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Microbial ACBP/DBI-like genes are rare in the human gut microbiome and show no links with obesity

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16 Running head: The human gut microbiome rarely encodes ACBP/DBI genes

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Abstract

21	Acyl coenzyme A (CoA) binding protein (ACBP), also called diazepam-binding inhibitor (DBI) is a
22	phylogenetically conserved protein that is expressed by all eukaryotic species as well as by some
23	bacteria. Since elevated ACBP/DBI levels play a major role in the inhibition of autophagy, increase
24	in appetite and lipoanabolism that accompany obesity, we wondered whether ACBP/DBI
25	produced by the human microbiome might affect host weight. We found that the genomes of
26	bacterial commensals rarely contain ACBP/DBI homologues, which are rather encoded by
27	genomes of some pathogenic or environmental taxa that were not prevalent in human feces.
28	Exhaustive bioinformatic analyses of 1,899 gut samples from healthy individuals refuted the
29	hypothesis that bacterial ACBP/DBI might affect the BMI in a physiological context. Thus, the
30	physiological regulation of BMI is unlikely to be affected by microbial ACBP/DBI-like proteins.
31	However, at the speculative level, it remains possible that ACBP/DBI produced by potential
32	pathogenic bacteria might enhance their virulence by inhibiting autophagy and hence subverting
33	innate immune responses.

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Importance

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36 Acyl coenzyme A (CoA) binding protein (ACBP) can be encoded by several organisms across the domains of life, including microbes, and has shown to play major roles in human metabolic 37 38 processes. However, little is known about its presence in the human gut microbiome and whether 39 its microbial counterpart could also play a role in human metabolism. In the present study, we 40 found that microbial ACBP/DBI sequences were rarely present in the gut microbiome across 41 multiple metagenomic datasets. Microbes that carried ACBP/DBI in the human gut microbiome 42 included Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Lautropia mirabilis and Comamonas kerstersii, but these 43 microorganisms were not associated with body-mass index, further indicating an unconvincing 44 role for microbial ACBP/DBI in human metabolism.

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Introduction

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47 Acyl coenzyme A (CoA) binding protein (ACBP) is also called diazepam-binding inhibitor (DBI). 48 In humans and mice, this small (10 kDa) protein plays a dual role, reflecting its double name. As 49 an intracellular protein, ACBP/DBI binds to medium- and long-chain acyl CoA esters, reducing 50 their toxicity and facilitating their transport through different subcellular compartments, hence 51 stimulating lipid metabolism (1–3). As an extracellular protein, ACBP/DBI binds to the peripheral 52 benzodiazepine receptor (hence displacing the benzodiazepine diazepam from its binding site), 53 which is the ionotropic gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA)_A receptor (GABAAR) possessing 54 another endogenous ligand, γ-aminobutyric acid, the major inhibitory neurotransmitter (4, 5). In 55 the central nervous system, ACBP/DBI can be proteolytically cleaved to yield several 56 neuropeptides, one of which, octadecaneuroeptide (ODN) interacts with a G protein coupled 57 receptor (GPCR) in the central nervous system (6, 7).

58

59 ACBP/DBI is ubiquitously expressed and can be released from cells through an unconventional,

60 autophagy-dependent pathway (8). It then acts as a paracrine mediator to inhibit autophagy

61 through an action on GABAAR, which is expressed in many cell types outside of the central 62 nervous system (9). Hence, antibody-mediated neutralization of extracellular ACBP/DBI offers the possibility to stimulate autophagy by interrupting a paracrine feedback inhibition loop. In humans, 63 obesity and metabolic syndrome are associated with elevated ACBP/DBI levels in the plasma 64 65 (10), while anorexia nervosa is characterized by abnormally low concentrations of circulating 66 ACBP/DBI (9, 11). In mice, injection of recombinant ACBP/DBI protein into the peritoneal cavity 67 or the tail vein causes a GABAAR-dependent increase in feeding. This appetite-stimulatory effect of ACBP/DBI is also observed for proteins in which the acyl CoA binding moiety has been 68 69 mutated. Conversely, injection of a neutralizing antibody blocks feeding responses and 70 counteracts weight gain or favors weight loss in multiple experimental conditions. These findings 71 suggest that ACBP/DBI is involved in the pathophysiology of human obesity (12).

