

**Effect of carbohydrate composition in barley and oat cultivars on
microbial ecophysiology and the proliferation of *Salmonella enterica* in
an *in vitro* model of the porcine gastrointestinal tract***

Running Title: Cereal carbohydrates and intestinal microbial ecology

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Abstract

The influence of carbohydrate (CHO) composition of cereal cultivars on microbial ecophysiology was studied using an *in vitro* model of the porcine gastrointestinal tract. Ten hulless (HLB), 6 hulled barleys (HB), 6 oats (O) and 6 oat groats (OG) differing in β -glucan, non-starch polysaccharides (NSP), starch contents and starch type, were hydrolyzed enzymatically and incubated for 72h with pig feces. Fermentation kinetics were modeled, and microbial composition and short-chain fatty acid (SCFA) profiles analyzed using terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (TRFLP) and gas chromatography. Cluster analysis and canonical ordination revealed differently affected fermentation and microbial ecology according to type and cultivar. Firstly, in HB and O, cellulose and insoluble NSP content increased (1) *Ruminococcus flavefaciens*-like and *Clostridium xylanolyticum*-like phylotypes, (2) acetate production and (3) decreased fermentation activity. Secondly, in HLB β -glucan, amylose, amylopectin, crude protein and soluble NSP contents determined microbial community composition and activity: (1) amylose contents of the HLB varieties increased butyrate production and abundance of *Cl. butyricum*-like phylotypes, (2) β -glucan content determined the total SCFA amounts and (3) amylopectin and starch content affected abundance of *Cl. ramosum*-like phylotypes, members of *Clostridium* cluster XIVa and *Bacteroides*-like bacteria. Finally, the effect of CHO on proliferation of *Salmonella enterica* in the model was determined. *Salmonella* cell counts were not affected but the relative proportion of *Salmonella* decreased with HLB and increased with O as revealed by quantitative PCR. Our results shed light into the complex interactions of cereal CHO on intestinal bacterial ecophysiology and the possible impact on host health.

60 *Abbreviations used in the manuscript*

61 **BCFA** - branched chain fatty acids, **CHO** - carbohydrates, **CP** - crude protein, **DM** - dry
62 matter, **dDM** - digestible dry matter, **GIT** - gastrointestinal tract, **lag t** - lag time, **Nal** -
63 Nalidixic acid, **Nov** - Novobiocin, **(i/s/t)NSP** - (insoluble/soluble/total) non-starch
64 polysaccharides, **(q)PCR** - (quantitative) polymerase chain reaction, **RDA** - redundancy
65 analysis, **SCFA** - short chain fatty acids, **TRFLP** - terminal restriction fragment length
66 polymorphism, **TRF** - terminal restriction fragment, **TSB** - Tryptone Soya Broth, **T1/2** -
67 half-time to asymptotic gas production, **UPGMA** - unweighed pair group method with
68 algorithmic means, **Vf** - final gas accumulation per g cereal

69 ***Introduction***

70 The gastrointestinal tract (GIT) of pigs is colonized by a highly diverse microbial
71 community, which can be affected by various factors including diet and environmental
72 factors (15, 38). Manipulating the composition and metabolic activity of the gut
73 microbiota through the diet to improve gut health is an increasing focus of nutritionists in
74 the post-antibiotic era. Different strategies including the use of pre-, probiotics, organic
75 acids or zinc have been applied to manipulate the intestinal ecosystem (31, 36).
76 Surprisingly, the fact that compounds in the basal diet, such as cereal indigestible
77 carbohydrates (CHO), can also affect the intestinal microbial ecophysiology is often
78 neglected by nutritionists. Since cereals are a major component in the diets of pigs and
79 other monogastric species, and since intestinal bacteria vary in their genetic potential for
80 substrate utilization, there is great potential to beneficially manipulate microbial ecology
81 in the GIT by choice of cereal cultivars with specific CHO composition.

82 The cereal CHO composition can vary markedly between cultivars (17, 19), and
83 CHO fractions such as β -glucans could be used as functional food ingredients (6). For
84 example, Pieper et al. (32) recently showed that the intestinal microbial community
85 composition can be modified using the variability in β -glucan content within barley and
86 oat cultivars. The specific mode of action of the other CHO fractions that are present in
87 these cultivars, such as cellulose, soluble and insoluble non-starch polysaccharides (NSP)
88 and starch (e.g. content and the amylose/ amylopectin ratio) on the microbial
89 communities and their activity still remains unclear.

90 In addition to direct effects on intestinal physiology, changes in intestinal
91 microbial composition may enhance or suppress the growth of specific pathogenic

microorganisms by competitive exclusion. For example, *Salmonella* infections are among the most frequent and widespread zoonoses in the world and there might be opportunities to influence *Salmonella* colonization via nutritional strategies (30). Studying the interactions of intestinal bacteria in an *in vitro* simulation of the porcine GIT could help to rapidly screen and evaluate promising strategies for *Salmonella* reduction in pigs without the use of animal infection models.

The aim of the present study was to determine the influence of variation in CHO composition found in 10 hulless barleys, 6 common barleys, 6 oat cultivars and their respective oat groats (dehulled oats) on large intestinal fermentation characteristics and microbial community composition. An *in vitro* model of the porcine GIT as described by Bindelle et al. (5) was employed with or without co-inoculation with *Salmonella enterica* and using multivariate canonical analysis.

Materials and Methods

Substrates and chemical characterization

Ten hulless, 6 hulled barleys, 6 oat and the respective groats (dehulled kernels) of these oat cultivars were chosen according to typical characteristics, but especially according to the content of β -glucan, starch, as well as the amylose/amylopectin ratio (Table S1). Most of the cultivars were developed and provided by the Crop Development Centre (CDC) and grown between 2004 and 2006 at the University of Saskatchewan. The selection was completed by some commercially available cultivars of cereals (McLeod, AC Metcalfe).

Samples were analyzed for dry matter (DM) content (method 967.03; AOAC, 1990), crude protein (CP, method 981.10; AOAC, 1990), ash (method 923.03; AOAC, 1990) and ether extract (method 920.29; AOAC, 1990). Starch, amylose/amylopectin ratio and water-soluble β -glucan contents were analyzed colorimetrically after enzymatic hydrolysis according to standard procedures (Megazyme Ltd, Ireland). The total (t-), soluble (s-) and insoluble (i-) non-starch polysaccharide (NSP) fractions were determined by gas chromatography (Varian Star 3400 GC) equipped with a 30m fused silica capillary column and a gas flow rate of 36.15 cm/sec after the samples were hydrolyzed with 12M H₂SO₄ according to Englyst and Hudson (12).

