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Combined PCR-DGGE fingerprinting and quantitative-PCR indicates shifts in fecal population sizes and diversity of *Bacteroides*, bifidobacteria and clostridium cluster IV in institutionalized elderly

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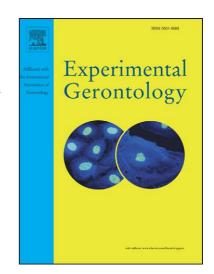
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1	Combined PCR-DGGE fingerprinting and quantitative-PCR indicates shifts in
2	fecal population sizes and diversity of Bacteroides, bifidobacteria and
3	clostridium cluster IV in institutionalized elderly.
4	
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17	
18	running title : Bacterial diversity in elderly.
19	Keywords: microbiota, PCR-DGGE, qPCR, Bacteroides, bifidobacteria, Clostridium,
20	feces, ageing
21	
22	Abbreviations:
23	APS ammonium-persulfate
24	TEMED N,N,N',N'-tetramethylethylenediamine
25	GIT gastro-intestinal tract

3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 $\begin{array}{c} 19 \\ 20 \\ 21 \\ 23 \\ 24 \\ 25 \\ 26 \\ 27 \\ 28 \\ 29 \\ 30 \\ 31 \\ 32 \\ 33 \\ 34 \\ 35 \\ 36 \\ 37 \\ 38 \\ 34 \\ 41 \\ 42 \\ 43 \\ 44 \end{array}$

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Aims: This study aimed at determining ageing-related shifts in diversity and
composition of key members of the fecal microbiota by comparing institutionalized
elderly (n=17, 78-94 yrs) and young volunteers (n=17, 18-31 yrs).
Methods and Results: A combination of molecular methods was used to characterize
the diversity and relative abundance of total gastro-intestinal flora, along with relevant
subsets within the genera Bacteroides, bifidobacteria and Clostridium cluster IV. The
institutionalized elderly harbored significantly higher numbers of Bacteroides cells
than control (28.5 % \pm 8.6%; 21.4 % \pm 7.7%; p=0.016) but contained less
$\underline{\text{bifidobacteria}} \text{ (1.3 \%} \pm 0.9, 2.7 \% \pm 3.2\%, p=0.026) \text{ and } \textit{Clostridium} \text{ cluster IV (26.9\%)}$
\pm 11.7%, 36.36% \pm 11.26%, p=0.036). The elderly also displayed less total $\textit{Bacteria}$
diversity and less diversity with the <i>Clostridium</i> cluster IV (p<0.016) and <i>Bacteroides</i> .
Conclusion: Despite high individual variations, our analyses indicate the composition
of microbiota in the elderly comprises a less diverse subset of young healthy
microbiota.
Significance and Impact of the Study: A better understanding of the individual
composition of the human microbiota and the effects of ageing might result in the
development of specifically targeted supplementation for elderly citizens in order to
support healthy ageing.
Tappen years, againg.

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INTRODUCTION

It is estimated that between 60-80 % of the microbial diversity resident within the
human gastro-intestinal tract (GI) has yet to be cultivated (Suau et al. 1999).
However, the use of culture-independent molecular methods has enabled
researchers to identify important characteristics of this community. We now know that
the composition of GI microbiota is highly distinct between individuals (Dethlefsen $\it et$
al. 2006). Despite this variability, some general features are apparent. There appear
to be 'core species' present in a majority of humans which are quite resilient to
external influences (Dore 2007). In addition to this group, there are also 'passengers
or transients, sometimes in great numbers, sometimes below detection limit (Favier
et al. 2003). However, the majority of sequences seem to be unique to some
individual and not one single phylotype may be present in all humans (Turnbaugh et
al. 2009). A number of factors have been identified which influence community
composition. The type of bacteria introduced to the environment is determined by
those associated with food sources (Duncan et al. 2007; Pryde et al. 2002). The
nature and composition of non-digestible carbohydrates in a diet can further stimulate
different types of bacteria (Kolida and Gibson 2007), whilst hereditary dispositions
and personal gut environmental factors may account for unique personal
characteristics (Eckburg and Relman 2007).
Correlations between the GI microbiota and diseases such as allergenicity (Shreiner
et al. 2008), inflammatory bowel diseases (Sokol et al. 2006) and individual
dispositions such as obesity (Zhang et al. 2009) have been discussed.

