys (Lucigen) was used for characterizing putative bile

modification genes, which were expressed off the pET21+ plasmid. *E. coli* was grown

aerobically shaking at 37°C C in Luria Broth (LB, 1% NaCl, 1% tryptone, 0.5% yeast extract)

supplemented with 100μg mL^{-1} ampicillin. Expression of genes was induced by addition of

100μM IPTG.

Bacterial isolation and identification

The frozen stool sample was thawed on ice and diluted 1:10 with PRAS anaerobic

dilution blank medium (Anaerobe Systems). 100μL of the diluted stool was further diluted to

1:1000 with modified YCFA media containing 0.05% bovine bile, 0.2% Tween-80, and 50mM

resorufin and loaded on Prospector® system arrays (Isolation Bio, San Carlos, CA, USA)

following manufacturer's instructions. The fluorescent green signal of the arrays at time 0 was

read on the Prospector® instrument in a Coy anaerobic chamber and the arrays incubated at 37°C

in an Anaerobic Systems AS-580 anaerobic chamber (Anaerobe Systems). At 17 and 41 hours of

incubation the arrays were scanned again and the decrease in green fluorescence from time 0 was

used as an indicator for bacterial growth in the array nanowells. Bacteria from the array were

transferred to 96-well transfer plates containing 200μL per well of modified YCFA media,

without the addition of 50mM resorufin. The transfer plates were sealed with a gas permeable

film and incubated at 37°C in a Mitsubishi AnaeroPack jar with a gas-generating sachet (Remel)

for seven days. After incubation, the contents of 538 wells from the transfer plates with visible

turbidity were consolidated into secondary 96-well plates, preserved with reduced glycerol, and

stored at -80°C until needed. Unless stated otherwise, all stool and isolate manipulations were

conducted anaerobically with a 5% CO_2/5% H_2/90% N_2 atmosphere.

Genomic DNA was extracted in a 96-well format from the consolidated Prospector®

culture plates using the Extract All Kit (Applied Biosystems). 20μL of culture was combined

with 20μL of Lysis Solution and incubated for 10 minutes at 95°C, followed by three minutes at

room temperature. The DNA was stabilized with the addition of 20μL of DNA Stabilizing

Solution and the resulting DNA lysate stored at -20°C until needed.

qPCR screening of novel Turicibacter *isolates*

Genomic DNA from 538 isolates was screened for *Turicibacter* 16S and the *Turicibacter*

TuriSERT[38] gene using a multiplexed primer set (**Supplementary Table 4**). Each 25μL qPCR

reaction mixture had 1μL Extract All lysate, 10μL SYBR Power master mix (Applied

Biosystems), 0.5μL of each of the 10μM primers, and 12μL molecular grade water. The reactions

were run in a QuantStudio 6 Flex (Thermo Fisher) with a 95°C hold followed by 40 cycles of

95°C for 15s, 50°C for 30s, 72°C for 30s. *Turicibacter sanguinis* MOL361 gDNA and water were

used as positive and negative controls, respectively.

Molecular cloning

Turicibacter genes were amplified from template culture lysates with Phusion or Q5

DNA polymerase (NEB) and primers designed to amplify denoted *Turicibacter* genes. pET21- or

pWW3837[48]-derived expression plasmids were assembled using Gibson assembly (see

Supplementary Table 4 for oligos) for expression in *E. coli* or *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron*,

respectively. Cloned constructs were confirmed through Sanger sequencing prior to functional

characterization. pWW3837-derived constructs were cloned into *B. thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482

as previously described[48]. *bsh*-expressing *B. thetaiotaomicron* was compared to *B.*

thetaiotaomicron containing the original pWW3837 construct (referred to as wild-type *B.*

thetaiotaomicron).

Genome assemblies

Each strain was streaked on Schaedler agar plates and incubated anaerobically, then an

individual colony from each isolate was picked into YCFA medium and grown overnight at

37°C. DNA was extracted using the Zymo DNA mini kit (Zymo), with bead beating used to lyse

cells. Purified genomic DNA was sequenced by MiGS (migscenter.org), and 151bp paired-end

sequences were assembled using CLC Genomics Workbench (Qiagen). Genome assemblies have

been deposited at NCBI at BioProject PRJNA846348.

