

Effects of food matrix on the prebiotic efficacy of inulin-type fructans: a randomised trial

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Research article 1 2 Effects of food matrix on the prebiotic efficacy of inulin-type fructans: a randomised trial 3 P. P. J. Jackson¹, A. Wijeyesekera¹, S. Theis² & J. Van Harsselaar², R. A. Rastall¹, 4 5 1. p.p.j.jackson@pgr.reading.ac.uk 6 1. r.a.rastall@reading.ac.uk* 7 1. a.wijeyesekera@reading.ac.uk 8 2. stephan.theis@beneo.com 9 2. jessica.vanharsselaar@beneo.com 10 11 12 **A.** University of Reading, Department of Food and Nutritional Sciences, Harry Nursten Building, Pepper Lane, Whiteknights, Reading RG6 6DZ 13 14 **B.** BENEO-Institute, BENEO GmbH, Wormser Str. 11, 67283 Obrigheim (Germany) 15 **Abstract** 16 17 18 Recently there is much debate in the scientific community over the impact of the food matrix 19 on prebiotic efficacy of inulin-type fructans. Previous studies suggest that prebiotic selectivity of inulin-type fructans towards bifidobacteria is unaffected by the food matrix. 20 Due to differences in study design, definitive conclusions cannot be drawn from these 21 findings with any degree of certainty. In this randomised trial, we aimed to determine the 22 effects that different food matrices had on the prebiotic efficacy of inulin-type fructans 23 following a standardised 10-day, 4-arm, parallel, randomised protocol with inulin either in 24 pure form or incorporated into shortbread biscuits, milk chocolate or a rice drink. Similar 25 increases in Bifidobacterium counts were documented across all four interventions using both 26 27 fluorescence in situ hybridisation (pure inulin: +0.63; shortbread: +0.59; milk chocolate: +0.65 and rice drink: +0.71 (log₁₀ cells/g wet faeces) and 16S rRNA sequencing quantitative 28 microbiome profiling data (pure inulin: +1.21 x 10⁹; shortbread: +1.47 x 10⁹; milk chocolate: 29 $+8.59 \times 10^8$ and rice drink: $+1.04 \times 10^9$ (cells/g wet faeces) (all P < 0.05). From these results, 30 we can confirm that irrespective of the food matrix, the selectivity of inulin-type fructans 31 32 towards *Bifidobacterium* is unaffected, yet the compositional make-up of the food matrix 33 may have implications regarding wider changes in the microbiota. 34 35 **Trial registration**: clinicaltrials.gov ID: NCT05581615. 36 **Key words** 37

Prebiotics, food matrix, carbohydrates, inulin-type fructans, gut microbiota

1. Introduction

Diet, being one of the key drivers of fermentation in the gut, can strongly influence the composition and thus the functionality of the gut microbiota. One way to modify the composition and activity of the gut microbiota is via prebiotic functional foods as they provide a safe, affordable and effective dietary approach (Sanders *et al.*, 2019). Oligofructose (OF) and inulin are the most widely researched prebiotics belonging to a class of non-digestible carbohydrates referred to as inulin-type fructans (ITF) (Karimi *et al.*, 2015). ITF are linear polydisperse carbohydrates composed of monomers of fructose linked by β -(2-1) glycosidic (fructosyl-fructose) linkages. A non-reducing α -D-glucose moiety may or may not be present (Roberfroid, 2007) and based on the degree of polymerisation (DP), ITF can be separated into OF (DP 2-9) and inulin (DP \geq 10) (van Loo, 2006).

Due to their structure and the absence of brush border β -fructosidases the majority of ITF reach the colon intact functioning as prebiotics by displaying high selectivity towards certain beneficial microbial groups such as *Bifidobacterium*. This is a key feature of the prebiotic concept along with providing a series of health benefits to the host as summarised in these series of reviews (Ahmed and Rashid, 2019; Gibson *et al.*, 2017; Sanders *et al.*, 2019; Wilson and Whelan, 2017). Furthermore, due to their physicochemical properties ITF can also act as fat and sugar replacers as well as texture modifiers while still providing potentially prebiotic dosages. They are becoming an increasingly common ingredient within the food industry (Shoaib *et al.*, 2016).

The concept that the food matrix may impact on the prebiotic efficacy of ITF has become of increasing interest in recent years. This is in part due to previous research suggesting that food matrices may either hinder or enhance the bioavailability of phenolic compounds, fatty acids and other nutrients (Ribas-Agusti *et al.*, 2018; Thorning *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, there is evidence that high levels of dietary fibre present within the matrix can influence the absorption of such compounds via the sequestration of ions and formation of complexes (D'Archivio *et al.*, 2010; Palafox-Carlos *et al.*, 2011). This concept also applies to the microbial fermentation of unabsorbed secondary metabolites in the diet and resulting metabolites within the colon (Aguilera, 2019).

Depending on the processing parameters, ITF may or may not be subject to degradation during the production process. Critical processing parameters include pH, with the critical cut-off appearing to be ≤ 4 (Glibowski and Wasko, 2008; Mensink *et al.*, 2015), pasteurisation (often used during fruit juice production) (Klewicki, 2007), heating such as during baking (Poinot *et al.*, 2010; Rodriguez-Garcia *et al.*, 2012) resulting in participation in caramelisation and Maillard reactions (indicated by the level of browning in bread, cakes, biscuits, etc) (Mensink *et al.*, 2015). Degradation could also be caused by high temperature and pressure extrusion (ready-to-eat cereals and snacks) (Duar *et al.*, 2015) and enzymatic hydrolysis via yeasts and bacteria (bread and beer production) (Struyf *et al.*, 2017). Generally, the processing time, temperature, and the DP of ITF used appear to be critical if the potential degradation of ITF is to be avoided. Each aspect needs to be carefully considered in order to optimise product quality while maintaining ITF integrity (Jackson *et al.*, 2022b).

To date, studies have explored the effects of ITF on the gut microbiota in both pure form, as well as several food products such as biscuits, yoghurt, stewed apple, cereal bars, cocoa drinks, and fruit juices as vehicles for ITF supplementation (Azpiroz et al., 2017; Brighenti et al., 1999; Gibson and Roberfroid, 1995; Healey et al., 2018; Kleessen et al., 2007; Ramnani et al., 2010; Rao, 2001; Slavin and Feirtag, 2011). The results of these studies all document that the selectivity of ITF towards Bifidobacterium is unaltered as result of the food matrix. However, as a subgroup analysis from So et al., (2018) concluded, fibre interventions delivered through supplementation resulted in significantly higher *Bifidobacterium* spp. compared to placebo/lower fibre controls (SMD: 0.75; 95% CI: 0.52, 0.98; $P \le 0.00001$, I2 = 83%). No differences were found between food interventions and comparators (SMD: 0.20; 95% CI: -0.36, 0.76; P = 0.49, I2 = 88%), although considerable heterogeneity persisted in both analyses. This emphasizes that definitive conclusions on whether the food matrix matters in the supplementation of ITF cannot be drawn due to differences in study design (crossover vs parallel study design, number of participants, length of the intervention), differences in the implementation of controlled vs non controlled and exclusion diets (excluding or not excluding other fructans), the type and amount of ITF supplemented (inulin vs OF), time point of stool samples collection), combined with the lack of washout periods, differences in reporting changes in microbial numbers (dry vs wet weight of faeces) and analytical techniques used (fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) vs selective media vs quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR)).