The colon harbors butyrate-producing species of several genera such as Clostridium,

Eubacterium and Fusobacterium (Pryde et al. 2002). Among strains that produce

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high levels of butyrate in vitro are those related to Faecalibacterium prausnitzii, an
ubiquitous member of Clostridium cluster IV (Pryde et al. 2002). Bacteroidetes
species have been reported to show high variations between individuals, although
Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron is found in all human beings (Layton et al. 2006). Both
Bacteroidetes and Clostridium cluster IV are known to be involved in beneficial
functions, including nutrient absorption, production of short chain fatty acids (SCFAs)
and epithelial cell maturation and maintenance (Woodmansey 2007).
Another important subgroup of the human GI microbiota is the bifidobacteria.
Stimulation of these bacteria has previously been shown after prebiotic intervention
with inulin and fructo-oligosaccharides (Kolida and Gibson 2007). Furthermore, they
have been shown to be involved in prevention of atopic disease (Ouwehand et al.
2007), obesity and insulin resistance via enhanced barrier function of the gut
epithelium (Cani et al. 2007).
With ageing, a decrease in beneficial organisms such as Lactobacilli and
bifidobacteria, amongst other anaerobes, and an increase in the number of
facultative anaerobes (Guigoz et al. 2008) have been reported. Population cross-
sectional studies with relevant numbers of healthy elderly also show age-related
changes in GI microbiota. These include a consistent global increase in
nonpathogenic Gram-negative bacteria (mainly Enterobacteria), as well as country-
specific changes in bifidobacteria (Guigoz et al. 2008). This, along with a general
reduction in species diversity within most bacterial groups, changes to diet and
altered digestive physiologies such as intestinal transit time, may result in increased
putrefaction in the colon and a greater susceptibility to disease. The aged gut is
characterized by increased proteolytic activity, decreased amylolytic activity and
reduced levels of SCFA (Woodmansey 2007). Ageing is associated with reduced

1	96	levels of prostaglandins such as PGE_2 and $\text{PGF}_2\alpha$ as shown in specimens of
2	97	stomach and duodenum biopsies (Tiihonen et al. 2008). Subclinical intestinal
	98	inflammation in elderly populations has been detected and is believed to contribute to
6 7 (8	99	impaired immune functions, the underlying cause of mortality beyond 75-80 years of
_ 0	00	age (Guigoz et al. 2008).
11 12 1 (13	01	Analyses of individual dispositions associated with changes of the microbiota should
14 15 1 0	02	consider quantitative and qualitative aspects of gut community structure. Analysis of
16 17 1 (18	03	stool samples can target changes in colonic microbiota, since feces are
1.0	04	representative of inter-individual differences (Turnbaugh et al. 2007).
21 22 1 (23	05	The aim of this work was to investigate shifts in GI microbiota associated with aging,
24 25	06	by comparing institutionalized elderly with young healthy volunteers. To analyze
26 27 1 0	07	changes in total bacterial community composition, along with specific compositional
28 29 1 (30	80	changes within the Bacteroidetes, bifidobacteria and Clostridia cluster IV, we used
31 32 10	09	the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) based community fingerprinting method
33 34 1 ′ 35	10	Denaturing Gradient Gel Electrophoresis. The resolution of this method allows for the
³⁶ ₃₇ 1	11	characterization of the dominant members of a targeted microbial community.
38 39 1 ′ 40	12	Further, we used quantitative-PCR (q-PCR) to determine the relative load of
⁴¹ ₄₂ 1	13	Bacteriodetes, bifidobacteria and Clostridia cluster IV groups within our samples.
43 44 1 ′ 45	14	Thus, use of these methods in combination allowed the characterization of both
46 1 ′	15	diversity and relative abundance of our targeted organisms.
48 49 1 ′ 50	16	
51 1 ′ 52	17	MATERIAL AND METHODS
J 1	18	Probands
55 56 1 ′ 57	19	Seventeen institutionalized elderly aged 86 ± 8 years, BMI 21.75 \pm 5.08, from a
58 59 12 60 61	20	geriatric department in Vienna and 17 students from Vienna joined the study.

