Steamed broccoli sprouts alleviate DSS-induced inflammation and retain gut microbial biogeography in mice.

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Abstract: Inflammatory Bowel Diseases (IBD) are devastating conditions of the gastrointestinal tract with limited treatments, and dietary intervention may be effective, and affordable, for managing symptoms. Glucosinolate compounds are highly concentrated in broccoli sprouts, especially glucoraphanin, and can be metabolized by certain mammalian gut bacteria into anti-inflammatory isothiocyanates, such as sulforaphane. Gut microbiota exhibit biogeographic patterns, but it is unknown if colitis alters these or whether the location of glucoraphanin-metabolizing bacteria affects anti-inflammatory benefits. We fed specific pathogen free C57BL/6 mice either a control diet or a 10% steamed broccoli sprout diet, and gave a three-cycle regimen of 2.5% dextran sodium sulfate (DSS) in drinking water over a 34-day experiment to simulate chronic, relapsing ulcerative colitis. We monitored body weight, fecal characteristics, lipocalin, serum cytokines, and bacterial communities from the luminal- and mucosa-associated populations in the jejunum, cecum, and colon. Mice fed the broccoli sprout diet with DSS treatment performed better than mice fed the control diet with DSS, including significantly more weight gain, lower Disease Activity Indexes, lower plasma lipocalin and proinflammatory cytokines, and higher bacterial richness in all gut locations. Bacterial communities were assorted by gut location, but were more homogenous across locations in the control diet + DSS mice. Importantly, our results showed that broccoli sprout feeding abrogated the effects of DSS on gut microbiota, as bacterial richness and biogeography were similar between mice receiving broccoli sprouts with and without DSS. Collectively, these results support the protective effect of steamed broccoli sprouts against dysbiosis and colitis induced by DSS.

Importance: Evaluating bacterial communities across different locations in the gut provides a greater insight than fecal samples alone, and provides an additional metric by which to evaluate

beneficial host-microbe interactions. Here, we show that 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in the diet

protects mice from the negative effects of dextran sodium sulfate induced colitis, that colitis erases

biogeographical patterns of bacterial communities in the gut, and that the cecum is not likely to be

a significant contributor to colonic bacteria of interest in the DSS mouse model of ulcerative colitis.

Mice fed the broccoli sprout diet during colitis performed better than mice fed the control diet

while receiving DSS. The identification of accessible dietary components and concentrations that

help maintain and correct the gut microbiome may provide universal and equitable approaches to

IBD prevention and recovery, and broccoli sprouts represent a promising strategy.

Introduction

Inflammatory Bowel Diseases (IBD) are globally prevalent, chronic inflammatory diseases

of multifactorial origin which disrupts daily life and creates financial burdens to individuals and

healthcare systems (1, 2). IBD symptoms occur in the gastrointestinal (GI) tract, and can be

accompanied by immune dysfunction (3) and microbial community changes in the gut. In addition

to being debilitating, a longer duration of IBD is associated with an increased risk of developing

GI cancers (4). Treatments are currently limited to alleviating inflammation and returning patients

to as close to homeostasis as possible. Diet can play an important role in the management of IBD

as a source of anti-inflammatory metabolites, and as a tool for influencing the robustness of gut

microbiomes. However, many guidelines for IBD patients recommend avoiding high-fiber or

sulfur-rich foods which produce metabolites that could exacerbate symptoms (5). Diet can be

beneficial (6) or detrimental to gut inflammation (7), but IBD patients may choose to avoid most

fiber- or sulfur-rich foods rather than test their reaction to specific foods (8). Thus, a better

understanding of the interaction of diet, gut microbiota, and disease is needed before dietary

recommendations can be made.

Diets which are high in cruciferous vegetables, such as broccoli, are associated with

reduced inflammation and cancer risk, e.g. (9–11), due to a group of specific plant secondary

compounds, glucosinolates. Glucosinolates are very high in broccoli, especially seeds or immature

sprouts, and can be converted into bioactive metabolites (12, 13), such as sulfur-containing

isothiocyanates, by the action of myrosinase, an enzyme present in these vegetables.

Isothiocyanates are used by the plant for defense against insect herbivory, but in humans, have

been identified as bioactive candidates for reducing gut inflammation (14–16). Specifically,

sulforaphane (SFN), a well-studied isothiocyanate (17), has been shown to inhibit the action of

immune factors which are responsible for upregulation of several proinflammatory cytokines;

interleukins-6, -8, -12, -21, and -23 (11, 18, 19), which has recently been evaluated as a possible

strategy for reducing gut inflammation in humans and mouse models (13, 14, 16).

However, consuming raw broccoli and broccoli sprouts results in small amounts of

available SFN, as broccoli-sourced enzymes preferentially metabolize the precursor,

glucoraphanin (GLR), to an inactive byproduct instead (17). Cooking the sprouts alters the activity

of plant enzymes to prevent the creation of the inactive byproduct, leaving glucosinolates intact

(13, 20). Mammals do not produce the enzymes for converting glucosinolates to isothiocyanates;

however, gut bacteria with β-thioglucosidase activity can cleave the glycoside moiety from

glucosinolates, and there is evidence for GLR hydrolysis to SFN by colonic and cecal bacteria, *ex*

vivo and *in vivo* in humans and animal models, e.g. (13, 15, 17). The bacteria and genes that are

capable of metabolizing glucosinolates are not fully known, but strains of *Lactobacillus*,

Bifidobacteria, Bacteroides, and other genera have been implicated (15, 21, 22), with the most

known about the genes in *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron (21)*. Moreover, the conditions in the gut

(e.g., diet, inflammation) under which this glucosinolate metabolism by bacteria occurs or not are

not well understood. For example, people consuming cooked broccoli stopped excreting

isothiocyanates in their urine after being treated with oral antibiotics and bowel cleansing which

reduced gut bacterial diversity and biomass (23). Further, not everyone's gut bacteria can be

reliably induced to meaningful levels of GLR conversion (24, 25). Thus, bacterial metabolism of

GLR to SFN *in situ* must be better understood prior to making dietary recommendations.

Mouse studies suggest that biotransformation of GLR to SFN occurs in the colon (13, 21,

26), and we confirmed that the majority of SFN accumulation occurs in the colon by using multiple

locations of measurement along the GI tract (13). The microbial communities along the GI tract

are highly dependent on the diet, health status, age, and microbial encounters of the host (27, 28).

Additionally, each organ in the GI tract and sites within organs foster different environmental

conditions that create spatial niches for different microbial taxa, an ecological pattern known as

biogeography (29, 30). However, changes to conditions in one location may have repercussions

downstream. For example, a low pH in the stomach results in low bacterial diversity and biomass

in the duodenum (31). IBD patients often have a less acidic GI tract (32) due to altered diet or

treatments, and this allows more bacteria to survive transit through the stomach which may result

in small intestinal bacterial overgrowth (33), especially in mucosal-associated fractions (34–36).

Moreover, the bacterial communities in the colon of IBD patients are disrupted (37), but this may

result from inflammation and disruption to host-microbial relations in the colon itself or from

further upstream (34, 38). Thus, changing the biogeography of gut bacterial communities in IBD

patients could alter the dynamics of SFN production, which could improve or lessen the benefits

to the host of having this anti-inflammatory produced in the gut.