Many of the food products utilised in the studies mentioned above are sources of other potential prebiotics including phenolic acids, β -glucan, arabinoxylans and bovine milk oligosaccharides. Each possesses the potential to alter the fermentation selectivity and have been shown to influence levels of *Lactobacillus*, *Bacteroides*, *Enterococcus*, *Prevotella*, and *F. prausnitzii* (Gomez *et al.*, 2016; Kemperman *et al.*, 2013; Scott *et al.*, 2019; Valeur *et al.*, 2016) amongst others. A critical aspect often overlooked by researchers when considering study designs regarding food-based prebiotic supplementation studies. This leads to the question of whether the food matrix matters in the supplementation of ITF? This question is becoming increasingly important to answer given the interest in the addition of ITF into various food products with several manufacturers marketing these products as beneficial for health (Rolim, 2015). Therefore, this study aims to determine the effects that different food matrices may have on the prebiotic efficacy of ITF following a standardised protocol. The hypothesis to be tested is that the food matrix does not impact on the selectivity of ITF towards *Bifidobacterium*.

2. Materials and methods

Subjects and recruitment

Healthy adults, both males and females, were recruited from the Reading area via previous email lists and posting on social media. The inclusion criteria were volunteers aged 18-65, $BMI \ge 18.5$ and $\le 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$, no evidence of gastrointestinal diseases and following what could be deemed a typical Western European diet. They were free of food allergies and had a stool frequency of at least 3 bowel movements per week. Exclusion criteria were extreme diets (i.e., ketogenic, vegetarian, vegan, intermittent fasting), antibiotic treatment in the four

months preceding the study, anaemia, chronic or acute diseases i.e., (pre)-diabetic. Potential subjects were also excluded if they had undergone surgical resection of any part of the bowel, were current smokers and/or had a history of alcohol or drug misuse. Potential volunteers were excluded if they were pregnant or lactating. Use of laxatives was not permitted 4 weeks prior to beginning of the intervention.

Study design and interventions

The study design was a prospective, non-placebo controlled, parallel-group, randomised trial lasting ten days. Ten days was the chosen intervention length based on the results of previous research demonstrating that the bifidogenic effect of ITF can be seen after approximately seven days of daily intake (Nagy *et al.*, 2022). Prior to commencing the study, eligible subjects were provided with both verbal and written study information and gave their informed consent. Enrolled subjects were asked to undergo a two-week run-in period in which they were required to restrict the use of any probiotics, prebiotics and prebiotic or probiotic containing foods or supplements. After the run-in phase enrolled subjects were randomised using REDCap (see below) into one of four groups (n = 24 per group) stratified by sex using a ratio of approximately 2:1 (female : male): (Group A (16 : 8) – pure inulin), (Group B (18 : 6) – inulin-enriched shortbread), (Group C (16 : 8) – inulin-enriched milk chocolate), and (Group D (18 : 6) – inulin-enriched rice drink).

The ITF used in the was highly soluble inulin (Orafti® HSI, DP 2-60, min. 88% inulin, maximum of 12% glucose, fructose, and sucrose (DM), BENEO-Orafti, Tienen, Belgium) produced from chicory. The interventions used in this study were provided by BENEO. Interventions were chosen based on the outcomes of our literature review reflecting the most common food products that undergo inulin fortification (Jackson *et al.*, 2022a; Jackson *et al.*, 2022b). This not only reflects a wide degree of matrices (baked, semi-solid and liquid), but also those consumed as part of the population's habitual diet (Murakami and Livingstone, 2016). Each portion of pure inulin or enriched food product contained 5 g of ITF and was consumed twice per day resulting in a total daily ITF intake of 10 g. This dosage was chosen based on the amount of ITF that can be successfully fortified into study products without changes in product characteristics. Pure inulin was used as the comparator to determine if the prebiotic efficacy was altered as a result of different food matrices. Details on composition of each study product per 100 g and per daily portion can be found in Table 1.

	Pur	e inulin	Sh	ortbread	Milk	Chocolate	Rice Drink		
Amounts	per 100 g	per 11.4 g daily portion	per 100 g	per 58 g daily portion	per 100 g	per 52 g daily portion	per 100 mL	per daily 300 mL portion	
Energy kJ/kcals	875/216	87.5/21.6	1766/422	1024.28/244.76	2187/523	568.36/271.96	465/111	1534.5/330	
Carbohydrates (g)	11	1.1	54.7	31.73	31	16.12	20.4	61.2	
of which is sugars (g)	11	1.1	12	6.96	30.4	15.81	11.8	35.4	
Fat (g)	Negligible	Negligible	15.9	9.22	36.3	18.88	2.3	6.9	
of which is saturates (g)	Negligible	Negligible	7.2	4.18	21.6	11.23	0.8	2.4	
Protein (g)	Negligible	Negligible	5.4	3.13	7.2	3.74	0.5	1.5	
Fibre (excluding fructans) (g)	0	0	1.36	0.79	2.46	1.28	0.77	2.3	
Fibre (including fructans) (g)	88	10	18.6	10.79	21.7	11.28	4.1	12.3	
Salt (g)	Negligible	Negligible	1	0.58	0.2	0.104	0	0	

Table 1. Compositional breakdown of study products per 100 g and per daily portion.

167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175 176 177	Stool and urine samples were collected at Day 0 and Day 10. Details of sample collection are presented below. No intervention was given until both baseline samples had been provided. Subjects were instructed to consume their assigned pure inulin supplement or food product for the entire 10 days, one portion in the morning and one portion in the evening with no other food or drink and within 15 min of opening. Volunteers were told to not alter their diet or fluid intake during the trial with exception of portion size to make allowances for additional calories consumed as part of the intervention. Volunteers were only considered compliant if consumption for the whole ten-days of the intervention was achieved. In order to assess compliance volunteers were asked to complete an online daily check-in dairy. Changes in habitual dietary intakes at Day 0 and Day 10 were assessed using a modified version of the validated eNutri2019-DE web application specifically designed to capture short-term changes in dietary intake. In-depth details on the eNutri2019-DE web application have been described
179	elsewhere (Franco et al., 2019).
180	
181 182 183 184 185 186 187	Data were collected and managed using REDCap electronic data capture tools hosted at the University of Reading (Harris <i>et al.</i> , 2009). REDCap (Research Electronic Data Capture) is a secure, web-based application designed to support data capture for research studies, providing: 1) an intuitive interface for validated data entry; 2) audit trails for tracking data manipulation and export procedures; 3) automated export procedures for seamless data downloads to common statistical packages; and 4) procedures for importing data from external sources.
188	
189	Outcomes
190	
191 192	Primary outcomes
193 194	The primary outcome was differences in <i>Bifidobacterium</i> count as measured by fluorescence <i>in situ</i> hybridisation flow cytometry (FISH-FLOW).
195	
196 197	Secondary outcomes
198 199 200	The secondary outcomes were changes in microbial composition and urinary metabolites as measured 16S rRNA sequencing and ¹ H-nuclear magnetic resonance (¹ H-NMR). Details on sample collection, processing and analysis are detailed below.
201 202 203 204 205 206	Bowel habit and GI sensation diaries were completed daily throughout the of the ten-day intervention, in order to assess day-to-day changes in flatulence, intestinal bloating, abdominal pressure, abdominal pain and feeling of fullness (all none, mild, moderate and severe) (Costabile <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Ramnani <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Walton <i>et al.</i> , 2012), stool frequency and consistency according to the Bristol Stool Form Scale (Lewis and Heaton, 1997). Any medication use or adverse events were also recorded.

presented as per gram of wet fresh faeces.

