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Protective Effect of an Avocado Peel Polyphenolic Extract Rich in ² Proanthocyanidins on the Alterations of Colonic Homeostasis Induced by a High-Protein Diet

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16 Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Avocado peel, a byproduct from the avocado pulp industry, is a promising source of polyphenolic compounds. 17

We evaluated the effect of a proanthocyanidin-rich avocado peel polyphenol extract (AvPPE) on the composition and metabolic 18

activity of human fecal microbiota cultured for 24 h in a bioreactor in the presence of high protein (HP) levels and the effect of 19

the resulting culture supernatants (CSs) on HT-29Glc^{-/+} and Caco-2 cells. AvPPE decreased the HP-induced production of 20

ammonia, H₂S, propionate, and isovalerate and increased that of indole and butyrate. Microbiota composition was marginally 21

affected by HP, while AvPPE increased Actinobacteria, Coriobacteriaceae, Ruminococcaceae, and *Faecalibacterium*. AvPPE failed to prevent the HP-induced decrease of HT-29Glc^{-/+} cell viability and energy efficiency but prevented the HP-induced 22

23 alterations of barrier function in Caco-2 cells. Additionally, the genotoxic effect of the CSs upon HT-29Glc^{-/+} was attenuated by 24

AvPPE. Therefore, AvPPE may be considered as a promising product for improving colonic homeostasis. 25

KEYWORDS: proanthocyanidins, high protein, protein metabolites, bioreactor, intestinal microbiota 26

INTRODUCTION 27

28 Avocado (Persea americana Mill.) is a fruit of high nutritional 29 quality, which contains high levels of unsaturated fatty acids, 30 vitamins, minerals, proteins, and fibers.¹ About five million 31 tons of avocados are produced yearly in the world, with peel 32 and seeds generated in large amounts by the avocado pulp 33 industry.² These agrofood byproducts are currently considered 34 as promising sources of polyphenolic compounds including 35 phenolic acids and flavonoids.^{3,4} Dietary polyphenols are 36 nonessential nutrients that exert a wide range of biological 37 activities and health-promoting effects in humans.⁵ The regular 38 intake of polyphenol-containing foodstuffs is associated with a 39 lower risk and severity of noncommunicable chronic diseases.⁵ 40 Flavan-3-ols (or flavanols) are the most complex subclass of 41 flavonoids that includes from simple monomers to high-42 molecular-weight polymeric proanthocyanidins (PACs).⁶ 43 Typically, PACs could be catechin and epicatechin con-44 densation products with a degree of polymerization ranging 45 from 3 to 30 units in oligomeric fractions or >30 in polymeric 46 fractions. PACs are present in many foodstuffs and beverages 47 like seeds, fruits, red wine, cider, tea, cocoa, and beer.^{6,7} Only

PACs with a degree of polymerization ≤ 3 are absorbed in the 48 small intestine. The oligomeric and polymeric forms, however, 49 accumulate in the lumen and reach the colon where they are 50 metabolized by the intestinal microbiota (IM), releasing 51 numerous metabolites that may be absorbed by the colonic 52 epithelium and pass to the bloodstream.⁶ In the colon, PACs 53 can also modulate decomposition of the IM exerting prebiotic 54 activities, stimulating the growth of Lactobacillus spp. and 55 Bifidobacterium spp. as well as some butyrate-producing 56 bacteria.⁶ Thus, the gastrointestinal tract constitutes a key 57 organ for the health-promoting effects of dietary PACs and it is 58 probable that part of their beneficial impact at the 59 extraintestinal level can be attributed to their circulating, 60 low-molecular-weight, microbiota-derived metabolites.⁶ We ₆₁ recently reported that PAC-rich polyphenol extracts from 62 grapes, cranberry, apple, and avocado, as well as PAC-derived 63

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64 bacterial metabolites (3-phenylpropionic acid, 3,4-dihydrox-65 yphenyl propionic acid, and 4-hydroxyphenyl acetic acid) 66 prevented the deleterious effects of the microbiota-derived 67 protein metabolites, *p*-cresol and H₂S, on HT-29Glc^{-/+} and 68 Caco-2 cells, suggesting that dietary PACs might protect 69 against the negative impact of high-protein diets (HPDs) on 70 colonic epithelial cells.^{8,9}

High-protein diets (HPDs) bring 25-35% of their energy as 71 72 proteins, compared with normo-protein diets that only 73 contribute with 12-18% of the energy intake.¹⁰ They are 74 widely used by athletes for increasing their muscle mass and by 75 overweight and obese subjects for losing weight, through their 76 ability to stimulate satiety and increase thermogenesis.^{10,11} 77 About 90% of the dietary proteins are digested and absorbed in 78 the small intestine, and the remaining 10% reach the colon 79 undigested or partially digested. Accordingly, a higher intake of 80 dietary proteins generally means a higher flux of undigested 81 proteins reaching the colon. 12 In the colon, undigested 82 proteins are hydrolyzed by proteases from the IM. The 83 released amino acids are used for bacterial protein synthesis 84 and growth or are fermented, generating an array of bacterial 85 metabolites that accumulate in the colonic lumen.^{13,14} While 86 short-chain fatty acids (SCFA) are considered as beneficial 87 metabolites, 14,15 other byproducts including ammonia (NH₃), 88 hydrogen sulfide (H₂S), phenol, p-cresol, and polyamines at 89 excessive concentrations are potentially deleterious for the 90 colonic epithelium and at the systemic level. $^{12-14}$ In the colon, 91 proteins can also modulate the composition of the intestinal 92 microbiota, favoring the development of pathogenic and pro-93 inflammatory populations like Clostridium perfringens, Enter-94 ococcus, Shigella, and Escherichia coli spp. and diminishing those 95 beneficial like *Bifidobacterium* spp.¹³ The colonic fermentation 96 of proteins by the IM is, therefore, considered as a potentially 97 harmful process for host health, which could enhance the risk 98 of diseases such as colorectal cancer and ulcerative colitis.^{12–14} Accordingly, the aim of this study was to evaluate the 99 100 preventive effect of an avocado peel polyphenolic extract rich 101 in proanthocyanidins on the changes in human fecal 102 microbiota cultured in the presence of high protein amounts 103 and on the decrease in the production of protein-derived 104 bacterial metabolites and their detrimental effect on colonic 105 epithelial cells.