Steamed broccoli sprouts provided in the diet of mice has been demonstrated to reduce

inflammation in mice with chemically induced colitis (13); however, there are significant

knowledge gaps regarding the effect of broccoli sprouts on the gut microbiota. In particular, there

are gaps regarding bacterial biogeography in general and that of the glucosinolate-metabolizing

taxa specifically, and how this may impact health benefits to the host. To address these, we

assessed the impact of steamed broccoli sprouts on the biogeographic pattern of gut microbiota

and disease outcome in a mouse model of chronic, relapsing colitis. We fed specific pathogen free

(SPF) C57BL/6 mice either a control diet or a 10% steamed broccoli sprout diet balanced by

macronutrient and by fiber, starting at 7 weeks of age and continuing for another 34 days. The

fresh broccoli sprouts were steamed to inactivate plant enzymes, and thus the metabolism of

glucosinolates to isothiocyanates would rely on the gut microbiota. A three-cycle regimen of

dextran sodium sulfate (DSS) in drinking water was given to stimulate chronic colitis in the mice,

which is a well-established method for modeling ulcerative colitis (39–41). We analyzed the

bacterial communities from the luminal-associated (i.e., digesta contents) and mucosal-associated

(i.e., epithelial scrapings) fractions in the jejunum, cecum, and colon using 16S rRNA gene

sequencing, and correlated these communities with metrics of disease activity including weight

gain/stagnation, fecal characteristics, lipocalin (as a surrogate marker for inflammation in IBD),

and proinflammatory cytokines (Figure 1).

Results

Broccoli sprouts alleviated disease characteristics of DSS-induced colitis

After 1 week of acclimatization to the facility, forty (40) 7-week-old SPF C57BL/6 mice

were divided into four groups: control diet (Control), control diet with 2.5% DSS in drinking water

(Control+DSS), 10% (w/w) steamed broccoli sprout diet (Broccoli, with the control diet as the

base), and 10% broccoli sprout diet with 2.5% DSS in drinking water (Broccoli+DSS). Over 34

days of the diet treatments, the two groups of mice receiving DSS were exposed to three cycles

(days 8-12, 18-22, 30-34) designed to induce chronic, relapsing colitis (48, Figure 1). Periodically

throughout the experiment, mice were monitored for weight loss, fecal blood, and fecal

consistency. After euthanasia (day 34), samples were collected for analyses including: plasma

lipocalin, plasma cytokines, and DNA extraction and community sequencing of lumen-associated

(digesta contents) and mucosal-associated (epithelial scrapings) from the jejunum, cecum

(contents only), and colon.

Figure 1. Experimental design schematic for a chronic model of ulcerative colitis induced by
dextran sodium sulfate (DSS) in 40 male mice (C57BL/6) beginning at 7-weeks of age.
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Weight. Mice with induced colitis and fed the broccoli sprout diet (Broccoli+DSS) gained

significantly more weight than the mice with induced colitis on the control diet (Control+DSS)

(Figure 2A; ANOVA, $p < 0.03$). Further, the weight gain of Broccoli+DSS mice was statistically

similar to that for the two diet groups without DSS treatment (Figure 2A; ANOVA, $p > 0.05$). All

the juvenile mice gained some weight as they were in a growth phase; despite this, the first two

DSS cycles resulted in weight loss, especially in the Control+DSS group. The Broccoli+DSS mice

recovered this weight loss prior to the beginning of the next cycle, but the Control+DSS mice did

not (Figure 2A). At the beginning of the third and last DSS cycle, the mice were reaching maturity

at eleven (11) weeks old and the weights of all groups were somewhat constant. However, the

Control+DSS group demonstrated a significantly lower weight at the end of the study than the

other groups which were statistically similar (Figure 2A).

Disease Activity Index. Mice in the Broccoli+DSS group demonstrated significantly lower

Disease Activity Index scores (DAI; including scoring weight loss, fecal blood, and fecal

consistency) than the mice in the Control+DSS group during DSS cycle 2 and 3, but were similar

in cycle 1 (Figure 2B). The Broccoli+DSS DAI scores were significantly elevated on four days

during the trial (see Figure 2B; ANOVA, $p < 0.05$, comparisons by treatment, adjusted with

TukeyHSD for multiple comparisons), as well as in an additive model considering the data over

the entire study (GAM, $F = 17.47$, $p < 0.001$), however returned to near 0 during rest periods

between DSS cycles. Mice in the Control+DSS group demonstrated elevated DAI scores from

DSS cycle 1 and remained high throughout the study (Figure 2B), including during rest periods.

The elevated scores were significant on many dates (see ***, Figure 2B) as compared to the mice

in the Control group (Figure 2B, ANOVA, $p < 0.05$, comparisons by day, adjusted with TukeyHSD

for multiple comparisons), as well as in an additive model considering the data over the entire

 study (GAM, F = 308.32, p < 0.001). The Control and Broccoli diet groups had statistically similar

187   scores which were at or nearly 0, at the end of the trial (ANOVA, p > 0.05) or over time (GAM, p

188   > 0.05).

Figure 2. Body weights (A) and Disease Activity Index scores (B) in mice across a 34-day trial under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Body weights and time scale were normalized to the day mice began the broccoli sprout diet, set at 100% starting weight and Day 1, respectively. DAI scores are calculated

194   by weight loss intensity score, fecal blood, and fecal consistency. Treatment comparisons at each
195   day compared by ANOVA, and significance is designated as 0.001 '***'.
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Proinflammatory cytokines. Mice in the Broccoli+DSS group indicated significantly

lower levels of proinflammatory cytokines IL-1β, IL-6 and TNF-α in plasma than mice in the

Control+DSS group (Figure 3A). The plasma levels of IL-1β and TNF-α were similar across the

Broccoli+DSS, Broccoli, and Control groups, and the IL-6 measure was slightly elevated (Figure

3A). The cytokine CCL4, also known as macrophage inflammatory protein 1β (MIP1β) and which

is a chemokine that plays a critical role in regulating the migration and activation of immune cells

during inflammatory processes (42), did not differ significantly among the four treatment groups

(Figure 3A).

Plasma lipocalin. At the end of DSS cycle 3, plasma lipocalin (LCN2) levels in the

Broccoli+DSS mice were not significantly different from the groups without DSS, and were

significantly lower in comparison with the Control+DSS group (ANOVA, $p < 0.05$, Figure 3B).

Figure 3 Cytokines (A) and lipocalin (B) in plasma on the last day of the trial from mice
under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed
broccoli sprouts in diet. Cytokines include CCL4; interleukins IL-1β and IL-6; and tumor
necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α). Data are represented as mean ± SD. *, $p < 0.05$, ANOVA.

Fecal blood correlated with bacterial taxa. Mice in the Broccoli+DSS group with positive

fecal occult blood scores demonstrated some differential bacteria compared to mice in the

Control+DSS group with positive blood scores (Figure 4). The most abundant of these differential

bacterial sequence variants (SV) in the Broccoli+DSS group were in the Muribaculaceae family

221 and the *Clostridium* sensu stricto [Latin: strictly speaking] clade (Figure 4). The Control+DSS

222 mice indicated different SVs with the most abundant in the *Clostridium* sensu stricto clade and

223 *Cutibacterium* (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Gut bacterial taxa identified from mice having a positive fecal occult blood score at sacrifice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Data were subset to mice with a positive score on the last day of the experiment, when the gut samples were collected. Important features (SVs) were identified

through permutational random forest analysis, and only the features important to this group (>50 reads) are listed out of 143 significant (p < 0.05) features across all treatments. Model accuracy was 89.7%. Bacterial sequence variants (SV) are identified as the lowest level of taxonomic identity possible, with "NA" indicating which could not be identified to species, and the number indicating which specific SV it was.

