

Chicory root flour – A functional food with potential multiple health benefits evaluated in a mice model

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1 Chicory root flour - a functional food with potential multiple health benefits evaluated

2 in a mice model

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22 Abstract

Industrial chicory roots (*Cichorium intybus* var. sativum) have been the subject of many 23 24 different studies investigating their supposed nutritional and medicinal benefits. Although an impressive number of clinical evidences has supported the health effects of this plant, the 25 molecular mechanisms remain poorly understood. In this work, we looked at chicory flour 26 27 that is proposed as an ingredient for pastries and a water extract of chicory root flour was 28 tested. We experimented on the murine model and highlighted new mechanisms by which the chicory roots brings health benefits. For this purpose, a nutrigenomic analysis was associated 29 with a metabolic hormone dosage and a metagenomic analysis. New potential mechanisms by 30 which the chicory acts on cancer prevention on antibacterial and antiviral defense, on 31 hypoglycemic and hypolipidemic effect as well as on the antioxidant effect were identified. 32 Also, the prebiotic effect of the chicory root flour was discussed by comparison with inulin. In 33 general, almost all effects were found to be more pronounced in male mice than in female 34 35 mice.

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- Keywords: *Cichorium intybus*, chicory root flour, cancer protection, antimicrobial protection,
 metabolic regulation, prebiotics
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45 1. INTRODUCTION

46 Chicory (*Cichorium intybus* L.) is mostly known for its multiple uses in the food industry and 47 herbal medicine. This plant has long been consumed as a vegetable by humans. Leaves and 48 root have been used for thousands of years for nutritional purposes (Puhlmann and de Vos, 49 2020) and since the end of the 16th century and the reign of Napoleon, roasted roots have 50 been used as a substitute to coffee beans (Lucchin *et al.*, 2008).

51 Chicory roots are rich in fiber and bioactive compounds. Inulin is the main storage carbohydrate consisting of fructose molecules whose linkage cannot be broken down by 52 human intestinal enzymes and was classified as dietary fiber. Nowadays, chicory inulin is 53 used as food ingredient for its gelling, texturing and stabilizing properties (Arkel *et al.*, 2012), 54 acting as a fat (Keenan et al., 2014) or sugar substitute (Gonzalez Thomas et al., 2009). 55 56 Chicory inulin was also defined as a prebiotic because this substrate is selectively used by the gut microorganisms and confers a health benefit (Gibson et al., 2017). This benefit includes 57 the stimulatory effect mainly on bifidobacteria and the increase in short-chain fatty acids 58 (SCFA) production (Le Bastard et al., 2020). 59

Chicory was already cultivated as a medicinal plant by the ancient Egyptians and is still used 60 in traditional dishes in various parts of the world (Puhlmann and de Vos, 2020). Liv-52 and 61 Jigrine, two traditional Indian formulations containing parts of this plant are largely used for 62 their hepatoprotective effects (Huseini et al., 2005). In addition to being used as a tonic in the 63 form of syrup, chicory roots are conventionally taken to relieve different digestive disorders 64 (Judzentiene and Budiene, 2008). The whole plant is also known for its hypoglycemic 65 (Roberfroid et al., 1998) and hypolipidemic properties, hypothetically due to the chlorogenic 66 acids (CGA) content of chicory (Jackson et al., 2017). Extracts of chicory roots have also 67

been stated to have antimicrobial (Liu *et al.*, 2013), immunomodulatory (Amirghofran *et al.*,
2000), anti-inflammatory (Lee *et al.*, 2015), and anti-cancer properties (Behboodi *et al.*,
2019). Historically used in Afghanistan as a remedy for malarial fevers, chicory has proven to
be a promising antimalarial agent, due to its bitter compounds such as lactucin, lactucopicrin,
8-deoxylactucin and their derivatives (Bischoff *et al.*, 2004). Due to its content in
sesquiterpene lactones (STL), chicory presents also anthelmintic activity in animals (Jensen *et al.*, 2011).

In recent years, functional foods have developed as part of health and wellness programs because they are highly nutritious and associated with several powerful health benefits at the same time. Inulin was adopted as a functional ingredient and various studies evaluated its efficacy as prebiotic, for promoting good digestive health, for influencing lipid metabolism and for its beneficial roles in optimum plasmatic levels of glucose and insulin maintaining (Ahmed and Rashid, 2017).

As chicory roots contain inulin but also many other bioactive compounds, we considered the whole root as a potential functional food and investigated the molecular mechanisms of its effects on health. To distinguish the effect of the complete food matrix from that of inulin, a murine model was used and a force-feeding was performed with chicory root flour or inulin. The distinct effects in males and females were also examined. We analyzed changes in gene expression profiles, in plasmatic metabolism marker levels and also in gut microbiota composition, in order to correlate the different observations with respective effects on health.

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89 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

90 **2.1.** Chicory flour production and composition

Two industrial chicory genotypes (Cichorium intybus var. sativum) were used to produce 91 fresh chicory roots. These genotypes named G12 and G35 were selected by Florimond-92 Desprez Veuve et Fils SAS (Capelle-en-Pévèle, France). Roots were processed by Leroux 93 SAS (Orchies, France) to provide corresponding flour. Samples were freeze-dried (48 h) and 94 ground (ball mill, Retsch, Eragny sur Oise, France) for 30 min at room temperature using 95 50 mL wells and 25 mm balls to obtain a fine powder. Flour composition of both G12 and 96 G35 chicory genotypes was identical with root composition and it is indicated in Table 1 as 97 previously quantified (Fouré et al., 2018). Mice were fed with an aqueous decoction of the 98 dried powders from the two selected genotypes (G12 and G35). Hundred milliliters of warm 99 water (85°C) were added to a 150 mL glass tube containing 3 grams of powder. The mixture 100 was incubated for 20 min at 80°C under weak agitation. The solution was filtered through a 101 coffee filter, filtrates were centrifuged at 30 000 g for 10 min at 4°C and the supernatants 102 103 were store at -80° C until feeding. The concentration of the decoctions was normalized to 20 ± 0.5 mg/ml and their composition was assessed for CGA and STL levels by LC-UV analyses 104 105 performed according to Willeman et al. (2014). The composition of both decoctions was 106 considered stable for these compounds, which are fully or partially soluble in water (Table 2). Nevertheless, nonpolar and hydrophobic compounds will not be present in the resulting 107 aqueous extract, and will remain in the sediment not diluted in water. Inulin water solution 108 was prepared with 2 g inulin (Inulin from chicory, Sigma-Aldrich) for 150 ml warm water 109 (85°C), incubated for 20 min at 80°C under weak agitation and filtered as flour decoctions. 110