In vitro hydrolysis and fermentation

In vitro hydrolysis and fermentation were performed using the procedure described by Bindelle et al. (5). Briefly, cereal samples were hydrolyzed with porcine pepsin (pH 2, 39°C, 2h) and porcine pancreatin (pH 6.8, 39°C, 4h), and residues filtered through a 42 μ m Nylon cloth, washed twice with 96 % ethanol and 99.5 % acetone and dried at 60°C. Dry matter digestibility after hydrolysis (dDM) was recorded. Residues from different hydrolysis replicates of one cultivar were pooled and incubated in an inoculum prepared from fresh faeces of 3 growing pigs that were fed a non-medicated diet, and mixed with a buffer solution (29). Fermentation proceeded at 39 \pm 0.5°C using 200 mg of the hydrolyzed residues and 30 ml of the inoculum placed in 140 ml glass bottles equipped with a rubber stopper. The experimental scheme was as follows: 28 ingredients x 3 replicates + 3 blanks (containing only inoculum). Gas pressure in the bottles was regularly recorded over 72h. After 72h, the fermentation broth was

centrifuged (12.000 x g, 5 min) and the supernatant removed for analysis of short chain fatty acids (SCFA). The pellet was further used for extraction of genomic DNA.

Analysis of SCFA

Supernatant of centrifuged samples (1ml) was acidified to pH 2.5 with metaphosphoric acid and the internal standard (crotonic acid solution, 2mg/ml in ddH₂O) was added. SCFA were analyzed by gas chromatography on a 30m x 320µm x 0.25µm fused-silica capillary (ZB-FFAP, Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA) in an Agilent 6890 GC system equipped with a flame ionization detector (Agilent, Böblingen, Germany). Helium was the carrier gas at a flow rate of 1.9 ml/min. The flow rate of hydrogen and air were 35 and 350ml/min, respectively. The initial oven temperature was 100°C followed by a ramp of 8°C/min and final temperature 200°C for 13min.

DNA extraction and TRFLP analysis

Genomic DNA of each sample was extracted using the FastDNA[®] Kit (Qiagen, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

For analysis of the microbial communities, a partial fragment of the bacterial 16SrRNA gene was amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using universal forward primer S-D-Bact-0008-a-S-20 (AGA GTT TGA TCM TGG CTC AG), labelled with 6-carboxyfluorescein (6-FAM) and reverse primer S-D-Bact-0926-a-S-20 (CCG TCA ATT CAT TTG AGT TT) (23). PCR reactions contained 5 µl of 10 x Incubation Buffer, 1.5 µl of 50 mM MgCl₂, 1.5 µl of each primer (10µM), 1.5 µl of each dNTP (10mM) and 0.2 µl of *Taq*-Polymerase (5 U/µl) and UV-sterilised millipore water, added

until 50 µl. PCR was performed in a Thermolyne Amplitron II temperature cyclor (Barnstead/Thermolyne, Dubuque, IA, USA) and the program set as follows: 5 min at 95°C, 30 cycles of 95°C for 40 s, 55°C for 40 s and 72°C for 60 s, final extension at 72°C for 10 min. Size and yield of PCR products were checked by electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose gel after staining with ethidium bromide (0.5 µg EtBr/ml agarose). The PCR product was subsequently extracted from the gel using the Qiagen[®] PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada) according to manufacturer's protocol and the DNA concentration was measured on a NanoDrop[®] ND-1000 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Inc., Wilmington, DE, USA).

For terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (TRFLP) analysis, 200 ng of the PCR product were digested at 37°C for 6 h using 15U of MspI (Fermentas, Burlington, Canada) in 2 µl reaction buffer and UV-sterilized Millipore water, made up to 20 µl. Two µl of the digestion solution were subsequently mixed with 9 µl of formamide and 0.5 µl of an internal size standard (ABI GeneScan[™] 600 LIZ[®] Size Standard) and denatured at 95°C for 5 min followed by immediately cooling down on ice for 2 min. Fragment sizes were analyzed using an ABI 3130xl Genetic Analyzer in gene scan mode and GeneMapper v3.7 software. Fragments that were different in less than +/- 3bp were considered to be identical as binning criteria.

To identify the dominant bacteria species, a small clone library (n = 96) was constructed from purified PCR products of pooled DNA isolates using above mentioned primers (without 6-FAM) and standard cloning procedures according to manufacturer's protocol (pGEM[®]-T Easy Vector System, Promega, Madison, USA). Forward sequences were obtained on an ABI 3730 capillary sequencer and aligned using greengenes

(<http://greengenes.lbl.gov/>; 10). Sequences of closest cultured relatives were retrieved and incorporated into ARB phylogenetic software (www.arb-home.de; 24) to assign bacterial species or at least bacterial groups to individual TRF's using the TRFcut tool (<http://www.mpi-marburg.mpg.de/downloads/>; 34). The theoretical fragments sizes were calculated for the enzyme MspI and fragment sizes having +/- 1bp similarity with obtained TRF's were considered a match. Sequences were deposited in GenBank and are available under accession numbers GQ214260-GQ214312.

In vitro *fermentation and proliferation of Salmonella enterica*

According to the results of the first experiment, 10 barleys cultivars and 6 oats and groats were selected for study using a co-inoculation (fecal inoculum + *Salmonella*) approach. Citrus pectin (Sigma P-9135) was used as a negative control (7) and Tryptone Soya Broth (TSB) medium was used as growth substrate for enterobacteria.

A double antibiotic (Novobiocin and Nalidixic acid, Nov⁺/Nal⁺) resistant strain of *Salmonella enterica* subsp. *enterica* serotype Typhimurium var. Copenhagen, which was obtained in a grow-finish herd during a survey in Western Canadian swine herds by the Western College of Veterinary Medicine (Saskatoon, SK, Canada) and the Alberta Research Council (Edmonton, AB, Canada) was selected for this study. *Salmonella* was usually cultivated aerobically at 37°C in either TSB or on Brilliant Green agar plates, containing 25µg/ml of each of the two antibiotics.

For the co-inoculation approach, the microbial communities in the fermentation bottles were allowed to adapt to the substrate for an initial time of 6h before inoculation with *Salmonella*. The strain was then inoculated with a syringe after gas pressure

measurement and gas release to a total concentration of $\log 3.20 \pm 0.2$ cfu/ml. Fermentation proceeded for 24 h. Samples of mixed fermentation broth (0.1 ml) were taken at 6, 12 and 24 h and immediately plated onto Brilliant Green agar plates (Nov⁺/NaI⁺) and plates incubated as described above. *Salmonella* colonies were counted and reported as log cfu/ml incubation broth. After 24h, fermentation broth was centrifuged (12.000 x g, 5 min) and the pellet was further used for extraction of genomic DNA as described above.

Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of bacterial communities

Total genomic DNA from samples of the second experiment was extracted as described above. Quantitative real time PCR (qPCR) was performed using previously published primer sets and annealing temperatures (Table 1). The total bacterial counts, counts for *Salmonella*, enterobacteria, *Clostridium* cluster XIVa, *Clostridium* cluster IV, *Clostridium* cluster I, lactobacilli and *Bacteroides* were obtained. Amplification was accomplished using an iQTM SYBR[®] Green Supermix (BioRad, Guénette, Canada). Amplification conditions were 95°C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles with 95°C for 30 sec, 50-60°C (depending on bacterial species, Table 1) for 40 sec and 72°C for 40 sec. The amplifications were performed using a CFX96 Real-Time PCR detection system on a C1000 thermal cycler (BioRad, Guénette, Canada) with the data collection set at the annealing/extension step. Standard curves were generated using serial dilutions of purified genomic DNA of *Salmonella enterica* (for *Salmonella* quantification). For the quantification of total bacteria, *Clostridium* cluster XIVa, IV and I, enterobacteria, lactobacilli and *Bacteroides*, purified PCR products were used that were obtained by

standard PCR using the primers given in Table 1. The detection limit was 10^2 copy numbers/ml fermentation broth. Melting curves were checked after amplification in order to assure correct amplification results. Results of total counts were reported as log gene copy numbers/ml fermentation broth, whereas the values for the other bacterial groups were reported as relative numbers compared to total bacteria.

Statistical analysis and calculations

The *in vitro* digestibility of cereal dry matter after pepsin and pancreatin hydrolysis was calculated. Gas accumulation curves during fermentation of hydrolyzed cereals were modeled according to France et al. (14):

$$V = 0, \quad \text{if } 0 < t < lag$$

$$= V_f \left(1 - \exp \left\{ - \left[b(t - lag) + c(\sqrt{t} - lag) \right] \right\} \right), \quad \text{if } t \geq L$$

where V denotes the gas accumulation, V_f (ml \times g⁻¹ initial amount of cereal) the maximum gas volume for $t = \infty$ and **lag** t (h) the lag time before the fermentation starts. The constants b (h⁻¹) and c (h^{-1/2}) determine the fractional rate of degradation of the substrate μ (h⁻¹), which is postulated to vary with time as follows:

$$\mu = b + \frac{c}{2\sqrt{t}}, \quad \text{if } t \geq lag$$

The half-time to asymptotic gas production when $V = V_f/2$ was symbolized by **T1/2**.

For analysis of bacterial communities, TRFLP profiles were normalized by calculation of the relative peak area of each individual peak, only fragments with a relative peak area ratio of $P_i \geq 1\%$ and fragments larger than 80bp were considered to perform a cluster analysis using Pearson correlation and unweighed pair group method

with algorithmic means (UPGMA) with Statistica software (version 6.0, Statsoft, Tulsa, OK, USA).

To analyze the complex interactions of cereal carbohydrate fractions on *in vitro* digestibility, fermentation kinetics parameters, SCFA profiles and relative abundance of bacterial groups and species, we applied a multivariate analysis using CANOCO statistical package version 4.5 (37). The values for starch, amylose, amylopectin, β -glucan, cellulose, tNSP, sNSP, iNSP and CP contents in the cereal cultivars were imported as explanatory variables. Square root transformed values for relative abundance of TRF's, SCFA production and molar ratio, parameters of fermentation kinetics and dDM values were used as response variables. Explanatory and response data were used for constrained linear ordination analysis (redundancy analysis, RDA), Whereas unconstrained ordinations such as principle component analysis, are methods seeking one or more gradients representing predictors that best explain response variable composition, in constrained ordinations such as RDA, these predictors are further restricted and ordination axes must be generated from linear combinations of weighed environmental variables. The explanation of response variables with synthetic variables (ordination axes) can therefore be further defined using values of the explanatory characteristics (37). Significance of the overall ordination model as well as the effect of explanatory variables during development of the ordination model was tested using Monte Carlo permutation test (n=499).

Finally, statistical analysis of dry matter digestibility (dDM) during pepsin-pancreatin hydrolysis, *in vitro* gas production kinetics parameters (L, T1/2, Vf), total short-chain fatty acid (SCFA) production and molar ratios of individual SCFA after 72 h

of *in vitro* fermentation as well as qPCR results from the second co-inoculation run was performed by ANOVA followed by Tukey-HSD test using SPSS (version 17.0, Chicago, IL, USA). *P*-values of <0.05 were considered significant.

Results

Chemical composition of cereals

The chemical composition of the cereals used in this study is presented in Table S1. There was a high variation between cereal types and cultivars. The β -glucan content ranged from 4.6 (CDC McGwire) to 12.7% (CDC Fibar) in hulless barleys and from 4.1 to 5.9% in common barleys, whereas slightly lower values were found in the oat cultivars (2.9 to 5.1%). The ‘waxy’ hulless barleys CDC Rattan, SR93139, CDC Fibar, SB94917 and HB393 showed low levels of amylose starch whereas the ‘high amylose’ cultivars SH99250 and SB94893 had amylose concentrations of 38.9 and 46.1% of total starch respectively. The tNSP values varied from 7.7 to 15.3% in hulless barleys, 11.9 to 17.2% in common barley, and 16.6 to 26.1% in oats, likely due to the higher content of cellulose and lignified hulls.

In vitro fermentation parameters

The dDM after enzymatic hydrolysis and the fermentation parameters are presented in summarized form for the different cereal types in Table 2. Values for individual cereals and statistical comparison of means between cultivars are presented as supplemental material (Table S2). To illustrate the variability, the mean values with standard deviation and the range are presented for each grain type. The *in vitro* dry matter

digestibility varied between grain types and cultivars and was partly related to the amylose/amylopectin ratio in hulless barley cultivars. Common barley types and oats showed almost similar values with lower variability, whereas the highest digestibility was found for oat groats (up to 89.7%). The fermentation characteristics also showed considerable variation within and between grain types. For example, the lag t was increased with high amylose hulless barleys. Most differences were observed for final gas volume, which was expressed per g of original non-hydrolyzed cereal. There was an apparent effect of starch type and β -glucan content on gas production. High amylose barleys SB94893 and SH99250 had the highest values followed by the high β -glucan cultivars. Total SCFA production was highest with hulless barleys and oat groats but ranged from 374 (SB90300) to 535 mg/g substrate (CDC Fibar) in hulless barleys and from 365 (HiFi) to 459 mg/g substrate (CDC ProFi) with oat groats. The lowest values (except for CDC SO-I) were found for oats whereas the common barleys had intermediate values. The high hull containing oats had higher molar ratios of acetate (59.7 to 71.2%) and lower values for butyrate (7.6 to 12.0%) as compared to the other varieties. The highest values for propionate were found with oat groats with 24.6 to 26.6% for Morgan and CDC ProFi, respectively. Branched chain fatty acids as indicators of protein breakdown were found to be lowest with oats (0.7 to 4.2% for CDC SO-I and CDC ProFi, respectively), whereas higher values were observed with hulless barleys (5.3 to 6.1% for SB90354 and SB90300, respectively) and oat groats (5.2 to 5.7% for Morgan and CDC ProFi/CDC Sol-Fi, respectively).

Bacterial community composition

The cluster analysis based on the TRF's (Figure 1) revealed distinct bacterial profiles based on the cereal type (except for CDC Clyde and SB90300). Two main clusters were formed by either hull containing common barleys and oats or by hullless barleys and oat groats. CDC SO-I clustered different from all cultivars. However, between cultivars of hullless barleys, there was a very high variability and small subclusters as compared to the very similar clusters with common barleys and oats.