121	Probands were interviewed following a questionnaire assessing: age; gender; body
1 2 3 122	length and weight; individual health status, including chronic or acute diseases and
⁴ ₅ 123	blood lipid levels; and life-style aspects, such as physical activity and dietary habits.
6 7 124 8	Five percent of geriatric patients suffered from manifest diabetes mellitus type 2. Ten
⁹ 125	patients were bed-ridden and seven mobile. Causes for loss of mobility were
11 12 126 13	Parkinson's disease, dementia and osteoporosis. Nursing staff reported the
14 15 127	application of NSAIDs (non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs) on demand.
16 17 128	Seventeen young healthy volunteers were aged 24 \pm 2.5 years, BMI 22.68 \pm 3.41
18 19 20 129	and their dietary habits were typical for Central Europe.
21 22 130	Study populations were gender balanced, with 55% females in the group of elderly
23 24 25 131	and 50% in the young group. Only non-pregnant probands with no diagnosed gastro-
²⁶ ₂₇ 132	intestinal disease and no antibiotic or chemotherapeutic treatment three months prior
28 29 133 30	to sampling were included in the study. All probands agreed to participate in the
³¹ ₃₂ 134	study and gave their informed consent.
33 34 135 35	
³⁶ ₃₇ 136	Sampling and DNA extraction from Stools and Type Strains
38 39 137 40	From each proband, three stool samples were taken within the course of a week and
⁴¹ ₄₂ 138	immediately stored at -70°C. Portions of the three samples from each patient were
43 44 139 45	pooled, a 200 mg aliquot was treated twice for 45 sec in a bead-beater (Mini-
46 140 47	Beadbeater-8) and DNA extracted with the QIAamp® DNA Stool Mini Kit (QIAGEN)
48 49 141	following the manufacturer's protocol and then immediately stored at -20°C.
50 51 142 52	Type strains known to be associated with GI microbiota were grown, and DNA
⁵³ ₅₄ 143	extracted, for use as part of the markers in DGGE analysis (see below). Type strains
55 56 144 57	L. casei DSM 20011 ^T , L. delbrueckii subsp. lactis DSM 20072 ^T , Bacteroides fragilis
⁵⁸ 145	DSM 2151 ^T , Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron DSM 2079 ^T , Bifidobacterium longum
61	

146	DSM20219 ^T , <i>B.longum</i> DSM 20211, <i>B.pseudolongum</i> DSM 20099 and
147	B.thermophilus DSM 20210 were anaerobically cultivated on blood agar, E.coli IMB
148	252/07 and clones were aerobically cultivated on LB-agar (liquid broth medium). The
149	biomass was resuspended in sterile phosphate buffered saline (1x PBS from 10x
150	PBS Roti®stock, ROTH). Tenfold dilutions from these suspensions in sterile 1x PBS
151	were plated in duplicate on blood agar or LB-agar, colony forming units (CFU/ml)
152	were counted and DNA extracted from serial dilutions. DNA was extracted from
153	clones using the Wizard® Plus.SV Minpreps DNA Purification System (Promega).
154	The DNA of all Gram-negative bacteria was extracted with the DNA Mini Kit
155	(QIAGEN), for Gram- positive bacteria, the FastDNA Spin Kit for Soil (MP-
156	Biomedicals) was used following the instructions of the manufacturer.
157	
158	Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)
159	PCR was used to amplify 16S ribosomal RNA gene sequences from type strains an
160	Bacteria in stool samples for use in DGGE analysis and manufacture of clone
161	libraries (see below). All reactions were carried out using a ready-to-use mastermix
162	(Promega) with 1.5mM MgCl ₂ . Bovine serum albumin (10mg/ml, Fermentas) was
163	added to a final concentration of 400µg/ml, primer concentration in the reaction
164	volume was 0.5µM. Amplifications were carried out in a Robocycler (Stratagene).
165	
166	Clone libraries
167	Clone libraries were constructed from stool samples to identify dominant members of
168	the Clostridium cluster IV and the Bacteroidetes. Selected clones were then used,
169	along with the cultured type strains, to generate appropriate reference markers for
170	DGGE analysis. Amplifications were carried out using primer pair 27f Edwards et al.

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT 1989) and sq-Clep-R (Matsuki et al. 2004), which are specific for members of the ² 172 Clostridium cluster IV, and 32f and 708r (Bernhard and Field 2000) which are specific for members of the *Bacteroides*. Amplified products were cloned into a p-GEM Easy Vector (Promega) following the instructions of the manufacturer. Clone libraries were screened as previously described (Schabereiter-Gurtner et al. 2001). Clone inserts were sequenced by 'DNA confidence' (Vienna). Nucleotide sequences **176** ¹⁴ 177 were corrected for vector and primer sequences in CodonCode Aligner (www.codoncode.com) and taxonomically identified by comparison to previously **178** ¹⁹ 179 published sequences using the online tools of the ribosomal database project (http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/). **DGGE** 29 183 PCR amplifications of 16S rRNA gene fragments from total DNA extracted from stool samples were carried out using the specific primer sets outlined in Table 2. **185** Separate DGGE gels were run to analyse samples for patterns in a) total *Bacteria*, b) ³⁶ 186 bifidobacteria, c) Clostridium cluster IV and d) Bacteroides. DGGE gels were prepared as described previously (Muyzer and Smalla 1998) with a linear gradient of **187** ⁴¹ 188 25-65% for Bacteria (general), 30-65% for bifidobacteria, 20-50% for Bacteroides and 30-50% for Clostridium cluster IV, using a gradient mixer (Hoefer SG 30) and a 46 190

