Remodeling gut microbiota by *Streptococcus thermophilus* 19 attenuates inflammation in

septic mice

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Abstract

Background: Sepsis is a life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host

response to infection and is the leading cause of death in burn patients. S. *thermophilus* 19 is

highly effective probiotic strains with well-studied health benefits, but its role in protecting

viscera against injury caused by sepsis and the underlying mechanism is poorly understood.

Methodology/Principal Findings: We tested the utility of S. *thermophilus* 19 in attenuating

inflammation in *vitro* and *vivo* of a Lps-induced sepsis mouse model. We also evaluated the

influence of sepsis and S. *thermophilus* on microbial community.In *vitro*, S. *thermophilus* 19 can

decrease the expression of inflammatory factors. Additionally, in a lipopolysaccharide

(LPS)-induced septic mouse model, mice administered the probiotics 19 was highly resistant to

LPS and exhibited decreased expression of inflammatory factors compared to LPS-treated

control mice. A MiSeq-based sequence analysis revealed that gut microbiota alterations in mice

intraperitoneally injected with 1 mg/ml LPS were mitigated by the administration of oral

probiotics 19. Furthermore, changes in the levels of inflammatory factors in different organs

related to different gut microbiota alterations were observed.

Conclusions/Significance: Together these findings indicate that S. *thermophilus* 19 may be a

new avenue for interventions against inflammation caused by sepsis and other systemic

inflammatory diseases.

Author summary

Sepsis is a life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to infection

and is the leading cause of death in burn patients, responsible for up to 50 to 60% of burn injury

deaths. Although our understanding of sepsis has increased substantially in recent years, it is still

reported to be the leading cause of death in seriously ill patients, and the incidence of sepsis has

increased annually. Therefore, new insights into the causes of sepsis are urgently needed.Here,

we use Miseq method to determine the composition of gut microbiota.We also use a probiotic

(*Streptococcus thermophilus* 19) to investigate the therapeutic effect on sepsis. We found that the

exceptional efficacy of probiotic *Streptococcus thermophilus* 19 in attenuating the inflammation

in septic mice by modifying the structure and function of gut microbiota. Our study proposed

oraling *Streptococcus thermophilus* 19 might be a new avenue for interventions against

inflammation caused by sepsis and other systemic inflammatory diseases.

Introduction

Sepsis is a life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to infection and is the leading cause of death in burn patients, responsible for up to 50 to 60% of burn injury deaths[1, 2]. Although our understanding of sepsis has increased substantially in recent years, it is still reported to be the leading cause of death in seriously ill patients, and the incidence of sepsis has increased annually. Therefore, new insights into the causes of sepsis are urgently needed.

The gut microbiota is a complex ecosystem consisting of trillions of bacteria that live in the digestive tracts of humans and other animals[3]. Growing evidence supports the key role of a healthy gut microbiota in promoting and maintaining a balanced immune response and in the establishment of the gut barrier immediately after birth[4, 5]. Moreover, a dysbiotic state of the gut microbiota can lead to dysregulation of various processes, which can in turn contribute to the development of autoimmune conditions[6]. For instance, the presence or overabundance of specific types of bacteria may contribute to inflammatory disorders such as IBD[6]. Additionally, metabolites from certain members of the gut flora may influence host signaling pathways, contributing to disorders such as colon cancer and obesity. Sepsis is an extreme response to inflammation that has profound effects on all parts of the body. For decades, the gut has been regarded as the motor of sepsis[7], and it has recently been shown that a healthy gut microbiota has a protective role during systemic inflammation. Thus, we hypothesized that intestinal bacteria play an important role in sepsis since the gut microbiota is associated with many diseases.