72

73 ACBP/DBI is a phylogenetically conserved protein, as ACBP/DBI homologs have been described 74 in all eukaryotic phyla and even in some bacterial species (13, 14). In the nematode 75 Caenorhabditis elegans and in the insect Drosophila melanogaster, ACBP/DBI orthologs 76 stimulate pharyngeal pumping and mouth hook movement, which are the functional equivalents 77 of mammalian mastication (15). In the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, ACBP/DBI is the only 78 protein known to be released in response to nutrient or oxidative stress (16, 17). Extracellular 79 ACBP/DBI stimulates sporulation of yeast in a GPCR-dependent fashion, hence allowing yeast 80 cells to swarm out to find new food resources (15, 18). Thus, the appetite-stimulatory function of 81 ACBP/DBI appears to be phylogenetically conserved (19-21).

82

Reportedly, the genomes of some bacteria code for ACBP/DBI orthologs (22, 23). It is well known
that human obesity is associated with major shifts in the composition of the intestinal microbiome
(24, 25). Moreover, fecal microbial transplantation (FMT) of the stools from obese (but not lean)

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86 individuals into mice can transfer features of obesity and metabolic syndrome, establishing cause-87 effect relationships between alterations in the gut microbiome and the obese phenotype (26, 27). 88

89 Intrigued by these observations, we wondered whether specific microbial species in the human 90 gut might encode for and express ACBP/DBI-like proteins, thus potentially influencing human 91 metabolism and eating behavior. Here, we report a detailed bioinformatics analysis of ACBP/DBI-92 like genes encoded by the human intestinal microbiome and analyze their possible implication in 93 obesity. We found that ACBP/DBI is mostly encoded by eukaryotes, its presence in bacteria is 94 mostly limited to pathogenic taxa, and that its rare presence in the human gut is not associated 95 with alterations in the body mass index (BMI).

96

Results 97

98

99 ACBP/DBI-like proteins are rarely encoded into members of the human microbiome

100 To assess whether microbial ACBP/DBI ortholog genes could potentially contribute to 101 microbiome-dependent gut metabolism, we first looked for their presence in 99,211 microbial 102 genomes from NCBI as of January 2019. Using an initial set of 1,098 UniRef-annotated 103 orthologous ACBP/DBI sequences (see Methods) to search these genomes, we found ACBP to 104 be present in 3,635 of them, encompassing 1,668 unique TaxIDs, with the majority belonging to 105 Proteobacteria (89% of genomes). Species with the largest number of genomes encoding ACBP 106 showed it to be part of the core genome of several known pathogens from the Burkholderia genus, 107 as well as Saccharomyces cerevisiae and Ralstonia solanacearum (Table 1). While 108 Saccharomyces cerevisiae can be found in the human gut (28, 29) - although usually at low 109 abundance - the bacterial taxa in NCBI containing ACBP are at best very rare members of the 110 human microbiome.

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112 Because genomic sequencing captures only a limited fraction of the human microbiome diversity 113 (30-33), we proceeded by searching homologous sequences of known ACBP genes in 114 metagenome-assembled genomes (MAGs). We screened 154,000 MAGs previously recovered 115 from the human microbiome sampled from almost 10,000 individuals spanning diverse geography 116 and lifestyle (Supplementary Table 1). We found only 129 out of the 154,000 MAGs (0.08%) to 117 encode ACBP, belonging to 14 species-level genome bins (SGBs). One of these SGBs was 118 classified as Deinococcus-Thermus and another as Chitinophagaceae, whereas the remaining 119 12 all belonged to Proteobacteria, with the closest known taxa being again Burkholderia or taxa 120 linked with sample-processing contamination such as Ralstonia or Acidovorax (34). This 121 exploration of microbial genomes and MAGs thus highlights a lack of ACBP/DBI ortholog genes 122 in microbes of putative relevance in the human microbiome.