Whole genome and gene comparisons

anvi'o[75] was used to profile and visualize the different *Turicibacter* strain DNA

sequences to locate putative bile salt hydrolase and 7α-HSDH homologs in contig groups,

generate variability profiles, and measure gene coverage and detection statistics. Average

nucleotide identity (ANI) was calculated using OrthoANIu[76] (available

https://www.ezbiocloud.net/tools/ani).

Sequences comparisons between 16S rRNA and *bsh* genes/BSH amino acid sequences

were performed in CLC Genomics Workbench (Qiagen). 7α-HSDH sequence comparisons were

performed using tblastn[77] using the translated amino acid sequence from *Clostridium absonum*[44].

Assessment of bile transformations

In vitro characterization of bile transformations by engineered *E. coli* or *B.*

thetaiotaomicron strains were performed by growing cells in respective media conditions

described above supplemented with 0.5mM (total combined concentration) of the noted bile

species. Cells were grown to stationary phase (shaking at 37°C), then frozen at -80°C until

further processing. Cells were then thawed, pelleted (5 minutes at 16,000 x g), and the

supernatant was removed to a new microcentrifuge tube. Three volumes of methanol was added,

then the mixture was vigorously mixed for 30-60 seconds and incubated (room temperature, 15

minutes). Mixtures were centrifuged (5 minutes, 16,000 x g), the supernatant removed to a clean

microcentrifuge tube and dried in a vacuum concentrator. The dried residue was treated with

methanol/water/formic acid (50/50/0.1, all by volume) then vigorously mixed and centrifuged as

described above.   Supernatants were transferred to polypropylene HPLC vials, capped, and

maintained at 4°C while aliquots (typically 5μL) were injected onto a reversed phase HPLC

column (Cadenza CD-C18, 3.0μm, 250 x 2mm, Imtakt) equilibrated in solution A (water/formic

acid, 100/0.1, vol./vol.) and eluted (0.2mL minute^{-1}) with an increasing concentration of solution

B (acetonitrile/formic acid, 100/0.1, vol./vol.); minute/% B: 0/30, 45/70, 48/100, 50/30, 67/30).

The effluent from the column was passed through an electrospray ion source (capillary voltage

42V, capillary temperature 275°C, sheath gas flow 15L min^{-1}, spray voltage 5kV, and -15kV

conversion dynode with -1.2kV multipliers) connected to a linear ion trap mass spectrometer

(Thermo LTQ) scanning from m/z 95-1000 in the positive ion mode. Spectra were recorded and

analyzed with instrument-manufacturer supplied software. Confirmation of proposed elemental

compositions was achieved using the same chromatography and ion source configuration with

the spectra recorded by scanning on an orbitrap mass spectrometer (Thermo LTQ XL).

For bile species quantification, an internal spike-in standard of 100mM chenodeoxycholic

acid-D4 (CDCA-D4, Sigma) was added to initial culture supernatants as a normalization

reference. Area under the curve from reconstructed ion chromatograms was used to quantify the

abundances of each species.

Serum metabolite analysis

Mice were euthanized with isoflurane and whole blood was collected via cardiac

puncture. Blood was allowed to clot in SST Vacutainer tubes (BD) on ice, then centrifuged (4°C,

1 minute, 1500 x g). The supernatant was removed and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. Serum

metabolites were analyzed using global metabolomics platform by Metabolon (Morrisville, NC,

USA).

Circulating lipid analysis

Mice were fasted for 4-6 hours, then euthanized as described above. Blood was collected

via cardiac puncture and deposited into anticoagulatory K_2EDTA Vacutainer tubes (BD) on ice.