106 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Avocado Peel Polyphenol Extract (AvPPE). Avocado peels 107 108 were obtained from fresh avocado fruits (P. americana Mill. Var. Hass) purchased from local market, and AvPPE was prepared by the 109 110 Laboratory of Pharmacognosy at the University of Concepción 111 (Concepción, Biobio, Chile) and subsequently freeze-dried and stored 112 at -70 °C until use. The elaboration of the extract and the 113 characterization of its polyphenol composition have been previously 114 described.⁸ Thirty seven grams of fresh avocado peel was necessary to 115 obtain 1 g of AvPPE.¹⁶ Briefly, frozen samples of avocado peels (500 116 g) were mixed with hot water (90 °C, 5 min) and then filtered 117 (sintered glass funnel, 70–100 μ m). Marcs were homogenized and 118 extracted again with hot water (65 °C). After maceration (60 min), 119 sugars and water-soluble compounds were removed with distilled 120 water by the use of a glass column packed with Sepabeads SP-850 121 (Supelco, Bellefonte). Polyphenol extract was obtained by the same 122 procedure but eluted with absolute ethanol and then was evaporated 123 under vacuum, freeze-dried, and stored at -70 °C until use.⁸ The 124 identification and characterization of polyphenolic extract was carried 125 out by RP-HPLC in a Waters Alliance 2695 system equipped with a 126 C18 column and C18 pre-column. Quantification was carried out 127 using a UV-vis chromatogram. Standards were used to perform

calibration curves.⁸ AvPPE contained 14% of flavan-3-ol monomers, 128 29.1% of proanthocyanidins (PACs, type A and B, including only 129 epicatechin monomers, with a mean degree of polymerization of 6.1), 130 15.1% of other flavonoids, 3% of anthocyanins, and 38.8% of phenolic 131 acids, as shown in Table S1.

Donor Recruitment. This study was conducted in accordance 133 with the Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the Ethics 134 Committee for Research in Humans, Faculty of Medicine, University 135 of Chile (No. 118-2014). Healthy subjects recruited in the study must 136 provide a written informed consent. Smokers and subjects with intake 137 of antibiotics or probiotics in the last 2 months before stool collection 138 were excluded from the study. Subjects were selected according to the 139 presence of sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) in their microbiota, due 140 to the fact that these microorganisms produce H₂S by coupling 141 oxidative phosphorylation with sulfate reduction¹⁷ and that H₂S was 142 one of the protein bacterial metabolites determined in our study. 143 Subjects were considered as SRB-positive based on the polymerase 144 chain reaction (PCR) amplification of the aprA gene that encodes the 145 α -subunit of the adenosine-5'-phosphosulfate reductase present in all 146 known SRB.¹⁸ Fecal bacterial DNA coming from a single stool sample 147 was extracted by the QIAamp Fast DNA Stool Mini Kit (QIAGEN, 148 Hilden, Germany) using the recommendations of the manufacturer, 149 with an additional step of mechanic lysis with a bead beater. PCR was 150 carried out using the aprA gene primers Fwd.: 5'-TGGCAGAT- 151 MATGATYMACGG-3' and Rev.: 5'-GGGCCGTAACCGTCCTT- 152 GAA-3'.¹⁸ DNA samples from Desulfovibrio piger and Desulfovibrio 153 piezophilus (DSMZ, Braunschweig, Germany) and from C. perfringens 154 and E. coli were used as positive and negative controls, respectively. 155 Quantification of SRB in PCR-positive subjects was performed by 156 qPCR using a LightCycler 2.0 (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) and the 157 LightCycler FastStart DNA Master SYBR Green I kit (Roche, Basel, 158 Switzerland); standard curves were carried out with Dromaeolus piger 159 DNA. 160

Fecal Sampling. Five days before and during fecal sampling, the 161 recruited subjects were counseled by a registered dietitian to consume 162 a standardized diet (1800 and 2000 kcal/day for women and men, 163 respectively; 15% proteins, 58% carbohydrates, and 27% fat), with the 164 aim of decreasing the inter- and intraindividual variability in their 165 microbiota composition. Stools were collected in sterile plastic 166 recipients, maintained in anaerobic conditions (GasPak, Becton- 167 Dickinson, New Jersey), and refrigerated (4 $^{\circ}$ C) until processing, 168 within the 3 h following their emission. Every 2 days, each recruited 169 subject provided one fresh stool sample, until four samples were 170 provided. Each sample was used for one independent assay.

In Vitro Fermentation of Human Fecal Microbiota. Fecal 172 inocula and bioreactor cultures were performed in a pre-reduced 173 culture medium containing peptone (2 g/L), yeast extract (2 g/L), 174 NaCl (100 mg/L), K₂HPO₄ (40 mg/L), KH₂PO₄ (40 mg/L), 175 NaHCO₃ (2 g/L), MgSO₄·7H₂O (10 mg/L), CaCl₂·2H₂O (10 mg/ 176 L), tween 80 (2 mL/L), hemin (50 mg/L), vitamin K1 (10 μ L/L), 177 bile salts (500 mg/L), resazurin (1 mg/L), and glucose (10 g/L) in 178 distilled and sterile water as previously described,¹⁹ with minor 179 modifications. The sterile culture medium was gassed for 1.5 h with 180 N2 before inoculation. For the inoculum preparation, fresh stools were 181 diluted in culture medium at a concentration of 100 g/L and then 182 were mixed in a stomacher for 30 s. After that, the mix was 183 centrifuged at 450g for 2 min. The supernatant of this centrifugation 184 was inoculated directly in the culture medium of the bioreactor at a 185 final concentration of 1% of stools. Depending on the treatment, the 186 culture medium was used alone (control (C)) or supplemented with 187 1.2 g/L AvPPE (AvPPE), 2 g/L proteins (hyperproteic (HP)), or 2 188 g/L proteins and 1.2 g/L AvPPE (HP/AvPPE). The protein was a 189 mix of casein (80%) (Sigma, Missouri) and whey protein (20%) 190 (Hilmar, California). Culture was conducted for 24 h at 37 °C in 191 anaerobic conditions under N2 flow and constant agitation, using a 192 Micro DCU-200 bioreactor system (B. Braun Biotech International, 193 Berlin, Germany). pH was automatically maintained at 6.8 by 194 injecting HCl (0.5 M) or NaOH (1 M). Samples of culture 195 supernatants (CSs) were collected at 1 h (T1) and 24 h (T2) after 196 197 inoculation and immediately aliquoted and frozen at -80 $^\circ\mathrm{C}$ until 198 analysis.