Probiotics are live microbes that have beneficial effects on human and animal health

when ingested in sufficient amounts[8]. Probiotics play an important role in maintaining the

normal microbiota composition and have been used to treat or prevent a number of gut health

disorders, such as irritable bowel syndrome, hypercholesterolemia, gastritis, gut infection,

parasitic infestation, hypersensitivity (including food allergies), and even certain types of cancers

(e.g., colorectal cancer)[9, 10]. The use of microbes as probiotics also hold potential for oral

health in preventing and treating oral infections, dental plaque-related diseases, periodontal

diseases and halitosis. Furthermore, probiotics can alleviate inflammation associated with some

human diseases by promoting changes in the gut microbiota composition[11, 12]. *Streptococcus*

thermophilus is a highly effective probiotic that has well studied health benefits, including the

production of antibiotics that prevent infections from pneumonia-causing microbes and C.

difficile and can help to prevent ulcers[13-15].

In this study, we used a coculture system (probiotics and RAW264.7 cells) to assess the

ability of probiotics to decrease the expression of inflammatory factors. We showed that

Streptococcus thermophilus 19 can decrease the inflammation induced by LPS in RAW264.7

cells. Furthermore, we investigated the ability of *Streptococcus thermophilus* 19 to protect mice

against LPS-induced inflammation and gut microbiota alterations when administered as a

probiotic. We observed that the administration of *S. thermophilus* 19 as probiotics could alter the

gut microbiota composition of untreated mice or mice with LPS-induced sepsis, with the

symptoms of sepsis mitigated in the latter group. Moreover, the levels of several inflammatory

factors in various organs were correlated to a diverse gut microbiota composition. We

hypothesize that the supplementation of diets with probiotics protects visceral organs by

reducing inflammation through alterations in the gut microbiota after sepsis.

Results

Probiotics decrease the expression of inflammatory factors in vitro

To assess the influence of the assayed probiotics on the expression of inflammatory factors, we

developed a coculture system (probiotics and RAW264.7 cells). After incubating for 6 hours,

total RNA was extracted and the expression of inflammatory factors was assessed via

quantitative RT-PCR. The LPS treatment increased the expression of inflammatory factors

compared to the untreated group. After coculturing with probiotics, we observed a reduction in

inflammatory factor expression, particularly when cells were incubated S. *thermophilus* 19

(Figure. 1). Moreover, we also observed a reduction in CD86 expression when cells treated with

S. *thermophilus* 19 (Figure. S1).Therefore, S. *thermophilus* 19 was chosen for further study.

Food and water intake and animal health conditions

Mice were induced by intravenous injection with different doses of LPS to induce sepsis. All

mice died when the concentration of LPS exceeded 2.5 mg/ml, even in mice administered

probiotics (data not shown). However, nearly 60% of mice survived when administered

probiotics together with 2 mg/ml LPS, whereas only 20% of mice administered the same LPS

without probiotics survived. All mice treated with 1 mg/ml of LPS survived (Figure. 2A).

We also recorded the total food and water intake and the animal health conditions for all

mice. LPS-treated mice with or without probiotics exhibited a reduction in total drinking water

and rat chow intake (Figure. 2C). Furthermore, mice treated with the probiotics alone also

exhibited decreased water and rat chow intake (Figure. 2C). However, mice treated with LPS lost

approximately 10% of their body weight during the 48 hours after injection, while untreated

mice did not lose weight. Although all treated groups regained their baseline weight by the third

day, mice treated with S. *thermophilus* 19 exhibited high rates of body weight recovery.

Meanwhile, mice treated with S. *thermophilus* 19 alone showed no changes in body weight,

although they exhibited lower drinking water and food intake (Figure. 2B). The decrease in body

weight of the LPS-treated mice could be explained by the LPS-induced inflammation causing a

reduction in food and drinking water intake, while the probiotics could alleviate inflammation to

promote the recovery in body weight.

Probiotics alleviate the serum inflammatory factor levels in septic mice

To test whether the assayed probiotics could alleviate inflammation *in vivo*, we induced sepsis in

BALB/c (H-2D^d) mice with LPS (1 mg/ml) through intraperitoneal injection and treated them

with PBS, S. *thermophilus* 19 via oral gavage. We observed a 2-fold increase in TNF-α

expression in the sera of mice treated with LPS, while that of IL-1β was less affected (Figure.

S2). In mice administered probiotics, the TNF-α level was reduced to that observed in the control

group. In contrast, in mice treated with probiotics without the LPS treatment, no significant

effect on the serum levels of IL-1β and TNF-α were observed compared to the control group,

demonstrating that the probiotics has no influence on the host in the absence of sepsis.