Blood was centrifuged (4°C, 15 minutes, 2000 x g), then plasma was collected from supernatant

and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. Shotgun lipidomics was performed by the UCLA Lipidomics

Core (Los Angeles, CA, USA) with the following protocol. Thawed plasma was pipetted into

glass tubes, a mixture of 70 internal standard lipids (Sciex and Avanti) was added, and lipids

were extracted using a modified Bligh and Dyer extraction[78]. The pooled organic layers from

two extractions were dried in a vacuum concentrator and resuspended in 50/50 (vol./vol.)

methanol/dichloromethane plus 10mM ammonium acetate. After transfer to robovials, samples

were analyzed with a Sciex 5500 with DMS Device (Lipidyzer Platform) using a targeted

acquisition list of 1450 lipid species. The Lipidyzer Differential Mobility device was tuned using

the EquiSPLASH LIPIDOMIX standard mixture (Avanti). Data was analyzed using an in-house

platform using previously described parameters[79], and quantitative values were normalized to

input volume. Statistical significance identification for species to include in heatmap was

performed with two-tailed Welch's t-test (p-value cutoff <0.05).

Total colonic bile concentration measurement

Mice were colonized and fasted as described above, then upon sacrifice contents from ~1

cm of proximal colon were collected into microcentrifuge tubes and snap frozen in liquid

nitrogen. Thawed contents were weighed and suspended into water, then total bile levels were

measured using the Bile Acid Assay Kit (Sigma). Total bile values were normalized by sample

mass, and each sample value was compared to sex-matched littermate controls. Values shown at

"0" were below limit of detection.

Adipocyte area calculation

After sacrifice, mice epidydimal or gonadal white adipose tissue (e/g WAT) pads were

weighed and placed into 4% paraformaldehyde in 1X PBS for 48 hours at 4°C. Fat pads were

washed twice in 70% ethanol, then submitted to the UCLA Translational Pathology Core

Laboratory (Los Angeles, CA, USA) for paraffin embedding, sectioning, and H&E staining. Ten

adipocyte images from each animal (five from each fat pad) were visualized with a 20X

objective on an EVOS microscope (Thermo). Adipocyte area for all cells contained entirely

within the field of view was automatically measured using the Fiji[80] Adiposoft[81] plug-in (version

1.1.16).

Statistical analysis

Statistical calculations were performed in in Prism 9.3.1 (Graphpad). Unless otherwise

noted, *** = p<0.0005, ** = p<0.005, * = p<0.05, written p-value = 0.05 < 0.2. Heatmaps were

created using the *pheatmap*[82] package in R (version 3.6.3)[83].

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Author Contributions

J. B. L., E. L. G, K. C., K. B. Y., J. P. and E. Y. H. conceptualized and planned bacterial and

mouse experiments. J. B. L. and K. F. F. designed and performed LC-MS experiments. J. B. L.,

T. J., A. A., and J. L. performed isolation and characterization of novel *Turicibacter* isolates. J.

B. L. and E. Y. H. wrote manuscript. All authors read and edited final manuscript.

Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests. Findings regarding the host effects of *Turicibacter*

reported in the manuscript are the subject of provisional patent application 63/288980, owned by

UCLA.

Data availability

Metabolomics and lipidomics datasets are attached to this manuscript as supplementary tables.

Raw sequencing reads and genome assemblies for *Turicibacter* strains are deposited at NCBI

under BioProject ID PRJNA846348.

Availability of materials

Bacterial strains from this work may be obtained through reasonable request to the

corresponding author. Certain materials may be restricted by MTA requirements.

Fig. 1. Genomic comparisons reveal distinct subgroups of *Turicibacter*. a, Phylogenetic tree

comparing full-length 16S rRNA gene sequences from noted *Turicibacter* isolates. Circles

indicate human-derived isolates, triangles indicate mouse-derived isolates, and square indicates a

mouse-derived contaminating isolate. **b**, Association between guanine-cytosine % (GC%) and

calculated genome size in megabases (Mb) for shotgun-assembled genomes of *Turicibacter*

isolates from **a**. **c**, Full genome sequence comparisons across *Turicibacter* strains. Position of

predicted bile-modification gene homologs are noted outside of rings. Each ring represents

sequence blocks in one genome. **d**, Average nucleotide identity (ANI) between noted

Turicibacter genomes. Number denotes ANI, white to blue scale represents 100%-75% ANI

scale.