Determination of Protein Metabolites. Ammonia (NH_3). 200 Thawed CSs were centrifuged two times successively (15 min, 201 3405*g*, 4 °C), and the supernatants were filtered (0.22 μ m) and 202 deproteinized (10 kDa Microcon centrifugal filter devices) (Merck, 203 Santiago, Chile). The determination of NH₃ was carried out in 96-204 well plates using a commercial assay kit (K-AMIAR, Megazyme, 205 Illinois) based on the reaction of ammonia (as ammonium ions; 206 NH₄⁺) with 2-oxoglutarate to form L-glutamic acid and NADP⁺ in the 207 presence of glutamate dehydrogenase and nicotinamide adenine 208 dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH). The decrease in absorbance at 209 340 nm, due to NADPH oxidation, was registered as a reflection of 210 the ammonia concentration in the sample.

Hydrogen Sulfide (H_2S). H_2S determination was carried out by gas 211 212 chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) after sulfide alkyla-213 tion, as previously described.^{20,21} Thawed CSs were vortexed and 214 centrifuged (14 000g, 5 min, 4 °C); 100 μ L of supernatant was placed 215 in a vial with 100 μ L of 5 mM benzalkonium chloride (prepared in 216 deoxygenated MiliQ water saturated with sodium tetraborate), 100 217 μ L of 20 mM pentafluorobenzylbromide (in toluene), and 100 μ L of 218 ethyl acetate (containing 100 μ M naphthalene as internal standard); 219 and shacked at 55 °C for 4 h in a rotating shaker. Thereafter, 150 μ L 220 of KH₂PO₄ (saturated in MiliQ water) was added, the mixture was 221 centrifuged (10 000g, 10 min, 4 °C), and the organic phase was 222 removed. One microliter was injected in an Agilent 6890N gas 223 chromatograph equipped with an HP-5HS capillary column (using 224 helium as gas carrier) and a 5973N MS detector (Agilent 225 Technologies, California). Calibration curves were made with 226 standard Na₂S solutions (as donor of H₂S) between 12.5 and 500 227 μ M. The temperature of the injector and the transfer line was 228 maintained at 250 °C and those of the ion source and the quadrupole 229 detector were 230 and 150 °C, respectively. The GC program was as 230 follows: 70 °C for 1 min, 100-180 °C, ramp 8 °C/min, 180-300 °C, 231 ramp 50 °C/min, maintained for 2 min. The areas under the curves of 232 the samples and standard solutions ((bis-(pentafluorobenzyl) sulfide (a derivate of sulfide)) were corrected by the area under the curve of 233 the internal standard, and the results were expressed as μ M. 234

235 *Indole.* Thawed CSs were vortexed and centrifuged (10 min, 236 15 805*g*, room temperature). The supernatant was diluted four times 237 with 70% ethanol, and 100 μ L was used for indole determination as 238 previously described.²² A calibration curve was made with indole 239 standards prepared in 70% ethanol, in a range of concentration 240 between 0 and 300 μ M. For spectrophotometric determination, 100 241 μ L of sample or standards were mixed in a 96-well plate with 25 μ L of 242 5.3 M NaOH and 50 μ L of 0.3 M hydroxylamine hydrochloride 243 (NH₂OH-HCl). After 15 min of incubation, 125 μ L of 2.7 M H₂SO₄ 244 was added and the mixture was vortexed and incubated for 30 min at 245 room temperature. Absorbance was measured at 530 nm in an Infinite 246 200 PRO plate reader (TECAN, Männedorf, Switzerland).

Short-Chain Fatty Acids (SCFAs). SCFA determination was carried 247 248 out as previously described²³ with some modifications. The pH of the 249 thawed CSs was adjusted to 2-3 with 0.68 M HCl. After incubation 250 for 10 min at room temperature with occasional agitation, the samples were centrifuged (10 min, 15 805g) and 2-ethyl butyric acid, as 251 252 internal standard, was added at a final concentration of 1 mM. The 253 detection and quantification of SCFAs were performed in an Agilent 7890A gas chromatograph (Agilent Technologies, California) 254 255 equipped with an FID detector and a Restek Stabilwax-Da (fused 256 silica) capillary column (Restek, Pensilvania) (30 m length, 0.32 mm 257 i.d.). The separation of the SCFAs was carried out between 120 and 258 240 °C, with an initial heating of 120 °C for 1 min, followed by an 259 increase to 240 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min, and then held for 3 min at 260 240 °C. Hydrogen was used as a carrier gas, and the temperature of 261 the injector and detector was 240 and 265 °C, respectively. A mix of 262 acetic acid, propionic acid, butyric acid, valeric acid, isobutyric acid, 263 and isovaleric acid (1 mg/mL) (Restek, Pensilvania) was used for 264 calibration. The area under the curve of the samples and standard 265 solutions was corrected by that of the internal standard.

Determination of the Composition of Microbiota by MiSeg 266 Sequencing. Bacterial genomic DNA was purified from the CSs 267 using the QIAamp Fast DNA Stool Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, 268 Germany) with a supplementary step of mechanic lysis with a bead 269 beater. The composition of microbiota was analyzed by MiSeq 270 sequencing in the Roy J. Carver Biotechnology Center (University of 271 Illinois, Illinois) following a methodology previously described.²⁴ 272 Briefly, the region V3 and V4 of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified by 273 PCR and subsequently the amplicons generated were sequenced using 274 the Illumina MiSeq platform. The sequencing service of the W.M. 275 Keck Center for Comparative and Functional Genomics (University 276 of Illinois, Illinois) delivered demultiplexes and barcode depleted 277 sequences. Paired-end sequences were joined using PEAR, and primer 278 sequences were depleted by fastx-trimmer from FASTX-Toolkit. 279 QIIME software (V1.9.1) was used to analyze the 16S rRNA gene 280 sequences.²⁵ Using open-reference command, operational taxonomic 281 units (OTUs) were selected and defined by clustering at 3% 282 divergence (97% similarity) using the GreenGenes database as 283 reference.²⁶ Results were expressed as relative abundance. 284