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peristaltic pump. We generated reference markers appropriate for each set of DGGE analyses (i.e. a different reference marker was used for each of a,b,c and d above) to enable meaningful comparisons across multiple gels and to provide putative identification of some bands. These reference markers contained fragments of 16S rRNA genes from cultured bacteria and clones generated from fecal material (as described above). Each marker was loaded in triplicate on each gel to allow gel-to-

gel comparison. The reference marker for DGGE fingerprinting of general Bacteria
consisted of <i>E.coli</i> IMBH 252/07, <i>Enterococcus faecium</i> DSM 20477 ^T , <i>Bacteroides</i>
thetaiotaomicron DSM 2079 ^T , Bifidobacterium longum DSM 20219 ^T , Clostridium
perfringens (laboratory isolate), clone BT11 (98.8% similarity with Bacteroides
uniformis JCM 5828 ^T), clone BT17 (96.0% similarity with <i>Bacteroides vulgatus</i> ^T and
bacterium LY88 previously identified in human feces (Eckburg et al. 2005)) and clone
CL16 (98.4% similarity with an uncultured bacterium from human feces (Turnbaugh
et al. 2006) and 96.7% similarity with Faecalibacterium prausnitzii ^T). The reference
marker for <u>bifidobacteria</u> specific DGGE analysis consisted of <i>Enterococcus faecium</i>
DSM 20477 ^T , <i>E.coli</i> IMBH 252/07, <i>Bifidobacterium longum</i> DSM 20219 ^T , <i>B. longum</i>
DSM 20211, <i>B. thermophilus</i> DSM 20210 ^T and <i>B. pseudolongum</i> DSM 20099 ^T . The
reference marker for Bacteroides specific DGGE analysis was composed of
Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron DSM 2079 ^T , fecal clones Bt 17 and Bt11 and
Enterococcus faecium DSM 20477 ^T . The reference marker for Clostridium cluster IV
DGGE analysis was constructed from 7 clones all representing previously uncultured
species from cluster IV: Similarities with type strains from this cluster were 81.8%,
96.6%, 96.7% and 97.8% similarity with <i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i> ^T , 92.1% and
92.9% similarity with <i>Eubacterium desmolans</i> ^T and 95.9% similarity with
Subdoligranulum variabile ^T .

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TaqMan RTQ-PCR

The TaqMan-assay was carried out in a Rotorgene 3000 (Corbett Life Science) in duplicate in a volume of 10 µl containing 5 µl TaqMan SensiMix DNA Kit (Quantace), 1 µl of each primer and probe (final concentrations table 1) and 2 µl of the 100-fold dilution of the template. All probes were labeled with 6-FAM at the 5' end and carried

221	a BHQ-1 quencher at the 3' end. TaqMan Probe (Clep-P) for Clostridium cluster IV
1 2 2 2 2 2 2	was designed with CLC DNA Workbench (www.clcbio.com). Analysis with
⁴ ₅ 223	ProbeMatch (rdp.9.58) indicated that Clep-P binds to all members of Clostridium
6 7 224 8	cluster IV. The PCR program for bifidobacteria, Bacteroides and universal bacteria
⁹ 225	consisted of denaturing at 95°C for 3min and 45 cycles of 95°/60°C for 15/45 sec.
11 12 226 13	The amplification program for clostridium cluster IV was: denaturation at 95° for 5 min
¹⁴ ₁₅ 227	and 45 cycles at 95°/ 55°C for 30/ 45 sec.
16 17 228 18	DNA of <i>Bacteroides thetaiotaomicron</i> ^T and <i>Bifidobacterium longum</i> ^T , clone CL16 and
¹⁹ ₂₀ 229	one fecal sample were used to construct standard curves for comparison of PCR
²¹ ₂₂ 230	reaction efficiencies among different experiments and enumeration of all bacterial
²⁴ ₂₅ 231	groups. Reaction efficiency (E) was estimated using the slope of the standard curve
²⁶ 232 28	and the formula E=10 ^(-1/slope) -1 as described elsewhere (Penders <i>et al.</i> 2005).
29 233 30	Quantification was done using standard curves obtained from known concentrations
31 32 33	of organisms containing the respective amplicons for each set of primers. The
34 235 35	percentage of bacterial group rRNA gene copies in relation to total rRNA gene copies
³⁶ ₃₇ 236	(relative abundance) was calculated for each individual, and the mean was
38 39 237 40	determined for each subject group. Relative quantification (% of bacteria) was
⁴¹ ₄₂ 238	performed using Rotor-Gene 3000 calculation software (Corbett operator manual)
43 44 239 45	and Excel. Cross reactivity with non-target strains was tested using the Probe-Match
46 240 47	tool at the RDP website and using the strains mentioned above.
⁴⁸ ₄₉ 241 50	
51 242 52	Statistical analysis.
⁵³ ₅₄ 243	Food frequency data were analyzed based on Chi-square approximation as
55 56 244 57	implemented in SPSS. P values <0.05 were considered significant. Band comparison
⁵⁸ 245	tables were analyzed with principal component analysis (PCA) using the default