Fig. 2. ***Turicibacter*** **colonization alters host lipids in a strain-dependent manner. a**, Heatmap

of relative abundance of serum lipids from gnotobiotic mice monocolonized with noted

Turicibacter strains. Heatmap values represent mean abundance of each detected lipid species

from labeled lipid categories scaled across all the means of that individual lipid species. Asterisk

(*) colors indicate colonizations with concentrations of that metabolite that are statistically

different (p<0.1) from germ-free (GF) animals. **b**, Serum cholesterol concentrations of mice

colonized by noted *Turicibacter* strains. **c**, Sex and litter-matched relative epidydimal/gonadal

white adipose tissue (e/g WAT) mass of mice monocolonized with noted *Turicibacter* strains.

Shapes indicate value for individual mouse, dotted bar represents combined ANOVA statistic for

769   each group versus the experimental mean. Metabolite and cholesterol analysis n=6-10, Welch's

770   two-tailed t-test comparison with GF (false discovery rates compensating for multiple

771   comparisons can be found in **Supplementary Table 2**). WAT analysis n=6-26, Welch's

772   ANOVA test with Dunnet's multiple comparison.*$p<0.05$, ***$p<0.0005$

Fig. 3. ***Turicibacter*** **colonization alters circulating host bile species. a-c,:** Serum concentrations of pooled primary **a)** taurine-conjugated bile acids, **b)** glycine-conjugated bile acids, or **c)** unconjugated bile acids. **d-o,** Serum levels of individual bile species from mice colonized by noted *Turicibacter* strains. **d, g, j, m** are primary unconjugated bile acids; **e, h, k, m** are primary taurine-conjugated bile acids, **f, i** are primary glycine-conjugated bile acids; **l, o** are secondary unconjugated bile acids. Points indicate value for individual mouse with shapes and colors matching **Fig. 1**, error bars represent mean +/- SEM. Welch's ANOVA with Dunnet's multiple comparison test for combined bile group comparisons, Welch's t-test for individual bile species (multiple comparison false discovery rates presented in **Supplementary Table 2**), n=6-

784   10. Dotted bar represents ANOVA statistic for each group versus the combined experimental

785   mean. #p<0.1, *p<0.05, **p<0.005, ***p<0.0005.

Fig. 4: *Turicibacter* isolates differ in their bile-modifying abilities. a, Schematic for types of bile transformations found to be performed by *Turicibacter* isolates. **b**, Liquid chromatograms of individual *Turicibacter* isolates grown for 24 hours in media with sub-inhibitory concentrations of five bile acids: taurocholic acid (TCA), cholic acid (CA), glycochenodeoxycholic acid (GCDCA), chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA), and deoxycholic acid (DCA). Shaded regions indicate expected retention time of each bile species. **c**, Percent remaining (compared to cultures at time=0) of conjugated bile acids (TCA, taurochenodeoxycholic acid [TCDCA], glycocholic acid [GCA], GCDCA) after 24 growth with noted *Turicibacter* isolate. Yellow=glycine-conjugated bile acids, orange=taurine-conjugated bile acids. n=4 independent cultures. Values not shown were below 0.1% remaining. Statistical analysis performed by one sample t-test, annotations of legend denotes strains with significant difference from 100% remaining for each

bile acid. **d**, Chromatograms of transformation of six taurine-conjugated bile acids (TCA:

characteristic m/z range = 461-463; TCDCA, TDCA, TUDCA [tauroursodeoxycholic acid],

TLCA [taurolithocholic acid]: characteristic m/z range = 516-518; THDCA

[taurohyodeoxycholic acid]: characteristic m/z range = 465-467) after growth with MOL361 or

1E2. Each trace represents one biological replicate for that condition, n=3 traces.

Fig. 5. *Turicibacter* isolates differ in their genetic capacity to modify bile species. a,

Phylogenetic tree of amino acid sequences for each predicted bile salt hydrolase (BSH) sequence

from *Turicibacter* strains, with observed bile species specificity noted in boxes. We did not

detect bile salt hydrolase activity in sequences without boxes, representing groups V-VIII. **b**,

Presence or absence of sequence homologs with potential BSH activity in *Turicibacter* strains. **c**,

Liquid chromatograms of media after 24 hour cultures of *E. coli* expressing individual predicted

bsh genes from each sequence grouping and grown in with TCA and TCDCA. Control is *E. coli*

with same expression vector but expressing non-bile-modifying gene. **d**, same as **c**, but with

GCA and GCDCA instead of tauro- bile acids. **e**, Quantification of percent remaining (compared

to media controls) of conjugated bile acid (TCA, TCDCA, GCA, GCDCA) after 24h growth

with *E. coli* expressing the noted *Turicibacter bsh* gene. n=3 independent cultures, *p<0.05,

**p<0.005, ***p<0.0005 using one sample t-test comparison with 100% remaining. BSH

nomenclature indicates homolog group (*e.g.* III) and isolate of origin (*e.g.* MOL361).