The raw data paired-end reads obtained from the MiSeq platform 285 were stored in the ENA online public database under accession 286 number PRJEB30984 (http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/data/view/ 287 PRJEB30984). 288

Effect of CSs on Cell Viability, Mitochondrial Function, 289 Barrier Function, and Genotoxic Damage in Intestinal Cell 290 Lines. Cell Viability. Thawed CSs (T2, 24 h) were centrifuged (15 291 min, 3405g, 4 °C), and the supernatants of this centrifugation were 292 centrifuged again (15 min, 3405g, 4 °C) and then subsequently 293 filtered (0.22 μ m). The effect of CS incubation on cell viability was 294 assayed in HT-29Glc^{-/+} cells, as previously described.⁸ Cells were 295 cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) 296 supplemented with 4.5 g/L glucose, L-glutamine, and sodium pyruvate 297 (Corning, New York), 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum (Gibco, 298 ThermoFisher Scientific, Massachusetts), and 1% penicillin/strepto- 299 mycin (Hyclone, ThermoFisher Scientific, Massachusetts). At day 0, 300 cells were seeded in 96-well plates at a density of 2×10^4 cells/cm². At 301 day 3, the medium was changed, and from day 4 to 6, cells were 302 treated with the CSs at a final concentration of 10%, with daily change 303 of the culture medium. At day 7, cell viability was measured through 304 the quantification of the lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) (CytoTox 305 One Kit, Promega, Wisconsin) released in the culture medium. LDH 306 is a cytosolic enzyme that can be released to the culture medium when 307 there is a loss in the cellular membrane integrity, as reflex of loss in 308 cell viability. Thus, LDH quantification in the culture medium is an 309 indirect way to measure cell viability.²⁷ The results were normalized 310 expressing the value of LDH released in the culture medium as a 311 function of total LDH of the cells. To that, cells that remained in the 312 plate after the quantification of LDH release were lysed with Triton 313 0.02% to quantify the total LDH present in cells.

Mitochondrial Function. The effect of CSs on HT-29Glc^{-/+} 315 energy metabolism was evaluated by measuring the mitochondrial 316 function by polarography using an Oxygraph Strathkelvin 782 2- 317 channel oxygen system (Strathkelvin Instruments, North Lanarkshire, 318 Scotland) equipped with a 1302-type Clark electrode (Strathkelvin 319 Instruments, North Lanarkshire, Scotland) with a polypropylene 320 membrane, as previously described^{28,29} with some modifications. HT- 321 29Glc^{-/+} cells were cultured as previously described (Cell Viability 322 section). At day 0, cells were seeded in 24-well plates at a density of 2 323 \times 10⁴ cells/cm². At day 3, the medium was changed, and from day 4 324 to 6, cells were treated with the CSs at a final concentration of 10%, 325 with daily change of the culture medium. At day 7, cells were 326 trypsinized and put into the oxygraph chamber at a density of 750 000 327 cells/mL in respiration medium (20 mM HEPES, 200 mM mannitol, 328 5 mM KH₂PO₄, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 mM EGTA, 25 mM glucose, 2 329 mM L-glutamine, pH 7.4, enriched with bovine serum albumin 0.1%), 330 without cell culture medium and treatments. The oxygen 331 consumption rate (OCR, nmol O₂/min/10⁶ cells) was evaluated at 332 baseline, after the addition of 2 μ M oligomycin (an inhibitor of 333 adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP) synthase) to quantify the oxygen 334 consumption due to the proton leak (i.e., not coupled to ATP 335



Figure 1. Concentrations of NH₃ (A), H₂S (B), indole (C), and total SCFAs (D) in the CSs after 1 (T1) and 24 h (T2) of fermentation. Each bar represents the average of five subjects (with SEM). Data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures (time effect: p = 0.0002 (A), p = 0.21 (B), p = 0.0019 (C), and p = 0.0004 (D); treatment effect: p < 0.0001 (A), p < 0.0001 (B), p = 0.10 (C), and p = 0.0079 (D); interaction time × treatment: p < 0.0001 (A), p = 0.0105 (B), p = 0.0580 (C), and p = 0.0022 (D)). Bars with different letters are significantly different (p < 0.05).

336 synthesis), and after the addition of 3 μ M FCCP (a mitochondrial 337 inner membrane uncoupler that dissipates the mitochondrial 338 membrane potential and, in consequence, accelerates electron flux 339 through the electron transport chain) to quantify maximal OCR. The 340 ATP production linked to OCR (as the difference between basal 341 OCR and proton leak) and the reserve capacity (as the difference 342 between the maximal and basal OCRs) were calculated.^{28,29} All of 343 these parameters were expressed as % of basal OCR.

Intestinal Barrier Function. The effect of CSs on the intestinal 344 345 barrier function was determined in Caco-2 cells (ATCC, Virginia) by 346 measuring changes in transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER). 347 Cells (passages 10-21) were cultured in DMEM/Ham's F12 medium 348 supplemented with L-glutamine (Corning, New York), 10% heat-349 inactivated fetal calf serum (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific, 350 Massachusetts), 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Hyclone, ThermoFisher 351 Scientific, Massachusetts), and 1% nonessential amino acid solution 352 (Corning, New York), as previously described.⁸ At day 0, cells were seeded at a density of 10⁵ cells/cm² in Transwell polycarbonate filters 353 354 (12 mm diameter, 0.4 µm pore size) (Corning-Costar, New York) 355 previously treated with 0.044 $\mu g/\mu L$ collagen in 0.01 M HCl. The 356 apical and basolateral compartments of the filters were filled with 500 357 and 1000 μ L of culture medium, respectively, and the culture medium 358 was changed three times per week. Once the TEER reached 1000 Ω cm^2 (approximately 6–7 days after seeding), 30% of the apical culture 359 360 medium was replaced with the CSs. TEER was measured with a 361 milliohm meter (EVOM, World Precision Instruments, Florida) at 362 baseline and 24 h after medium replacement.