To assign bacterial phylotypes to individual TRF's an *in silico* TRF cut tool was implemented into ARB phylogenetic software. The results (Figure 2) revealed that cereal types and cultivars mainly influenced the abundance of members of clostridial clusters IV and XVIa but also clostridial clusters I, XVIII and members of *Bacteroides*. For example *Ruminococcus flavefaciens*-like (TRF 20) and *Clostridium xylanolyticum*-like phylotypes (TRF 16) were enhanced in high cellulose/hull containing cereals whereas other bacteria, belonging to clostridial clusters XIVa and I were enhanced with hullless barleys (data not shown). Unfortunately TRF's # 7, 8, 9, 10, 19, 21 could not be identified by this approach. However, they were included in the analyses since they represented >1% of the total bacterial communities.

Multivariate canonical analysis

Results of the RDA analyses for interaction between cereal nutrient composition and digestibility and fermentation responses for all cereals, and barleys, oats and hullless barleys separately are presented in Figure 3a-d. The RDA of the four grain types together (Figure 3a, n = 28) revealed the major influence of cellulose ($P=0.002$), β -glucan ($P=0.006$), CP ($P=0.030$) and a trend for amylose ($P=0.058$) contents on the overall

ordination model. Cellulose, iNSP and tNSP were highly correlated to the first ordination axis as a consequence of the clustering of the oats with high hulls and cellulose contents along this axis, whereas the other axis of the model covered only 12.1% of the variance. As an example how to read and interpret the data in the RDA graphs: the acetate molar ratio, T1/2, *Ruminococcus flavefaciens*-like and *Clostridium xylanolyticum*-like phylotypes (TRF16 and 20) were positively correlated to cellulose, iNSP and tNSP as indicated by the small angle between the arrows for these variables ($<90^\circ$). An angle of $>90^\circ$ would indicate a negative correlation (i.e. between amylopectin and cellulose in Figure 2a, $r = -0.56$). In comparison to cellulolytic materials, the sNSP and CP values were positively correlated with propionate molar ratio and members of the clostridial cluster XIVa (TRF12). Formation of BCFA was associated with *Clostridium ramosum*-like bacteria (TRF17), amylopectin and starch contents. The concentrations of β -glucan were associated with high fermentation activity (Vf), high amounts of SCFA and butyrate molar ratio, and members of clostridial cluster XIVa (TRF11).

RDA of barleys (Figure 3b, $n=16$) highlighted the strong influence of β -glucan ($P=0.002$), tNSP ($P=0.002$) and amylopectin ($P=0.002$) on the model. The β -glucan and CP content were positively correlated with the production of SCFA and BCFA. As already observed by the analysis of the 4 grains together, acetate molar ratio, half-time to asymptote (T1/2) and *R. flavefaciens* and *C. xylanolyticum*-like phylotypes (TRF16 and 20) were positively correlated with cellulose, tNSP and iNSP, but negatively with β -glucan content of the barleys. There was also a positive correlation of amylopectin with propionate molar ratio and abundance of *Bacteroides/Cytophaga*-like phylotypes (TRF6), whereas amylopectin was negatively correlated to butyrate molar ratio with the barleys.

However, butyrate molar ratio was positively correlated with lag t, Vf and *C. butyricum*-like phylotypes (TRF23).

RDA of only oats and oat groats together (Figure 3c, n=12) highlighted the strong impact of the cellulose contents of the oats on the ordination model ($P=0.002$). Similar to the overall model, cellulose, iNSP and tNSP contents were associated with elevated acetate molar ratio, high abundance of *R. flavefaciens* and *C. xylanolyticum*-like phylotypes (TRF16 and 20), and fermentation characteristics. In contrast, the oat groats were associated with most of the other response variables.

Finally, a RDA analysis was performed for hulless barley varieties only (Figure 3d, n=10) since they displayed the highest variation in nutrient composition between cultivars. As already revealed by the analysis of all barleys together, amylopectin was positively correlated with propionate molar ratio, digestibility of dry matter, the production of BCFA and *Bacteroides/Cytophaga*-like phylotypes (TRF6). In contrast, the β -glucan content was positively correlated *C. ramosum*-like (TRF17) phylotypes, other members of clostridial clusters IV and XIVa (TRF11 and 12) and the production of SCFA, whereas it was negatively correlated to *R. flavefaciens*-like and *C. xylanolyticum*-like phylotypes (TRF16 and 20). Higher molar ratios of butyrate were also associated with *C. butyricum*-like bacteria (TRF23), and positively correlated to amylose concentration. Other bacterial phylotypes reacted differentially and showed no clear association with cereal factors.

Impact of cereal cultivars on Salmonella proliferation

After the inoculation of the *Salmonella enterica* strain during the second experiment, no significant changes were observed numbers of double resistant (Nal⁺/Nov⁺) *Salmonella enterica* during the fermentation suggesting no effects of CHO (data not shown). However, qPCR results using genomic DNA extracts after 24h, revealed significant ($P<0.05$) differences for the relative amount of *Salmonella*/total bacterial 16S rRNA gene copy numbers in hullless barley cultivars CDC McGwire, CDC Fibar, SH99250 and SB94893 (Table 3). These four cereal types had similar values as the negative control pectin. In contrast, the relative proportion was highest in the blank and with the oat cultivars. The relative contribution of enterobacteria and lactobacilli was generally low, whereas *Clostridium* cluster XIVa, IV, I and *Bacteroides* dominated the bacterial communities. Overall, 77% of the total bacterial communities were detected with the current qPCR approach ranging from 61% (TSB) to 93% (pectin). Similar to the TRFLP results, there were significant differences according to the grain type with *Clostridium* clusters IV and I. Almost no differences were observed for cluster XIVa, whereas *Bacteroides* showed no clear response according to grain type or cultivar.

Discussion

Although, the results presented here are based on an *in vitro* system of the porcine GIT, they confirm the great potential for manipulating intestinal microbial composition through the use of cereal sources containing carbohydrates with prebiotic properties. Due to the use of an *in vitro* fermentation model, results are limited to the porcine large intestine but as an addition when compared to other *in vitro* models, we simulated the nutrient digestion in the upper GIT using a pepsin-pancreatin pre-treatment, aiming to