111 2.2. Animal experiments and ethics statements

Male and female BALB/c BYj mice were used for experiments in agreement with Directive 2010/63/ EEC for the protection of animals used for fine scientists and in accordance with Law 2012-10 (2012) and 2013-118 (2013). The protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee for the experiment on animals. The mice were randomly divided into groups (n =

6/group) and housed in a controlled environment (with a temperature of 22 °C, a 12 h/12 h 116 light/dark cycle and *ad libitum* access to standardized food and water). Mice were fed with an 117 aqueous decoction of roots flour from two selected chicory genotypes (G12 and G35) and 118 119 with an inulin solution (I2255 Sigma Aldrich, MO, USA). The mice gavages consisted in a daily force-feeding of 500 µL of stemming solution decoctions of chicory flour or inulin 120 water solution besides the standard chow (Diet A04C-10, Scientific Animal Food and 121 Engineering, Augy, France). For the chicory flour, the decoction corresponded to 10 mg root 122 powder/mouse/day that was considered to be the human equivalent weight/body mass for a 123 moderated alimentary dose (Fouré et al., 2018). The administered dose of inulin was 124 125 calculated to correspond to the concentration of inulin in the G35 aqueous extract of roots for the daily consumption, and was estimated at 6.9 mg/mouse/day. Controls underwent an 126 equivalent force-feeding with water. As experiments were conducted sequentially for two 127 128 different periods of time, two control sets were used: first control group (Ctr1) in parallel with G12 and G13 diet and a second control group (Ctr2) in parallel with the inulin diet. Six mice 129 130 for each gender per condition were used for 30 days followed by a week of resilience. 131 Individual body weight was regularly registered. Three mice for each condition were sacrificed before the beginning of the treatment (D0), after 30 days of treatment (D30) and 132 after washout period (D36) and the central core of the liver left lobe was cut into cubes and 133 frozen as individual samples at -80°C for transcriptomics. The feces were individually 134 harvested before the beginning of the treatment (D0) after 30 days of treatment (D30) and 135 after washout period (D36), and stored at -80°C for microbiota analyses. For hormonal assays 136 100 µL of blood from the caudal vein was sampled from each animal 30 min after gavage at 137 D30. The blood from each mouse was collected in tubes containing 20 µL EDTA 10% 138 anticoagulant solution and 1 µL dipeptidyl peptidase-4 inhibitor (DPP4-010, Marck, Milipore, 139

Darmstadt, Germany), then centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 10 min, the plasma containing
supernatants collected and stored at -80°C.

142 2.3. RNA isolation and microarrays analysis

Total RNA was extracted from hepatic tissues using RNAspin columns (Macherey-Nagel).
RNA quality was observed with Nanodrop and absorbance ratios A260/280 and A260/230
were found between 2.0 and 2.2. RNA quality was also examined with Bioanalyzer 2100
(Agilent, Les Ulis, France) and a minimal RNA integrity number (RIN) of 0.8 was required
for all samples.

For the microarray analysis, groups of mice (n=3) for both genders were used: i) a group that received a decoction of chicory flour G12 for 30 days as previously described, ii) a group that received a decoction of chicory flour G35 for 30 days, iii) a group that received a solution of inulin for 30 days, and iv) two control groups with standard drinking water as mentioned before.

Agilent *Mus musculus* Sure Print GE 4x44 v2 microarrays with oligonucleotide 45,220 probes 153 were used to study the gene expression profile. RNA amplification, staining, hybridization 154 and washing were conducted according to the manufacturer's specifications. Slides were 155 scanned at 5 µm/pixel resolution using the GenePix 4000B scanner (Molecular Devices 156 Corporation, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). Images were used for grid alignment and expression data 157 digitization with GenePix Pro 6.0 software. Expression data were normalized by Quantile 158 algorithm. The 3 control samples were filtered for p value < 0.05 and the average was 159 calculated for each gene. A fold change (FC) value was calculated between individual treated 160 samples and the mean of corresponding controls. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were 161 selected for a threshold > 2.0 or < 0.5. Functional annotation of DEGs was based on NCBI 162 163 GenBank and related-genes physiological processes were assigned with NCBI, AmiGO 2

Gene Ontology and UniProt. KEGG pathway analysis was also used to identify relevant biological pathways of selected genes. All microarray data have been submitted to the NCBI GEO: archive for functional genomics data with the accession number GSE150218.

167 **2.4.** *In vivo* hormone detection

Plasma concentrations of Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1), gut hormone peptide YY (PYY) and leptin were assessed using antibody-immobilized beads specific to each hormone in a Milliplex® Map Kit (Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Kit sensitivity was 19 pg/mL for leptin, 23 pg/mL for GLP-1, and 5 pg/mL for PYY. The quantification was carried out using the Luminex® 100/200 (Luminex Corporation, Austin, USA) system and the Luminex xPONENT® for LX100/200 software.

174 **2.5. Microbiota analysis**

DNA extraction was carried out on 200 mg of mouse feces according to QIAamp stool DNA 175 176 Kit (Qiagen, France). 16S targeted metagenomic analysis, and bioinformatics analyses were 177 achieved according to optimized and standardized protocol developed by the company Genoscreen, Lille, France as described previously (Foligné et al., 2019. Microbial diversity 178 and taxonomic composition of samples were determined for each sample using the so-called 179 metagenomic targeted methodology. Briefly, a fragment of the 16S rRNA gene framing the 180 V3 and V4 hypervariable regions was amplified from 5 ng of gDNA of the samples according 181 to an optimized and standardized amplicon library preparation protocol Metabiote® 182 (Genoscreen, France). The final amplification products (each containing a nucleotide index to 183 differentiate the samples as well as the adapters necessary for carrying out the sequencing) 184 185 were purified on beads and then finally mixed in equal concentrations. The sequencing was performed with the 2* 250 bp chemistry on the Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San 186 Diego) at Genoscreen. The resulting raw sequences were subjected to a cleaning process 187 188 comprising i) sorting the sequences according to the indexes and according to the 16S primers ii) the "trimming" of the sequences by truncating the bases from the 3 'end with a Phred
threshold of 30 (iii) assembly of the two paired sequences according to a minimum overlap of
30 bases and at least 97% identity over the overlapping area.