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Sample collection 207 208 Faecal samples 209 210 Volunteers were provided written and verbal instruction on how to collect stool samples, and 211 with sterile stool sample pots for Day 0 and Day 10 collections. Freshly collected faecal 212 samples were kept in 2.5L OxoidTM AnaeroJarTM (Oxoid, Hampshire, United Kingdom) with 213 OxoidTM AnaeroGenTM 2.5L sachets (O₂ ≤0.1%; CO₂: 7-15%). Faecal samples were collected 214 from the volunteer's place of residence within 2 hours of voiding. Samples (1.5 g) for 215 metabolic profiling were stored at -80 °C until the study had been completed. An additional 3 216 g of the same faecal sample was diluted 1:10 (w:w) in anaerobic phosphate-buffered saline 217 (PBS, 0.1 M; pH 7.4), then homogenised using a stomacher (260 paddle beats/min) for 2 min 218 at room temperature. 20 mL of faecal slurry were then vortexed with 3 mm diameter glass 219 beads for 30 s before being centrifuged at 1,500 x g for 3 min at room temperature. 75 µL 220 were then diluted in 675 µL phosphate buffered saline (PBS mol l-1; pH 7.4) (1:100 dilution). 221 222 aliquoted in to 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes and stored at -80 °C until cells could be fixed. 223 Samples were then centrifuged at $11,337 \times g$ for 5 min and the supernatant was decarded. Pellets were then resuspended in 375 µL of 0.1 M PBS and fixed in 4% (w:v) 224 225 paraformaldehyde (1,125 μ L) for 4 h at 4 °C. Fixed cells were centrifuged at 11,337 × g for 5 min at room temperature. Samples were then washed with 1 mL PBS, pellets aspirated and 226 centrifuged at $11,337 \times g$ for 5 min. The washing process was repeated twice more. Samples 227 were re-suspended in 150 μL PBS and stored in ethanol (1:1, v:v) at -20 °C until analysis via 228 fluorescence in situ hybridisation – flow cytometry (FISH-FLOW). 229 230 Urine samples 231 232 Day 0 and Day 10 mid-stream urine samples were collected as the first urine sample after 233 waking in sterilised specimen pots. Urine samples were collected from volunteers at the same 234 time as faecal samples. Urine samples were stored at – 80 °C until analysis by Proton Nuclear 235 Magnetic Resonance spectroscopy (¹H-NMR) could be conducted. 236 237 Enumeration of faecal microbial populations by fluorescence in situ 238 hybridisation flow cytometry (FISH-FLOW) 239 240 FISH by flow cytometry was carried out as described by (Grimaldi et al., 2017). Probes used 241 in this study are listed in Table 2. Fluorescence measures were performed by a BD AccuriTM 242 C6 Plus (BD, Erembodegem, Brussels) measuring at 488 nm and 640 nm. Thresholds of 9000 243 in the forward scatter area (FSC-A) and 3000 in the side scatter area (SSC-A) were placed to 244 discard background noise, a gated area was applied in the main density dot to include 90% of 245 the events. Flow rate was 35 uL/min, with limit of collection set for 100,000 events and 246 analysed with Accuri CFlow Sampler software. Bacterial counts were then calculated through 247 consideration of flow cytometry reading and PBS dilution. The number of log₁₀ cells is 248

	Sequence (5' to 3')	Target groups	Reference
Non Eub	ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGC	Control probe complementary to EUB338	(Wallner <i>et al.</i> , 1993)
Eub338	GCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT	Most Bacteria	(Amann <i>et</i> al., 1990)
Eub338II	GCAGCCACCCGTAGGTGT	Planctomycetales	(Daims <i>et al.</i> , 1999)
Eub338II I	GCTGCCACCCGTAGGTGT	Verrucomicrobiales	(Daims <i>et al.</i> , 1999)
Bif164	CATCCGGCATTACCACCC	Bifidobacterium spp.	(Langendij k <i>et al.</i> , 1995)
Bac303	CCAATGTGGGGGACCTT	Most <i>Bacteroidaceae</i> and <i>Prevotellaceae</i> , some <i>Porphyromonadaceae</i>	(Manz <i>et al.</i> , 1996)
Erec482	GCTTCTTAGTCARGTACC G	Most of the <i>Clostridium</i> coccoides- <i>Eubacterium rectale</i> group (<i>Clostridium</i> cluster XIVa and XIVb)	(Franks <i>et al.</i> , 1998)
Rrec584	TCAGACTTGCCGYACCGC	Roseburia spp.	(Walker <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
Prop853	ATTGCGTTAACTCCGGCA C	Clostridium cluster IX	(Walker <i>et al.</i> , 2005)
Fprau655	CGCCTACCTCTGCACTAC	Feacalibacterium prausnitzii and relatives	(Suau <i>et</i> al., 2001)

Table 2: Name, sequence, and target group of oligonucleotide probes used for bacterial enumeration

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Microbial Profiling

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Bacterial DNA extraction

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- Bacterial DNA was extracted from faecal samples using the QIAamp Fast DNA Stool mini
 kit (QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Faecal samples were
 homogenised and allocated into 2 mL screwcap tubes containing 0.6 g 0.1 mm glass beads.
 Bead beating was run on a fastprep24 instrument (MPBiomedicals); 4 cycles of 45s at speed
- 261 4). 200 mL of raw extract were then used for DNA isolation.