Genotoxic Damage. The genotoxic damage induced by the CSs in 364 HT-29Glc^{-/+} cells was assessed through the quantification of 565 phosphorylated histones using the H2A.X phosphorylation assay kit 366 (Merck, Santiago, Chile). H2A.X histones phosphorylate in response 367 to the breakdown of the double strand of DNA. HT-29Glc^{-/+} cells 368 were cultured as mentioned above (Cell Viability section) at a density 369 of 36×10^3 cells/well in 96-well plates as previously described.²⁹ After 370 16 h, complete culture medium was replaced with culture medium without fetal calf serum and with 15% CS, and after 24 h, the levels of 371 genotoxic damage were evaluated by quantifying phosphorylated 372 H2A.X histones by luminescence. Results were expressed as the % of 373 the positive control (etoposide 10 μ M). 374

Statistical Analysis. Statistical analysis was carried out with 375 GraphPad Prism, version 6.0. Variables were expressed as mean and 376 standard error of the mean (SEM). The comparisons between the 377 means in each assay were performed by two-way analysis of variance 378 (ANOVA) with repeated measures. For variables measured only at 24 379 h of fermentation, the analyses were performed by one-way ANOVA 380 with repeated measures and Tukey's post-hoc test (if the distribution 381 of variables was normal, assessed by the Shapiro–Wilk test) or by 382 Friedman's test and Dunn's post-hoc test (if the distribution of 383 variables was not normal). Correlations between the different 384 parameters (metabolites and bacterial taxa) were carried out using 385 Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The statistical significance 386 was considered with p < 0.05.

RESULTS

Donor Recruitment. Eight out of twelve subjects 389 evaluated (66.7%) were positive for the presence of SRB in 390 their stools, assessed by PCR. After a qPCR quantification of 391 SRB, we selected the subject participants based on their 392 similitude in their counts, which ranged between 1.05×10^6 393 and 5.82×10^8 copies of *aprA* gene/g stool. We selected five 394 subjects who had an average of 7.02×10^7 copies of *aprA* 395 gene/g stool. They were aged 26-37 years (mean \pm standard 396 deviation: 31.6 ± 4.5 years), had a normal weight (body mass 397 index: 23.3 ± 2 kg/m²), and were healthy and omnivores. 398

Determination of Protein Metabolites in Culture $_{399}$ Supernatants (CSs). No differences in NH₃ concentration $_{400}$ between treatments were observed at 1 h of fermentation (T1) $_{401}$ (Figure 1A). At 24 h (T2), NH₃ concentration significantly $_{402}$ fi

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Figure 2. Concentration of uSCFAs (acetate (A), propionate (B), butyrate (C), and valerate (D)) and bSCFAs (isobutyrate (E) and isovalerate (F)) in the CSs at 1 (T1) and 24 h (T2) of fermentation. Each bar represents the average of five subjects (with SEM). Data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA with repeated measures (time: p = 0.0054 (A), p < 0.0001 (B), p = 0.0002 (C), p = 0.0112 (D), p < 0.0001 (E), p = 0.0001 (F); treatment: p = 0.0044 (B), p = 0.037 (C), p = 0.0068 (D), p = 0.0337 (E), p < 0.0001 (F); interaction time × treatment: p = 0.012 (A), p = 0.0023 (B), p = 0.039 (C), p = 0.0060 (D), p = 0.0275 (E), p < 0.0001 (F)). Bars with different letters are significantly different (p < 0.05).

403 increased in all of the treatments, compared with T1. 404 Additionally, the concentration of NH_3 significantly increased 405 with HP compared with C, and this increase was partially 406 prevented in HP/AvPPE.

 H_2S concentration at T1 was higher with HP than with C 408 and C/AvPPE, and this increase was prevented with the HP/ 409 AvPPE treatment (Figure 1B). Only HP treatment showed 410 variations in H_2S concentration between T1 and T2, in which a 411 significant decrease was observed. The concentration of H_2S at 412 T2 was significantly lower with HP/AvPPE than with C.

Indole concentration at T1 (Figure 1C) significantly 413 414 increased with HP/AvPPE compared with C. At T2, indole 415 concentration decreased significantly except with HP; no 416 differences between the four treatments were detected at T2. SCFA concentrations were low at T1, without differences 417 418 between treatments, and significantly increased at T2 for all 419 conditions (Figure 1D). This increment was due to a 420 significant increase in both unbranched (uSCFAs) and 421 branched short-chain fatty acids (bSCFAs) (Figure S1). It is 422 noteworthy that the concentrations of total SCFAs significantly 423 increased with HP compared with C and C/AvPPE, and this 424 increase was partially prevented with HP/AvPPE; moreover, 425 the concentration of bSCFA strongly increased with HP and HP/AvPPE, compared with C and AvPPE. 426

427 When evaluating each SCFA individually (Figure 2), acetate, 428 propionate, and butyrate were the most abundant. All SCFAs 429 increased significantly at T2 compared with T1 and with all of 430 the treatments. At T2, acetate significantly decreased and 431 butyrate increased in C/AvPPE compared with C (Figure 432 2A,C). HP induced a significant increase in the production of 433 propionate, valerate, and the bSCFAs isobutyrate and 434 isovalerate (Figure 2B,D–F). The increase of propionate and

f2

435 isovalerate was prevented with HP/AvPPE (Figure 2B,F).
436 Effect of the Treatments on the Microbiota Compo437 sition. A total of 1 874 289 sequences were obtained after

trimming, assembly, quality filtering, and chimera checking, 438 which exhibited an average of 455 ± 9.8 bp sequence length. 439 After OTU assignment, a total of 1 504 917 counts were 440 obtained in BIOM table, ranging from 18 853 to 94 706 counts 441 per sample. The rarefaction curves reached an asymptote 442 (Figure S2A), indicating that the number of sequences 443 obtained per sample was sufficient to describe the diversity 444 of the bacterial communities of the samples, without significant 445 differences between them. Considering the taxa with a relative 446 abundance >0.1%, 8 phyla, 22 families, and 32 genera were 447 identified. No differences between the four treatments were 448 detected in phylum, family, or genus at T1. The core 449 microbiota, which represents the genera present in all of the 450 subjects in the control condition at T1, represented the 29.8% 451 of the total microorganisms (Table S2). The intraindividual α 452 diversity, evaluated through the Chao1 index, did not show any 453 significant differences between the four treatments at T2 (p = 4540.52). The inter-individual β diversity, evaluated at T2 through 455 weighted Unifrac, did not show significant differences (Figure 456 S2B). The prevalence and relative abundance of the bacterial 457 phyla, families, and genera at T2 for each of the four 458 treatments are shown in Tables S3-S5, respectively. 459