411 obtain the indigestible fraction of the ingredients, which is likely to undergo fermentation
412 in the large intestine *in vivo* (5). Both experiments presented here, support the hypothesis
413 of complex CHO interaction with the microbial ecosystem. It is already well known that
414 contrasting sources of CHO can affect the fermentation characteristics *in vitro*, causing
415 differences in lag t, slope of gas production curves and final gas volume (2, 4, 5).
416 Furthermore, it has been shown that these contrasting CHO sources affect the profiles of
417 the fermentation end-products (2). Similar to these results, in the present study,
418 differences in fermentation characteristics and bacterial metabolites were observed
419 between cereal types, hulless barley, common barley, oat and oat groats. However, the
420 effect of contrasting CHO composition between cultivars of a same cereal species or type
421 on these parameters *in vitro* was still unknown. Results indicate that, especially within the
422 hulless barleys, there was a considerable variation of these parameters depending on
423 cultivars. Parameters also partially overlapped with other cereal types. These results were
424 confirmed by cluster analysis of TRFLP profiles, showing very little variation between
425 common barley types and their close relation to high cellulose containing oat cultivars,
426 whereas greater differences were found for hulless barleys and oat groats. This suggests
427 a dominant effect of fibrous materials in the hulls (cellulose, lignin, iNSP) on the
428 fermentation patterns. The fact that CDC SO-I was not included in the oat-common-
429 barley-cluster could be explained with its differential fermentation behaviour, starting a
430 high activity towards the end of the fermentation (Table S2). This cultivar is
431 characterized by a low lignin content, suggesting increased cellulose availability for
432 fermentation. The high variability with hulless barleys confirms the complex interaction
433 of CHO in these cultivars, suggesting that other carbohydrate fractions such as iNSP,

sNSP or amylose/amylopectin ratio of the starch fraction had a strong influence on bacterial community composition *in vitro*.

Despite the great advantage of molecular microbiological tools, such as TRFLP, to study bacterial communities without the need of cultivation, it has to be noted that there are some drawbacks including primer and PCR bias or formation of pseudo-TRF's (9, 11). Furthermore, it is difficult to assign bacterial species to individual TRF's since different phylotypes could give similar TRF's after restriction digest. In the present study, there were some TRF's that could not be assigned (e.g. TRF's 7, 8, 9, 10, 19, 21), likely due to the size of the clone library. On the other hand, some TRF's (e.g. *R. flavefaciens*, *Cl. xylanolyticum*, *Cl. butyricum*) could be better assigned to species-like phylotypes due to their frequent occurrence in clone library analysis. Furthermore, since samples in the present study were generated based on the same biases, it is possible to compare between samples on a relative basis.

To our knowledge, this is the first time that the interactions of nutrient source and intestinal microbial activity were studied using redundancy analysis. Using this approach, the effect of cereal CHO included in the grain matrix on the microbial composition and activity can be visualized. When analysing the data for all cereal types and varieties together (Figure 3a), high cellulose and i-NSP containing oats and common barleys showed slow fermentation and favoured cellulolytic, acetate producing *R. flavefaciens*- and *Cl. xylanolyticum*-like bacteria (TRF16 and 20). These species have specifically adapted to the breakdown of fibrous (cellulolytic, xylanolytic) material during evolutionary co-existence with the host organism (13). They belong to clostridial clusters IV and XIVa, respectively and are typical colonizers of in the distal gastrointestinal tract

of monogastric and forestomach of ruminant species (13, 20, 22, 39). Corresponding to the present data, the breakdown of cellulolytic materials usually resulted in acetate formation. On the other hand, β -glucans favored *Cl. ramosum*-like species (cluster XVIII, TRF17), members of clostridial cluster IV and XIVa (TRF11 and 12) and the overall SCFA production. In contrast to these results, isolated β -glucans favored the growth of *Cl. histolyticum*-like bacteria and increased the propionate molar ratio in another recent *in vitro* study using human fecal microbiota (18). This is in contrast to the present findings and might either indicate differences in the general *in vitro* model or whether isolated β -glucans or whole cereals containing the β -glucans in the grain matrix are used (32). RDA on HLB (Figure 3d) revealed that the high amylose content of some hulless barley cultivars favoured the contribution of butyrate producing members of clostridial cluster I (*Cl. butyricum*-like phylotypes) but not members of clostridial cluster XIVa which are commonly involved in butyrate formation (3, 33). Although butyrate production might be a beneficial effect for maintaining intestinal health, this result has to be handled with care, since other members of clostridial cluster I such as *Cl. botulinum*, or *Cl. perfringens* may be harmful for the host organism. Finally, the starch and amylopectin values were positively correlated with propionate molar ratio and *Cytophaga/Bacteroides*-like bacteria, likely due to their ability for starch utilization (42).

The differential response of clostridia to the available substrates with hulless and common barleys, oats and oat groats was confirmed by qPCR of dominant bacterial groups in the second experiment. However, the *in vivo* contribution of these bacterial species might be overestimated with in the current *in vitro* method as we used a buffered medium. For example, bacteria such as *Ruminococcus sp.* were shown to exert less

metabolic activity below pH 6.3 (16). Furthermore, the abundances of *Bacteroides* increase and *Roseburia*-like species decrease with a shift from pH 5.5 to 6.5 (40).

Salmonella infections are among the most frequent and widespread zoonotic diseases in the world. Since there might be opportunities to reduce the prevalence of *Salmonella* using feeding strategies, a co-inoculation model was developed to study the effect of cereal CHO on *Salmonella* proliferation *in vitro*. There was no reduction of *Salmonella* counts due to different fermentable substrates indicating that *Salmonella* was able to survive in the buffered system and occupy an ecological niche and without and challenge through a hosts' immune response. In a recent study by Martin-Peláez et al., (25), *Salmonella* counts were significantly reduced with lactulose as a substrate.

However, in their study Martin-Peláez et al. (25) used very high numbers of *Salmonella* ($>\log 7.0$ cfu), which would not naturally occur during a normal *Salmonella* infection. Callaway et al. (7), by using an *in vitro* simulation technique of ruminal fermentation, revealed that pectin could significantly reduce the prevalence of *Salmonella*. This was in part confirmed by our results, but only the relative proportion of *Salmonella* was reduced with pectin. Although this might represent a beneficial effect, when interpreted as competitive exclusion and reduction in relative *Salmonella* abundance, it appears that *in vitro* system have too many limitations to study nutritional effects on pathogen proliferation (26). However, it is not clear to which extent such results could be transferred to *in vivo* conditions and actually reduce *Salmonella* colonization and or the transmission among animals.

Conclusions

The current study reveals that differences in CHO composition between cereal cultivars of the same grain type, can affect the pig intestinal microbial ecophysiology. These effects were furthermore revealed by multivariate canonical analysis showing the usefulness of this approach when studying the intestinal microbial ecophysiology and nutrient-microbe interactions. However, irrespective of grain type, positive correlations were found between acetate production, cellulolytic bacteria and cellulose content; butyrate production and either amylose and/or β -glucan contents; and propionate production and amylopectin. This indicates typical ecophysiological signatures of CHO fractions, namely amylose/amylopectin ratio and β -glucan content in the pig intestinal tract. Effects between cultivars not only result in different microbial ecological response, but could affect the susceptibility of the host to opportunistic pathogens such as *Salmonella enterica* due to trend of relative amounts in some hulless barley varieties.