Probiotics effectively alleviated viscera damage induced by sepsis

Sepsis is an extreme response to inflammation, which has profound effects on all parts of the

body. Thus, we investigated the inflammation state of the kidneys, small intestines, liver, heart

and lungs of each mouse after the LPS and probiotic treatment. In the small intestines, the LPS

treatment dramatically increased the expression of IL-1β, CCL2, TGF-β, IL-6 and TNF-α, while

that of IL-10 was decreased compared to the control group. The expression of IL-1β, CCL2,

TGF-β, IL-6 and TNF-α were effectively rescued in the mice treated with probiotics compared to

the mice treated with LPS alone. Moreover, the expression of TNF-α and IL-1β in the probiotic-

and LPS-treated mice and the control mice did not significantly differ, while that of TGF-β and

CCL2 exhibited a slight difference. Meanwhile, mice treated only with probiotics exhibited

altered TGF-β and CCL2 expression compared to the control group (Figure. 3A, Figure .S3).

However, the administration of probiotics in the LPS-treated mice could not mitigate the change

in IL-10 expression observed mice treated with LPS alone. In the lungs, the LPS treatment

increased IL-1β, TNF-α, CCL2 and IL-6 expression, whereas the expression of IL-1β, TNF-α,

CCL2 and IL-6 was decreased in the probiotic- and LPS-treated mice. In addition, the LPS

treatment did not affect the expression of IL-10 and TGF-β, while the probiotic treatment

decreased the expression of IL-10(Figure. 3A, Figure .S3). In the kidneys, the LPS treatment

dramatically increased the expression of IL-1β, CCL2, TGF-β, IL-6 and TNF-α compared to the

control group, whereas mice treated with the probiotics exhibited decreased expression of these

inflammation factors. However, the expression of IL-10 in mouse kidneys has a crosscurrent

compared with that observed in the small intestines (Figure .3A, Figure .S3). Furthermore, the

administration of probiotics could decrease the high expression of IL-10 observed in the kidneys

due to the LPS treatment. In the livers, the probiotic treatment was also observed to decrease the

expression of inflammatory factors (IL-1β, TNF-α, IL-6, and CCL2) induced by LPS (Figure.

3A, Figure .S3). The expression of IL-10 in the liver exhibited the same tendency observed in the

small intestine. H&E staining (Figure. 3B) revealed that compared with the liver sections in the

control group mice, significant congestion of veins and hepatocyte necrosis was observed in the

LPS-treated mice, and the loss of intact liver plates and hepatocyte vacuolization was observed.

In pulmonary sections, drastic destruction of alveolar structures was detected in the LPS-treated

mice, and the effusion in alveoli in these mice was markedly more severe than that observed in

the control group mice. Furthermore, tissue infiltration by inflammatory cells was substantially

higher in LPS-treated mice than in the control group mice. Cotreatment with probiotics resulted

in the restoration of a close-to-normal appearance of liver and lung tissues. Moreover, S.

thermophilus 19 treatments alone did not affect the liver and lung sections of mice (Figure. 3B).

LPS altered the gut microbiota structure of mice

In the balance between intestinal microbiota and inflammation, deviations either way may cause

corresponding adjustments in the other. To test whether the gut microbiota of mice was altered

due to sepsis, we collected the cecal feces of mice and assayed them via MiSeq sequencing to

determine the composition of gut microbiota. Mice treated with LPS exhibited decreases

intestinal microbiota richness compared to the control group (Chao1 index) while no difference

in diversity (Shannon index) between two groups was observed (Figure. 4A -B). Interestingly, 8

OTUs were specifically present in the LPS-treatment group compared to the control group, while

the control group also contained 8 specific OTUs (Figure. S4). The fecal microbiota of the mice

treated with LPS only clustered differently from those of the control group mice, demonstrating

the significant effect of LPS on the gut microbiota (Figure. 4C).