Considering the average of the four treatments at T2, the 460 phyla Firmicutes (42%), Bacteroidetes (34.8%), Proteobacteria 461 (22.2%), and Actinobacteria (0.44%) were the most abundant, 462 while the others, globally, had a relative abundance of 0.15%. 463 The relative abundance of the Actinobacteria phylum at T2 464 significantly differed between the treatments, increasing with 465 HP/AvPPE compared with C (Figure 3A). At the family level, 466 f3 considering the average of the four treatments at T2, 467 Bacteroidaceae (21.7%) was the most abundant, followed by 468 Lachnospiraceae (12.3%), Enterobacteriaceae (11.2%), Rumi-469 nococcaceae (10.3%), and Porphyromonadaceae (6.92%). The 470 percentage of microorganisms not identified was 6.5%. The 471 other families as a whole had a relative abundance of 22.7%. At 472





Figure 3. Relative abundance (%) of phyla, families, and genera of CSs that showed significant differences at T2. Each bar represents the average of five subjects (with SEM). Data were analyzed by Friedman's test with repeated measures ((A) p = 0.02; (B) p = 0.006; (C) p = 0.02; (D) p < 0.001; (E) p = 0.008) and Dunn's post-hoc test. Bars with different letter are significantly different (p < 0.05).

⁴⁷³ T2, two families, Coriobacteriaceae and Ruminococcaceae, ⁴⁷⁴ exhibited significant differences between treatments. The ⁴⁷⁵ relative abundance of Coriobacteriaceae increased with HP/ ⁴⁷⁶ AvPPE, compared with C and with HP. The relative ⁴⁷⁷ abundance of Ruminococcaceae increased significantly with ⁴⁷⁸ C/AvPPE and not significantly (p = 0.08) with HP/AvPPE, ⁴⁷⁹ compared with C (Figure 3B,C). At the genus level, considering the average of the four $_{480}$ treatments at T2, 33.9% of the microorganisms were not $_{481}$ identified. *Bacteroides* (21.7%) was the most abundant genus, $_{482}$ followed by *Parabacteroides* (6.9%), *Sutterella* (5.5%), $_{483}$ [*Ruminococcus*] (4.4%), *Bilophila* (3.2%), [*Eubacterium*] $_{484}$ (2.8%), and *Coprococcus* (2.6%). The other genera as a $_{485}$ whole had a relative abundance of 8.3%. At T2, two genera, $_{486}$



Figure 4. Effect of the CSs at T2 (10%, 72 h of incubation with daily replacement of the culture medium in HT-29Glc^{-/+} cells) on the (A) LDH release* in regard to intracellular total LDH, (B) basal oxygen consumption rate (OCR), (C) proton leak, and (D) ATP-linked OCR. (E) effect of the CSs (30%, 24 h of incubation in Caco-2 cells) on the transepithelial electrical resistance, (F) effect of the CSs (15%, 24 h of incubation in HT-29Glc^{-/+} cells) on the genotoxic damage**. Each bar represents the average of five subjects (with SEM), and each subject represents the average of three independent experiments (A–E) and two independent experiments (F). Data were analyzed by Friedman's test with repeated measures ((A) p = 0.0055; (B) p = 0.65; (C) p = 0.012; (D) p = 0.012; (F) p = 0.0031), Dunn's post-hoc test, and two-way ANOVA with repeated measures (E) (time: p < 0.0001; treatment: p = 0.0001; interaction time × treatment: p = 0.0005). Bars with different letters are significantly different (p < 0.05). * Control treatment was considered as 100% of LDH release. ** Expressed in % of the positive control etoposide (100% of genotoxicity).

487 *Faecalibacterium* and *Lachnospira*, showed significant differ-488 ences between the treatments. *Faecalibacterium* increased 489 significantly in C/AvPPE and HP/AvPPE, compared with C 490 (Figure 3D), while the relative abundance of *Lachnospira* was 491 lower with HP than with HP/AvPPE (Figure 3E).

492 Effect of CSs on Cell Viability, Mitochondrial 493 Function, Barrier Function, and Genotoxic Damage in 494 Intestinal Cell Lines. A significant increase of LDH release 495 was observed with HP, compared with C. AvPPE alone did not 496 affect the LDH release significantly, but it seems somewhat 497 toxic for the cells. When AvPPE was combined with HP, it did 498 not prevent the increase in LDH release (Figure 4A).

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A basal OCR of 4.7 nmol O₂/min/10⁶ cells was observed in 499 500 C, this value being unaffected by the different treatments (Figure 4B). Proton leak, evaluated in the presence of 501 oligomycin, represented 26% of the basal OCR with C. 502 503 AvPPE alone seems to augment somewhat the proton leak (in 504 a not significant way). Proton leak augmented significantly with HP. Such increase was not prevented with the presence of 505 506 AvPPE (Figure 4C). Consequently, the ATP-linked OCR significantly decreased with HP and HP/AvPPE, compared 507 with C (Figure 4D). Maximal OCR and cell reserve capacity 508 were not affected with any treatments (data not shown). 509

510 Changes in the intestinal barrier function were evaluated by 511 measuring TEER in Caco-2 cells grown in Transwell filters and 512 exposed to CSs (Figure 4E). TEER was similar in the four 513 treatments at the beginning of the incubation period (0 h) and 514 increased significantly with all of the treatments after 24 h of exposition. At 24 h, TEER was significantly higher with C/ $_{515}$ AvPPE and lower with HP, compared with C. The decreased $_{516}$ of TEER observed with HP was prevented with HP/AvPPE. $_{517}$

The genotoxic effect of CSs on HT-29Glc^{-/+} cells was $_{518}$ determined by H2A.X histone phosphorylation. As shown in $_{519}$ Figure 4F, basal genotoxicity observed with C was 35.7% that $_{520}$ of the positive control with etoposide. HP treatment has no $_{521}$ effect on genotoxicity. In the C/AvPPE treatment, genotoxicity $_{522}$ tended to be lower (p = 0.08) than with C and was $_{523}$ significantly lower than with HP.