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Table 1. List of primers used for quantitative real-time PCR

target	sequence	amplicon	annealing	reference
organism	(5'-3')	size	Temp.	
		(bp)	(°C)	
total bacteria	CGGYCCAGACTCCTACGGG TTACCGCGGCTGCTGGCAC	200	60	21
<i>Clostridium</i>	AAATGACGGTACCTGACTAA	440	50	28
cluster XIVa	CTTTGAGTTTCATTCTTGCGAA			
<i>Clostridium</i>	GCACAAGCAGTGGAGT	239	50	27
cluster IV	CTTCCTCCGTTTTGTCAA			
<i>Clostridium</i>	TACCHRAGGAGGAAGCCAC	346	63	34
cluster I	GTTCTTCCTAATCTCTACGCAT			
<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	CTTCCTCCGTTTTGTCAA GRCCTTCCTCTCAGAACCC	212	60	27
Lactobacilli	GCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTTCCA GCATTYCACCGCTACACATG	346	55	41
Enterobacteria	CCTACTTCTTTTGCAACCCACTC ATGGCTGTCGTCAGCTCGT	364	60	8
<i>Salmonella</i>	AGCCAACCATTGCTAAATTGGCGCA GGTAGAAATTCCCAGCGGGTACTG	430	60	1

Table 2. Mean \pm SD and range (minimum - maximum) of the *in vitro* dry matter digestibility, fermentation kinetics parameters and bacterial metabolite profiles of the 4 cereals.

Cereal type	Hulless barleys		Hulled barleys		Oats		Oat groats	
	n=10		n=6		n=6		n=6	
<i>fermentation parameters</i>								
dDM ¹ (%)	64.7 ± 10.4	45.0 - 75.3	66.4 ± 5.9	55.1 - 71.1	64.0 ± 3.5	59.3 - 68.9	87.9 ± 1.1	86.3 - 89.7
lag t (h)	1.8 ± 1.3	0.9 - 4.2	1.9 ± 0.8	1.0 - 2.3	1.1 ± 1.2	0.4 - 3.6	1.3 ± 0.2	1.1 - 1.4
T1/2 (h)	9.4 ± 0.7	8.3 - 10.5	10.5 ± 0.2	10.2 - 10.8	18.8 ± 6.4	11.6 - 30.0	8.6 ± 0.5	8.0 - 9.1
Vf (ml g ⁻¹ DM)	77 ± 25	47 - 124	62 ± 15	48 - 88	34 ± 17	25 - 67	22 ± 2	19 - 25
<i>short chain fatty acids</i>								
Acetate (%) ²	53.3 ± 0.5	52.5 - 54.4	56.8 ± 0.5	55.9 - 57.4	66.2 ± 4.0	59.7 - 71.2	55.3 ± 1.1	53.8 - 56.7
Propionate (%)	23.2 ± 0.9	22.0 - 24.5	21.6 ± 0.7	20.3 - 22.1	20.4 ± 1.5	19.1 - 23.3	25.7 ± 0.7	24.6 - 26.6
Butyrate (%)	16.3 ± 0.7	15.1 - 17.2	15.8 ± 0.7	14.9 - 16.9	10.2 ± 1.5	7.6 - 12.0	12.9 ± 0.4	12.3 - 13.3
BCFA (%)	5.7 ± 0.7	5.3 - 6.1	4.4 ± 0.7	4.1 - 5.0	2.5 ± 1.5	0.7 - 4.2	5.5 ± 0.4	5.2 - 5.7
total SCFA (mg/g)	478 ± 51	374 - 535	378 ± 23	354 - 418	198 ± 94	131 - 380	414 ± 33	365 - 459

¹ dDM = digestible dry matter, T1/2 = half time to asymptotic gas production, lag t = lag time, Vf = amount of gas produced/g cereal before hydrolysis, SCFA = short chain fatty acids, BCFA = branched chain fatty acids

² results are presented as % of total SCFA

Table 3. Quantitative real-time PCR analysis (Mean±SD) of total bacterial counts (log 16S rDNA gene copy numbers/ml of fermentation broth) and the relative contribution (%) of six bacterial groups and *Salmonella* to the overall bacterial community after 24h of *in vitro* fermentation of hydrolyzed cereal varieties, pectin and Tryptone Soya Broth (TSB) using pig feces as inoculum and co-inoculation of *Salmonella enterica* after 6h. Different superscripts (^{abcd}) within a column indicate significant ($P<0.05$) differences.

cereal cultivar/ growth medium	Total bacteria log copies/ml	Cl. cluster XIVa %	Cl. cluster IV %	Cl. cluster I %	<i>Bacteroides</i> %	Lactobacilli %	Enterobacteria % x 10 ⁻²	<i>Salmonella</i> % x 10 ⁻⁴
<i>Hulless barleys</i>								
SB90354	10.4 ^a	39.5 ^a	26.0 ^{cd}	11.0 ^a	7.6 ^{bc}	0.2 ^{bc}	2.7 ^a	0.5 ^{cd}
SB90300	10.1 ^{ab}	23.4 ^b	35.6 ^{bc}	12.1 ^a	4.4 ^d	0.3 ^{bc}	1.3	0.6 ^{cd}
SR93139	10.1 ^{abc}	28.2 ^b	30.8 ^{bcd}	10.5 ^a	6.7 ^{bcd}	0.2 ^{bc}	0.4 ^c	0.4 ^{cd}
CDC McGwire	10.3 ^{ab}	23.1 ^b	33.6 ^{bcd}	9.3 ^a	4.2 ^d	0.2 ^{bc}	0.4 ^c	0.3 ^d
CDC Fibar	10.1 ^{ab}	25.7 ^b	37.2 ^b	10.4 ^a	8.7 ^{ab}	0.2 ^{bc}	0.3 ^c	0.2 ^d
SH99250	10.3 ^a	24.2 ^b	24.8 ^d	9.9 ^a	5.3 ^{bcd}	0.1 ^c	0.2 ^c	0.2 ^d
SB94893	10.2 ^{ab}	26.4 ^b	31.8 ^{bcd}	11.4 ^a	3.6 ^d	0.2 ^{bc}	0.3 ^c	0.2 ^d
<i>Common barleys</i>								

Mc Leod	10.1 ^{ab}	24.6 ^b	24.1 ^d	10.0 ^a	10.9 ^a	0.2 ^b	0.8 ^{bc}	0.9 ^{bcd}
AC Metcalfe	9.9 ^{bc}	25.6 ^b	40.4 ^b	14.3 ^a	5.7 ^{bcd}	0.4 ^b	0.4 ^c	0.5 ^{cd}
<i>Oats</i>								
CDC Dancer	9.9 ^{bc}	20.1 ^b	39.4 ^b	4.1 ^b	8.3 ^{abc}	0.3 ^{bc}	1.2 ^{abc}	1.6 ^{ab}
CDC Sol-Fi	9.7 ^c	24.4 ^b	53.9 ^a	5.2 ^b	6.2 ^{bcd}	1.0 ^a	0.9 ^{bc}	0.7 ^{cd}
CDC SO-I	9.8 ^c	21.0 ^b	57.3 ^a	4.4 ^b	8.3 ^{ab}	0.6 ^a	0.7 ^c	1.2 ^{abc}
<i>Oat groats</i>								
CDC Dancer groats	10.2 ^{ab}	26.7 ^b	30.5 ^{bcd}	2.1 ^b	5.9 ^{bcd}	0.4 ^{bc}	1.1 ^{ab}	0.8 ^{cd}
CDC Sol-Fi groats	9.9 ^{bc}	28.3 ^b	37.5 ^b	3.5 ^b	7.1 ^{bcd}	0.4 ^{bc}	0.7 ^c	0.7 ^{cd}
CDC SO-I groats	10.1 ^{ab}	25.8 ^b	34.0 ^{bcd}	3.2 ^b	4.6 ^{cd}	0.3 ^{bc}	0.5 ^c	0.4 ^{cd}
pectin	10.3 ^a	41.1 ^a	43.4 ^a	2.5 ^b	6.4 ^{bcd}	0.2 ^{bc}	0.6 ^c	0.3 ^d
TSB	10.1 ^{ab}	21.5 ^b	30.1 ^{bcd}	4.6 ^b	3.7 ^d	0.7 ^a	1.6 ^{abc}	0.7 ^{cd}
blank	9.7 ^{cd}	19.4 ^b	48.1 ^a	10.5 ^a	11.6 ^a	0.8 ^a	2.3 ^a	2.0 ^a
<i>SEM</i>	0.042	29.661	43.486	8.054	5.322	0.038	0.009	0.000