Probiotics intervention alters the gut microbiota of mice

To investigate the effect of probiotics on the gut microbiota of mice, we sequenced the gut

microbiota of the mice treated with probiotics alone. The diversity of the intestinal microbiota

differed for the various probiotics assayed compared to the control group, while no difference in

richness was observed among the groups (Figure .5A -B). Nine OTUs were specifically present

in the group treated with S. *thermophilus* 19 alone compared to the control group, while the

control group also had 5 specific OTUs (Figure.S 4). Moreover, the gut microbiota of mice

treated with probiotics alone clustered differently from that of the control group mice (Figure.

S5C).

Oral administration of Probiotics alleviated viscera damage via altering the gut microbiota

We showed that probiotic intervention can attenuate the inflammation in septic mice (Figure. 3

and Figure .S3). Furthermore, we previously reported that probiotics can reduce the

inflammation induced by Cr(VI) in mice through modifying the gut microbiota. Thus, we

hypothesized that the protection of viscera by the probiotic-induced attenuation of inflammation

in septic mice is also associated with changes in the intestinal microbiota. To test this hypothesis,

we sequenced the 16S rRNA gene variable (V) V3-V4 region of the fecal bacteria samples

obtained from S. *thermophilus* 19 treated Lps-treated mice (Lps7) and compared the results to

those obtained from the mice treated with LPS alone and the control group. Overall, differences

between the S. *thermophilus* 19- and LPS-treated mice were observed (Figure. 5A-B). Mice

administered S. *thermophilus* 19 and treated with LPS had 8 specific OTUs compared to mice

treated with LPS alone (Figure .S4). Meanwhile, the intestinal microbiota of LPS7 groups

clustered differently from mice treated with LPS alone group(Figure.5C), demonstrating the

important effect of probiotics. Next, we compared the differences in gut microbiota composition

between the probiotic- and LPS-treated mice and the control group mice. Mice treated with LPS

and S. *thermophilus* 19 exhibited decreases intestinal microbiota richness compared to the

control group (Chao1 index) while no difference in diversity (Shannon index) between two

groups was observed (Figure .S6 A - B). The gut microbiota of mice treated with LPS and 19

clustered differently from that of the control group mice (Figure.S 6C). Six specific OTUs were

identified in the LPS7 group mice and 9 were identified in the control group (Figure .S4). Taken

together, these results indicated that all the treatments altered the composition of the gut

microbiotas of the assayed mice. Although the composition of the gut bacteria in the mice treated

with probiotic and that of the control group differed, the expression of inflammation-associated

factors in these mice did not significantly differ. We speculated that the gut microbiota in these

exhibited a healthy status, whereas the probiotic and LPS-treated mice had a lower health status.

Strain-specific effects of probiotics on gut microbiota

Next, sequence data were analyzed at the family and genus levels to investigate the changes in

gut microbiota composition. Compared to the control group, LPS-treated mice had lower

abundances of bacteria belonging to the phylum *Fusobacteria* and of the genera *Fusobacterium*

and *Psychrobacter* (Figure .4D. and Figure. S7). In contrast, higher abundances of bacteria from

the genus *Flavonifractor* were observed in the LPS-treated mice. Mice treated with S.

thermophilus 19 exhibited a decreased abundance of bacteria belonging to the phylum

Bacteroidetes and an increased abundance of the phylum *Firmicutes* (Figure.S 5D). The details

of the changes in microbiota compositions in the 19 treatment mice is shown in Supplementary

Figure.7. Compared to the LPS group, LPS-treated mice administered S. *thermophilus* 19

exhibited an increased abundance of *Fusobacteria*. In detail, LPS-treated mice administered S.

thermophilus 19 had lower abundance of *Clostridium*_XIVb and a higher abundance of

Fusobacterium and *Klebsiella*(Figure.5D and Figure.S7). The changes in the microbiota

composition between the LPS7 and control groups is shown in Figure.S 6D and S7.

Overall, these data showed that LPS and probiotics significantly impacted the microbiota

composition of mice.