Correlations. Figure 5A shows the correlations observed 525 f5 between the different bacterial metabolites present in the CSs. 526 Ammonia positively correlated with isovalerate, isobutyrate, 527 valerate, and indole. Isovalerate positively correlated with 528 propionate, acetate, isobutyrate, and indole. 529

In relation to bacterial genera, a positive correlation between 530 hydrogen sulfide and *Bacteroides* was observed; acetate and 531 *Bilophila*; propionate and *Coprococcus*; butyrate and *Sutterella*, 532 *Prevotella*, *Desulfovibrio*, *Catenibacterium*, and *Bifidobacterium*; 533 valerate and *Ruminococcus*; isobutyrate and *Sutterella*; and 534 between isovalerate and *Sutterella* and *Butycirimonas*. On the 535 other hand, a negative correlation was observed between 536 hydrogen sulfide and *Faecalibacterium*, *Anaerostipes* and 537 [*Prevotella*]; indole and *Lachnospira*; acetate and *Prevotella* 538 and [*Ruminococcus*]; propionate and *Dorea* and [*Ruminococ-* 539 *cus*]; valerate and *Bifidobacterium* and *Bacteroides*; and between 540 isobutyrate and *Dorea* (Figure 5B). 541



Figure 5. Heatmap of the correlations between the different parameters measured. All of the data were used for the analysis (all treatments for each parameter). The color indicates the value of the Spearman correlation coefficient. The asterisk indicates that the correlation is statistically significant (p < 0.05). (A) correlation between the metabolites of proteins. (B) correlation between the bacterial genera and metabolites of proteins.

542 DISCUSSION

543 The intestinal microbiota generates numerous metabolites 544 from the undigested proteins that reach the colon, which can 545 exert deleterious or beneficial effects at the colonic and, 546 eventually, systemic levels. The first aim of this study was to quantify the in vitro production of NH₃, H₂S, indole, and 547 SCFAs by human fecal microbiota in the presence of increased 548 549 amount of proteins and to evaluate how the addition of AvPPE 550 to the culture medium could affect this production. Our results 551 showed that HP increased ammonia production, confirming 552 previous observations that fecal and colonic ammonia levels 553 depend on the amounts of ingested proteins.¹⁴ The presence of 554 high concentrations of ammonia in the colonic lumen has been 555 shown to alter epithelium architecture, cellular energetic 556 supply, mitochondrial oxygen consumption, SCFA oxidation capacity, and epithelial barrier function.¹⁴ Accordingly, the fact 557 that AvPPE partially prevented ammonia production can be 558 559 considered as beneficial and is in agreement with a study that 560 used condensed tannins from acacia and quebracho in an in vitro system with rumen microbiota.³⁰ In this study, as in our 561 study, ammonia production decreased after 24 h of culture 562 when tannins were added to the bioreactor. 563

One of the selection criteria of our subjects was the presence s65 of SRB in their fecal microbiota, considering that these bacteria s66 produce H_2S , one of the compounds determined in our study. s67 SRB were detected in 66.7% of all subjects initially evaluated, s68 which is within the range of reported values for these bacteria s69 in human stools, both in prevalence and counts.³¹ H_2S in s70 excess is potentially toxic for the intestinal epithelium as it s71 inhibits colonocyte respiration, increases colonocyte gene s72 expression related to the inflammatory process, and has been associated with a higher risk of ulcerative colitis and colorectal 573 cancer.^{14,20,32} The preventive effect shown by AvPPE against 574 the increased production of H₂S induced by HP was only 575 observed at T1. At T2, due to its volatility, H₂S was probably 576 eliminated during the culture period through the nitrogen flux 577 used to generate the anaerobic condition in the bioreactor, and 578 as a consequence, it could not be totally quantified. Our results 579 confirm a previous study reporting that quebracho PACs 580 reduced H₂S production when cultured with pig stools, these 581 latter effects being associated with an inhibition of the bacterial 582 metabolic activity and with a decrease in SRB and total 583 bacteria.³³ Similar observation was also reported with human 584 fecal microbiota cultured with a PAC-rich grape seed extract.³⁴ 585 On the other hand, some dietary polyphenols have been shown 586 to remove volatile sulfur compounds in the mouth;³⁵ 587 accordingly, it is possible that this phenomenon also occurs 588 in the colon with the avocado PACs, and this may explain the 589 protective effect shown by the AvPPE on H₂S production. 590

Indole concentrations were also higher at T1 than T2, 591 probably due to the volatility of this metabolite. This 592 compound was recently described to exert beneficial activities, 593 to act like a signaling molecule between the IM and its host, to 594 be able to increase the expression of tight junction proteins, to 595 improve gut barrier function, and to attenuate the inflamma- 596 tory processes.³⁶ Additionally, indole may also influence host 597 metabolism by modulating the secretion of GLP-1 by 598 enteroendocrine L-cells.³⁷ Thus, the increase in indole 599 concentration observed with HP/AvPPE at T1 may be 600 considered as beneficial for the host. This increase could be 601 due to a synergistic effect of higher tryptophan availability and 602 the presence of polyphenols in the HP/AvPPE treatment, 603

604 which could increase the indole-producing bacterial popula-605 tions and/or their metabolic activity. In fact, AvPPE and HP 606 treatments, by themselves, tend to increase the concentrations 607 of indole in a nonsignificant manner when compared with C. Regarding the SCFAs, these compounds are metabolic end 608 609 products of dietary fiber and, in less proportion, proteins. The 610 branched-chain SCFAs, isobutyrate and isovalerate, are 611 originated exclusively from amino acids and can be considered 612 as a marker of protein intake.¹⁴ The amount and type of SCFA 613 produced depend on the availability and type of substrates, the 614 composition of the IM, and the duration of intestinal transit.¹⁴ 615 As expected, we observed increased concentrations of total 616 SCFA, uSCFA and bSCFA, with HP, as a result of microbial 617 fermentation and, more particularly, an increase of isobutyrate 618 and isovalerate. AvPPE partially prevented the increased SCFA 619 production induced by HP, suggesting that these compounds 620 interfere with bacterial protein metabolism. These latter results 621 are in accordance with the findings reported by Bazzocco et al. 622 using high-molecular-weight PACs from apple.³⁸ Interestingly, 623 the increase in propionate, valerate, isobutyrate, and isovalerate 624 concentrations induced by HP confirms the results of 625 Andriamihaja et al., in rats fed an HP diet (53% proteins) 626 for 2 weeks.³⁹ On the other hand, it is noteworthy that AvPPE 627 increases the levels of butyrate, an interesting result 628 considering the well-known health-promoting effects of this 629 SCFA.¹⁵

In general, all of the protein-derived metabolites correlated positively between them except for butyrate. This phenomencombined by the fact that butyrate is the only metabolite that increases it concentration in the presence of AvPPE, while the other metabolites increased with proteins.