192 The computer analysis was carried out on a fully automated (Metabiote[®] OnLine) pipeline built around the QIIME v 1.9.1 software (Breton et al., 2013). Following the steps of pre-193 processing, the full-length 16S rRNA gene sequences go through a step in which chimera 194 sequences are detected and eliminated (in-house method based on the use of Usearch 6.1). 195 196 Then, a clustering step is performed in order to group similar sequences with a nucleic identity defined threshold (97% identity for an affiliation at the genus level on the V3-V4 197 regions of the 16S rRNA gene) with Uclust v1.2.22q (Cresci et al., 2010) through an open-198 reference OTU picking process and complete-linkage method, finally creating groups of 199 sequences or "Operational Taxonomic Units" (OTUs). The most abundant sequence of each 200 201 OTUs is therefore considered as the reference sequence of its OTU and is then taxonomically compared to a reference database (Greengenes database, release 13_8; www.greengenes.gov) 202 203 by the RDP classifier method v2.2 (Lahiri and Abraham, 2014). A final table listing all the created OTUs was generated comprising the number of sequences for each sample related to 204 each OTU and their respective taxonomic affiliation. 205

All analyses were performed by comparing experimental groups to their respective controls. Normality was controlled with the Shapiro-Wilk test and homogeneity of variances with Bartlett's test. Statistical paired differences were assessed by ANOVA and Tukey's test using PRISM 7 (GraphPad Prism 6.0, California, USA) and differences were considered significant for a p value of <0.05. All the biosample raw reads have been deposited at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) and are available under BioProject accession number PRJNA631462.

213

214 **3. RESULTS**

Two chicory genotypes G12 and G35 were used here for the different analyses. These two 215 genotypes were selected from a previous study because they presented important differences 216 in roots metabolite composition. The G12 genotype had significantly more citrate, fumarate, 217 lactate, formate, acetate, and inositol than G35. Conversely, roots of the G35 genotype were 218 219 richer in inulin, sucrose, and fructose as well as in 3-mono-O-caffeoylquinic acid and 11,13dihydro-8-deoxylactucin (Fouré et al., 2018). Aqueous extracts of root flours from chicory 220 G12 and G35 were used to feed mice in order to detect the different health effects and to 221 compare with an inulin water solution. For this purpose, many investigations were performed: 222 a whole transcriptomic analysis using Agilent DNA microarrays, a hormonal level 223 224 measurement using Luminex technology and a fecal microbiota metabarcoding analysis by 225 Illumina 16S rDNA sequencing.

226 **3.1.** Chicory diet-driven profiles of gene expression

227 Diet-induced gene expression profiles were analyzed in the liver of mice after 30 days of chicory flours or inulin ingestion. A total number of 28 profiles were found differentially 228 229 expressed during the chicory diet, with an unbalanced pattern between male and female subjects for 39% of profiles (Figure 1, Supplementary file 1). DEGs modified by the chicory 230 diet are involved in cell growth arrest and apoptosis, immunity system, glucose and lipid 231 homeostasis, xenobiotic metabolism and antioxidant activity. As a trend, all effects except 232 antibacterial ones were more pronounced in male than in female mice. Despite quantitative 233 234 differences in flour composition, the G12 and G35 chicory flour modulated similarly the gene expression. An obvious difference between chicory and inulin effects was observed as only 4 235 DEGs were found differentially expressed during inulin intake. These observations suggest 236 237 that bioactive constituents of chicory roots other than inulin could be involved in the observed

effects, alternatively the combined effect of inulin and these different compounds. After 7
days of resilience, all genes were found to be expressed at the same level as the controls,
regardless of diet (Supplementary file 1).

241 **3.2. Plasma level of hormones**

Despite that no significant differences were observed in plasmatic hormone levels, several tendencies must be highlighted. Using the MILLIPLEX® MAP Kit a multiple-fold increase of GLP-1 and PYY was registered in plasma of male subjects after chicory uptake (Figure 2 and Supplementary file 2). Inulin was found to induce an increase of PYY in male mice only. As for gene expression level, the hormonal level seems to be more impacted in male than in female mice. Leptin level was found to be decreased between 1.3 and 2.1 times in plasma of all mice fed with chicory flour either G12 or G35 but not during inulin diet.

249 **3.3. Microbial diversity**

16S-rRNA gene-targeted metagenomic analysis was performed in individual fecal samples of 250 251 male and female mice (n=6) for each dietary requirement, allowing comparison of the overall bacterial richness and phylogenetic composition of the microbiota. After sequence processing, 252 a total of 29 different operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were identified with an abundance 253 >0.1% (Supplementary file 3). The average number of OTUs per individual was 264 ± 44 for 254 males and 362 ± 43 for females and agrees with other studies in mice fecal microbiota 255 (Foligné et al., 2019). The alpha diversity Shannon index indicated a stabilized diversity for 256 all subject groups and no disruptive modifications were found during the chicory or inulin diet 257 (Figure 3A). Beta diversity among different conditions as a measure of genera turnover was 258 considered by Principal Coordinate Analysis for affected taxa during different diets. This 259 revealed a common but also a specific effect of chicory and inulin diet (Figure 3B). 260

261 **3.4.** Microbial characteristics

The community composition representing the bacterial phyla and genus level rankings for major OTU present in the subjects are shown in Figures 4 and 5 respectively. The most abundant phyla across all young subjects were *Firmicutes*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Actinobacteria*, *Proteobacteria*, TM7 and *Tenericutes* (Figure 4A). The ratio *Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes* (F/B) was found diminished after 30 days of G35 chicory diet only, due to a significant increase in *Bacteroidetes* abundance in male and decrease of *Firmicutes* abundance in female mice (Figure 4B and Supplementary file 4).

At the genus level, all changes observed in the relative abundance after 30 days of chicory or 269 inulin treatment are represented in Figure 5. No qualitative changes were observed but 270 271 quantitative modifications appeared in the abundance of several taxa after chicory or inulin 272 diet (Figure 5A). These modifications were closely followed as fold change of standardized abundance ratio (condition vs control) (Figure 5B). Three taxa appeared to increase in 273 abundance during both G12 and G35 treatments: Butyricicoccus, Anaerostipes and Dorea. 274 275 Bacteroidales_unclassed was more abundant in G35 condition only, and Oscillospira in male mice only, during the administration of both chicory diets. Conversely, abundance of 276 Peptococcaceae, Coprococcus or Clostridium was diminished when chicory was 277 administered. Lactobacillus increased specifically when inulin alone was consumed. 278