settings in 'R-software environment for statistical computing' (www.r-project.org) until 100% variance was explained. Transformed data were plot in a bi-plot as a function of the first two principal components. Clustering was applied to DGGE fingerprinting data as implemented in the GelComparII environment (www.applied-maths.com). Clustering was performed based on Dice coefficient as well as based on Pearson correlation. Those methods are supplementary to each other, clustering after Dice takes band positions into account, whereas Pearson correlation based clustering analyzes the densitometric curves of each fingerprint. UPGMA dendrograms were generated and Jackknife analysis was performed using average similarities and 100 resamplings. Jackknife analysis is a leave-one-out method that tests the reliability of the clustering similar to bootstrap analysis. Shannon and Simpson's diversity index were calculated on binary band information (presence-absence) with the default settings implemented in the 'vegan' package in 'R'. Shannon index is defined as H = - $\sum p_i \ln p_i$, where p_i is the proportional abundance of species i. For Simpson's index D, this is $1-\sum ((p_i)^2)$, where p_i is the relative frequency of the i-th species. Prior to application of Student's t-test for diversity indices and qPCR data, equality of variances of the three datasets was tested using the F-test as implemented in Microsoft Excel.

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RESULTS

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Dietary aspects

Analysis of the participant's dietary habits indicated similar consumption patterns of fruits, vegetables and milk products in both groups. Young volunteers stated significantly less frequent (Chi² Test; p<0.04) consumption of meat than elderly

271	probands and regular consumption of whole grain products several times a week.
1 2 2 3	The institutionalized elderly of this study did not consume any whole grain products
⁴ ₅ 273	at all but received supplements with soluble fiber (Benfiber®, Novartis).
⁷ ₈ 274	
9 10 275	TaqMan-quantification
12 276	TaqMan assays were set up quantifying bacterial sub-populations as percentage of
¹⁴ ₁₅ 277	the total bacterial DNA. We detected no cross-reactivity of group-specific primers and
16 17 278 18	probes with non-target strains. Test-retest variations were between 2.7% and 5.2%,
¹⁹ ₂₀ 279	values after relative quantification varied by less than 4%. The sensitivity was
21 22 280 23	corresponding to a 100 000 fold dilution of DNA from feces, that is 20 copies of 16S
²⁴ ₂₅ 281	rRNA gene per reaction.
26 27 282 28	The elderly harbored only 69%±21.6% of the total bacterial load in their faeces
²⁹ ₃₀ 283	compared to control (figure 1). Bacteroides were found to represent a larger
31 32 284 33	percentage than bifidobacteria in all samples (figure 1) and the institutionalized
34 285 35	elderly harbored significantly more <i>Bacteroides</i> than young volunteers (p=0.016).
36 37 286 38	Although relative levels of bifidobacteria were highly variable among samples, the
39 287 40	differences between young and elderly probands were statistically significant
⁴¹ ₄₂ 288	(p=0.026). Furthermore, elderly citizens had significantly less members of Clostridium
43 44 289 45	cluster IV (figure 1) in their fecal microbiota than young volunteers (p=0.036).
⁴⁶ ₄₇ 290	
48 49 291 50	DGGE bandpattern analysis
51 52 292	DGGE fingerprinting with primer pair 341GC-518, which amplified the total microbial
53 54 293	community, showed high inter-individual variations (figure 2). The mean numbers of
55 56 294 57	bands per individual were 16.6 \pm 3 bands for institutionalized elderly and 20 \pm 3
⁵⁸ ₅₉ 295	bands in control. Two bands, highlighted in figure 2, occurred significantly less

frequently in elderly probands. Shannon and Simpson indices of diversity were
significantly lower for elderly than control (figure 3). The highly diverse dataset was
subjected to principal component analysis (PCA). Extraction of underlying
components within the dataset indicated grouping of samples according to their
variance (figure 4) along the first two principal components. Cluster analysis could
separate the fingerprints of young and elderly (figure 5). Jackknife analysis
suggested that the dominant bacteria of the elderly microbiota are a subpopulation of
the microbiota of young individuals: Predictability of groupings was 100% for young
and only 13.33% for elderly.