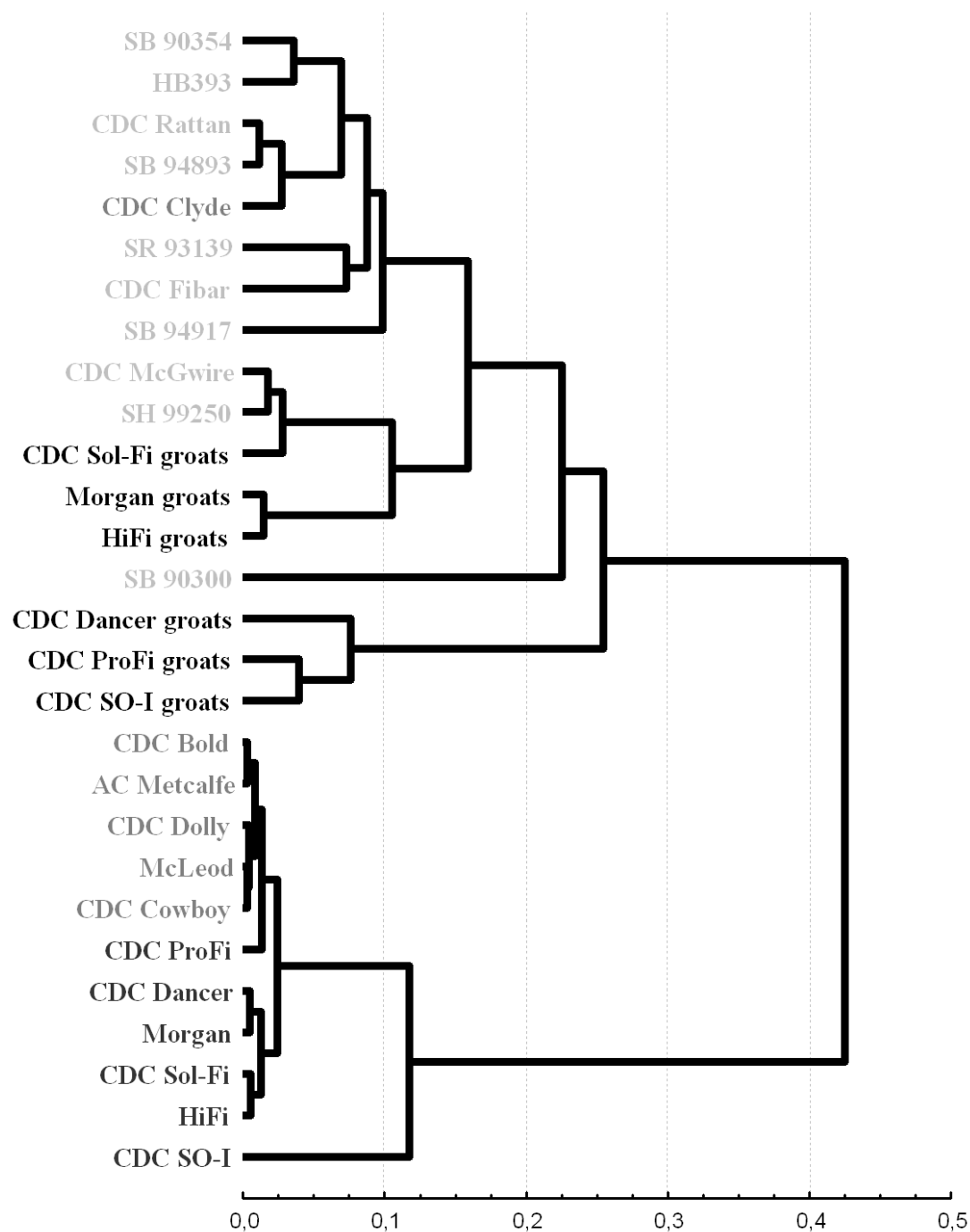


Figure 1. Cluster analysis based on the relative TRF abundances in bacterial TRFLP profiles after 72h fermentation of 10 varieties of **hulless barleys**, 6 **common barleys**, 6 **oats** and 6 **oat groats**. The cluster was constructed based on Pearson correlation and UPGMA algorithm using Statistica software. The scale bar represents the relative similarity of profiles.