Broccoli sprouts protected against DSS-induced changes to bacterial communities

Bacterial richness. Mice with induced colitis on the broccoli sprouts diet (Broccoli+DSS) demonstrated significantly more bacterial richness in the cecal contents, colon contents, and colon scrapings than mice without broccoli sprouts (Control+DSS, Figure 5, Table 1). Across all treatments and all anatomical sites (jejunum contents & scrapings, cecal contents, colon contents & scrapings), bacteria were primarily identified as belonging to the phyla Firmicutes/Bacillota, Bacteroidetes/Bacteroidota, Proteobacteria/Pseudomonadota, Actinobacteria/Actinomycetota (which was highest in Control+DSS mice), and Verrucomicrobia/Verrucomicrobiota (which was highest in mice consuming broccoli sprouts; (Figure S1). The two groups receiving broccoli sprouts had the highest bacterial richness in all gut locations, particularly in the colon contents and scrapings (Figure 5). In comparison to the Control group, the Control+DSS mice demonstrated higher bacterial richness in the jejunum, lower richness in the cecal contents, and comparable bacterial richness in the colon (Figure 5). In addition, the Control+DSS mice had similar median richness in the jejunum, cecum, and colon contents, with the widest distribution of richness in the jejunum and colon (Figure 5). Moreover, the Control+DSS richness was similar between the digesta contents and epithelial scraping sites, in both the jejunum and in the colon, implying homogenization of bacterial communities in those sites (Figure 5).

Figure 5. Observed bacterial richness along the intestine of mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Richness is calculated as the number of different bacterial sequence variants (SVs). Statistically significant comparisons are provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Statistical comparison of observed richness along the intestine of mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Comparisons were made using linear regression models comparing treatment, in subsets of the data by anatomical location. Only significant comparisons ($p < 0.05$) are listed. Bacterial richness is visualized in Figure 5.

Treatment compared to control diet only group	Change in bacterial richness (SVs) ± Standard Error (rounded)	T-value	P-value
Jejunum contents			
Control + 2.5% DSS	40 ± 11	3.790	0.000608 ***

10% Broccoli sprouts	23 ± 10	2.766	0.009207 **
10% Broccoli sprouts + 2.5% DSS	64 ± 10	6.141	5.05e-07 ***
Jejunum scraping			
Control + 2.5% DSS	52 ± 17	3.`04	0.00434 **
10% Broccoli sprouts	98 ± 16	6.230	1.16e-06 ***
10% Broccoli sprouts + 2.5% DSS	100 ± 15	6.708	3.35e-07 ***
Cecum contents			
Control + 2.5% DSS	-13 ± 15	-0.821	0.418
10% Broccoli sprouts	68 ± 13	5.120	1.54e-05 ***
10% Broccoli sprouts + 2.5% DSS	70 ± 13	5.225	1.54e-05 ***
Colon contents			
Control + 2.5% DSS	-12 ± 9	-1.316	0.197
10% Broccoli sprouts	43 ± 9	4.525	6.67e-05 ***
10% Broccoli sprouts + 2.5% DSS	90 ± 10	9.172	7.74e-11 ***
Colon scraping			
Control + 2.5% DSS	14 ± 12	1.225	0.129
10% Broccoli sprouts	60 ± 12	5.220	1.78e-05 ***
10% Broccoli sprouts + 2.5% DSS	89 ± 12	7.749	2.81e-08 ***

Beta diversity. Mice in the Broccoli+DSS group displayed a bacterial community that was distinct from that of mice in the Control+DSS group (Figure 6A,B). Bacterial taxa were characterized based on presence/absence (unweighted Jaccard Similarity, permANOVA: $F = 16.90$, $p < 0.001$) and presence/abundance (weighted Bray-Curtis Similarity, permANOVA: $F = 29.97$ $p < 0.001$). Interestingly, the bacterial community of the Broccoli+DSS mice was similar to the community of the Broccoli mice, suggesting that broccoli sprouts strongly protected against DSS-induced changes to the bacterial community (Figure 6A,B).

Beta dispersion. Mice in the Broccoli+DSS group had a bacterial community dispersion (distance from centroids) larger than mice in the Control+DSS (Figure 6A,B), indicating more heterogeneity in the bacterial communities between mice fed broccoli sprouts. The Broccoli and Broccoli+DSS samples had a similar amount of dispersal between samples and the centroid for these treatments (beta dispersion, $p > 0.05$ for both comparisons, adjusted with TukeyHSD for multiple comparisons), indicating that broccoli sprouts negated any homogenization of the bacterial community caused by DSS. The Control and Control+DSS communities do not overlap and the Control+DSS community shows a tighter dispersal (beta dispersion, $p < 0.05$ for both comparisons, adjusted with Tukey's HSD), indicating that DSS was a strong enough selective pressure to reduce the individual variation of bacterial communities within the group.

Figure 6. Principal coordinate analysis of bacterial community similarity along the intestines of mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Panel A was calculated with unweighted Jaccard Similarity to visualize differences in the taxonomic structure, and panel B with weighted Bray-Curtis to visualize structure and abundance.

Biogeography. Mice with induced colitis on the broccoli sprouts diet (Broccoli+DSS)

indicated clustering associated with each anatomical location (jejunum contents & scrapings, cecal

contents, colon contents & scrapings) whereas mice without broccoli sprouts did not

(Control+DSS, Figure 7A, permANOVA, uJS: F = 3.42, p < 0.001; wBC: F = 4.36, p < 0.001).

The variation within the Control+DSS group was obscured by the strong comparisons to other

groups in Figure 7A, so the Control+DSS samples were subset and demonstrated no biogeographic

clustering (Figure 7B, permANOVA, p > 0.05, except marginally between jejunum scrapings vs.

cecum contents, p = 0.04) when considering the bacterial community structure (unweighted

Jaccard Similarity; Figure 7B) or structure and abundance (weighted Bray-Curtis, not shown).

Figure 7. Principal coordinate analysis of bacterial communities from locations along the intestines of mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet: (A) All treatments (B) Control+DSS only. Bacterial communities in the jejunum, cecum, and colon were statistically different (permANOVA, $p < 0.05$) from each other in the treatment groups (A) Control, Broccoli, and Broccoli+DSS, were not statistically different from each other after multiple bouts of colitis in the (B) Control+DSS group.

Differential sequence variants. When identifying significant taxa which defined the

Control samples by anatomical location, there were 188 significant ($p < 0.05$) taxa identified, with

a permutational random forest model accuracy of 98% (Figure S2). Many of these defining taxa

in the Control mice were species considered to be mouse commensals, such as *Dubosiella* spp. and

strains from the Muribaculaceae and Lachnospiraceae families (Figure S2). The bacterial taxa

which defined the Control+DSS mice included the *Clostridium sensu stricto* clade, and fewer

commensal taxa were identified as important community members (Figure S3). The Broccoli

sprout group was differentiated by *Dubosiella* spp., *Parasutterella excrementihominis*, and

Bacteroides spp., among others (Figure S4). The Broccoli+DSS group had many of the same

important taxa as the group consuming Broccoli sprouts without colitis (Figure S5), implying a

strong selective pressure of the broccoli sprouts on the bacterial community structure. This was

supported by the identification of 'core taxa' which were present in high abundance across at least

70% of the Broccoli and Broccoli+DSS samples (Figure S6A). Similar to the differential SV

analysis, core bacteria in the Broccoli groups and core bacteria in the Control+DSS group did not

share many similar taxa (Figure S6B). There were no bacterial SVs which were shared across at

least 70% of samples in the Broccoli+DSS and the Control+DSS group (data not shown),

indicating there was not a specific community which was enriched or associated with the DSS.