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<u>Bifidobacteria</u>

An average of thirteen bands were observed in individual DGGE bandpatterns obtained with the primer pair specific for bifidobacteria. Two bands with the same melting behaviour as the type strains *B.longum* DSM 20219^T and *B.pseudolongum* DSM 20099^T in our marker were abundant in the majority of probands. PCA was performed and the first two PC's explained 23.64% of variance (figure 4). Although cluster analysis showed high similarity of young and elderly bandpatterns, jackknife testing demonstrated greater similarity of bandpattern for control than for elderly (expressed in predictability of groupings: 91.67% for control and 35.72% for elderly). PCA supported these results and could not separate young and elderly according to variances in the dominant bifidobacteria of their microbiota.

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Bacteroides

DGGE fingerprints obtained with the *Bacteroides* specific primers contained an average of 7.6 \pm 2.5 bands for the elderly, whilst young individuals averaged 9.5 \pm 3

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bands. Diversity indices (figure 3) showed a tendency to be lower for elderly than for
control. PCA results suggest a tendency for less Bacteroides diversity with ageing
(figure 4). Elderly subjects grouped along the first principal component. Clustering of
Pearson correlations could separate young and elderly individuals according to
DGGE fingerprinting. Jackknife analysis using average similarities could predict
groupings of young bandpattern with 76.92% reliability and 75% for elderly.
Clostridium cluster IV
DGGE fingerprints obtained with the <i>Clostridium</i> cluster IV specific primers yielded
an average of 10 ± 3 .5 bands per elderly individual and 13 ± 3 bands per young
individual. Diversity indices (figure 2) were significantly (p=0.02) lower for aged
citizens than for the young. One band that occurred more frequently in the young
than in the elderly had the same melting characteristics as a band in our marker. This
band was generated from a clone from our library related to the genus
Faecalibacterium. This clone had the highest similarity (99.2%) to an uncultured
bacterium EF403698 and also displayed 96.6% similarity to Faecalibacterium
prausnitzii ^T . Three more bands occurred more frequently in the young than in elderly.
These bands were identified from our clone libraries as relating to the genera
Ruminococcus (clone had 95.9% similarity to Ruminococcus bromii ^T , 99% similarity
to uncultured AJ408987 from human colon) and Subdoligranulum (clones had 94.7%/
97.5% similarity to Subdoligranulum variabile ^T , and 97.9%/ 98% similarity to
uncultured bacterium DQ793301).
PCA (figure 4) indicated separation of young and elderly according to their
Clostridium cluster IV DGGE fingerprints along PC1.

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT Clustering and Jackknife analysis did not result in distinct clustering of elderly and young individuals. Clostridium cluster IV representatives in the elderly microbiota are most likely to be a subset of the species present in young individuals: Only in 35.71% of resamplings elderly bandpattern grouped with each other, whereas Jackknife value for young individuals was 100%. **DISCUSSION** Metagenomic analysis of the human GI microbiota is presently the subject of large research consortia and has already substantiated the concepts of a 'core microbiome' and inter-individual variations (Turnbaugh et al. 2007). However, the collection of data on 'reference microbiota' is far from complete and thus no definition of a healthy microbiota is available yet. Important information comes from analyses addressing the abundance and diversity of specific bacterial populations with relevance to disease, diet or probiotic intervention. We used a combined molecular

357 ³¹ 358 **359** approach to compare patterns in several target GI microbial groups between the

³⁶/₋ 360 institutionalized elderly and young healthy volunteers. The community fingerprinting **361** method PCR-DGGE was used to compare the diversity present in total Bacteria and

also specifically within the Clostridium cluster IV, bifidobacteria and Bacteroides,

whilst q-PCR was used to quantify the relative population abundance of these same

bacterial groups in all samples.