123

124 Phylogenetic modelling of ACBP/DBI is highly taxonomically consistent

125 To better assess the sequence diversity of the ACBP/DBI gene, we phylogenetically modelled its 126 sequence variants found in human MAGs and reference genomes from NCBI across different 127 organisms. This analysis revealed very distinct eukaryotic versus microbial ACBP/DBI 128 sequences, despite the relatively short alignment length used for phylogenetic inference (Figure 129 1). This distinct pattern between the two domains was also seen when using pairwise nucleotide 130 identities calculated from multiple sequence alignments (Supplementary Figure 1). We found 131 ACBP to be widespread across the domains of life, with ACBP sequences found in eukaryotic 132 phyla including Streptophyta, Athropoda, Nematoda, Ascomycota and Chordata and present in 133 10 different bacterial phyla. Some taxa such as the genera Daphnia and Variovorax exhibited 134 clearly defined clades, whilst other taxa such as the phyla Arthropoda and Actinobacteria 135 displayed more diverse and paraphyletic phylogenies. The bacterial genera Burkholderia and 136 Paraburkoholderia showed a clearly defined subtree. ACBP sequences belonging to MAGs 137 recovered from the human microbiome were widespread across the phylogeny but always 138 maintained a consistent taxonomic structure. This adherence between phylogeny and taxonomy 139 for ACBP/DBI suggests vertical evolutive trajectories for this gene, as a comparison between 140 prokaryotic phylogenies built at the whole genome level was highly consistent with the 141 phylogenetic tree constructed for the ACBP/DBI gene (Supplementary Figure 2), with very 142 limited evidence (if any) of horizontal transfer events, and consequently a low likelihood that yet-143 to-be-characterized taxa not captured by our analysis carry ACBP/DBI ortholog genes.

144

145 ACBP/DBI is rarely found in human gut microbiomes

146 To further investigate whether the few ACBP/DBI-positive genomes and MAGs recovered from 147 the human microbiome could potentially contribute to gut metabolism, we evaluated their 148 prevalence across 7,698 human gut metagenomes present in the curatedMetagenomicData R 149 package (35), spanning different countries, age categories and health conditions (Figure 2A, 150 Supplementary Table 2). We found that the majority of MAGs belonging to these SGBs were 151 very rarely found in samples across different datasets, with two known SGBs classified as 152 Acidovorax sp 12322_1 (kSGB 12676) and Cupriavidus metalidurans (kSGB 12928) achieving 153 the highest overall prevalence (0.3%).

154

Since MAGs rely on the success of metagenomic assembly and binning and thus may miss some low-abundance or hard-to assemble taxa, we further screened unbinned contigs as well as the raw reads for each sample. The use of unbinned contigs (assembled reads) indeed led to an increase in the overall prevalence of ACBP/DBI positive samples but this number remained low (0.6% - **Figure 2B**). When we aligned raw metagenomic reads to the set of retrieved ACBP/DBI sequences we further observed an increase in the overall relatively low prevalence across samples (1.79%), although we cannot exclude that some of the hits are false positives that inflate the prevalence estimation. Notably, some datasets such as CM_madagascar from a non-Westernized society (30) and VincentC_2016 comprising fecal microbiome of 98 hospitalized patients treated with antibiotics and that used laxatives (36), showed a higher prevalence of ABCP/DBI in their raw metagenomes when compared to others, 19.64% and 25.76%, respectively. On the contrary, 35 datasets (83%) had a prevalence of 0%.

167

168 This analysis thus reinforces the very low prevalence of ABCP/DBI-positive taxa and of the 169 ABCP/DBI gene in the human gut microbiome which appears inconsistent with a hypothesis of a 170 role of this microbial gene variant in human metabolism. Moreover, the taxonomy assignments of 171 the species (from MAGs and NCBI genomes) found to encode ACBP/DBI and occasionally 172 present in some gut microbiome datasets (Figure 2A) points at sample contamination as a 173 potential source for those taxa. Indeed, Pseudoxanthomonas, Acidovorax, Comamonas, Delftia, 174 Ralstonia and Cupriavidus have been previously described as common reagent and laboratory 175 contaminants (34).