Taxa with putative GLR metabolism capacity present in broccoli sprout fed mice even

during colitis

Putative glucoraphanin metabolizers. Mice with induced colitis on the broccoli sprouts

diet (Broccoli+DSS) indicated a dominant number of bacteria associated with the transformation

of glucoraphanin into sulforaphane and distinct from mice not on a broccoli sprout diet which had

relatively few (Control+DSS, Figure 8). The bacterial abundance in Broccoli+DSS mice was

greatly reduced in the colon contents and somewhat reduced in the cecum contents and colon

scrapings relative to the Broccoli mice. The bacterial abundance in Control+DSS mice increased

across all anatomical sites relative to the Control mice. There were 309 bacterial SVs identified in

samples to be associated with the expression of myrosinase-like enzymatic activity and the

transformation of glucoraphanin to sulforaphane, which represented the genera *Bifidobacterium,*

Bacteroides, Enterococcus, Lactobacillus, Lactococcus, Pseudomonas, Staphylococcus, and

Streptomyces (21, 43, 44) 29, 54, 55). No *Faecalibacterium*, *Bacillus, Listeria, Pediococcus,*

Aerobacter, Citrobacter, Enterobacter, Escherichia, Salmonella, Paracolobactrum, or *Proteus*

were found in the samples (Figure 8). *Bacteroides* were predominant in both the Broccoli+DSS

and Broccoli groups and much more abundant in comparison to all other genera across all samples

(1,394,934 frequency across all samples compared to a total frequency of 6,791 for all other

sequences; Figures 8,9).

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Figure 8. Bacterial sequence variants (SVs) belonging to the genera which have putative capacity to convert glucoraphanin to sulforaphane for mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Strains of bacteria in these genera have been demonstrated to perform myrosinase-like activity in the digestive tract, as reviewed in (43).

***Bacteroides* species.** Several *Bacteroides* species were identified (*acidifaciens*,

massiliensis, *sartorii*), but the dominant sequence variant was not identified to the species-level

by the Silva Database taxonomy assignment (Figure 9A,B). This unidentified *Bacteroides*

dominant SV (*B.*-dominant) was associated with multiple species in the NCBI Database

(BLASTN): *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron (B. theta)*, *Bacteroides faecis,* and *Bacteroides*

zhangwenhongii, all with 100% Query Cover and Percent Identity (Figure 9B)*. Bacteroides theta*

has been linked to myrosinase-like enzyme activity (21), but *Bacteroides faecis* and *Bacteroides*

zhangwenhongii have not.

A) Biogeography of *B*. dominant

B) Bacteroides species frequency

Figure 9. Biogeography of the dominant *Bacteroides* SV (*B*.-dominant) in the gut (A) and abundance of reads belonging to *Bacteroides* species by diet treatment and anatomical location in the gastrointestinal tract of mice. (A) *B*.-dominant was present in the jejunum contents and scrapings and abundant in the cecum contents, colon contents, and colon scrapings. DSS reduced *B*.-dominant colon content density. (B) The Silva Database identified *Bacteroides* species *acidifaciens*, *massiliensis*, and *sartorii*. Of the BLASTN identified species for *B*.-dominant SVs*,* only *B. thetaiotaomicron* was associated with broccoli-sprout-fed mice.

Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron (Bt VPI-5482). Amplification of bacterial genes via qPCR indicated the presence of the *B. thetaiotaomicron* operon BT2159-BT2156, responsible for glucoraphanin metabolism, along the digestive tract (Figure S7). In each of the anatomical sites,

BT2158 expression was most common followed by BT2157 and BT2156, BT2159, and then the

regulatory gene BT2160 (Figure S7). Copy numbers were not significantly different for any

individual gene by diet treatment and/or anatomical location (ANOVA, $p > 0.05$, adjusted for

multiple comparisons with TukeyHSD). However, the operon's GSL-metabolizing capacity is

highest when all four genes are present (21), thus we also assessed the presence of the operon

exhibited as collective gene copies, and samples demonstrated either high abundance (>100,000)

or low abundance (<100; Figure 10).

In the jejunum contents, 20% of Control mice had high presence of the operon BT2159-

2156 (Figure 10). By contrast, the Broccoli group had low presence of the operon, which was

associated with lower relative Bacteroidota (Figure S1), and the enrichment of SVs in the phyla

Firmicutes, Actinobacteriota, and Proteobacteria. This had resulted in higher ratios of average

Firmicutes/Bacteroidota (F/B: 72 v. 16), Actinobacteriota/Bacteroidota (A/B: 0.3 v. 0.1), and

Proteobacteria/Bacteroidota (P/B: 0.6 v. 0.3). Operon presence in the Control+DSS and

Broccoli+DSS jejunum contents was low. In the jejunum scrapings, more Control mice had a low

presence of the operon, while more Broccoli mice exhibited higher presence (Figure 10). In the

Control+DSS and Broccoli+DSS mice, the jejunum scrapings exhibited higher operon presence

relative to the jejunum contents (Figure 10).

In the cecum contents, the presence of all 5 genes in the Broccoli group shows an increase

in gene presence as compared to the jejunum samples in this group. Control+DSS and

Broccoli+DSS groups had higher presence of the operon than in the groups without DSS. The

operon presence in the Broccoli+DSS group is associated with *B.*-dominant and *Bacteroides* SVs

(Figure 9), but the Control+DSS increase is associated with large-scale changes to the bacterial

community (Figure S1): large reductions in Bacteroidota and Firmicutes, a large F/B ratio (118.5

v. 6.8), increased P/B (1.5 v. ~0), and a significant increase in Actinobacteriota (A/B = 10.16 v.

0.01). The cecum samples on a broccoli diet were associated with higher counts of Bacteroidetes,

Firmicutes, Actinobacteriota, and Proteobacteria and lower average ratios of F/B (10 v. 59), A/B

(0.068 v. 4.8), and P/B (0.31 v. 0.70) in the cecum compared to groups on the control diet.

The colon contents in the Control mice showed limited operon presence, with higher

abundance in scrapings, while the Control+DSS mice had higher operon presence in both the colon

sites (Figure 10). The Broccoli mice showed higher operon presence in the contents as compared

to the scrapings, while the Broccoli+DSS group had the opposite pattern.

Treatment	Contents			Scrapings		BT2159-BT2156 operon
	Jejunum	Cecum	Colon	Jejunum	Colon	Mean copy number
Control	70%	67%	90%	80%	70%	
	10%	22%	0%	10%	10%	
	20%	11%	10%	10%	20%	
Broccoli	89%	50%	67%	90%	80%	
	11%	30%	11%	0%	10%	
	0%	20%	22%	10%	10%	
Ccontrol+DSS	89%	75%	50%	67%	63%	
	11%	0%	30%	11%	0%	
	0%	25%	20%	22%	38%	
Broccoli+DSS	90%	70%	60%	80%	80%	
	0%	0%	30%	10%	0%	
	10%	30%	10%	10%	20%	

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405 **Figure 10: Prevalence of the operon BT2159-BT2156 in *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* (VPI-**
406 **5482) in mice with and without chronic, relapsing DSS-induced colitis where diet was**
407 **manipulated.** Percentages are based on the number of samples (by diet and anatomical location)
408 in each category of gene abundance (minimum mean copy numbers: red low <100, purple medium
409 100-100,000, blue high >100,000) across all 5 genes in the operon.

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Discussion

Broccoli sprouts protected mice against DSS-induced colitis

The anti-inflammatory effects of broccoli and broccoli sprout bioactives, in particular

sulforaphane (SFN), have been well-established in various cell, animal, and human trials of IBD

(17). However, studies have not elucidated the role of the whole gut communities, or patterns of

biogeography, on the capacity of bacteria to metabolize the glucoraphanin (GLR) precursor to

SFN. Juvenile SPF C57BL/6 mice (7-11 weeks) were fed a diet featuring 10% steamed broccoli

sprouts, which was balanced by macronutrients and fiber, and which contained glucoraphanin but

no plant myrosinase, thus gut microbiota were solely responsible for any production of the anti-

inflammatory sulforaphane. Under chronic, relapsing DSS-induced colitis (3 cycle regime), the

steamed broccoli sprout diet group demonstrated mitigated weight loss; reduced Disease Activity

Index, plasma lipocalin, and proinflammatory cytokines; the presence of bacterial taxa which are

known to metabolize GLR to SFN; and retained biogeographical patterns of bacterial communities

in different locations in the gut. Moreover, broccoli sprouts reduced the occurrence of fecal blood,

which is known to increase the abundance of pathobionts and reduce commensals (45, 46).