We also studied the effect of the different treatments on the composition of the fecal microbiota. Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes were the dominant phyla, as previously described.⁴⁰ Interestingly, our results showed that, in the presence of AvPPE, the abundance of the genus *Faecalibacterium* increased. This genus includes the species *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, a toty activities and whose prevalence is decreased in patients with inflammatory bowel disease.⁴¹

Regarding the correlations, it is relevant to highlight the 645 positive correlation between H_2S and *Bacteroides* genus. It has 646 been described that bacteria of *Bacteroides* genus are capable to 647 synthetize sulfur volatile compounds like H_2S in the oral 648 cavity,⁴² and our result suggests that this phenomenon could 649 also occur in colon. On the other hand, H_2S was not correlated 650 with *Desulfovibrio*, the most representative genus of SRB in 651 human colon,¹⁸ suggesting that SRB are not the main H_2S 652 producer during the in vitro fermentation.³²

In the second step, we evaluated whether the exposure of 654 colonic epithelial cells to the CSs affected their viability, 655 mitochondrial function, barrier function and DNA integrity. 656 Our results show that the viability of HT-29Glc^{-/+} cells was 657 affected by the CS from HP, probably due to the presence of 658 protein bacterial metabolites. Accordingly, recently, Wong et 659 al., 2016, reported that HT-29Glc^{-/+} exposure to *p*-cresol, one 660 of these metabolites, induced cell damage and LDH release,⁸ 661 this deleterious effect being prevented by PAC-rich extracts 662 from fruits, including AvPPE. However, in the present study, 663 we did not observe any protective effect in the AvPPE-treated 664 group, maybe because the CSs contain several other 665 metabolites that could act synergistically, limiting the 666 protective effect of AvPPE. Additionally, if we consider that we used a greater concentration of AvPPE in the culture 667 medium of the cells (10-fold more than the minimum 668 concentration used by Wong et al.), it is therefore possible 669 that such concentration induced a certain degree of toxicity 670 that could contribute to explain the lack of protective effect. 671 Regarding the mitochondrial function, we observed that cell 672 exposure to CSs from HP increased proton leak and decreased 673 ATP-linked OCR. This indicates that the energy efficiency in 674 treated cells is lower and that cell oxygen consumption is less 675 associated with ATP synthesis. This phenomenon could 676 contribute to the lower cell viability previously reported. At 677 the concentration assayed, AvPPE had no effect on these 678 altered parameters, even it seems somewhat toxic, thus 679 indicating that these compounds do not protect the cells 680 against viability loss. With respect to the intestinal barrier 681 function, Caco-2 cell monolayers exhibited a greater 682 permeability when exposed to CSs from HP, as reflected by 683 decreased TEER values. This is an important finding 684 considering that alterations in the gut barrier function generally 685 precede the development of inflammatory events at local and 686 systemic levels.⁸ Interestingly, CS from AvPPE treatment 687 reinforced barrier function (i.e., increased TEER values) 688 compared with CS from C, and in addition, it prevented the 689 barrier alterations induced by HP exposure. Similar results 690 have been reported with dietary polyphenols including PACs 691 in other models of intestinal barrier disturbances induced by 692 nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, bile salts, oxidants, or p- 693 cresol.^{43,44} Finally, we also determined the impact of CS 694 exposure on cell genotoxicity. Our results showed that CSs 695 from C/AvPPE and HP/AvPPE treatments attenuated 696 genotoxic damage, suggesting a potential antigenotoxic role 697 of AvPPE and confirming results from a previous study.⁴⁵ CS 698 from HP did not induce genotoxicity in our model, confirming 699 the study from Windey et al. carried out through the Comet 700 assay in HT-29 cells exposed to fecal water from subjects fed a 701 high-protein diet.⁴⁶ Similar results were reported by Beaumont 702 et al., where no DNA damage was observed in isolated 703 colonocytes of rats fed for 2 weeks with HP diets, assessed by 704 the Comet assay.⁴⁷ 705

In conclusion, our study confirms the deleterious effect of 706 HP diets on the colonic epithelium, with the increase of 707 protein-derived bacterial metabolites potentially toxic (like 708 ammonia and H_2S) and their negative effect on cell viability, 709 mitochondrial function, and intestinal barrier function of 710 intestinal epithelial cells. We also demonstrated that the 711 AvPPE exerted a protective effect in reducing the production 712 of ammonia and H_2S and increasing the production of butyrate 713 and indole, two beneficial metabolites for the colonic epithelia 714 and at systemic level. The AvPPE also prevented the 715 alterations in the intestinal permeability induced by HP 716 condition and increased the relative abundance of the butyrate-717 producing genus Faecalibacterium. Finally, despite the 718 suggested toxic effect of AvPPE to cell viability and 719 mitochondrial function, the results of this work reveal a 720 promising compound with a healthy potential to prevent the 721 damage induced by protein metabolites and eventually HP 722 diets at the colonic level. To that, further investigation is 723 required, like adjusting the concentrations of the extract to 724 avoid toxic effects, both in in vitro studies and subsequently 725 animals and human studies. 726

727 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

728 Supporting Information

729 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the 730 ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.jafc.9b03905.

731 Concentration of unbranched (A) and branched short-

chain fatty acids (B) in the CSs after 1 h (T1) and 24 h(T2) of fermentation (PDF)

(12) of fermentation (121)

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748 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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754 **ABBREVIATIONS**

755 HPDs, high-protein diets; IM, intestinal microbiota; SCFA, 756 short-chain fatty acids; uSCFAs, unbranched short-chain fatty 757 acids; bSCFAs, branched short-chain fatty acids; H₂S, 758 hydrogen sulfide; PACs, proanthocyanidins; AvPPE, avocado 759 peel polyphenol extract; SRB, sulfate-reducing bacteria; C, 760 control; HP, hyperproteic or high-protein; CS, culture 761 supernatant; CSs, culture supernatants; NH₃, ammonia; 762 DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium; LDH, lactate 763 dehydrogenase; OCR, oxygen consumption rate; TEER, 764 transepithelial electrical resistance; OTUs, operational taxo-765 nomic units; SEM, standard error of the mean

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