The function of gut microbiota was specifically altered after the administration oral probiotics

Next, we used a Kruskal-Wallis/Wilcoxon rank-sum test to determine how the altered

community structure of the gut microbiota affects its function. One KEGG database biochemical

pathway was significantly decreased and two were enriched in the LPS-treated mice compared to

control group(Figure. 6 A). After oral administration 19, nineteen treated mice were decreased in

65 KEGG database biochemical pathways and enhanced for 73 compared to control mice

(Figure. 6B). Moreover, 19 LPS-treated mice were enhanced for 2 KEGG database biochemical

pathways and were reduced for 3 (Figure.6D). However, the LPS7 mice were enriched in 33

pathways and were reduced in 53 compared to the control mice (Figure.6C). Notably, LPS7 mice

were decreased in both primary bile acid biosynthesis and secondary bile acid biosynthesis,

which have proinflammatory properties compared to the LPS-treated mice. These data suggest a

significantly decreased proinflammatory signature, as well as an increased anti-inflammatory

capacity of the gut microbiome in probiotic-treated mice. Taken together, the probiotics were

observed to reshape the gut microbiota with a distinct composition, network topology and

functionality.

Discussion

Sepsis is life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to infection

and often causes multiple organ damage. S. *thermophilus* has been shown to be highly effective

probiotic strains with well-studied health benefits. However, the impact of S. *thermophilus* on

the gut microbiota composition, and its influence on the inflammation caused by LPS-induced

sepsis remains poorly understood. In this study, we utilized a MiSeq sequencing approach to

assess how S. *thermophilus* 19 modulate the host fecal microbiota and inflammatory response in

an LPS-induced mouse sepsis model. Our results showed that S. *thermophilus* 19 can decrease

the expression of inflammatory factors RAW264.7 cells treated with LPS. Moreover, we showed

that S. *thermophilus* 19 were able to protect viscera against damage induced by sepsis.

Furthermore, S. *thermophilus* 19 could alter the microbiota composition and restore homeostasis

of the gut microbiota disrupted by sepsis.

Inflammation and infection are frequently accompanied by an imbalance in the intestinal

microflora[16]. A strong inflammatory response may then be mounted against microfloral

bacteria, leading to a perpetuation of the inflammation and gut barrier dysfunction[17]. Sepsis is

life-threatening organ dysfunction caused by a dysregulated host response to infection, which is

often causes a systemic inflammatory response. To assess the relationship between the gut

microbiota and sepsis, we induced sepsis in mice through intraperitoneal injection of LPS (2

mg/ml) and used a MiSeq sequencing-based approach to evaluate the gut microbiota

compositions of the assayed mice. The results showed that the LPS treatment decreased the

abundance of *Fusobacteria* and the richness of the intestinal microbiota. Moreover, the

abundances of the genera *Fusobacterium*, *Flavonifractor* and *Psychrobacter* were altered in the

septic mice. Previous studies showed that shifts in the intestinal *Firmicutes* to *Bacteroidetes*

ratio, as well as reduced microbiota diversity[18, 19]. However, these studies had many

uncertainties with regard to the variability and temporal nature of sepsis-induced dysbiosis. Thus,

we used an LPS-induced sepsis model to investigate the changes in gut microbiota composition

to eliminate the influence of other factors. Our results suggest that the genera *Fusobacterium*,

Flavonifractor and *Psychrobacter* may play important role in the development of sepsis.

We observed that LPS significantly upregulates the expression of genes involved in

inflammation, especially in the livers, lungs, kidneys and small intestines of mice. Moreover,

LPS induced sepsis has been demonstrated to result in the expression of inflammation-related

genes in multiple organs[1]. Probiotics are live microbial food supplements or bacterial

components that have been shown to have beneficial effects on human health. Additionally,

probiotics are often used to treat inflammation-related diseases, such as inflammatory bowel

disease, allergic diseases, and acute gastroenteritis. S. *thermophilus* is probiotics that have been

used to treat many illnesses. probiotics containing S. *thermophilus* KB19 significantly increased

betaine plasma levels in chronic kidney disease[20-23]. Similarly, we observed that S.

thermophilus decreased the level of inflammatory factors in an LPS-induced sepsis mouse

model. In addition, the administration of S. *thermophilus* 19 did not trigger any inflammation or

dysbiosis of the gut microbiota, suggesting that they could safely be used to treat sepsis with no

obvious harmful side effects. Thus, together with previous results, these results suggest that S.

thermophilus 19 may be one alternative probiotics for use in sepsis intervention in the future.