279

280 4. DISCUSSION

Many studies have already been done on the health effects of inulin (Le Bastard *et al.*, 2020) or roasted roots of chicory (Fouré *et al.*, 2018). In this study we were interested in another known foodstuff obtained from chicory roots: the flour. Known to provide nutritional and medicinal benefits for not only livestock (Nwafor *et al.*, 2017) but also for humans (Puhlmann and de Vos, 2020), chicory flour was proposed to complement other bread-making ingredients

in consumer-friendly products and in products adapted to coeliac patients (Makovicky et al., 286 2018). To understand the mechanisms by which the aqueous extract of chicory root flour 287 impacts health, we used the murine model and analyzed changes registered in gene expression 288 289 profiles, in metabolic hormones level and also in gut microbiota composition during chicory diet. Our results revealed several major molecular mechanisms by which the whole roots of 290 chicory – as opposed to inulin alone – could trigger an anticancer and antimicrobial action, 291 glucose and lipid regulatory influence as well as a xenobiotic and antioxidant effect. A 292 293 prebiotic but in part distinct effect was detected for both flour and inulin diet. These results are discussed below in support of previously published clinical results. 294

4.1. Activity on gene expression related with cell growth and apoptosis

Nine genes involved in cell growth arrest and apoptosis regulation were found differentially expressed during chicory intake (Figure 1) suggesting the potential capacity of the aqueous extract of chicory roots consumption to protect against cancer by increasing the expression of pro-apoptosis factors and avoiding the proliferation of cancerous cells.

Gene coding for the growth arrest and DNA damage-inducible protein GADD45 beta 300 301 (Gadd45B) was found up-regulated in both male and female mice after the chicory diet, instead of Gadd45G that was found up-regulated in only male mice (Figure 1, lines 1-2). 302 GADD45 proteins serve as tumor suppressors and their pro-apoptotic activities have 303 positioned these proteins as essential players in oncogenesis (Tamura et al., 2012). They 304 305 belong to the universe of the p53 target genes that was described as the "guardian of the 306 genome", being involved in response to DNA damage, apoptosis and cell cycle regulation (Levine et al., 2006). Another p53-related gene coding for the protein phosphatase 1 307 308 regulatory subunit 15A (*Ppp1r15a* or *Gadd34*) was found up-regulated in male mice only, 309 after chicory intake (Figure 1, line 3). This protein is involved in cell growth suppression and

apoptosis of carcinoma (Lum et al., 2006). Still belonging to the p53 universe (Jackson et al., 310 2003), the Cd82 (cluster of differentiation 82) was found up-regulated by the chicory diet in 311 all mice (Figure 1, line 4). It acts as a metastasis suppressor (Tonoli and Barrett, 2005) and 312 was described as a solid biomarker for malignant tumors (Zoller, 2009). Similarly, Dmbt1 313 (Deleted in malignant brain tumors 1 protein) (Figure 1, line 5) that codes for a tumor 314 suppressor promoting apoptosis (Zhang, 2019). Gene coding for the ribosome biogenesis 315 factor NOP53 was also found up-regulated (Figure 1, line 6) and is known to be engaged in 316 317 tumor repression (Cho et al., 2016) and in the p53 stabilization in response to stress (Lee et al., 2012). This was also the case of Hspa8 (Figure 1, line 7) that codes for a heat shock 318 protein contributing to apoptosis, autophagy, cell growth and differentiation (Mayer and 319 Bukau, 2005). Its confirmed role in autophagy seems essential in cancer protection, cell 320 senescence and aging (Xilouri and Stefanis, 2016). 321

Two genes promoting tumor growth were found down-regulated in all mice during chicory diet: the apoptosis-antagonizing transcription factor (*Aatf*) and the leukemia inhibitory factor receptor (*Lifr*) (Figure 1, lines 8-9). AATF was described to repress apoptosis (Höpker *et al.*, 2012) and promote tumor progression (Welcker *et al.*, 2018) by targeting genes p53-related. *Lifr* was identified as a promoter of chemoresistance in various types of carcinoma (Lv *et al.*, 2018).

Summing up these aspects, we observed here for the first time evidence of the modulation by chicory root flour administration of gene expression linked with an anti-proliferative effect. This strengthens the findings of previous studies (Behboodi *et al.*, 2019; Saleem *et al.*, 2014; Harza *et al.*, 2002) and could provide an answer related to the mechanism of this valuable effect. Unexpectedly, inulin intake did not trigger similar effects. Only *Gadd45B* and *Lifr* were found down-regulated in mice (Figure 1 lines 1 and 9). It would appear that the anticancer protective effect of the chicory is obviously not attributable to inulin only but to
other water-soluble chicory compounds present in the aqueous extract.

4.2. Activity on expression of immune genes

337 Chicory was already found responsible for various antimicrobial effects (Puhlmann and de Vos, 2020) and in our experiments we found that the expression of several genes related to 338 immunity and displaying antibacterial and antiviral activity could be responsible for these 339 effects. Thus, an important up-regulation of Lipocalin 2 (Lcn2) was detected in male and 340 female mice after chicory food intake (Figure 1, line 10). This gene mediates an innate 341 immune response to bacterial infection. It codes for a secreted protein stimulated by Toll-like 342 receptors upon infection, which is able to sequestrate catecholate-like siderophores and 343 therefore renders bacteria unable to expand (Flo et al., 2004). This role seems essential for 344 antibacterial defense as the lipocalin 2 deficiency was lethal in acute infections with 345 Escherichia coli H9049 (Flo et al., 2004). In addition to its antibacterial activity, LCN2 play 346 an important role in inflammation reducing by regulating the recruitment of immune cells to 347 the site of inflammation (Shashidharamurthy et al., 2013). Genes coding for serum amyloid 348 A1 and A2 (Saal and Saa2) were also found to be strongly up-regulated after chicory extract 349 administration (Figure 1, lines 11-12). SAA1 can bind to the outer membrane protein A 350 present on the surface of Gram-negative bacteria, enabling an increasing immunopathological 351 response against invasive bacteria (Shah et al., 2006). Both SAA1 and SAA2 were found to 352 play an important role in immunity and regulation of inflammation (Sun et al., 2015). 353

The antiviral effect of the chicory was suggested by the up-regulation of genes coding for interferon regulatory factor 1 (*Irf1*) and interferon regulatory factor 2 binding protein 2 (*Irf2bp2*) and was observed mainly in male mice (Figure 1, lines 13-14). IRF1 was described as crucial in innate immunity (Honda *et al.*, 2006) and essential for defense against viruses⁴⁷. The gene coding for interferon regulatory factor 2 binding protein 2 (*Irf2bp2*) was reported to play a major role in the transcriptional regulation of type I interferon genes in response to viral infection (Childs and Goodbourn, 2003) and also in anti-inflammatory responses (Chen *at al.*, 2015).