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177 Lack of correlation between ACBP/DBI-positive species and body mass index

Although we found a low prevalence of ACBP/DBI encoding members in the human gut microbiome, theoretically there could still be a possibility that low-prevalent low-abundance taxa can somehow contribute to human gut metabolism. To evaluate a possible link between microbial ACBP/DBI ortholog genes and obesity, we performed a meta-analysis of correlations between species-level abundances and BMI as a read-out using 1,899 gut samples from healthy individuals curated within the *curatedMetagenomicData* (35) effort (**Figure 3, Table 2**). We found 14 taxa to be significantly associated with BMI (random effects model FDR <0.1, **Supplementary**

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185 Table 3), with species such as Flavonifractor plautii, Coprococcus comes and Blautia 186 hydrogenotrophica associated with increased BMI, in line with previous reports (37, 38). We also 187 found species associated with decreased BMI, which included Oscillibacter sp 57_20, Alistipes 188 shahii and Odoribacter splanchnicus, as previously described (39). However, these 14 species 189 significantly associated with BMI were all ACBP/DBI-negative. Within the limited panel of 190 ACBP/DBI-positive species at least occasionally found in the gut microbiome, only 191 Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Lautropia mirabilis and Comamonas kerstersii were sufficiently 192 prevalent in these samples to perform the meta-analysis but showed no significant associations 193 (q-values >0.8, Figure 3). These results indicate that species found to encode ACBP/DBI in the 194 human gut microbiome do not show associations with BMI.

195

196 Discussion

ACBP/DBI plays a major role in the control of appetite and metabolism through a phylogenetically conserved pathway that is conserved in yeast, nematodes, insects and mammals (15, 20, 21, 40). Intrigued by the observation that ACBP/DBI is a highly conserved protein that is even encoded by some bacteria, as well as by the link between human obesity and the gut microbiome, we investigated the prevalence of ACBP/DBI in intestinal commensals and their potential correlation with the body mass index.

203

The bioinformatic analyses presented in this paper based on extensive available metagenomic datasets suggest that ACBP/DBI producing bacterial species are rather rare in the human microbiome and are mostly produced by eukaryotic species (as exemplified by the yeast *S. cerevisiae*) and environmental or potentially pathogenic bacteria (exemplified by *Comamonas kersterii* that can cause peritonitis, bacteremia and sepsis (41–43)), as well as potential sample Applied and Environmental

contaminants. Indeed, the presence of ACBP/DBI producing species in the human gut appears
relatively rare. Moreover, we did not find any correlation between the presence of ACBP/DBI
encoding species and BMI across a large cumulative dataset comprising 1,899 samples from
healthy gut metagenomes. These results refute the hypothesis that the production of ACBP/DBI
by the gut microbiome might affect whole body metabolism, at least in the context of the normal
microbiome.

215

216 Despite our findings, it could still be possible that microbes that are strongly associated with the 217 mucosal tissue in the upper intestinal tract (and that hence would be grossly underrepresented in 218 fecal samples) might have some local or systemic effects. It is also noteworthy to mention that 219 the lack of an association between ACBP/DBI gene carriage and obesity found here did not take 220 into account gene expression levels, which could be relevant as they might not mirror gene 221 presence and/or abundance patterns. Moreover, in the context of infections, bacterial ACBP/DBI 222 might exert some physiological effects on the host. However it is unclear whether prokaryotic 223 ACBP/DBI orthologues possess similar functions as those present in yeast or other eukaryotes, 224 despite previous work showing strong conservation of amino acids at the majority of sites 225 determined to be important for ACBP structure and function across phyla (22). ACBP/DBI inhibits 226 autophagy (9, 19), and autophagy is a potent mechanism to eliminate intracellular bacteria (44), 227 meaning that the subversion of autophagy (also called xenophagy) might contribute to the 228 virulence of pathogenic species. Thus, Streptococcus pneumoniae degrades the essential 229 autophagy protein ATG14 to assure its survival in host cells (45); while Salmonella typhimurium 230 targets the V-ATPase-ATG16L1 axis to avoid xenophagy (46), just to mention a few examples. In 231 view of these premises, it might be interesting to generate recombinant ACBP/DBI protein 232 encoded by bacterial species and to evaluate them for their autophagy-inhibitory and metabolic 233 effects.

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> 245 laboratories.