It has now been recognized that alterations in gut microbiota composition and function

appear to be an important mechanism by which probiotics alleviate human disease. Our results

showed that the probiotics 19 altered the function of the gut microbiota in mice In particular,

mice treated with LPS and probiotics exhibited changes in the function of

oxidative-phosphorylation and bile acid biosynthesis, which are important in

inflammation-related diseases[24, 25]. Moreover, probiotics also caused other functions of the

gut microbiota to change. Meanwhile, mice treated with probiotics alone also exhibited changes

in the function of the gut microbiota that may be good for host health by promoting low

inflammatory factor expression and a good health state. Taken together, our results indicated that

probiotics are good for host health despite the changes they induce in the composition and

function of the gut microbiota.

In summary, we demonstrated that the probiotics S. *thermophilus* 19 can alleviate

inflammation both *in vivo* and *in vitro*. This probiotics reduced the levels of inflammatory factors

caused by sepsis, which may occur through multiple targets. For instance, probiotics can resistant

some pathogenic bacteria enriched in gut after intraperitoneal injection of LPS, alter the

functional potential of intestinal microbes, promote higher intestinal permeability, and alter the

composition of the gut microbiota. These results suggest that the probiotics S. *thermophilus* 19

may be used to treat to not only sepsis but also other systemic inflammatory diseases

(inflammatory bowel disease, systemic inflammatory arthritis, multiple sclerosis and so on).

Collectively, the results of our study provide a conceptual framework to further text this

hypothesis in humans to treat sepsis and other systemic inflammatory diseases.

Method and Materials

Bacteria and media

L. *plantarum* TW1-1, *Pediococcus acidilactici* XS40, L. *plantarum* DS45, L. *paracasei*

LZU-D2, L. *delbruckii*, L. *casei* 18-10, *Streptococcus thermophilus* 19 were provided by Dr.

Xusheng Guo (Lanzhou University, Lanzhou, China). The bacterial strains were cultured in De

Man, Rogosa, and Sharpe (MRS; Beijing Solarbio Science & Technology, Beijing, China)

growth medium with the exception of 19 and XS40, which were cultured in M17 growth medium

(MRS; Beijing Solarbio Science & Technology, Beijing, China) supplemented with 1% lactose

and MRS medium supplemented with 0.5% glucose, respectively. MRS and M17 agar medium

were used to determine the CFU of the assayed probiotic strains.

In vitro evaluation of inflammatory factors induced by probiotics and flow cytometry

The commercial immortal mouse macrophage cell line RAW264.7 was obtained from the

American Type Culture Collection and was grown in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium

(DMEM; Gibco, Gaithersburg, MD) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum

(FBS) under a humidified 10% CO_2 atmosphere at 37°C. The cells were cultured in 12-well

culture plates at 1×10^6 cells/well. The bacterial strains were grown in MRS or M17 medium

overnight (16 h), after which the cultures were diluted to an optical density (OD) of 0.3, washed

with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; pH 7.4), resuspended in PBS, and were used to infect the

RAW264.7 cells at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1:100 (cells/bacteria). The plates were

incubated for 6 h at 37°C under a 10% CO_2 atmosphere and samples were collected to assess the

levels of inflammatory factors by qRT-PCR and the levels of CD86 and CD206 by flow

cytometry. PBS without bacteria was used as negative control.

Animals and sepsis model

The 7-14-week-old BALB/c (H-2D^d) mice used in this study were originally purchased from the

Experimental Animal Center of The Fourth Military Medical University and were bred in our

facility under specific-pathogen-free conditions. All animals were maintained under a 12 h

light/dark cycle. To induce sepsis, mice were administered different doses of lipopolysaccharide

(LPS) by intraperitoneal injection, with a second dose administered 4 days after the first

injection. The details of the experimental design are shown in Table 1. The names of the

experimental groups were as follows: LPS7 denotes LPS+ S. *thermophilus* 19, 7 denotes S.

thermophilus 19.