Lipocalin is a neutrophil protein produced by epithelial cells and secreted luminally and

through intestinal tissue where it is absorbed into the blood (47), and serves as a surrogate marker

for intestinal inflammation in IBD (47). Plasma lipocalin was high in our Control+DSS mice, but

low for the Broccoli+DSS diet which suggests that broccoli sprouts prevented severe physical

destruction of the epithelium. Similarly, the lower concentration of plasma cytokines in the

Broccoli+DSS mice indicates a lower innate immune response, and which may be the result of an

intact epithelial barrier that prevented bacterial translocation from the lumen to intestinal tissues

(34).

Broccoli sprout feeding was initiated before the introduction of DSS. This was done partly

to acclimate mice to the diet, but primarily to investigate the efficacy of broccoli sprouts as a

prevention strategy before initiating colitis. Previous studies have demonstrated its usefulness in

alleviating symptoms during active disease states (13). To validate the feasibility of broccoli as a

treatment for DSS-induced colitis, a 10% steamed broccoli sprout diet was used with male mice,

as they are known to suffer more histopathological damage from DSS-induced colitis (48, 49).

Regular access to fiber is critical to recruiting and retaining beneficial microbiota in the gut (50),

and regular exposure to glucosinolates is needed to stimulate gut microbial conversion of GLR to

SFN (51). In individuals who sporadically consume broccoli or broccoli sprouts, or consume them

over short periods of time, the cooking preparation and the activity/inactivity of plant myrosinase

were often the determining factors in the production of SFN, if any (51). However, directly

including SFN in the diet is not feasible due to its instability (24). This approach would also hinder

the potential for other benefits and the overall enjoyment of consuming a food rich in phenols and

fiber.

We acknowledge that a major limitation in this study was only using male mice, as it is

known that hormones mediate both the gut microbiome and the type and intensity of DSS-induced

colitis. Thus, any future research on the application of this diet in people will require diversity in

the gender of participants.

454   Bacterial communities are highly responsive to DSS and broccoli sprouts

The broccoli sprout diet increased bacterial richness, regardless of DSS treatment, and as

the control and sprout diets were balanced for total fiber it is likely that fiber was not solely

responsible for this effect. In particular, broccoli sprouts increased bacterial richness in the colon.

We previously showed that the concentration of SFN is highest in the colon after feeding C57BL/6

mice steamed broccoli sprout diets which has reduced myrosinase concentrations, suggesting that

primary hydrolysis of SFN to GLR by microbial communities occurs in the colon (32). The current

study found effects on microbial richness from the broccoli sprout diet manifested most strongly

in the colon, supporting our previous findings.

When identifying significant taxa which defined the samples in different treatments, the

Control mice contained a high abundance of known mouse commensal taxa, including *Dubosiella*

spp. and strains from the Muribaculaceae and Lachnospiraceae families. The Control+DSS mice

contained much lower abundance of known mouse commensal taxa and higher abundance of the

Clostridium sensu stricto clade (52), which contains known pathogens such as *Clostridium*

perfringens (53), and well-known butyrate-producing symbionts, such as *Clostridium butyricum*

(54).

The Broccoli sprout group was also high in commensal taxa such as *Dubosiella* spp., and

had enrichment of *Bacteroides* spp., a genus known to contain glucosinolate-metabolizing bacteria

and modified by cruciferous vegetable consumption (55). The broccoli sprout diet enriched for

Parasutterella excrementihominis in the gut, which is commonly found in human and murine gut

communities and is associated with carbohydrate intake (56). It is possible that other breakdown

products of glucosinolates, such as aromatic carbohydrate compounds in broccoli sprouts (57),

caused this enrichment (57). *Parasutterella excrementihominis* has also been associated with

inflammation in the gut in observation-based studies; however in metabolic pathway-based studies

it appears to be an important contributor to nitrate reduction in the gut and in reducing stress-

related inflammation (58). Nitrates are low in raw broccoli and other cruciferous vegetables, but

this can be increased by freezing (59). Thus, our diet preparation – which included freezing and

freeze-drying steps – may have selected for nitrate-reducers. Also, outside of the mucosa, SFN has

an anti-bacterial effect (17), which may explain why putative pathogenic genera were lower in

Broccoli groups as compared to the Control+DSS group.

Importantly, the Broccoli+DSS group had many of the same important taxa as the group

consuming Broccoli sprouts without colitis, implying that the selective pressure of the broccoli

sprouts on the bacterial community structure may be stronger than that of the DSS. The two

treatments were so similar that many SVs were found in high abundance across at least 70% of the

samples in those mice. There were no bacterial SVs shared across at least 70% of the

Broccoli+DSS and the Control+DSS group, indicating there was not a specific community which

was enriched or associated with the DSS.

The inclusion of DSS in drinking water demonstrably affects mice and gut bacterial

communities, but it does not necessarily reduce bacterial richness. Control+DSS mice hosted more

bacterial richness than Control mice in the jejunum, and similar richness in the colon, although the

distinct ordination clustering between Control and Control+DSS samples indicates different

communities present regardless of similar richness, and the tight grouping of the Control+DSS

community indicates a strong selective pressure. In part, Control+DSS mice may retain gut

richness because certain bacteria, like *Proteus vulgaris,* can make use of DSS (60), while other

novel commensals, like some *Bacteroides*, appear to offer protective effects (61). We did not

identify any bacterial SVs belonging to *Proteus*, although we found significantly higher amounts

of *Bacteroides* sp. in broccoli sprout-fed mice. *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* has been

demonstrated to metabolize glucoraphanin to sulforaphane and offer protection against colitis in

mice (21).

Across multiple mouse lineages, individualized bacterial communities responded

differently to the inclusion of DSS, and the presence of *Duncaniella muricolitica* and *Alistipes*

okayasuensis were implicated in better mouse health outcomes (62). Modeling of the gut

microbiome indicates that certain taxa may act as keystone species – critical to building the rest of

the community and particularly in circumstances in which the microbial community has been

destabilized (63). However, no single important bacterial taxa has been identified in meta analyses

of IBD in humans (64, 65), and some studies have pointed to the switch of bacterial commensals

to acting as pathobionts as important (66).

There is considerable evidence that microbes provide metabolism of biologically inert

glucosinolates to biologically active isothiocyanates, and several cultured bacterial strains from

fermented foods and the digestive tract have been shown to perform this conversion (21, 43, 44).

Additionally, a single bacterial equivalent of the plant myrosinase enzyme has not been identified,

and there is the possibility that several enzymes in bacteria may work in concert to achieve

metabolism of GSLs. Further, research is lacking to determine if the effect on the gut microbiome

is metabolite (isothiocyanates)-mediated or precursor (glucosinolates)-mediated. The scope of

research in this field should be expanded by investigating the concepts of biogeographic specificity

of both bioactive production and absorption and microbial community dynamics.

Biogeography reveals location-specific trends in bacterial communities

It has been well-demonstrated that distinct bacterial communities exist in different

locations along the gastrointestinal tract in mammals, related to the local anatomical,

environmental, nutritional, and host immunological conditions in different organs (67–69).

Further, the effect of foods on the gut microbiome can be specific to an individual's communities

(27). Given the complexity of microbial community function, as well as the spatially explicit

biochemical digestion activities of the host, it follows that the location of glucoraphanin

metabolism may influence how well the host can absorb SFN, whether it may be distributed

systematically, and where it will be effective at preventing or treating symptoms. It has previously

been demonstrated in mouse trials using 2,4,6 trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid to chemically induce

colitis that the mucosal-associated bacterial population is more affected by colitis than the lumen-

associated (digesta) community (36).