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Materials and Methods 247

248 Identification of ACBP/DBI sequences and phylogenetic tree reconstruction

249 To obtain a more comprehensive set of ACBP/DBI sequences we downloaded amino acid 250 sequences that matched the keyword "ACBP" from UniProt90 (51), mapped their identifiers to 251 those of the European Molecular Biology Laboratory's coding sequences using UniParc and used 252 the resulting DNA sequences to search, using BLASTn (52), all 99,211 microbial genomes 253 available in NCBI, that included the whole set of 17,607 microbial species (16,959 bacteria, 648 254 archaea) available as of January 2019 and 154,723 metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) 255 from (30). Matching gueries were filtered to include only alignments with >70% identity, alignment 256 length >100nt and an e-value <1x10⁻⁵. We found no evidence that more permissive minimum 257 alignment lengths lead to increased ACBP/DBI detection.

The appetite-stimulatory effects of ACBP/DBI are lost in mice that bear a phenylalanine (F) to

isoleucine (I) substitution at position 77 in the N-terminal domain of the gamma2 subunit of

GABAAR (10, 47), supporting the contention that this neurotransmitter receptor is responsible for

the obesogenic activity of DBI. ACBP/DBI is a GABAAR antagonist, while GABA is a GABAAR

agonist. Of note, GABA, the natural agonist of GABAAR can be produced by a series of bacteria.

Reportedly, oral administration of GABA-producing Lactobacillus brevis strains reduces the

abundance of mesenteric adipose tissue, enhances insulin secretion following glucose challenge

and improves plasma cholesterol clearance (48). Hence, it is possible that, beyond their

documented effects on depression (49, 50), GABA-producing bacteria might affect whole-body

metabolism including appetite control. This hypothesis will be actively investigated by our

258

259 To build a phylogenetic tree of the known and metagenomically retrieved sequences, we clustered 260 sequences at 97% sequence identity using UCLUST (parameters: '-id 0.97') (53) and aligned 261 centroid cluster sequences using MAFFT (parameters: '--localpair --maxiterate 1000') (54). We 262 removed gappy regions and ACBP/DBI sequences with insufficient aligned positions from the 263 multiple sequence alignment using Jalview (55), resulting in 240 nucleotides of aligned positions 264 and 1,223 sequences. The tree was built using fastTree (parameters: '-mlacc 2 -slownni -spr 4 -265 fastest -mInni 4 -no2nd -nt') (56) and refined with RAxML (parameters: '-m GTRGAMMA -t') (57). 266 GraPhIAn (58) was used for tree annotation and visualization.

267

We used PhyloPhIAn 3 (59) to build a phylogeny on 3,490 reference prokaryotic genomes and 129 MAGs (which we found to contain ACBP/DBI) using the parameters '-diversity high --accurate -force_nucleotides' and the set of up to 400 PhyloPhIAn genome markers. We compared trees built using PhyloPhIAn 3 and ACBP/DBI (with the aforementioned methods) in terms of their normalized pairwise branch lengths and used the *tqDist (60)* function available in the R quartet package to compare their quartet distances using a random sampling of 477 genomes repeated 1000 times.

275 Search of ACBP/DBI sequences in human gut metagenomes

The prevalence of both known and unknown species-level genome bins (kSGBs and uSGBs) from a previous repository (30) with ACBP/DBI encoding MAGs was calculated using 7,698 human gut metagenomes present in the curatedMetagenomicData (cMD) version 1.16.0 R package (35). A given sample was deemed positive if a MAG belonging to the ACBP/DBI encoding SGB was found.

281

We used the set of retrieved ACBP/DBI sequences to search, using BLASTn, all contigs assembled from human gut metagenomes available in cMD. Samples were considered to be Applied and Environmental

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positive for ACBP if any of their contigs had a significant hit (>70% identity, alignment length >100nt and an e-value <1x10⁻⁵).

286

We aligned raw reads from these gut metagenomes to the set of retrieved ACBP/DBI sequences using bowtie2 (61). Resulting BAM files were filtered to keep only alignments with >50nt of matching positions and were used to calculate the breadth of coverage of each sequence using Samtools (62) and VCF utils (63). Samples' whose metagenome presented ACBP/DBI sequences with breadth >80% were considered positive.