In female mice only, the up-regulation of the gene coding for signal peptide peptidase like 2A (*Sppl2a*) was observed after chicory food intake (Figure 1, line 15). This gene plays a critical function in the regulation of innate and adaptive immunity. It catalyzes the cleavage of tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNFa) (Friedmann *et al.*, 2006) and equally is directly involved in B cell maturation and survival (Beisner *et al.*, 2013).

Any significant effect of inulin was registered otherwise slight down-regulation of *Lcn2* and *Saa1* suggesting a light decrease of the antibacterial defense on mice after inulin food intake
(Figure 1 lines 10-11).

4.3. Activity on gene expression related to glycemia and lipidemia regulation

Many clinical evidences supported the anti-hyperglycemic (Jackson et al., 2017) or 371 hypolipidemic effect of the chicory (Keshk and Noeman, 2015), but molecular mechanisms of 372 these effects continue to remain poorly understood. Our experiment provides a possible 373 374 answer in this way, as several genes involved in glycogen biosynthesis and lipidemia regulation were deregulated after the chicory diet. Thus, protein phosphatase 1, regulatory 375 subunit 3G (*Ppp1r3g*), insulin-like growth factor 1 (*Igf1*) and its regulatory binding protein 376 *Igflbp1* genes, were found up-regulated following sex-dependent pathway particularities and 377 suggesting a protective effect of chicory against hyperglycemia and weight gain (Figure 1, 378 lines 16-18). PPP1R3G plays a significant role in both postprandial glucose homeostasis and 379 lipid metabolism. It stimulates hepatic glycogen accumulation and decreasing hepatic 380 triglyceride level after a meal, and has the additional benefice of reducing fat mass without 381

changing metabolic rate (Zhang et al., 2014). IGF1 induces similar metabolic effects to 382 insulin (Monzavi and Cohen, 2002) and is involved in glycogen synthesis (Dean and Rose, 383 2018). IGFBP1 can either act as an autocrine and paracrine regulator of IGF1, being involved 384 in glucose metabolism modulation (Wheatcroft and Keamery, 2009), insulin resistance 385 suppression, fat mass reducing as well as leptin levels decreasing (Rajkumar et al., 1999). 386 Indeed, the up-regulation of *Igf1* and *Igf1bp* genes could be linked to the decreasing tendency 387 observed in plasmatic leptin levels of G12 (p = 0.682) and G35 (p = 0.132) male groups and 388 G12 female group (p = 0.059) (Figure 2). 389

Apoa4 coding for the apolipoprotein A-IV was found up-regulated in both male and female 390 mice after G12 and G35 chicory diet (Figure 1, line 19) and was described as an anti-391 392 atherogenic factor (Culnan et al., 2009) protecting against atherosclerosis and diabetes (Qu et al., 2019). The Lpin1 and Lpin2 genes were found up-regulated in male mice only by the 393 chicory diet (Figure 1, lines 20-21) and are involved in lipid homeostasis regulation (Dwyer et 394 395 al., 2012). Two other genes coding for apolipoprotein B (Apob) and apolipoprotein C-IV (Apoc4) were found down-regulated in only male mice (Figure 1, lines 22-23). These genes 396 were described to be involved in atherosclerosis (Borén and Williams, 2016) and liver 397 steatosis (Kim et al., 2008) and their down-regulation suggests a protective effect against 398 these chronic illnesses. 399

The level of different metabolic markers detected in mice plasma indicated no statistical differences but noticeable variations suggesting a beneficial metabolic effect of the chicory diet. Thus, GLP-1 which is known to regulate the appetite and food intake (Holst *et al.*, 2007), and PYY which is a short-term food intake marker and thus an anorexigenic hormone (Woods and D'Alessio, 2008) were increased in mainly male mice during chicory diet (Figure 2). Leptin, which is a long-term food intake marker and an indicator of the body fat level (Brennan *et al.*, 2006), was found to decrease in both male and female mice after G12 or G35 407 chicory food intake. Both trends, the appetite regulation and the decrease of the body fat,
408 could be associated with gene expression to explain the worthwhile consequences of chicory
409 consumption. These effects must be rather protective than curative as in our study no
410 significant body weight modifications were observed during different diets (Supplementary
411 file 5).

412 4.4. Effect on expression of genes related to xenobiotic and antioxidant activity

An important antioxidant effect was already attributed to the chicory root extract that showed 413 a radical scavenging activity dependent more like on its content of caffeoylquinic acids (Liu 414 et al., 2013). In our study we found that consumption of chicory triggered the up-regulation of 415 several genes coding for drug metabolizing enzymes such as cytochrome P450 (Cyp4a31, 416 Cyp8b1, Cyp27a1) and flavin containing monooxygenase (Fmo5), or for proteins involved in 417 oxidative stress protection as selenophosphate synthetase 2 (Sephs2) (Figure 1, lines 24-28). 418 Cytochrome P450 and Fmo5 are well known for their capacity to monooxygenize a large 419 panel of organic compounds (Chen, 2020). SEPHS2 is involved in synthesis of selenoproteins 420 (Oudouhou et al., 2017) that are typically involved in cellular redox balance and include 421 glutathione peroxidase and thioredoxin reductase (Steinbrenner et al., 2009). As no effect of 422 inulin was registered at this level, it is very likely that the caffeoylquinic acids and probably 423 other bioactive molecules present in chicory roots must be responsible for this effect. 424

425 **4.5. Prebiotic effect on gut microbiota**

The microbial community diversity remained stable in fecal microbiota among all samples (Figure 3A). Only a few taxa registered quantitative changes during chicory or inulin diet (Figure 3B). *Bacteroidetes* and *Firmicutes* were the most prevalent phyla (Figure 4A) but their ratio changed during the chicory diet. A significant lower F/B ratio was induced by the G35 chicory genotype in males and in female mice as well (Figure 4B) and this result is in accord with previous observations on chicory roasted roots effects (Fouré *et al.*, 2018). We
observed here that inulin alone administrated at the same concentration as in G35 flour did not
completely explain this change of F/B (Figure 4B). Most likely other compounds that are
more represented in G35 must be responsible for this disproportion, however, this remains to
be demonstrated. All the same, F/B is considered as an indicator of gut microbiota status (Ley *et al.*, 2006) as a reduced F/B is correlated to a beneficial effect on obesity physiopathology
(Turnbaugh *et al.*, 2008; Barlow *et al.*, 2015).