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DNA isolation, library preparation and 16S rRNA gene sequencing

- Extracted bacterial DNA was subjected to PCR amplification of the V4 region of the 16S rRNA bacterial gene using two-stage Nextera PCR libraries using the primer pair 515F (5'-GTG YCA GCM GCC GCG GTA A -3') and 806R (5'- GGA CTA CNV GGG TWT CTA AT -3'). Raw sample extracts were diluted to 2.5ng/mL, using Tris-Buffer and 5 mL were
- used in 1st Step PCR, together with 5x HOT FIREPol® MultiPlex Mix (Solis BioDyne,

Estonia) and 4uM primer mix (fwd+rev) 515F/806R (Microsynth, Balgach, 270 271 Switzerland). 1st Step PCR samples were purified with NGS Clean Beads (Labgene, Switzerland). Bead ratio was 1:1:2, Beads were washed with 75% ethanol, airdried and 272 resuspended in Tris buffer. The 2nd step PCR, each sample was individually barcoded, using 273 Nextera XT Index Kit v2 (Illumina, San Diego, California) and 5x HOT FIREPol® 274 MultiPlex Mix (Solis BioDyne, Estonia). 2nd Step PCR samples were purified with NGS 275 Clean Beads (Labgene, Switzerland). The final 2nd Step PCR products were quantified using 276 a Quant-iTTM PicoGreenTM ds DNA Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA). 277 Amplicons were pooled equimolar prior to sequencing. The final pool was quantified using a 278 Quant-iTTM PicoGreenTM ds DNA Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, USA) and 279 Fragment analyzer (Agilent). 280 281 282 Subsequent PCR libraries were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq platform using a v2 500 283 (2*250 bp read length). Pools were diluted to 9.2 pM and loaded together with 15% PhiX (Illumina, FC-110-3001) to increase the diversity of the run resulting in a raw cluster density 284 of 631 and a cluster passed filter rate of 98%. Paired-end reads which passed Illumina's 285 chastity filter were subject to de-multiplexing and trimming of Illumina adaptor residuals 286 using Illumina's bcl2fastq software version v2.20.0.422. Quality of the reads was checked 287 with the software FastQC version 0.11.8 and sequencing reads that fell below an average Q-288 score of 20 or had any uncalled bases (N) were removed from further analysis. The locus 289 specific V4 primers were trimmed from the sequencing reads with the software cutadapt v3.2. 290 Paired-end reads were discarded if the primer could not be trimmed. Trimmed forward and 291 reverse reads of each paired-end read were merged to reform in silico the sequenced molecule 292 considering a minimum overlap of 15 bases using the software USEARCH version 11.0.667. 293 294 Merged sequences were again quality filtered allowing a maximum of one expected erroneous base per merged read. Reads that contained ambiguous bases or were outliers 295 regarding the amplicon size distribution were also discarded. Samples that resulted in less 296 297 than 5000 merged reads were discarded, to avoid distortion of the statistical analysis. Remaining reads were denoised using the UNOISE algorithm implemented in USEARCH to 298 form Amplicon Sequencing Variants (ASVs) discarding singletons and chimeras in the 299 process. The resulting ASV abundance table was then filtered for possible barcode bleed-in 300 contaminations using the UNCROSS algorithm. ASV sequences were compared to the 301 reference sequences of the RDP 16S database provided by 302 https://www.drive5.com/usearch/manual/sintax_downloads.html and taxonomies were 303 predicted considering a minimum confidence threshold of 0.5 using the SINTAX algorithm 304 implemented in USEARCH. The resulting library was then corrected by taking into 305 consideration numbers of 16S copies and rarefying to an even sampling intensity to reduce 306 bias in diversity metric calculations and quantified as described by (Vandeputte et al., 2017). 307 308

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312 313	Metabolic profiling using ¹ H-NMR spectroscopy
314 315 316 317 318 319	For analysis urine samples were thawed, A phosphate buffer (pH 7.4 sodium phosphate with 0.2M disodium phosphate (Na ₂ HPO ₄), 0.04M monosodium phosphate (NaH ₂ PO ₄) in deuterium oxide (99.9 %) was prepared, with 1mM 3-(trimethylsilyl) propionic acid-d ₄ sodium salt (TSP) and 3mM sodium azide in the solution. 400 μ L of each urine sample were mixed with 200 μ L buffer. 550 μ L aliquots of supernatant were collected and dispensed into 5 mm NMR tubes.
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321 322 323 324 325 326 327 328 329 330	¹ H-NMR spectroscopy analysis was carried out using a Bruker Avance DRX 500 MHz NMR spectrometer (Bruker Biospin, Germany). The spectrometer was operated at 500.13 MHz. Urine water spectra were acquired using a standard 1D pulse sequence [recycle delay (RD)-90°-t1-90°-acquire free induction decay (FID)] with water suppression applied during RD of 2 s, a mixing time Tm of 100ms and a 90° pulse set at 7.70 μs. Per spectrum, a total of 128 scans were carried out with a spectral width of 14.0019 ppm. The FIDs were multiplied by an exponential function corresponding to 0.3 Hz line broadening. Acquired spectroscopic data were processed using the TopSpin 3.6.5 software package (Bruker Biospin, Rheinstetten Germany). Data Processing was undertaken using the nPYc-Toolbox 1.2.7. Further details on the nPYC-Toolbox can be found at https://github.com/phenomecentre/nPYc-Toolbox
331	
332 333	Chemometric analysis
334 335 336 337 338	Processed spectroscopic data were imported to the SIMCA 13.0 software package (Umetrics AB, Umeå, Sweden) to conduct unsupervised multivariate statistical analysis. Principal components analysis was used to evaluate similarities/differences in urinary metabolite composition between groups. The R^2 and Q^2 variables provided an indication of goodness of fit (R^2) as well as goodness of prediction (Q^2) of the models.
339	
340 341	Ethics
342 343 344 345 346	The study was given favourable ethical consent by the University of Reading's Research Ethics Committee (36/2020). The trial was registered as a clinical trial (clinicaltrials.gov ID: NCT05581615) and conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. All participants gave written informed consent prior to study entry. There were no protocol changes once the trial commenced.
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Figure 1. CONSORT diagram of participant flow through the trial

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350 351	Sample size and statistical analysis
352 353 354 355 356 357 358	The primary outcome measure was bifidobacterial population as \log_{10} cells/g wet faecal sample as measured by fluorescence <i>in situ</i> hybridisation. It was calculated that to detect a difference in <i>Bifidobacterium</i> populations between interventions, a total of 92 volunteers was required. This is based on an 80% probability that the study could detect a 0.5 \log_{10} cells/g wet faecal sample difference in colonic bifidobacterial population at a two-sided 0.05 significance level based on the assumption of a standard deviation of 0.7 \log_{10} cells/g wet faecal sample bifidobacteria.
360 361 362 363 364 365 366 367 368 369	Statistical Package for Social Science version 27 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used for all statistical analyses. Changes in bacteriology (FISH-FLOW, RMP and QMP), dietary data and bowel habit data were analysed using a linear marginal model (LMM) in order to assess both repeat measures (changes from baseline) and Day 10 group comparisons. Baseline values were included as a covariate to assess differences between groups. Participant metrics were assessed using a one-way ANOVA. All comparisons were corrected for type 1 errors using a Bonferroni adjustment within each LMM and ANOVA. Results are presented as mean and standard error (SE) unless otherwise stated. All tests were two tailed and P values ≤ 0.05 were considered statistically significant.
370 371	3. Results
372 373	Subject characteristics
374 375 376 377	110 subjects expressed interest in the trial with 100 potential subjects completing the screening visit. Of these, 14 did not meet the inclusion criteria, 96 eligible subjects were randomized ($n = 24$ per group) and included in the analysis for all primary and secondary outcomes (Figure 1). Baseline characteristics are reported in Table 3.