292

293 Correlations between BMI and species' abundances

294 We used the PREDICT 1 dataset comprising 1,001 healthy individuals from the UK and 97 from 295 the US (38), as well as publicly available datasets collected in cMD and profiled with version 3 of 296 MetaPhIAn (64, 65). Of the 57 datasets available, we selected those that had samples with the 297 following characteristics: (i) gut samples collected from healthy adult individuals at first collection 298 ("days from first collection"=0 or NA), (ii) samples with age, sex and BMI data available. Outlier 299 samples were removed if their BMI value was outside 3.5 and 7.5 times the interquartile range 300 (IQR) of samples meeting the above criteria (IQR = 5.03). Only datasets with at least 50 samples 301 were considered: Asnicar 2020 UK (953 samples out of 1,001), Asnicar 2020 US (92 samples 302 out of 97) (38), CosteaPI_2017 (82 samples out of 279) (66), DhakanDB_2019 (80 samples out 303 of 110) (67), HansenLBS 2018 (57 samples out of 208) (68), JieZ 2017 (140 samples out of 385) 304 (39), SchirmerM_2016 (437 samples out of 471) (69), and ZellerG_2014 (58 samples out of 199) 305 (70).

306

For each species, Spearman's correlations with BMI were computed using the *pcor.test* function
from the *ppcor* R package controlling for age and sex. Resulting correlations were used as input

to the *metacor* function from the *meta* R package using Fisher's Z transformation of correlations
and the Paule-Mandel estimator of between-study variance in the random effects model. P-values
from the random-effects model were corrected using false discovery rate (FDR) through the
Benjamini-Hochberg procedure, which are reported in the figure as q-values. We report q-values
of ACBP/DBI-carrying taxa found in these datasets, as well as species with FDR <0.1.

314

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333 Competing interests

334 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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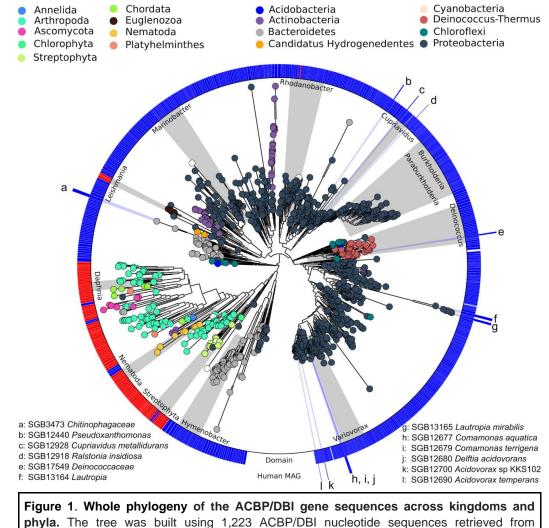


Figure 1. Whole phylogeny of the ACBP/DBI gene sequences across kingdoms and phyla. The tree was built using 1,223 ACBP/DBI nucleotide sequences retrieved from UniProtKB, reference genomes from NCBI and human metagenome assembled genomes (MAGs) belonging to species-level genome bins (SGBs) from Pasolli et al. 2019 (see **Methods**). Sequences were clustered at 97% identity prior to multiple sequence alignment and the tree

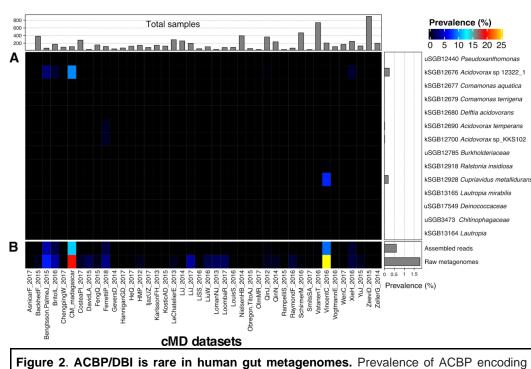
was built using 240nt of aligned positions.

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SGBs from the human microbiome (Panel A) for all datasets available in curatedMetagenomicData representing 7,698 metagenomic samples from the human gut. Panel B reports the prevalence of assembled reads (contigs) with a significant hit to ACBP sequences and metagenomic reads that map to ACBP sequences with a breadth of coverage >80% (see Methods).