Here, we showed that DSS-induced colitis effectively erased the biogeographical

specificity of communities in the mouse gastrointestinal tract, with the exception of communities

in jejunum scrapings remaining distinct from those in cecal contents. Given the highly specific

function of the cecum in separating fibers by size and furthering microbial fermentation, it is not

surprising that it would be distinct. We sampled the jejunum because it is not often reported on in

IBD studies, and does not always show effects of inflammation. We confirmed that bacteria in the

jejunum are negatively affected by DSS. The DSS may be a stronger selective force than

anatomical location in driving bacterial communities in the gut (61). For example, its destruction

of the epithelial cell surface may change the microarchitecture and alter microbial attachment in

the gut (70), and DSS increases the hydrophobicity of bile acids (71), which may affect microbial

survival and ability to attach to host epithelial cells, thus increasing microbial washout through the

gut. Any of these could possibly explain our findings that DSS eliminated biogeographical

specificity of communities in the mouse gastrointestinal tract. However, more research would be

needed to determine causation.

Mouse studies suggest biotransformation of glucoraphanin to SFN occurs in the colon (21,

25, 26), and we previously confirmed the majority of SFN accumulation takes place in the colon,

with greater resolution using multiple locations along the GI tract (13). Critically, the cecum had

low SFN, indicating that it is not responsible for hosting bacterial biotransformation of these

bioactives (13). Here, we also showed that only a few bacterial taxa were estimated to be sourced

in the cecum and creating sink populations in the colon, and of these, none were identified to be

putatively responsible for metabolism of glucoraphanin. Collectively, this confirms that this is a

valid model for generalization to the human gut.

Putative GLR-metabolizers more abundant in sprout diets, but gene copies were not uniformly increased

Comparative analysis of the BLAST identification of SVs and qPCR of the gene copies in

the operon BT2160-2156 suggest that the dominant Bacteroides SV identified by 16S rRNA

sequencing largely represents *B. thetaiotaomicron*. The Broccoli diet (no DSS) induced the

presence of *B.*-dominant in the jejunum contents and scrapings, and more so in the cecum contents

and the colon contents and scrapings. The addition of DSS (Broccoli+DSS) noticeably reduced *B.*-

dominant in the colon contents although it was maintained in the cecum and colon scrapings.

Importantly, the results presented here used only DNA from viable cells, but not RNA, and it is

known that *Bacteroides* and particularly *B. theta* exhibit highly situational carbohydrate and glycan

digestion. Thus, the presence of *B. theta* or other putative GLR-metabolizers does not confirm

their activity, which may explain why these taxa and GLR-metabolizing genes were also present

in the Control and Control+DSS in low abundance.

Whereas the lumen (contents) may represent a transient view of a gut bacterial community,

the mucosal-associated populations (scrapings) are more resistant to short-term changes to the diet

or gut ecosystem. There was no *B.*-dominant present in the Control group's jejunum contents or

scrapings after 34 days of trial, but there were genes copies of the *B. theta* GLR-metabolizing

operon, which suggests that gene copies were from the many unclassified Bacteroidota or

Bacteroides SVs in the jejunum contents and scrapings sequencing samples, or from other genera

containing an operon orthologous to BT2159-BT2156. By contrast, the Broccoli groups's jejunum

contents and scrapings include *B.*-dominant, with considerably higher frequencies in the scrapings,

as well as higher prevalence of all 5 genes in the operon. This is further demonstrated in the DSS

groups for both diets, in which the jejunum scrapings demonstrated higher prevalence of all 5

genes in the operon relative to the jejunum contents. Interestingly, the Control+DSS group had

twice the prevalence of high copy numbers across all 5 genes, but no B.-dominant SVs, again

suggesting the existence of the genes was due to other unclassified Bacteroidota or *Bacteroides*.

As chime flows from the jejunum to the cecum, it enters the less hostile (neutral to slightly

alkaline) and primary fermentation environment of the cecum, where the bacterial density typically

increases by orders of magnitude in healthy animals. In our samples, higher abundance of the

operon was found in the cecum, as GLR-metabolizers are possibly benefiting from its slower

transit time and more favorable fermentation environment. The presence of all 5 genes in the

Broccoli group shows a dramatic increase in gene presence, as well as *B.*-dominant and

Bacteroides SVs, as compared to the jejunum samples in this group. Interestingly, in the DSS

groups for both diets, the prevalence of gene copies in the operon is higher than in the groups

without DSS. The increase in the Broccoli+DSS group is associated with increased *B.*-dominant

and *Bacteroides* SVs, but the Control+DSS increase is associated with phylum-scale changes to

the bacterial community.

The Control and Control+DSS colon contents contained limited operon presence, with only

slightly higher abundance in scrapings, and are largely absent of *B.*-dominant. The Broccoli and

Broccoli+DSS groups contained more operon in the colon contents than the scrapings. In the colon

contents in both broccoli sprout groups, *B.*-dominant was identified in a few mice, but *Bacteroides*

counts were much higher and were not impacted by the DSS treatment. In the colon scrapings in

both broccoli sprout groups, *B.*-dominant was more prevalent and dominant, suggesting the

possibility of *B*.-dominant GLR-metabolism in the mucosal-associated sites, and other *Bacteroides*

providing GLR-metabolism in the Broccoli+DSS colon contents.

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Considerations for the application of this work

Access to fresh or frozen broccoli and broccoli sprouts, the cooking preparation, and the

ability to regularly consume these vegetables will have implications for the feasibility and success

of a dietary intervention for preventing or reducing inflammation in the gut. For example, sprouts

from various plants have been implicated in food-borne illness because of their proximity to soil,

and people may be wary of or discouraged from consuming raw or slightly cooked sprouts.

However, more recent research has shown that sprouts can be consumed safely, especially with

improvements in hygiene and agricultural regulations, as well as in food processing (72). Further,

broccoli sprouts can be grown at home in windowsill seed-bed germinators without requiring soil,

gardening tools, or specialized gardening knowledge, which could ease the financial burden of

purchasing healthy foods (73). This may prove to be particularly important in areas without access

to healthcare or affordable prescriptions, or in areas without close proximity to fresh, healthy fruits

and vegetables (5, 74, 75) as this can preclude being able to make the dietary recommendations

set forth by medical professionals (76). Including broccoli sprouts as 10% of the diet could be

potentially too high for IBD patients to comply with, and future studies on the application of this

diet will require a deeper understanding of the biological, microbiological, immunological, as well

as social and logistical factors involved in dietary interventions in people.

Materials and Methods

Diet preparation

Jonathan's Sprouts™ (Rochester, Massachusetts, USA) broccoli sprouts were purchased from a grocery store (Bangor, Maine, USA) and steamed in a double boiler for 10 minutes, immediately cooled down, and stored in a -80°C freezer until freeze-drying (University of Maine Food Pilot Plant, Orono, Maine, USA). The freeze-dried broccoli sprouts were ground into a fine powder and mixed with purified AIN93G rodent base diet (Envigo, now Inotiv, Indianapolis, Indiana, USA) to a concentration of 10% by weight. The AIN93G diet contains 50 g/kg of fiber as cellulose (77), and broccoli sprouts contain 35 g/kg fiber, thus the broccoli sprout-fed mice consumed a similar amount of fiber on a per weight basis. The diets were measured to balance their weight prior to feedings; however, we did not measure food intake or refusals. Anecdotal animal care notes and visual observation of cages across multiple previous studies indicate that control and broccoli sprout groups do not consume different amounts of food (Li and Ishaq, personal communications.