Ethics Statement

350   All procedures and protocols used in this study were carried out in compliance with the

351   guidelines of the European Union for handling laboratory animals and were approved by the

352   Ethics Committee of the Fourth Military Medical University.

Weight, water and food intake measurements and sampling

The body weight, water and food intake, and stool appearance were documented for all groups of

mice every other day throughout the experiment. After 1 week, the liver, kidneys, lungs, heart

and small intestines were collected from each mouse and were divided into triplicate samples,

with one stored in liquid nitrogen, a second stored in RNAiso Plus for RNA extraction, and the

third was fixed in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde at 4°C for later histological analysis.

Histology of different tissues

After the animals were sacrificed, different tissue samples were collected. After fixation in 4%

paraformaldehyde, the tissue samples were embedded in paraffin and serially cut into 7-mm

thick sections. Tissue slides were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) for histological

analysis.

Microbial DNA extraction and Illumina MiSeq sequencing

Microbial DNA was extracted from the samples using an E.Z.N.A.® Stool DNA Kit (Omega

BioTek, Norcross, GA, USA) according to manufacturer's protocols, and the DNA samples were

assessed via PCR with the universal 16S rRNA primers 27F/1492R. The DNA concentration and

integrity were determined by electrophoresis on 1% agarose gels containing ethidium bromide

and spectrophotometrically using an EPOCH instrument (BioTek). After confirmation, the DNA

was lyophilized and sent for Illumina MiSeq sequencing and data analysis.

The gut microbiota compositions of mice were assessed via Illumina MiSeq sequencing

(Genergy Biotech) targeting the V3-V4 region of the bacterial 16S ribosomal RNA gene using

the primers 341F (5'-CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-3') and 785R

(5'-GACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3'), with an eight-base barcode sequence unique to each

sample. The amplicons were extracted from 2% agarose gels and purified using an AxyPrep

DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union City, CA, USA) according to the

manufacturer's instructions and were subsequently quantified using a QuantiFluor™-ST

instrument (Promega, USA). The purified amplicons were pooled in equimolar ratios and

paired-end sequenced (2 × 300) on an Illumina MiSeq platform according to standard protocols.

The raw reads were deposited at the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database. Operational

taxonomic units (OTUs) were clustered with a 97% similarity cutoff using UPARSE (version 7.1

http://drive5.com/uparse/), and chimeric sequences were identified and removed using UCHIME.

The taxonomy of each 16S rRNA gene sequence was analyzed using RDP classifier

(http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/) against the SILVA (SSU123) 16S rRNA database using a confidence

threshold of 70%. The taxonomy of each ITS gene sequence was analyzed using Unite classifier

(https://unite.ut.ee/index.php).

Quantitative RT-PCR for inflammatory factor determination

Total RNA was extracted from different tissues using RNAiso Plus (Takara, Dalian, China) and

was subsequently reverse transcribed into cDNA using PrimeScript™ RT.

Master Mix using random primers (Takara, Dalian, China) according to the

manufacturer's protocol. The expression of inflammatory factor-related genes was analyzed

using SYBR® PremixEx Taq™ II and the Bio-Rad CFX system. For real-time PCR, the reaction

mixtures contained 1 μL cDNA, 0.4 μL of each primer (10 mmol^{-1}), 5 μL of SYBR green PCR

Master Mix, and distilled water to a final reaction volume of 10 μL. The Taq DNA polymerase

was activated at 95°C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, 60°C for 30 s, and

72°C for 30 s. Quantitative RT-PCR data were normalized to the expression of the housekeeping

gene β-actin using the $2^{-\Delta Ct}$ method. The primers used in this study are shown in Table 2.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Graphpad Prism was used for graphical presentation and statistical analyses. Differences were

considered statistically significant at $p<0.05$, and data are presented as the means ± SEM. The

number of biological replicates (n) and the number of independent experiments are indicated in

the figure legends. The Kruskal-Wallis/Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to analyze the gut

microbiota composition data for all the groups.