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> Our results demonstrate some significant shifts in patterns in GI microbiota between our study groups. Faeces from the institutionalized elderly had less total Bacterial abundance and lower total Bacterial diversity than that from the young subjects, However, samples from the elderly displayed an increase in the relative abundance

> of Bacteroides, although this group tended to display less diversity than Bacteroides

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in the young. The relative abundance of the <u>bifidobacteria</u> and <i>Clostridium</i> cluster IV
were significantly higher in the young, and the Clostridium cluster IV also displayed
greater diversity in the young. Furthermore, cluster analysis revealed that for all
microbial groups analysed, the members of the GI microbiota in the elderly could be
considered a subset of that present in the young.
The results of our bifidobacteria analysis are in agreement with previous studies
which have identified a reduction and loss of diversity of bifidobacteria associated
with aging (Woodmansey et al. 2007, Hopkins et al. (2002)) or hospitalization of aged
citizens (Bartosch et al. 2004). Our study population of elderly was supplemented
with soluble fiber. This prebiotic intervention alone was apparently not able to
antagonize ageing-related changes in the <u>bifidobacteria</u> . In this respect Ouwehand et
al. (2008) recently reported that supplementation with lactitol and a probiotic
Lactobacillus led to an increase in bifidobacteria in the microbiota of elderly.
Bartosch et al (2004) also reported a marked reduction in the abundance of
Faecalibacterium prausnitzii, a member of the Clostridium cluster IV which decreased
in our aged group. However several studies (Hopkins et al. 2002, Woodmansey et al.
2007, Bartosch et al. 2004) have reported a decrease in the relative abundance of
the Bacteroides, whereas our aged study population displayed a relative increase in
abundance of this group. Like us, all the previous studies reported a decrease in
Bacteroides diversity. Increased levels of Bacteroides have been found in individuals
with infectious colitis (Sokol et al. 2006). Discrepancies in changes of the Bacteroides
abundance might be due to country-specific differences in this bacterial subgroup as
indicated by Mueller et al. (2006). Mueller et al. (2006) also observed gender effects
within Bacteroides, with levels being generally higher in males than in females. Our
study populations were gender balanced with volunteers being 55% females in the

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group of elderly and 50% in the young. The results presented here do not support gender differences in *Bacteroides* abundance. Reductions in amylolytic activity observed in a healthy elderly population have been correlated with the occurrence and diversity of Bacteroides (Woodmansey 2007).

Reduced numbers of *Bacteria* in the fecal content of elderly reflect the physiological alterations associated with ageing. These include prolonged colonic transit time and reduced dietary energy requirement and food uptake (Morley et al. 2007). Further reductions in the relative abundance of important sub-populations such as Clostridium cluster IV and bifidobacteria might result in reduced formation of SCFAs, altered epithelial cell maturation and maintenance, and altered barrier function of the gut epithelium in elderly probands. Those changes in the GI microbiota have previously been linked to impaired immune functions prevalent in individuals of advanced age and may result in a greater susceptibility to disease.

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Improved analytical concepts for the characterization of the microbiota of consumers and patients might become important as a rationale for individualized probiotic intervention. Probiotic supplementation is a promising concept in restoring impaired functions or enhancing specific desirable functions of the microbiota. Encouraging effects of probiotic supplementation have been reported for aspects such as direction of host immunity, pathogen defense, maintenance of integrity of the gut epithelium, alleviation of lactose intolerance symptoms and immune effects, such as in atopic disease. For further insight into the relationships between phylogenetic information and metabolic activities, sequence information in addition to 16S rRNA based fingerprinting will be mandatory.

² **421** CONCLUSION

Tables:

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Studies comparing elderly and young volunteer microbiota with PCR-DGGE fingerprinting and qPCR are still rare. We found that ageing is associated with less overall bacteria and significantly decreased Clostridium cluster IV and bifidobacteria and an increase of Bacteroides. Diversity of dominant bacteria, Bacteroides and Clostridia cluster IV were reduced. Those changes in the GI microbiota are suggested to be cause and effect of impaired immune functions in individuals of advanced age and may result in a greater susceptibility to disease.

Table 1: Primers and probes used for quantification of fecal bacteria using TagMan assays targeting 16S rRNA coding regions.

	Primer or		Fragment	Conc.	
Target organism	probe	Sequence (5' - 3')	Size (bp)	[nM]	Reference
bifidobacteria	Fwd primer	GCG TGC TTA ACA CAT GCA AGT C	125	300	
	Rev primer	CAC CCG TTT CCA GGA GCT ATT		300	
	Probe	(FAM)- TCA CGC ATT ACT CAC CCG		150	(Penders et al.
	Flobe	TTC GCC -(BHQ-1)		150	2005)
Bacteroides	AllBac296f	GAG AGG AAG GTC CCC CAC	106	300	
₩	AllBac412r	CGC TAC TTG GCT GGT TCA G		300	
	AllBac375Bh	q(FAM)-CCA TTG ACC AAT ATT CCT		100	(Layton et al.
	r	CAC TGC TGC CT-(BHQ-1)		100	2006)
Bacteria (general)) BAC-338-F	ACT CCT ACG GGA GGC AG	468	1000	
	BAC-805-R	GAC TAC CAG GGT ATC TAA TCC		1000	

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2	Clep-P ^a	(FAM)-AGG GTT GCG CTC GTT- (BHQ-1)		200	This study
	sg-Clep-R	CTT CCT CCG TTT TGT CAA		400	(Matsuki <i>et al.</i> 2004)
Clostridium cluster IV	sg-Clep-F	GCA CAA GCA GTG GAG T	239	400	
	BAC-516-P	(FAM)-TGC CAG CAG CCG CGG TA	Α	200	(Yu 2005)

^a position of target site (numbering corresponding to *E . coli* 16S rRNA gene) 1082 to

1107.