Our previous work assessed the effects of different diet preparations and the percentage of broccoli sprouts, and found that 5-10% broccoli sprouts by weight reliably produces consistent anti-inflammatory results in mice (13). For this study, we chose to use 10% steamed broccoli sprouts both to assess the microbial conversion of GLR to SFN, and to ensure that the intervention would have a strong effect (48, 49, 78). Diet pellets were formed using a silicone mold to ensure consistent sizing, and allowed to dry at room temperature for up to 48 hours in a chemical safety hood to facilitate moisture evaporation, and after drying were stored in sealable plastic bags in a -20°C freezer.

DSS colitis model

The dextran sodium sulfate (DSS) mouse model is widely used to study human Ulcerative Colitis (UC) (41, 79), and has been used for studying diet-sourced anti-inflammatories for the prevention of IBD (40, 41). Administration of DSS in drinking water modifies the expression of tight junction proteins in intestinal epithelial cells, leading to a leaky epithelial barrier (80). This is followed by goblet cell depletion, erosion, ulceration, and infiltration of neutrophils into the lamina propria and submucosa (81), triggering the innate immune response (82, 83).

Forty male, 6-week-old, specific pathogen free (SPF) C57BL/6 mice (*Mus musculus*) were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, Maine, U.S.) and transferred to the animal facility at the University of Maine (Orono, Maine, U.S.). The animal protocol (IACUC protocol A2020-01-04) was approved by the University Committee on the Use and Care of Animals, and all biosafety work was approved by the Institutional Biosafety Committee (protocol SI-092220). The mice were acclimated to the facility for 7 days (day -6 to 0), during which they received *ad libitum* autoclaved tap water and the AIN-93G purified rodent diet (control diet). After initial acclimation, the mice were randomly assigned to one of 4 experimental groups beginning on experimental day 1: control diet without DSS treatment (Control), 10% steamed broccoli sprout diet without DSS treatment (Broccoli), control diet with DSS treatment (Control+DSS), and 10% steamed broccoli sprout diet with DSS treatment (Broccoli+DSS). All experimental groups were on 7 days of their respective diets (control or 10% steamed broccoli sprout), after which DSS (Alfa Aesar, molecular weight ~40 kD (39)) was added to the drinking water of the DSS treatment groups to a final concentration of 2.5%. Mice were given DSS for 5 days, followed by a recovery period for 5 - 7 days. This was repeated for a total of 3 cycles to induce chronic colitis (40, 84). Mice were sacrificed and tissue collected after the third round of DSS, on day 35 of the experiment.

669   Bodyweight, fecal blood, and fecal consistency were used to calculate Disease Activity

670 Index (DAI) scores (83). Fecal samples were collected every 2 - 3 days throughout the trial, and

671 daily during the DSS cycles. Body weights and DAI were analyzed using 2-way ANOVA

672 generated with R to compare differences between treatments for each day. A generalized additive

673 model (GAM) was used in R to compare DAI differences (R-sq.(adj) = 0.861, Deviance explained

674 = 86.4%, GCV = 0.036031) by treatment across the entire study, using Mouse ID to account for

675 repeated measures.

676   Lipocalin-2 concentration in the plasma samples were determined by a mouse Lipocalin-

677 2/NGAL DuoSet ELISA kit (R & D Biosystems, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions.

678 Lipocalin is a neutrophil protein that binds bacterial siderophores and serves as a surrogate marker

679 for intestinal inflammation in IBD (47). The readings at wavelengths of 540 nm and 450 nm were

680 measured by a Thermo Scientific Varioskan LUX Multimode Microplate Reader. The readings at

681 540 nm were subtracted from the readings at 450 nm to correct for the discoloration of the solution.

682 ANOVA was used to compare lipocalin values.

683   We analyzed several cytokines in the mouse plasma samples which were collected at the

684 end of the study. CCL4, also known as macrophage inflammatory protein 1β (MIP1β), is a

685 chemokine that plays a critical role in regulating the migration and activation of immune cells

686 during inflammatory processes (42). Interleukins IL-1β and IL-6; and tumor necrosis factor alpha

687 (TNF-α) are pro-inflammatory cytokines that play key roles in the regulation of the immune

688 response (85–87). The concentrations of mouse CCL4/MIP-1β, IL-1β/IL1F2, IL6, and TNF-a were

689 analyzed using the Simple Plex Ella Automated Immunoassay System (Ella) from R&D

690 Biosystems, USA. Mouse serum samples were diluted 10-fold using the reagent diluent provided

691 with the kit (SPCKA-MP-007374, Protein Simple, Bio-Techne), and the concentrations were

determined following the manufacturer's instructions. The Ella system was used to perform the

immunoassay, and mean values were calculated for each analyte. The resulting data were used for

statistical analyses using ANOVA.

After euthanasia, lumen-associated (digesta contents) and mucosal-associated (epithelial

scrapings) microbial community samples were collected from the jejunum, cecum (contents only),

and colon for DNA extraction, gene quantification, and community sequencing as described

below.

Bacterial community sequencing and analysis

Immediately following euthanasia of the mice, digesta (lumen contents) and epithelial

associated (tissue scrapings) microbial community samples were collected from the jejunum, the

cecum (contents only), and along the entire colon, as the inflamed mice had short colons and

limited amounts of digesta present. All samples of gut microbiota were gently homogenized with

vortexing, then treated with propidium monoazide (PMA; BioTium) following kit protocols at a

final concentration of 25 μm. PMA covalently binds to relic/free DNA and DNA inside

compromised/dead cell membranes, and prevents amplification in downstream protocols to

preclude dead DNA from the sequence data (88).

Following PMA treatment, bulk DNA was extracted from bacterial communities (n = 200

samples), or no-template (water) control samples (n = 10, one for each extraction batch) using

commercially available kits optimized for water and tissue-based microbial communities (Quick-

DNA Fecal/Soil Kit, Zymo Research). DNA extract was roughly quantified and purity-checked

with a Thermo Scientific™ NanoDrop™ OneC Microvolume UV-Vis Spectrophotometer

(Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, U.S.). Samples underwent DNA amplicon sequencing of the

16S rRNA gene V3-V4 region, using primers 341F and 806R and protocols consistent with The

Earth Microbiome Project (89), and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq platform using the 2 x 300-

nt V3 kit (Molecular Research Labs, Clearwater, TX, U.S.). Raw sequence data (fastq files and

metadata) is available from NCBI through BioProject Accession number PRJNA911821.

Amplicon sequence data was processed using previously curated workflows in the Ishaq

Lab (R code supplied as Supplemental Material), which used the DADA2 pipeline ver. 1.26 (90)

in the R software environment ver. 4.1.1 (91). The dataset started with 46,581,832 paired raw

reads, and based on initial quality assessment only the forward reads were processed. Trimming

parameters were designated based on visual assessment of the aggregated quality scores at each

base from all samples (plotQualityProfile in DADA2): the first 10 bases were trimmed, sequences

were trimmed to 225 bases in length, and were discarded if they had ambiguous bases, more than

two errors, or matched the PhiX version 3 positive control (Illumina; FC-110-3001). After

filtering, 34,009,802 non-unique forward/read 1 sequences remained.

The DADA algorithm was used to estimate the error rates for the sequencing run,

dereplicate the reads, pick sequence variants (SVs) which represent 'microbial individuals', and

remove chimeric artifacts from the sequence table. Taxonomy was assigned using the Silva

taxonomic training data version 138.1 (92) down to species where possible, and reads matching

chloroplasts and mitochondria taxa were removed using the dplyr package (93). No-template

control samples were used to remove contaminating sequences from the samples by extraction

batch (94). The sequence table, taxonomy, and metadata were combined for each experiment using

the phyloseq package (95), which was also used for basic visualization and statistical analysis in

combination with other packages. Samples from one mouse (4L, in the Control+DSS group) were

dropped from further analysis as they were outliers on all visualizations and may have been

contaminated during DNA extraction.