Fig. 6: *Turicibacter bsh* expression is sufficient to alter host lipidome and health-associated

lipid markers. a, Percent remaining of noted bile acids after 24 hour growth with *Bacteroides*

thetaiotaomicron expressing noted *bsh* genes. n=4 cultures per strain. **b**, Same as **a**, but with 48

hour growth with noted *B. thetaiotaomicron* strains. n=3 cultures strain^{-1}. For **a** and **b**, points

represent individual comparison with media control, legend annotations denote strains with

statistical significance for each bile acid using one sample t-test comparison with 100%

remaining. **c**, Quantification of colonic bile acids (BA) from mice colonized with *bsh*-expressing

B. thetaiotaomicron. Values are normalized to sex-matched littermates colonized with wild-type

B. thetatiotaomicron. Statistical analysis was performed with Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's

multiple comparisons test. n=3-4. **d**, Heatmap of circulating lipid species significantly altered by

expression of at least one *Turicibacter bsh* in *B. thetaiotaomicron*. Colors on left correspond to

lipid class, cyan-magenta color scale represents Z-score, each column represents one animal. **e-i**,

Relative combined circulating concentrations of **e**, triglycerides (TG), **f**, cholesterol esters (CE),

g, diacylglycerides (DC), **h**, phosphotidylglycines (PG), or **i**, phosphotidylserines (PS) of mice

monocolonized with *bsh*-expressing *B. thetatiotaomicron*. **j**, Relative white adipose tissue weight

of mice monocolonized with *bsh*-expressing *B. thetatiotaomicron*. All values normalized to sex-

matched littermates, animal n=4-6 colonization^{-1}, statistical analysis performed by Welch's

ANOVA, dotted bar in **c-j** represents ANOVA statistic for each group versus the combined

experimental mean. *p<0.05, **p<0.005, ***p<0.0005

     SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Supplementary Fig. 1. Strain-dependent variation in colonization and adipocyte size. a-e,

Representative images of adipose tissue from *Turicibacter* monocolonized mice. **f**, Sex- and

litter- matched relative adipocyte area of mice monocolonized with individual *Turicibacter*

strains. Each point represents mean of 10 images of adipocyte area per animal. **g, h**, Colony-

forming units (CFU) per gram of contents for distal small intestine (**g**) or proximal colon **(h).**

Each dot represents sample from one animal, per colonization n=10-15 for qPCR, n=10-14 for

adipocyte area calculation. Statistics for adipocyte area performed by Welch's ANOVA with

Dunnet's multiple comparisons, dotted bar represents ANOVA statistic for each group versus the

combined experimental mean.

Supplementary Fig. 2. Host effects of *Turicibacter* colonization varies with sex. a-c, Heatmap

of mean relative **a**) bile species, **b**) sterols, or **c**) lipids. Column labels represent colonization

state and sex, M=male, F=female. n=3-6 group^{-1}, except female T129 (n=1). * represents

statistical difference of p<0.1 between that colonization state (both males and females) compared

to GF using Welch's two-sample t-test.

Turicibacter strain	Presence (+) or absence (-) of peak							Deconjugation ability
	TCA	Dehydrogenated CA	CA	GCDCA	Dehydrogenated CDCA	CDCA	DCA	
MOL361	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	Tauro- and glyco-deconjugation; dehydrogenation
18F6	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	
GALT-E2	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	
T46	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	Glyco-deconjugation
H121	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	
T129	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	
GALT-G1	-	-	+	-	+	+	+	Tauro- and glyco-deconjugation; some dehydrogenation
1E2	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	Tauro- deconjugation
TA25	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	

Red = outliers from genomic group

860 **Supplementary Fig. 3. Summary table of bile transformations performed by *Turicibacter***

861 **isolates.** Table indicating presence/absence of noted bile species after growth in mixture of bile

862 acids described in **Fig. 4b**.