	 Random Effe 		2021_UK 🛇 Dł	_		ZellerG_2014	
Elovopifrootor plautii		17 🛛 AsnicarF_	2021_US × Ha	ansenLBS_2018	SchirmerM_2016	q-valu 0.039	
Flavonifractor plautii							
Coprococcus comes				⊠7 ≪ —	—● <u>△</u> ₩ ↔	0.039	
Blautia hydrogenotrophica					A 0	× 0.083	
Clostridium sp CAG:58				0	$K = \Box \nabla$	0.083	
Saccharomyces cerevisiae			\bigtriangledown		— ×+	0.83	
Comamonas kerstersii		\diamond	<u> </u>	•*!	0	▽ 0.843	
Clostridium sp CAG:58 Saccharomyces cerevisiae Comamonas kerstersii Lautropia mirabilis			•	$\overline{\nabla}$		0.843	
Haemophilus parainfluenzae		\diamond	o*× ●	+ 🗠		0.091	
Roseburia sp CAG:303		0	* 4	- v +×		0.083	
Bacteroides nordii			- 27/4 *•	- 00	×	0.063	
Alistipes putredinis			* •	æ	\diamond	0.063	
Bifidobacterium animalis			* • *		0	0.063	
Bacteroides pectinophilus			%• ∆	• • ×�		0.039	
Eubacterium eligens	0	~	●* ⊠	\bigtriangledown +		0.039	
Odoribacter splanchnicus		x0 47 <	>>∙+	*		0.039	
Alistipes shahii	0	Ø	7 •	*		0.062	
Oscillibacter sp 57_20			• *	\mathbf{A}		0.066	
, _	-0.3	-0.2	-0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	
BMI Spearman correlation coefficient							

Figure 3. ACBP/DBI carrying taxa present in the human gut show no significant associations with BMI. We performed a meta-analysis of partial correlations (adjusted for age and sex) between species abundances and BMI across 1,899 samples from healthy gut metagenomes using a random effects model. Meta-analysis p-values were corrected for multiple hypothesis testing correction using the false discovery rate (q-values). ACBP-carrying species are shown, as well as species whose FDR <10%.

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574 Table 1. Top 10 species with the largest number of ACBP/DBI encoding genomes based on

575 available reference genomes

Тахопоту	# of genomes with ACBP (% positive from genomes searched)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia; Burkholderia pseudomallei	663 (100%)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia; Burkholderia ubonensis	291 (100%)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia; Burkholderia cenocepacia	242 (99.1%)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia; Burkholderia multivorans	198 (100%)		
Eukaryota;Ascomycota;Saccharomycetes;Saccharomycetales;Saccharomycetaceae;Saccharomyces;Saccharomyces cerevisiae	109 (93.9%)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia; Burkholderia cepacia	98 (100%)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Ralstonia; Ralstonia solanacearum	80 (100%)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia; Burkholderia stagnalis	64 (100%)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia; Burkholderia mallei	56 (100%)		
Bacteria; Proteobacteria; Betaproteobacteria; Burkholderiales; Burkholderiaceae; Burkholderia; Burkholderia vietnamiensis	44 (100%)		

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578 Table 2. Demographic information of gut samples from healthy individuals used in the meta579 analysis

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		Age (years)		BMI (kg/m2)			Sex (n)		
Dataset name	n	Mean	Min	Max	Mean	Min	Мах	Female	Male
AsnicarF_2021_UK	953	45.6	18.5	65.9	25.3	18.7	40.0	686	267
AsnicarF_2021_US	92	42.5	22.3	65.9	25.9	18.8	38.8	61	31
CosteaPI_2017	82	50.6	29	75	27.4	20.0	38.0	52	30
DhakanDB_2019	80	35.6	19	71	23.6	19.2	36.4	42	38
HansenLBS_2018	57	48.7	22.4	65.4	28.5	21.3	35.1	30	27
JieZ_2017	140	61.0	38	107	23.7	18.8	32.1	76	64
SchirmerM_2016	437	27.8	18	75	22.9	18.8	34.4	246	191
ZellerG_2014	58	61.0	25	84	24.8	20.0	34.0	31	27

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