 Table 2: Primers applied for PCR-DGGE fingerprinting of 16S rRNA coding regions.

Target	Primer	Sequence (5'-3')	Ann.temp	Reference
organism	pairs		(°C)	
bacteria	27f	GTGCTGCAGAGAGTTTGA	\ 57	(Edwards et al.
		TCCTGGCTCAG		1989)
	985r	GTAAGGTTCTTCGCGTT	57	(Heuer et al. 1999)
	341f-GC	CCT ACG GGA GGC AGC	55	(Muyzer et al.
	O	AG		1993)
	518r	ATT ACC GCG GCT GCT	55	(Neefs et al. 1991)
		GG		
Bacteroides	32f			(Bernhard and
		AACGCTAGCTACAGGCTT	T 56	Field 2000)
	708r			(Bernhard and
		CAATCGGAGTTCTTCGTG	5 56	Field 2000)

bifidobacteria	a g-BifidF			(Matsuki <i>et al.</i>
		CTCCTGGAAACGGGT	GG 58	2002)
	g-BifidR	GGTGTTCTTCCCGATA	ATC	(Matsuki et al.
		TACA	58	2002)
Clostridia	sg-Clep-			
cluster IV	F-GC	see table 1	55	
	sg-Clep-			
	R			

Figures

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Figure 1: Proportions of Bacteroides, bifidobacteria and Clostridium cluster IV of the total bacterial load in stool samples of institutionalized elderly and young healthy volunteers. Total amount of bacteria is depicted relative to the mean counts for healthy young young.

Figure 2: PCR-DGGE bandpattern of 16S rRNA coding regions of dominant bacteria amplified with primer pair 341GC-518. Bands that were observed more frequently in young than in elderly are indicated with arrows. Organisms and sequences listed were used for the construction of the reference lanes.

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A, G, I, J, young; B, C, E, F, elderly; D, H, reference lanes

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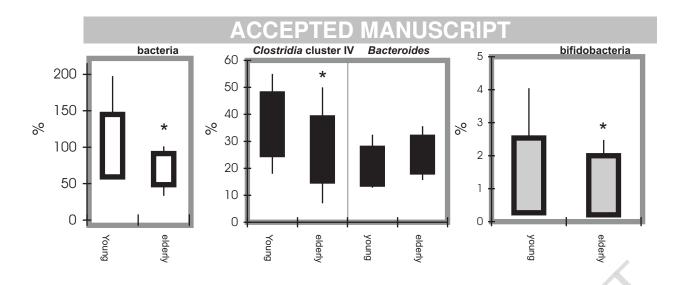
 Figure 3: Diversity indices derived from DGGE fingerprinting of 16S rRNA coding regions.

Y, young; E, elderly; Cl.IV, Clostridium cluster IV; B, Bacteroides, Bif, bifidobacteria;
*, p < 0.05.
Figure 4: PCA of DGGE fingerprints of 16S rRNA coding regions of dominant
bacteria in fecal samples.
Y, young; O, elderly
Figure 5: UPMGA dendrogram showing clustering (Dice) based on the similarities of
DGGE fingerprints of dominant bacteria obtained with primer pair 341GC-518.
, elderly; , young
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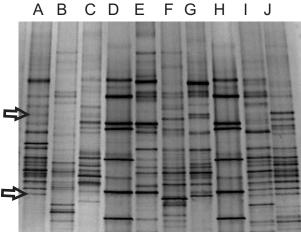
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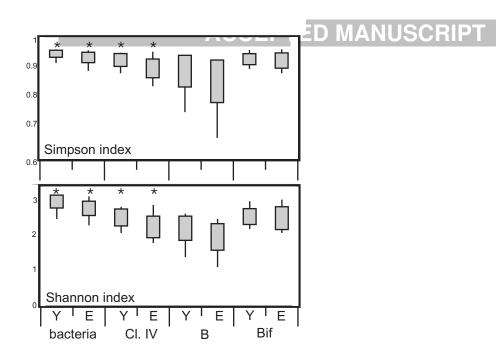
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