 Supplementary Fig. 4. Some strains of *Turicibacter* encode a functional 7alpha-HSDH gene.

 a, Table depicting amino acid similarity and sequence coverage between closest predicted

 7alpha-HSDH homolog in noted isolate genome and 7alpha-HSDH gene from *Clostridium*

 absonum. **b**, Chromatograms of cholic acid (CA) or cholic acid with 2 hydrogens removed (CA-

 2H) from *E. coli* cultures expressing the MOL361 HSDH homolog (7alpha-HSDH) or non-bile

 modifying gene sequence in the same plasmid (cell control). Chromatograms from independent

 triplicate cultures are shown, dotted boxes indicate each bile species. **c**, Quantification of

 CA/CA-2H ratios determined from reconstructed areas under the curve in **b**. Statistical

 comparison performed with Welch's t-test, n=3 cultures, bars indicate mean +/- SEM. **d**, Same

 as **b**, but with CDCA instead of CA. **e**, same as **b**, but with DCA instead of CA. **d** and **e** triplicate

875   chromatograms are stacked on the same axis.

Bile salt hydrolase (*bsh*) gene	Presence (+) or absence (-) of peak				Deconjugation ability
	TCA	TCDCA	GCA	GCDCA	
I-MOL361	-	-	-	-	Tauro- and glyco-deconjugation
II-H121	+	-	+	-	-CDCA deconjugation
III-1E2	+	-	+	+	TCDCA deconjugation
IV-MOL361	-	-	+	+	Tauro- deconjugation

878 **Supplementary Fig. 5. Bile transformations performed by *B. thetaiotaomicron* expressing**

879 ***Turicibacter bsh* genes.** Table indicating presence/absence of noted bile species after growth in

880 mixture of bile acids described in **Fig. 6a, b**.

Supplementary Fig. 6. Expressing *bsh* genes from *Turicibacter* leads to slight growth defect

of *B. thetaiotaomicron*. OD_{600} readings of noted *B. thetaiotaomicron* strains in YCFA medium.

Each point represents mean +/- SEM for 3 independent cultures.

A

B

Z-Score
-2 ▇▇▇▇▇ 2

Bt-BSHIII:1E2–male
Bt-BSHIII:1E2–male
Bt-WT–male
Bt-WT–male
Bt-WT–male
Bt-BSHIV:MOL–male
Bt-BSHIV:MOL–male
Bt-BSHI:MOL–male
Bt-BSHI:MOL–male
Bt-BSHIII:1E2–male
Bt-BSHIII:1E2–male

Bt-BSHIII:1E2–female
Bt-BSHI:MOL–female
Bt-WT–female
Bt-WT–female
Bt-WT–female
Bt-BSHIV:MOL–female
Bt-BSHIV:MOL–female
Bt-BSHI:MOL–female
Bt-BSHI:MOL–female
Bt-BSHIII:1E2–female

Supplementary Fig. 7. Sex differences in lipidomic response to *Turicibacter bsh* expression

in *B. thetaiotaomicron*. Similar to **Fig. 5b**, but animal lipidome analysis separated into **a**) males

and **b**) females. Note that lipid species presented were found to be significantly altered by

expression of at least one *bsh* in males and females combined (i.e. all lipid species shown across

the three analyses are the same). Each column represents one animal.

Supplementary Fig. 8. *Turicibacter bsh* expression by *B. thetaiotaomicron* is sufficient to

drive broad scale changes in circulating host lipids in male and female mice. Related to **Fig.**

6e-j, circulating concentrations of specific lipid categories in mice colonized by *B.*

thetaiotaomicron expressing the noted *Turicibacter bsh* homologs. Each point represents one

animal, red points indicate female, blue represent male. n=4-5 per colonization, error bars

represent mean +/- SEM. Statistical comparison done with Welch's ANOVA with Dunnet's

multiple comparisons, dotted bar represents combined ANOVA statistic for each group versus

the experimental mean, *p<0.05.