Table 3 reports the subject data (age, height, weight, and BMI) mean and range segregated by intervention. Average subject age was 37.89 y, weight 68.05 kg, height 169.08 cm and BMI 23.70 (kg/m²). No significant differences were recorded between any of the groups.

Metric	Pure inulin $(n = 24)$	Shortbread (n =24)	Milk Chocolate (n =24)	Rice Drink (n =24)	P (b)
Age (y)	39.46 (25-63)	34.46 (20-62)	38.29 (19-64)	39.33 (19-64)	P = 0.54
Weight(kg)	69.86 (50-110)	67.76 (51-105)	66.98 (53-86)	67.82 (45-98)	P = 0.89
Height (cm)	170.2 (157-193)	168.4 (152.4-189)	170.2 (155-193)	167.5 (147-195)	P = 0.73
BMI (kg/m²)	23.89 (18.37-30.37)	23.79 (19.57-30.79)	23.11 (19.71-28.72)	24.03 (18-29.9)	P = 0.74

Table 3: Subject data – age, weight, height, and BMI mean and SE segregated by intervention (n = 24 per group). P values are the results of using a one-way ANOVA to compare differences in categorical data.

Dietary intake

Nutrient data collected at Day 0 and Day 10 of the intervention are presented in Table 4. No significant differences were detected in total energy, protein, carbohydrates, total sugar, starch and PUFAs intakes (Table 4). Analysis of total fat revealed significant differences between interventions at day $10 \ (P=0.026)$ with fat intakes in the milk chocolate intervention being significantly different from the rice drink intervention (P=0.019). Repeated measure comparisons showed that total fat intake was significantly greater at Day 10 in the milk chocolate group only (P=0.042). Finally, no significant differences in dietary fibre were detected between interventions at Day 10 (Table 4). Follow-up comparisons revealed that dietary fibre intake was significantly greater at Day 10 within each group (all $P \le 0.001$) (Table 4).

	Pure Inulin (n =24)			Shor	rtbread (n =24	l)	Milk C	Chocolate (n =	nocolate $(n = 24)$ Rice Drink $(n = 24)$)	P (b)
	Day 0	Day 10	P (a)	Day 0	Day 10	P (a)	Day 0	Day 10	P (a)	Day 0	Day 10	P (a)	
Total energy (kcals)	2139 (156.60)	2056 (167.90)	0.58	2127 (149.40)	2302 (180.80)	0.25	2429 (168.20)	2570 (172)	0.35	1990 (135.70)	2083 (129.90)	0.53	0.552
Protein (g)	93.51 (6.98)	96.17 (5.9)	0.69	88.4 (8.07)	89.71 (8.40)	0.84	98.22 (6.76)	97.73 (6.4)	0.94	79.99 (6.91)	76.83 (6.82)	0.64	0.293
Fat (g)	88.04 (8.11)	84.31 (6.82)	0.59	87.48 (8.03)	81.98 (8.72)	0.59	98.92 (9.70)	113.2 (9.24)	0.042	83.38 (6.12)	79.27 (6.38)	0.55	0.026
PUFA (g)	16.44 (1.43)	15.09 (1.27)	0.38	15.86 (1.74)	15.41 (1.85)	0.77	17.98 (1.92)	18.52 (1.71)	0.72	14.50 (1.38)	14.73 (1.31)	0.88	0.499
CHO (g)	250.30 (18.51)	247.80 (25.59)	0.89	248.60 (22.59)	276.50 (19.77)	0.13	280.70 (18.34)	276.90 (17.33)	0.84	228.20 (16.59)	236.40 (17.06)	0.66	0.599
Starch (g)	130.90 (10.71)	127.50 (15.07)	0.74	133.80 (10.36)	143.30 (11.70)	0.37	147.80 (12.79)	138.20 (11.73)	0.33	122.20 (11.23)	132.50 (11.84)	0.33	0.616
Total sugar (g)	116.80 (10.91)	116.90 (15.36)	0.99	112.80 (13.82)	110.60 (11.11)	0.85	129.80 (12.44)	134.10 (9.48)	0.71	104.50 (10.62)	115.40 (10.18)	0.35	0.748
Fibre (g)	31.04 (2.09)	38.64 (2.11)	≤ 0.001	27.06 (2.38)	38.04 (2.51)	≤ 0.001	30.23 (2.18)	39.01 (39.01)	≤ 0.001	21.69 (21.69)	35.14 (1.76)	≤ 0.001	0.902

Table 4: Energy and nutrient intake at baseline (Day 0) and at completion (Day 10) of intervention study in 96 volunteers (n = 24 per group). Mean and standard error (SE). (a) P values are as a result of planned Day 0 vs Day 10 comparisons (grey columns). (b) P values are as a result of using Day 0 data as a baseline covariate for between group Day 10 comparisons (orange column). Keyword: CHO = Total carbohydrates; PUFA = Polyunsaturated fatty acids 400 401 402

403 404	Bacterial enumeration by FISH
405 406 407	96 subjects provided stool samples at baseline and end of the intervention. Figure 2 and Figure 3 report changes in bacterial counts observed in the four intervention groups between Day 0 and Day 10 of the intervention.
408 409 410 411 412 413 414	Figure 2A reports the changes seen in total bacteria counts (Eub I-II-III). Analysis revealed no significant differences between interventions at completion ($P = 0.315$). There was an average $0.07 \log_{10} \text{cells/g}$ wet faeces increase in Eub I-II-III counts across all four interventions going from 9.74 to $9.81 (0.07) \pm 0.025$ (SE) $\log_{10} \text{cells/g}$ wet faeces. All values at end of intervention were significantly different compared to respective baseline samples (all $P \le 0.05$) (Supplemental Data Table 1).
415	
416 417 418 419 420	Similarly, regarding Bif164 (<i>Bifidobacterium</i> spp.) counts no significant differences were detected between interventions at Day 10 ($P=0.641$). Repeated measures analysis revealed significant increases in Bif164 counts at Day 10 across all four interventions: average numbers increasing from 8.36 to 9.00 (mean difference 0.64) \pm 0.05 (SE)) Log ₁₀ cells/g ($P \le 0.001$) (Figure 2B).
421	
422 423 424	Figure 2. Bacterial groups measured by FISH-FLOW (Log_{10} cells/g wet faeces) using probes: (A) total bacteria (Eub338 I-II-III), (B) <i>Bifidobacterium</i> spp. (Bif164). Box and whisker plot - min and max with all points. 96 volunteers ($n = 24$ per group). Results that are statistically significant within and between subject (intervention) are displayed by specified P value