This beneficial effect of G35 flour was confirmed at the genera level (Figure 5). 438 Bacteroidales_unclassed belonging to Bacteroidetes strongly increased in abundance mainly 439 in male mice after G35 flour intake. The order Bacteroidales is the most abundant Gram-440 441 negative bacteria colonizing the human gut (Zitomersky et al., 2011) and among the predominant genera are Bacteroides and Prevotella. Both of them are well known as dietary 442 fiber fermenters and SCFA producers (Chen et al., 2017). Other taxa known as SCFA 443 444 producers also increased in abundance during both G12 and G35 treatments: Butyricicoccus, Anaerostipes and Oscillospira (Figure 5B). All these were found to generate butyrate that has 445 been reported to play an important role in cancer prevention of the colon by promoting cell 446 differentiation, cell-cycle arrest and apoptosis of transformed colonocytes (Wong et al., 447 2006). It was also reported that the butyrate is able to induce the production of GLP-1 and 448 thus reducing food intake (Lin et al., 2012). These aspects are totally consistent with our 449 results on gene expression profiles and hormonal dosages. 450

451 On the other side, several *Firmicutes* taxa as *Peptococcaceae* and *Clostridium* were 452 drastically diminished when chicory was ingested. These taxa are mainly Gram-positive 453 obligate anaerobes and may frequently include pathogens (Topiel and Simon, 1986; Gibbs, 454 2009). This way we can then suggest that chicory food intake could induce several protective changes against pathogens not only through changes in gene expression but also in theintestinal microbiota.

Interestingly, consumption of inulin triggered the same stimulating effects on butyrate-457 producing bacteria, but not on the limitation of suspected pathogenic taxa. A particular action 458 of inulin was reflected in strongly increased in abundance of *Lactobacillus*. Inulin was already 459 depicted as a functional ingredient with a prebiotic effect, capable of producing changes in 460 lactobacilli and bifidobacteria abundance on human gut microbiota (Slavin, 2013). The 461 murine experimental model does not offer the possibility to study bifidobacteria (Hugenholtz 462 et al., 2018) but the observed changes in lactobacilli are entirely consistent with previous 463 studies on the effect of inulin. If inulin has the same prebiotic effect for both genders, chicory 464 flour appears to be more effective in males than in females. 465

466

467 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

468 To provide functional support to the many clinical studies that have highlighted the effects of chicory on health, we looked at the mechanisms of action of this plant and more specifically 469 those of the chicory roots processed into flour. For this purpose, we experimented on the 470 murine model and performed a nutrigenomic analysis that was associated with a metabolic 471 hormone assay and a metagenomic analysis. A prominent effect of the chicory on cancer 472 prevention was demonstrated by the deregulation of a large number of genes involved in cell-473 cycle arrest and apoptosis (Gadd45B, Gadd45G, Gadd34, Cd82, Dmbt1, Nop53, Hspa8, Aatf, 474 Lifr). Genes involved in antibacterial and antiviral defense, such as Lcn2, Saa1, Saa2, Irf1 and 475 Irf2bp2, were strongly up-regulated during chicory diet. The hypoglycemic and 476 hypolipidemic effects of the chicory were associated with deregulation of *Ppp1r3g*, *Igf1*, 477 Igfbp1, Apoa4, Lpin1, Lpin2, Apob, Apoc4, and also with modifications of GLP-1, PYY and 478

leptin release. Finally, the antioxidant effect was revealed by the up-regulation of Cyp4a31, 479 Cyp8b1, Cyp27a1, Fmo5 and Sephs2. The prebiotic effect of chicory roots was revealed for 480 butyrate producers like Butyricicoccus, Anaerostipes and Oscillospira which increased in 481 abundance. In contrast, taxa with putative pathogenic potential like Peptococcaceae and 482 *Clostridium*, drastically decreased in abundance. Except the prebiotic effect that is partially 483 shared with inulin, other effects were principally attributed to the chicory flour intake. In 484 general, almost all effects were found to be more pronounced in male mice than in female 485 mice. Together, the new mechanisms detected by this study provide strong arguments for the 486 health effects of chicory. As these findings are based on an aqueous decoction of chicory root 487 flour, further experiments should evaluate the effect of the whole chicory root flour to 488 elucidate the potential of chicory as a functional food. 489

490

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789 TABLES

- **Table 1.** Major metabolites analysed by quantitative ¹H-NMR in chicory root flours.
- **Table 2.** Composition of aqueous decoction of chicory root flour. Chlorogenic acids and
 sesquiterpene lactones were analysed by LC-UV quantification.

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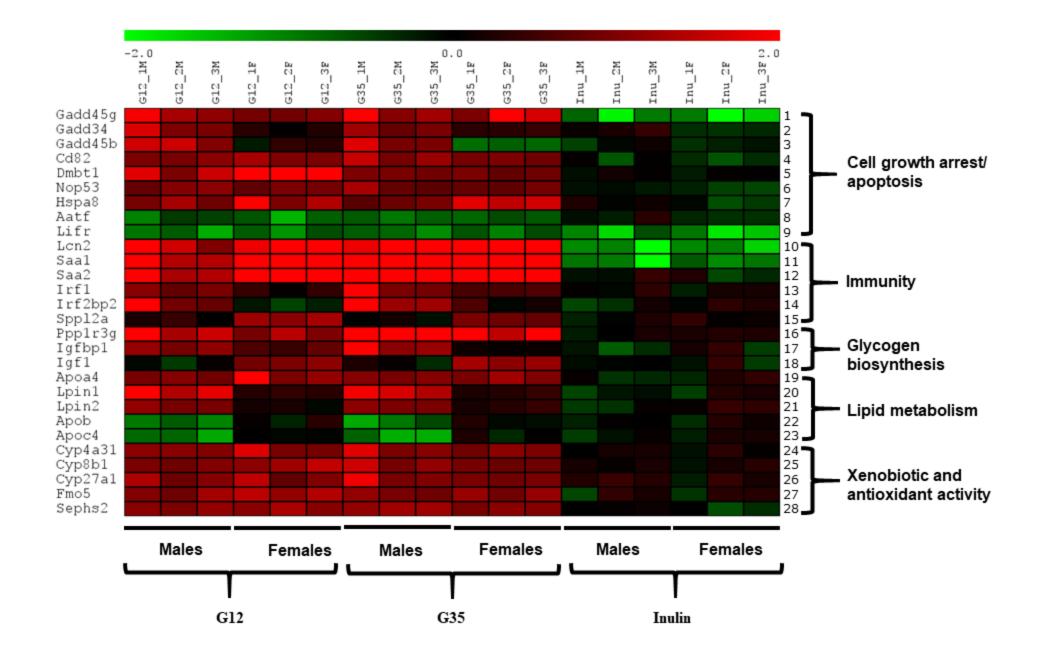
794 FIGURE CAPTIONS