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Tables

Table1

Group	Treatment Groups(n=8)	Gavaging
1	Control	PBS
2	LPS only	PBS
3	LPS+S. *thermophilus* 19	PBS+S. *thermophilus* 19
4	S. *thermophilus* 19 only	PBS+S. *thermophilus* 19

486 LPS: 1mg/ml; S. *thermophilus* 19: $1x10^9$ CFU/ml once every other day in 0.3 ml PBS. Mice

487 received LPS through intraperitoneal injection. Mice received PBS and 19 via gavage.

488 Table2

Primer	Sequence(5'-3')
β-actin	GTACGCCAACACAGTGCTG/CGTCATACTCCTGCTTGCTG
IL-1β	GCTTCAGGCAGGCAGTATC/AGGATGGGCTCTTCTTCAAAG
TNF-α	AGAGCTACAAGAGGATCACCAGCAG/TCAGATTTACGGGTCAACTTCACAT
TGF-β	CTTCAATACGTCAGACATTCGGG/GTAACGCCAGGAATTGTTGCTA
IL-6	GAGGATACCACTCCCAACAGACC/ AAGTGCATCATCGTTGTTCATACA
IL-10	GCTCTTACTGACTGGCATGAG/CGCAGCTCTAGGAGCATGTG
CCL2	AGCAGCAGGTGTCCCAAAGA/GTGCTGAAGACCTTAGGGCAGA

489 Primers used in this study.

Figure.1.

Figure.2.

495 **Figure.3.**

497 **Figure.4.**

Figure.5.

Figure.6.

Figure.S1.

Figure.S2.

Figure.S3.

Figure.S4.

Figure.S5.

Figure.S6.

Figure.S7

Figure.1. The expression of inflammatory factors(IL-1β,TNF-α,IL-6 and IL-10) in LPS-treated,

probiotics-LPS treated and untreated RAW264.7 cells. Error bars represents SEM.

Figure.2. Probiotics alleviate the inflammatory caused by LPS-induced sepsis. (A) Survival rates

of mice with or without probiotics treatment after 48h stimulation with different dose of LPS. (B)

Body weight change and relative weight change (n=8/group). (C) Total rat chow intake and

drinking water.

Figure.3. Probiotics intervention resulted in decreased inflammation in vivo. (A) inflammation

factor of Small intestine, lung, liver and kidney. Error bars represents SEM. (B) Hematoxylin

and eosin staining of liver, and lung tissues from different groups. Sections were examined and

photographed under a microscope.

Figure.4. LPS induce significant impact on microbiota composition. (A) (B) Fecal microbiota

alfa diversity.(C) PLS_DA plot of fecal microbiota of LPS-treated or control mice. (D) The

change of gut microbiota at phylum level.

Figure.5. S. *thermophilus* 19 induce significant impact on microbiota composition compared to

LPS-treated mice. (A) (B) Fecal microbiota alfa diversity.(C) PLS_DA plot of fecal microbiota

of LPS-treated mice with or without S. *thermophilus* 19 treatment. (D) The change of gut

microbiota at phylum level.

Figure.6. The presence of LPS and S. *thermophilus* 19 induces changes in gut microbiota

function. Statistical comparison was performed by first testing normality using

Kruskal-Wallis/Wilcoxon rank-sum test. Error bars represents SEM.

Figure.S1. The expression level of CD86 and CD206 in RAW264.7 cells from different groups

gated on F4/80$^+$ cells. 19**:** S. *thermophilus* 19, LPS19:LPS+ S. *thermophilus* 19.

Figure.S2. Levels of IL-1β and TNF-α in blood were determined using commercial ELISA kits.

Error bars represents SEM.

Figure.S3. Probiotics intervention resulted in decreased inflammation in vivo. Inflammation

factor(CCL2,IL-6,IL-10 and TGF-β) of small intestine, lung, liver and kidney. Error bars

represents SEM.

Figure.S4. Specifically OTUS existed in different groups.

Figure.S5. S. *thermophilus* 19 induce significant impact on microbiota composition compared to

control mice.

Figure.S6. The gut microbiota composition between control group and co-treatment(19 and LPS)

group.

Figure.S7. The details of the change of gut microbiota at phylum and genus level in different

groups.