125 126 127 128 129 130	<i>Bacteroides</i> (Bac303) counts are reported in Figure 3A. Increases in Bac303 counts were observed across all four interventions, yet the extent of change varied greatly. Largest increases in numbers of Bac303 were observed in the shortbread intervention increasing from 8.06 to 8.31 (mean difference 0.25 ± 0.04 (SE)) $\log_{10} \text{ cells/g}$ wet faeces ($P = 0.002$). Bac303 counts at the end of the interventions (Day 10) were not significantly different between interventions ($P = 0.201$) (Supplemental Data Table 1).
131	
132 133 134 135 136 137	In contrast, significant differences in Rrec584 (<i>Roseburia/Eubacterium rectale</i>) counts were observed between interventions at Day 10 ($P=0.022$). Subsequent analysis identified significantly greater increases in Rrec584 counts in the shortbread intervention compared to milk chocolate ($P=0.021$). Significant increases from baseline in Rrec584 counts were only detected in the shortbread group going from 8.39-8.61 (mean difference 0.22 ± 0.07 (SE)) \log_{10} cells/g wet faeces ($P=0.005$) (Figure 3B).
138	
139 140 141 142 143 144 145 146	Additionally, <i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i> (Fprau655) (Figure 3C) counts differed significantly between interventions at Day 10 ($P = 0.029$), with increases in the shortbread intervention being significantly different from milk chocolate ($P = 0.048$). In Day 0 vs Day 10 comparisons the most noticeable changes in Fprau655 were recorded in both the shortbread and rice drink interventions with increases from 8.73 to 8.93 (0.20 mean difference \pm 0.07 (SE)) \log_{10} cells/g wet faeces (shortbread) and 8.77 to 8.84 (0.18 mean difference \pm 0.08 (SE)) \log_{10} cells/g wet faeces (rice drink). Both changes were statistically significant compared to respective Day 0 samples - shortbread ($P = 0.004$) and rice drink ($P = 0.012$) (Figure 3C).
148	
149 150 151	Finally, no significant differences were observed in changes of numbers of <i>Clostridium coccoides-Eubacterium rectale</i> group (Erec458) or <i>Propionibacterium</i> (Pro853) either within or between intervention at completion (Supplemental Data Table 1).
152	
153 154 155 156	Figure 3. Bacterial groups measured by FISH-FLOW (Log ₁₀ cells/g wet faeces) using probes: (A) most <i>Bacteroidaceae</i> and <i>Prevotellaceae</i> (Bac303), (B) <i>Roseburia</i> (Rrec584) and (C) <i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i> (Fprau655). Box and whisker plotmin and max with all points. 96 volunteers ($n = 24$ per group). Results that are statistically significant within and between subject (intervention) are displayed by specified P values

457 458	Microbiota Profiling Analysis
459 460 461	Figure 4 reports 16S rRNA sequencing results for Relative Microbiome Profiling (RMP) along with Quantitative Microbiome Profiling (QMP) for <i>Bifidobacterium</i> data across all four interventions.
462	
463 464 465 466	Figure 4. Relative Microbiome Profiling (RMP) (A) and Quantitative Microbiome Profiling data (QMP) (B) of <i>Bifidobacterium</i> 16SrRNA sequencing results. Mean and standard error (SE). 96 volunteers ($n = 24$ per group). Results that are statistically significant within and between subject (intervention) are displayed by specified P values.
467 468	Relative Microbiome Profiling (RMP)
469 470 471 472 473 474 475 476	There were no significant differences in phylum level abundances detected between interventions at Day 10 (Supplemental data Table 2) (all $P \ge 0.05$). At phylum level largest changes were documented in <i>Actinomycetota</i> (<i>Actinobacteria</i>), <i>post hoc</i> analysis documenting significant increases across all four interventions at Day 10: shortbread ($P = 0.002$), milk chocolate, pure inulin and rice drink (all $P \le 0.001$) (Supplemental Data Table 2). Subsequently, there were also significant decreases detected in <i>Bacillota</i> (<i>Firmicutes</i>): milk chocolate ($P = 0.002$), and pure inulin, rice drink and shortbread (all $P \le 0.001$). These changes coincided with those seen in <i>Bifidobacterium</i> at genus level.
478 479 480 481 482 483 484 485 486 487 488	Accordingly, no significant differences were detected at genus level in any bacterial group between interventions (all $P \ge 0.05$) (Supplemental Data Table 2). In line with phylum level, largest changes were recorded in <i>Bifidobacterium</i> with significant increases being detected across all four interventions averaging an 92% increase above baseline (all $P \le 0.001$), (Figure 4A). In addition, while no differences were detected between interventions, several differences in bacterial taxa were documented within intervention including decreases in <i>Blautia</i> (pure inulin, shortbread and rice drink), <i>Clostridium</i> cluster IVXA + IVXB (pure inulin, milk chocolate and rice drink), <i>Dorea</i> (shortbread and rice drink), <i>Lactococcus</i> (shortbread), <i>Ruminococcus</i> (milk chocolate), <i>Lachnospiraceae incertae sedi</i> (pure inulin and shortbread), <i>Ruminococcus</i> (pure inulin, shortbread and rice drink), and increases in <i>Prevotella</i> (milk chocolate) (Supplemental Data Table 2).
490 491 492 493 494 495 496 497	There were no significant differences in any measure of α -diversity detected between interventions at Day 10 (all $P \ge 0.05$). Several within group differences were detected with significant decreases in Shannon index in both the pure inulin ($P = 0.003$) and rice drink ($P = 0.033$) interventions. Trends towards reductions in both shortbread ($P = 0.061$) and milk chocolate interventions ($P = 0.073$) were noted. There was also a significant decrease in richness (no. of species) in both the pure inulin ($P = 0.011$) and rice drink interventions ($P = 0.026$). Simpson index was reduced in the pure inulin intervention ($P = 0.011$) (Supplemental Data Table 3).

Quantitative Microbiome Profiling (QMP)