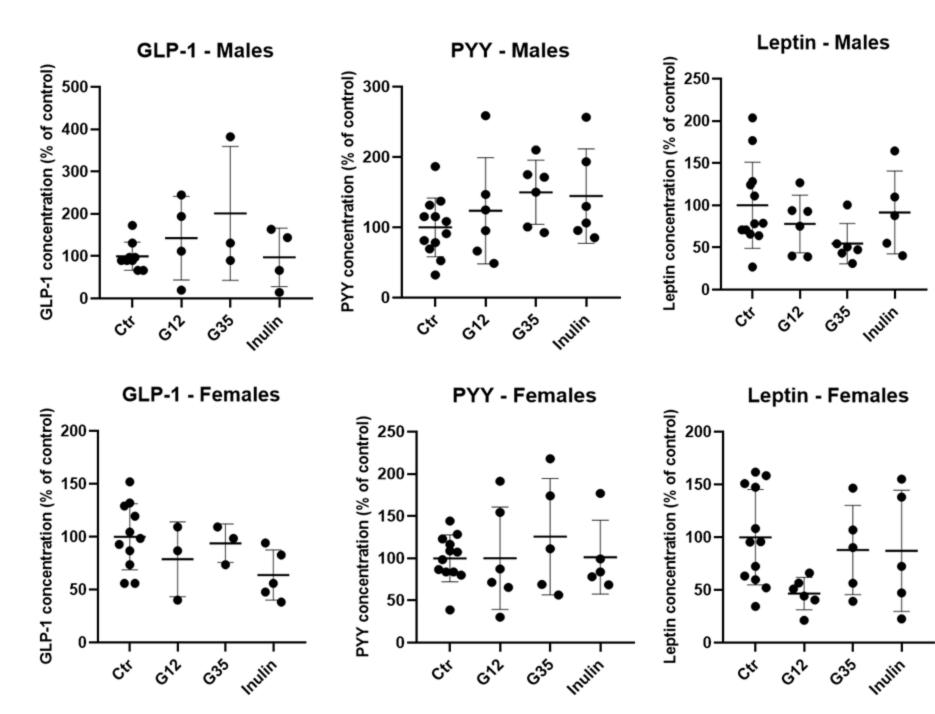
Figure 1. Gene expression profiles in hepatic tissue of mice after chicory and inulin diet. Log2 fold change of gene expression was represented individually for mice (1-3) and generelated physiological processes are represented on the right part of the graph.

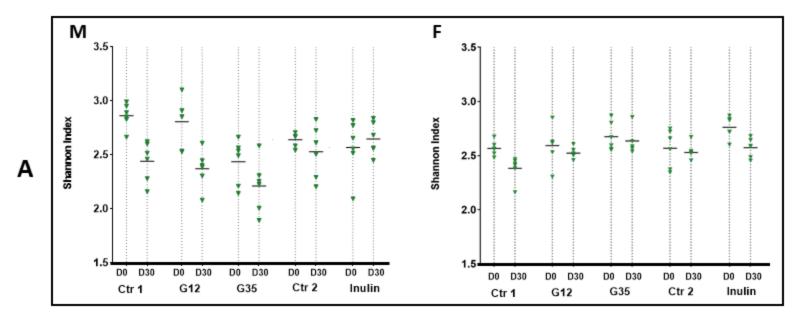
Figure 2. GLP-1, PYY, and leptin level in mice plasma, after 30 days of chicory (G12, G35) and inulin supplemented diet, and assayed after 30 min of oral administration of the different diets at D30. Control values were pooled together (Ctr). Plasmatic hormone levels were expressed as % of the control level. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA and Sidak's multiple comparisons test.

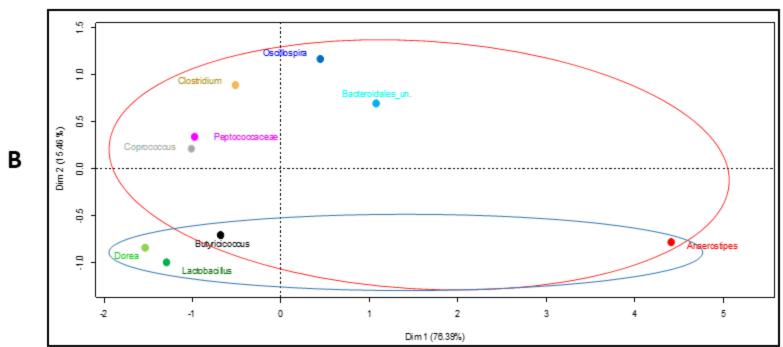
Figure 3. Microbial diversity in fecal microbiota of mice after chicory and inulin diet. A – Alpha diversity was illustrated by the Shannon index that indicates a stabilized diversity for all subject groups (p > 0.05). B – Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) plots (beta-diversity) of affected taxa during different diets. Relative abundance obtained from sequencing the 16s rRNA gene in fecal samples was represented for taxa providing differences over all samples. Red circle mainly delimits the chicory effect (including G12 and G35) and blue circle delimits the inulin effect. M – male, F – female.

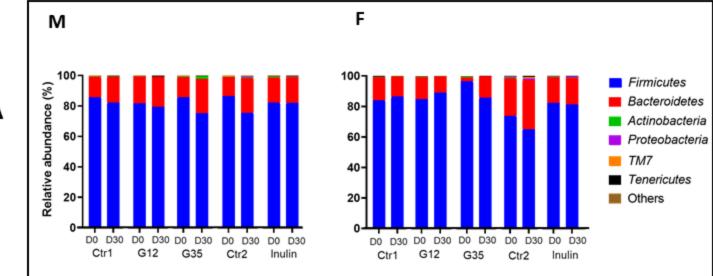
Figure 4. Changes in bacterial phyla abundance. A - Relative abundance (%) of phyla in mice microbiota before (D0) and after 30 days of chicory and inulin diet (D30). Relative abundances detected by NGS is expressed as means. Phyla with abundance under 0.1% are grouped in "Others". B – Standardized abundance ratio relative to D0 of *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes* (Tukey's test, n = 6/group, * for p < 0.05, ** for p < 0.01). M – male; F – female; G12, G35 - chicory flours; Inu – inulin; Ctr1 – control related to G12 and G35; Ctr2 – control related to inulin diet. Figure 5. Relative abundance of main genera in mice fecal microbiota after chicory (G12, G35) and inulin diet. A - Relative abundance of genera (%) are indicated when their values are >0.1%. Genera with a low relative abundance were assigned as "Others". B – Heatmap representing the fold change of standardized abundance ratio. Increased abundance compared to control was considered when FC>1.30, and decreased when <0.70. M – male, F – female.