Normality was checked using a Shapiro-Wilkes test on alpha diversity metrics generated

from rarefied data, including observed richness, evenness, and Shannon diversity. Linear models

were run for comparisons of alpha diversity metrics to compare by sample type, (lme4 package

(96)), in which anatomical location and diet treatment were used as fixed effects, and mouse ID

used to control for repeated sampling as needed. Generalized additive models were used to assess

trends in alpha diversity using time as a smoother (97). Jaccard unweighted similarity was used to

calculate sample similarity based on community membership (species presence/absence),

visualized with non-parametric multidimensional scaling, and tested with permutational analysis

of variance (permANOVA) by using the vegan package (98). Random forest feature prediction

with permutation was used to identify differentially abundant SVs based on factorial conditions

(99). Plots were made using the ggplot2 (100), ggpubr (101), and phyloseq packages.

Source Tracker algorithms which had been modified for the R platform (102, 103) were

used to identify source:sink effects based on anatomical location. This was used to determine if

the cecum could be the source for population sinks in the colon, as a proxy for the model's

applicability to the human gut anatomical features and microbial communities. A total of 142 SVs

were identified as possibly sourced from the cecum, and 95 SVs were estimated to make up >1%

of the proportion of sources (Figure S8). The putative GLR converting bacteria in the Broccoli and

Broccoli+DSS mouse gut samples were not among those taxa identified as sourced in the cecum.

Quantitative PCR for glucoraphanin metabolism genes

DNA extract from all gut locations was used to assess microbial potential for glucoraphanin

conversion. Bacterial genes, gene sequences, and primers associated with conversion of GSLs to

ITCs identified in *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* VPI-5482 (21) were used, and are listed in Table

S1. These primers were evaluated for validity using IDT's OligoAnalyzer (www.idtdna.com) and

NCBI primer blast (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/). The identified genes from

Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron VPI-5482 were analyzed by using the ApE-A plasmid Editor v3.1.3

to optimize and validate the primers for optimal GC content and melting temperature.

Quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) was performed on extracted DNA using

the Applied Biosystems QuantStudio 6 Flex Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems, Foster

City, CA, USA). Luna® Universal qPCR Master Mix and primer sets BT2156-BT2160 were used

to quantify copy numbers of glucoraphanin-metabolizing genes previously identified from

Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron. Primers were diluted to 10 µM, for a final concentration of 0.25

µM in each well. Each primer set required one cycle of 50°C for 2 min, one cycle of 95°C for 1

min, and forty cycles of 95°C for 15 sec, 60°C for 30 sec and 72°C at either 20, 25 or 30 sec

depending on the primer set. A standard curve for each gene was created using a set of 7 serially

diluted geneblocks (IDT). All samples and standards were run in triplicate, across two 384-well

plates with negative controls and standards included on both plates. Primer sequences, geneblock

sequences for standards, and protocols are listed in Table S1. Sample gene copy numbers were

calculated using the standard curve in the Quantstudio analysis software. Data were visualized and

statistically analyzed in R using analysis of variance models corrected for multiple comparisons

using Tukey's HSD. Similar to the bacterial community data, sample 4L was dropped from the

qPCR data analysis as an outlier/possible contamination.

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784 **Acknowledgements**

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Experimental design schematic for a chronic model of ulcerative colitis induced by dextran sodium sulfate (DSS) in 40 male mice (C57BL/6) beginning at 7-weeks of age.

Figure 2. Body weights (A) and Disease Activity Index scores (B) in mice across a 34-day trial under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Body weights and time scale were normalized to the day mice began the broccoli sprout diet, set at 100% starting weight and Day 1, respectively. DAI scores are calculated by weight loss intensity score, fecal blood, and fecal consistency. Treatment comparisons at each day compared by ANOVA, and significance is designated as 0.001 '***'.

Figure 3. Cytokines (A) and lipocalin (B) in plasma on the last day of the trial from mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Cytokines include CCL4; interleukins IL-1β and IL-6; and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α). Data are represented as mean $^|\pm$ SD. *, p < 0.05, ANOVA.

Figure 4. Gut bacterial taxa identified from mice having a positive fecal occult blood score at sacrifice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Data were subset to mice with a positive score on the last day of the experiment, when the gut samples were collected. Important features (SVs) were identified through permutational random forest analysis, and only the features important to this group (>50 reads) are listed out of 143 significant (p < 0.05) features across all treatments. Model accuracy was 89.7%. Bacterial sequence variants (SV) are identified as the lowest level of taxonomic identity possible, with "NA" indicating which could not be identified to species, and the number indicating which specific SV it was.

Figure 5. Observed bacterial richness along the intestine of mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Richness is calculated as the number of different bacterial sequence variants (SVs). Statistically significant comparisons are provided in Table 1.

Figure 6. Principal coordinate analysis of bacterial community similarity along the intestines of mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Panel A was calculated with unweighted Jaccard Similarity to visualize differences in the taxonomic structure, and panel B with weighted Bray-Curtis to visualize structure and abundance.

Figure 7. Principal coordinate analysis of bacterial communities from locations along the intestines of mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet: (A) All treatments (B) Control+DSS only. Bacterial communities in the jejunum, cecum, and colon were statistically different (permANOVA, p < 0.05) from each other in the treatment groups (A) Control, Broccoli, and Broccoli+DSS, were not statistically different from each other after multiple bouts of colitis in the (B) Control+DSS group.

Figure 8. Bacterial sequence variants (SVs) belonging to the genera which have putative capacity to convert glucoraphanin to sulforaphane for mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Strains of bacteria in these genera have been demonstrated to perform myrosinase-like activity in the digestive tract, as reviewed in (43). Four treatment groups were used in a 34-day chronic, relapsing model of colitis: control diet, control diet with DSS added to drinking water, control diet adjusted with 10% by weight steamed broccoli sprouts, and 10% broccoli sprout diet with DSS added to drinking water.

Figure 9. Biogeography of the dominant *Bacteroides* SV (*B.*-dominant) in the gut (A) and abundance of reads belonging to *Bacteroides* species by diet treatment and anatomical location in the gastrointestinal tract of mice. (A) *B.*-dominant was present in the jejunum contents and scrapings and abundant in the cecum contents, colon contents, and colon scrapings. DSS reduced *B.*-dominant colon content density. (B) The Silva Database identified *Bacteroides* species *acidifaciens*, *massiliensis*, and *sartorii*. Of the BLASTN identified species for *B.*-dominant SVs*,* only *B. thetaiotaomicron* was associated with broccoli-sprout-fed mice.

Figure 10: Prevalence of the operon BT2159-BT2156 in *Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron* (VPI-5482) in mice with and without chronic, relapsing DSS-induced colitis where diet was manipulated. Percentages are based on the number of samples (by diet and anatomical location) in each category of gene abundance (minimum mean copy numbers: red low <100, purple medium 100-100,000, blue high >100,000) across all 5 genes in the operon.

Table Legends

Table 1. Statistical comparison of observed richness along the intestine of mice under a DSS-induced model of chronic, relapsing colitis with or without 10% steamed broccoli sprouts in diet. Comparisons were made using linear regression models comparing treatment, in subsets of the data by anatomical location. Only significant comparisons ($p < 0.05$) are listed. Bacterial richness is visualized in Figure 5.

Supplemental Materials Legends

Supplemental Figures and Table. Additional data visualizations are included to demonstrate minor points or null results.

Supplemental Material. The R code that was used to clean, visualize, and statistically analyze the bacterial community sequencing data presented.

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