501 502	Upon quantification of RMP data no significant differences were detected between groups at Day 10 (all $P \ge 0.05$) (Supplemental Data Table 4). As per RMP, largest increases at phylum
503 504 505 506 507	level were documented in <i>Actinomycetota</i> : pure inulin and rice drink (both $P = 0.003$), milk chocolate ($P = 0.015$) and shortbread ($P = 0.001$). Significant decreases in <i>Bacillota</i> (<i>Firmicutes</i>) were documented in both the pure inulin ($P = 0.016$) and shortbread ($P \le 0.001$) interventions, but not in the milk chocolate (all $P = 0.612$) or rice drink interventions (all $P = 0.514$).
508	
509 510 511 512 513 514 515 516	Largest changes in microbial counts at genus level were detected in <i>Bifidobacterium</i> , <i>post hoc</i> analysis revealing significant increases across all four interventions: shortbread ($P \le 0.001$), milk chocolate ($P = 0.036$), pure inulin ($P = 0.004$) and rice drink ($P = 0.011$) (Figure 4B). This mirrors the changes observed in RMP. Additionally, as per RMP there were a number, albeit fewer, changes in bacteria groups detected within each intervention. These included decreases in numbers of <i>Blautia</i> (pure inulin and shortbread), <i>Clostridium</i> cluster IVXA + IVXB (pure inulin), <i>Lachnospiraceae incertae sedi</i> (pure inulin and shortbread), <i>Collinsella</i> (pure inulin) and <i>Ruminococcus</i> (shortbread). Along with increases in <i>Prevotella</i> (milk chocolate) and <i>Roseburia</i> (shortbread) (Supplemental Data Table 4).
518	
519 520	¹ H-NMR spectroscopic profiles
521 522 523 524 525 526	Metabolic profiles of urine samples across the four intervention groups were analysed using unsupervised (PCA) methods (first two components), showing separation between the four interventions at completion ($R^2Cum = 0.18$, $Q^2Cum = 0.122$) (Figure 5). We did not observe any differences in 1H -NMR metabolic profiles between interventions as points did not show any clustering or patterns in relation to intervention. As a result, no subsequent downstream analysis was carried out.
527 528 529 530	Figure 5. Urinary ¹ H magnetic resonance (¹ H-NMR) profiles across the four intervention groups. Unsupervised principal components analysis (PCA) scores plot of endpoint urine samples. R ² Cum = 0.18, Q ² Cum = 0.122. Key: IN = Pure inulin; MC = Milk chocolate; RD = Rice Drink; ST = Shortbread
531	Dowel hobit and function
532 533	Bowel habit and function
534 535 536 537 538 539	Changes in gastrointestinal symptoms (flatulence, intestinal bloating, abdominal pressure, abdominal pain and feeling of fullness) were self-recorded daily throughout the 10-day intervention and are reported as averages of Days 0-5 and Days 6-10. Scores of 0, 1, 2, and 3 corresponded to none, mild, moderate, and severe. Changes in stool consistency were measured as per Bristol Stool Form Scale and stool frequency are reported in Figure 6. There were no differences in flatulence, intestinal bloating, abdominal pressure, abdominal pain or feeling of fullness detected between interventions at completion (D6-10) (Supplemental Data

541 542 543 544	Table 5), although there was a trend towards significant differences in feeling of fullness ($P = 0.058$). This reflected the level of significance documented between the rice drink and pure inulin interventions at completion ($P = 0.058$). Repeated measures analysis revealed a significant decrease in feeling of fullness in the pure inulin intervention only ($P = 0.002$).
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546 547 548 549 550 551 552	Stool consistency was significantly different between interventions ($P = 0.017$), with values documented in pure inulin being higher than in the rice milk intervention ($P = 0.010$). These results are in line with post hoc analysis revealing increases in stool consistency ratings were only detected in the pure inulin group ($P = 0.009$). Finally, there were no changes in stool frequency either within or between interventions although there was a trend towards increases in stool frequency identified in the pure inulin intervention ($P = 0.080$) (Figure 6 and Supplemental Data Table 5).
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554 555 556	Figure 6 . Stool consistency (Bristol Stool Form Scale, A) and stool frequency (B) at (Day 0-5) and again at Day 6-10 after intervention in 96 volunteers ($n = 24$ per group). Results that are statistically significant within and between subject (intervention) are displayed by specified P values.
557	
558 559 560 561 562 563 564 565 566 567 568	Discussion This is the first study to investigate whether the food matrix impacts on the prebiotic efficacy of ITF using a standardised protocol. In total 96 volunteers provided stool samples at baseline and end of the intervention. One of the main pre-requisites of a prebiotic is to stimulate beneficial changes in microbial composition in certain, but not limited number of bacteria (Gibson <i>et al.</i> , 2017). ITF prebiotics primarily target bifidobacteria as they possess the necessary glycosidases and transporters needed to degrade fructans and to assimilate low molecular weight carbohydrates (Falony <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Riviere <i>et al.</i> , 2018). In this study we used both targeted and untargeted analyses to determine the impact of the food matrix on the prebiotic efficacy of ITF.
570 571 572 573 574 575 576 577 578 579 580 581 582	In this study, we demonstrate, using both targeted and untargeted analysis, that, irrespective of the food matrix, the selectivity of ITF towards bifidobacteria appears to be unaffected. FISH-FLOW determined similar increases in Bif164 counts across all interventions averaging a 0.64 ± 0.10 Log ₁₀ Cells/g wet faeces at completion. These findings were further validated using untargeted analysis with an average $92\% \pm 5.43\%$ (SE) and $1.14 \times 10^9 \pm 1.52 \times 10^8$ (SE) <i>Bifidobacterium</i> increase in RMP and QMP abundance respectively. This further confirms the selectivity of ITF towards <i>Bifidobacterium</i> (Costabile <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Gibson and Roberfroid, 1995; Kruse <i>et al.</i> , 1999). No significant differences were detected between interventions (all $P \ge 0.05$). These results are in line with those documented by several previous food-based ITF supplementation studies (Gibson <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Healey <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Marteau <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Ramnani <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Reimer <i>et al.</i> , 2020; Tuohy <i>et al.</i> , 2001). This does not, however, match those recorded by (Slavin and Feirtag, 2011) who documented that upon consumption of $20g/day$ of ITF supplemented into ice cream, no significant differences

583 584 585	in <i>Bifidobacterium</i> counts were detected. These differences likely result from subjectivity in using plate counts, lack of a washout period and lack of collection of baseline stool samples (Slavin and Feirtag, 2011).
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587 588 589 590 591 592 593 594 595	Upon completion differences between the interventions in microbial load and composition among the differing food matrices were detected. Using targeted FISH-FLOW analysis there were significant increases in Bac303, Rrec584 and Fprau655 detected in the shortbread intervention. In the rice drink intervention significant increases were seen in numbers of FPrau655. The microbial loads (QMP) documented in both <i>Roseburia</i> and <i>Faecalibacterium prausnitizii</i> were similar to those recorded by FLOW-FISH. The levels of <i>Roseburia</i> and <i>Faecalibacterium prausnitizii</i> at completion of the shortbread intervention using FISH-FLOW were significantly different from milk chocolate at Day 10 (both $P \le 0.05$), but not from pure inulin or rice milk (both $P \ge 0.05$).
597 598 599 600 601 602 603 604 605 606	These results are of interest because several previous food-based supplementation studies by (Gibson <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Kleessen <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Tuohy <i>et al.</i> , 2001) either noted reductions or no changes in numbers of <i>Bacteroides</i> upon consumption of ITF-fortified cereal bars and biscuits. In contrast (Brighenti <i>et al.</i> , 1999) and (Rao, 2001) recorded 0.49 and 0.69 log ₁₀ CFU/g faeces dry weight increases in <i>Bacteroides</i> upon consumption of ITF containing extruded ready-to-eat cereal and when pure ITF was supplemented into drinks. These discrepancies probably occur due to the higher levels of <i>Bacteroides</i> present in the study conducted by (Kleessen <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Tuohy <i>et al.</i> , 2001). It should be noted that different analytical techniques were used (FISH-FLOW vs selective media) which directly impedes the comparison and evaluation of results across such studies (Jackson <i>et al.</i> , 2022b).
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608 609 610 611 612 613 614	Additionally, it is difficult to compare results of Rrec584 and FPrau655 to previous food-based ITF supplementation studies due to most studies using targeted analysis not reporting changes in both targeted groups. One food-based supplementation study that counted Fprau655 using FISH-FLOW recorded no change in numbers upon consumption of fruit juice drinks containing Jerusalem artichoke inulin (Ramnani <i>et al.</i> , 2010). A trend towards an increase in relative abundances of <i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i> was detected upon consumption of pure ITF (Healey <i>et al.</i> , 2018).
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616 617 618 619 620 621 622 623 624	Bacteroides possess a large number of loci responsible for the assimilation of complex carbohydrates including arabinoxylans (Pereira et al., 2021) as well as complex starches (Dobranowski and Stintzi, 2021). Arabinoxylans are components of the wheat flour used in production of the shortbread biscuits in this study. From this, one could speculate that the significantly larger increases seen in Roseburia and Faecalibacterium prausnitzii in the shortbread intervention resulted from the utilisation of resulting motifs from the breakdown of arabinoxylans by Bacteroides. For example, it was previously demonstrated by (Walton et al., 2012) that, consumption of in situ produced arabinoxylan-oligosaccharides in bread, resulted in significant increases in Bacteroides. Roseburia and Faecalibacterium prausnitzii