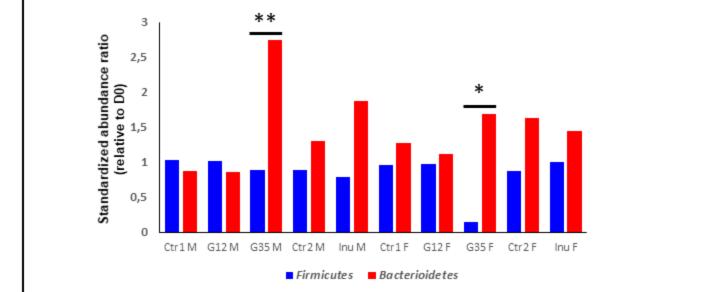






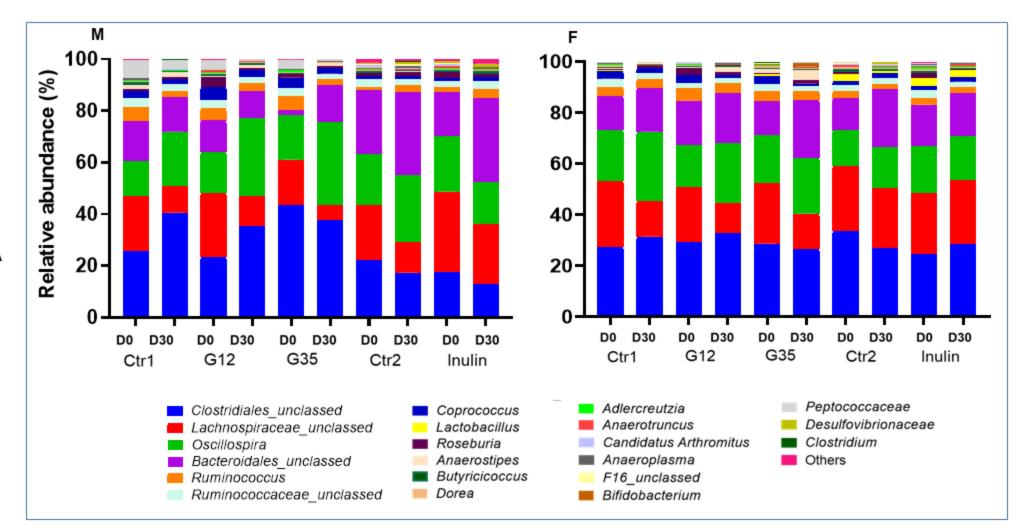


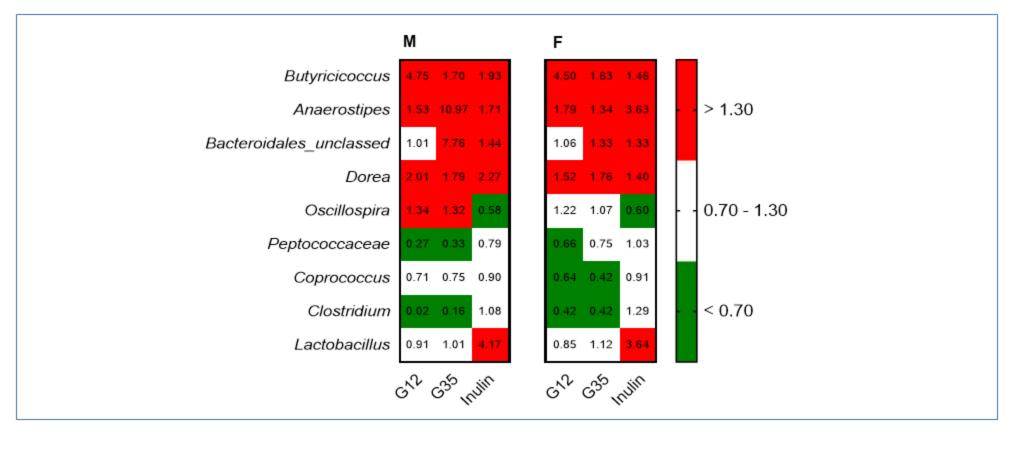




Α

В





в

Compounds	G12	G35
(mg/g dry matter)	_	
Glucose	18.31a	15.11a
Fructose	15.43b	20.65a
Sucrose	17.91b	26.54a
Mannose	2.91a	2.11a
Inulin	105.80b	250.33a
Citrate	6.88a	4.37b
Fumarate	0.13a	0.08b
Malate	3.10a	2.70a
Lactate	0.80a	0.34b
Formate	0.47a	0.31b
Pyroglutamic acid	5.68a	4.41a
Acetate	0.23a	0.13b
Trigonelline	0.053a	0.070a
Cholin	0.47a	0.36a
Scyllitol	0.90a	0.71a
Inositol	3.06a	2.08b
3-cqa	0.293b	0.343a
3,5-dicqa	0.066a	0.070a
DHdLc	0.011b	0.014a
dLc	0.004a	0.003a
Lp	0.003a	0.003a

Table 1. Major metabolites analysed by quantitative ¹H-NMR in chicory root flours.

Statistically significant differences measured by ANOVA (*p-value* < 0.05) according to genotype are showed with different letters in the same column (Tukey's test).

3-cqa: 3-mono-O-caffeoylquinic acid; 3,5-dicqa: 3,5-di-O-caffeoylquinic acid; DHdLc: 11,13-dihydro-8-deoxylactucin; dLc: 8-deoxylactucin; Lp: lactucopicrin.

Table 2. Composition of aqueous decoctions of chicory root flours. Chlorogenic acids and sesquiterpene lactones previously described in chicory roots were detected in aqueous decoctions by LC-UV quantification.

Compounds mg/g dry matter	decoction G12	decoction G35
3-сqа	0.142 ± 0.0076	0.148 ± 0.0080
3,5-dicqa	0.015 ± 0.0005	0.008 ± 0.0003
DHdLc	0.167 ± 0.0063	0.203 ± 0.0077
dLc	0.035 ± 0.0033	0.024 ± 0.0022
Lp	0.084 ± 0.0041	0.107 ± 0.0052

3-cqa: 3-mono-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid; 3,5-dicqa: 3,5-di-*O*-dicaffeoylquinic acid; DHdLc: 11,13-dihydro-8-deoxylactucin; dLc: 8-deoxylactucin; Lp: lactucopicrin.