(all $P \le 0.05$). However, it has also been demonstrated that upon consumption of 2 x 44 g 625 626 bowls of wheat bran arabinoxylan-rich ready-to-eat cereal no changes in *Bacteroides*, Roseburia and Faecalibacterium prausnitzii could be detected (Maki et al., 2012). Taking 627 628 this into consideration, increases in both Roseburia and Faecalibacterium prausnitzii often coincide with increases in Bifidobacterium in in vitro studies likely as a result of cross-629 feeding on acetate and lactate (Kim et al., 2020; Riviere et al., 2016). From this, it could be 630 631 hypothesised that increases in both Roseburia and Faecalibacterium prausnitzii in the shortbread intervention may have also occurred from both the utilisation of resulting 632 breakdown arabinoxylan motifs by Bacteroides along with cross-feeding on acetate and 633 lactate produced by Bifidobacterium. 634 635 636 It can be implied that complementary effects may exist from the presence of other bioactive compounds present within the matrices. For example it was demonstrated by (Ramnani et al., 637 638 2010) that upon consumption of high polyphenol-containing fruit shots containing Jerusalem artichoke ITF, in addition to an increase of bifidobacteria, significant increases in 639 640 Lactobacillus/Enterococcus group were detected (P = 0.042). Finding means to increase numbers of Bacteroides, Roseburia and Faecalibacterium prausnitzii alongside 641 Bifidobacterium may be of clinical importance via the potential to increase butyrate 642 production, given that butyrate plays a vital role as an energy source for colonocytes, in the 643 regulation of tight cell junction integrity, and in the repair of the intestinal mucosa (Canani et 644 al., 2011). Faecalibacterium prausnitzii is considered to be a keystone species and has been 645 associated with lowered risks of IBD and ulcerative colitis (Leylabadlo et al., 2020). Overall, 646 from the findings of this study we can conclude that the selectivity of ITF towards 647 bifidobacteria is independent of the food matrix. Yet, the compositional makeup of the matrix 648 649 may likely have important implications towards stimulating changes in the wider microbiota. 650 During the trial volunteers did not alter their diet or lifestyle, with exception of consumption 651 of study product and adjustment of portion sizes to compensate for additional calories 652 consumed. On average, fibre intakes were estimated at 27.5 g/day which is slightly below the 653 current UK recommendations of 30 g/day as laid down by SACN (Scientific Advisory 654 Committee on Nutrition, 2015). They do, however, far exceed those of the average population 655 at just 14.9-18 g/day (Gressier and Frost, 2022; Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition, 656 2015). 657 658 Significant increases in dietary fibre intakes were detected across all four interventions (Table 659 4). Between baseline and completion there was an average increase of 10.2g fibre with an 660 average 37.71 g/day of fibre being consumed by completion suggesting that the addition of 661 10 g/day of inulin into food products could help people reach or even exceed the daily 662 minimum recommendation. Increasing fibre intake is the 1st line of treatment to improve 663 bowel function. In order to assess changes in stool consistency the validated Bristol Stool 664 Form Scale was used. However, despite an additional consumption of 10 g/day ITF 665 significant changes in stool consistency were only detected in the pure inulin intervention at 666 Day 10 (P = 0.023). 667

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669 670 671 672 673 674 675	In our cohort no differences in stool frequency were detected and scores were stable throughout the intervention. Given that, in this study, volunteers started with higher daily stool frequency at baseline and that increases in stool frequency are often seen in subjects with low fibre intakes, the higher baseline fibre intakes seen in this study likely contributed towards a lack of change in stool frequency (Buddington <i>et al.</i> , 2017; François <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Grider and Piland, 2007; Isakov <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Micka <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Ramnani <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Slavin and Feirtag, 2011).
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677 678 679 680 681 682 683 684 685 686	Gastrointestinal sensations including flatulence, intestinal bloating, abdominal pressure and abdominal pain were rated as none to mild and remained unchanged throughout the course of the intervention. No discomfort was reported and no discontinuation of the study by any volunteers was recorded. The only significant difference was a decrease in feeling of fullness in the pure inulin intervention ($P = 0.002$). This indicates that chicory inulin in both pure form and supplemented into differing matrices is well tolerated, but the food matrix may have implications regarding satiety. It has been documented that matrices higher in lipids and other non-digestible carbohydrates content such as the interventions used in this study can induce/sustain satiety by regulating smooth muscle stretch receptors and delaying gastric emptying (Aguilera, 2019).
687	
688 689	Conclusion
690 691 692 693 694 695 696	In conclusion, we can confirm that irrespective of the food application and matrix, prebiotic ITF are selectively utilized and lead to specific changes in the gut microbiota. <i>Bifidobacterium</i> was the only genus consistently impacted by inulin-type fructans, yet the compositional make-up of food matrix may have implications regarding changes in the wider microbiota. For example, differences in several bacterial groups including <i>Roseburia</i> and <i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i> were documented at the completion between the shortbread and milk chocolate interventions.
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707	Supplementary material
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709 710	Supplemental Data Table 1. Targeted microbial analysis vis fluorescence <i>in situ</i> hybridisation at Day 0 and Day 10 of intervention.
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712 713	Supplemental Data Table 2. 16S rRNA relative microbial profiling data at Day 0 and Day 10 of intervention
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715 716	Supplemental Data Table 3. Alpha diversity measures of 16S rRNA sequencing at Day 0 and Day 10 of intervention.
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718 719	Supplemental Data Table 4. 16S rRNA quantitative microbiome profiling data at Day 0 and Day 10 of intervention.
720	
721 722	Supplemental Data Table 5 . Gastrointestinal sensation and bowel habit diary data displayed by day and intervention.
723	
724	Acknowledgements
725	
726 727	We would like to acknowledge Carlos Poveda for his initial help and expertise in preparation and analysis of faecal samples.
728	
729	Conflict of Interest
730 731 732	We acknowledge that this work was financed by BENEO. ST and JVH are employees of BENEO.
733	
734	Data Sharing
735 736	The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.
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