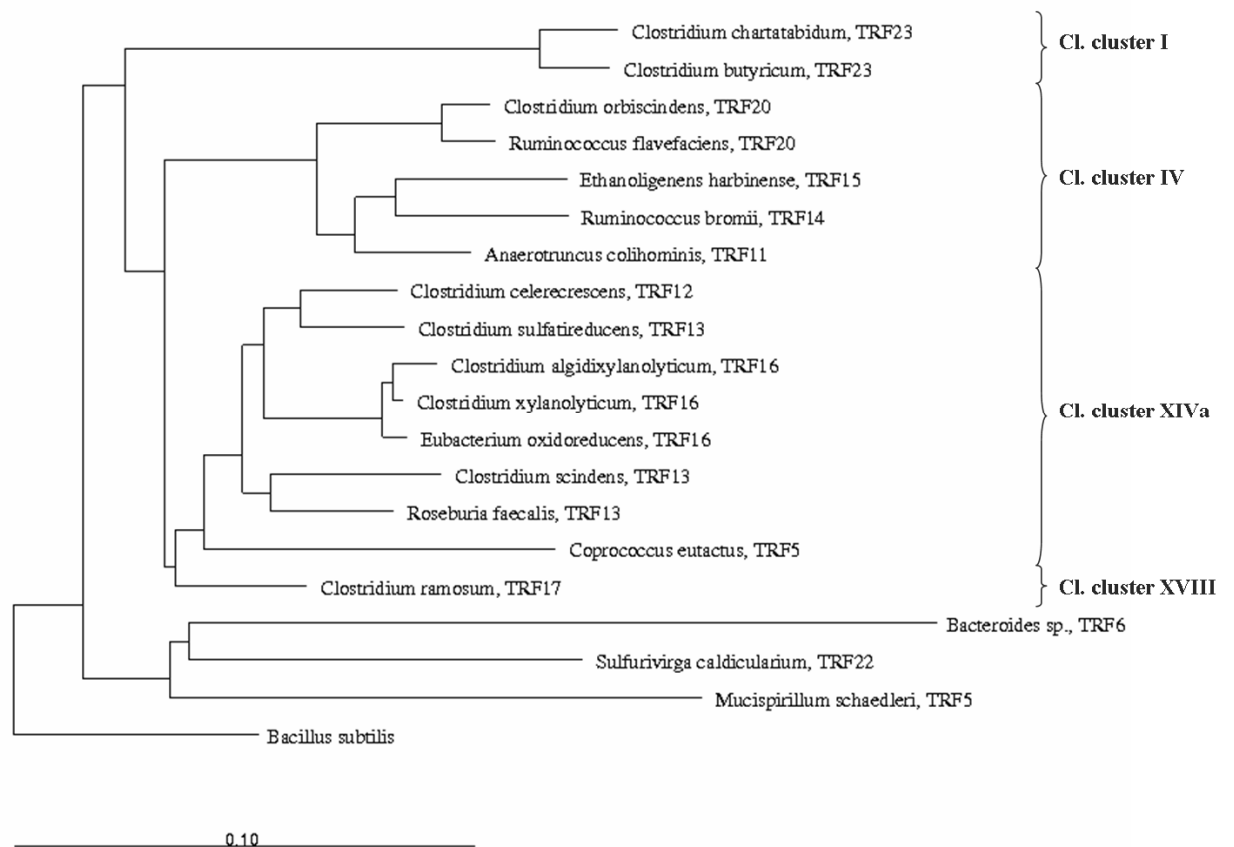
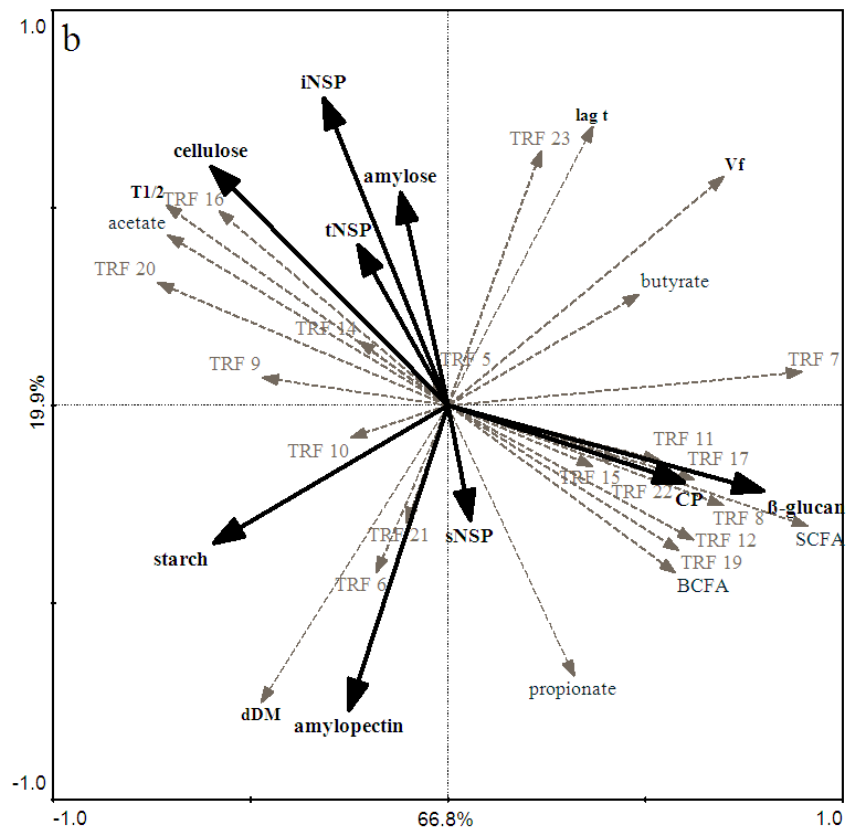
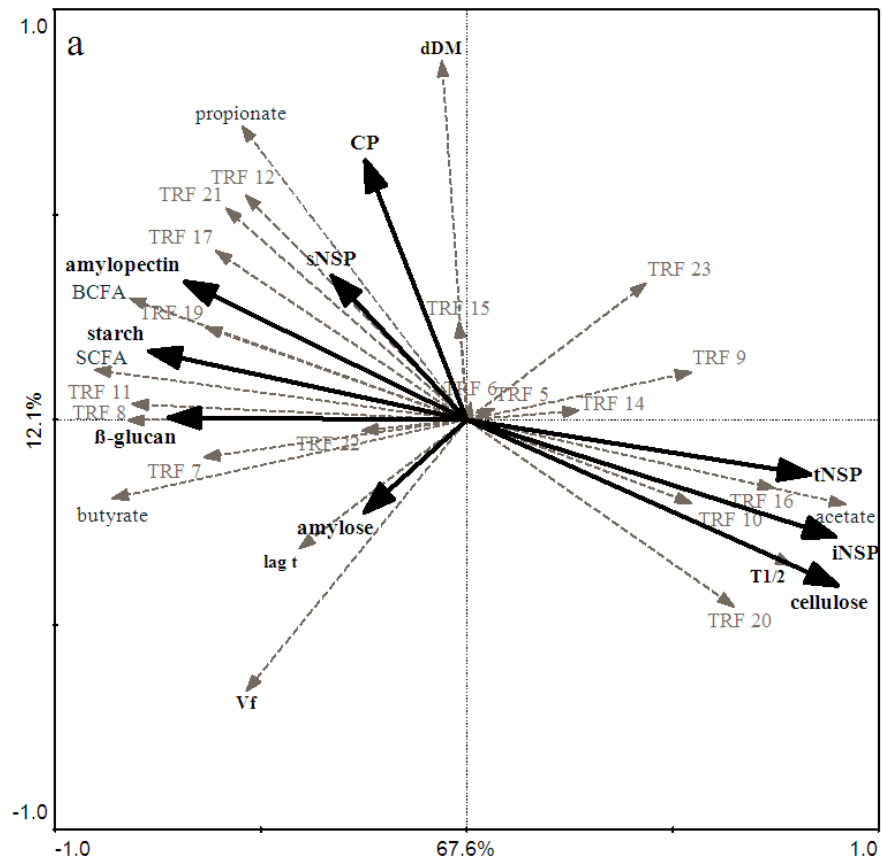


Figure 2. Neighbour joining tree showing the phylogenetic relationships of partial 16S rRNA gene sequences obtained in the study. TRF peak numbers from TRFLP analysis are indicated behind the species name and refer to the RDA analysis in Figure 3.

Bacillus subtilis was used to root the tree. The bar indicates the calculated evolutionary distance of 10%.



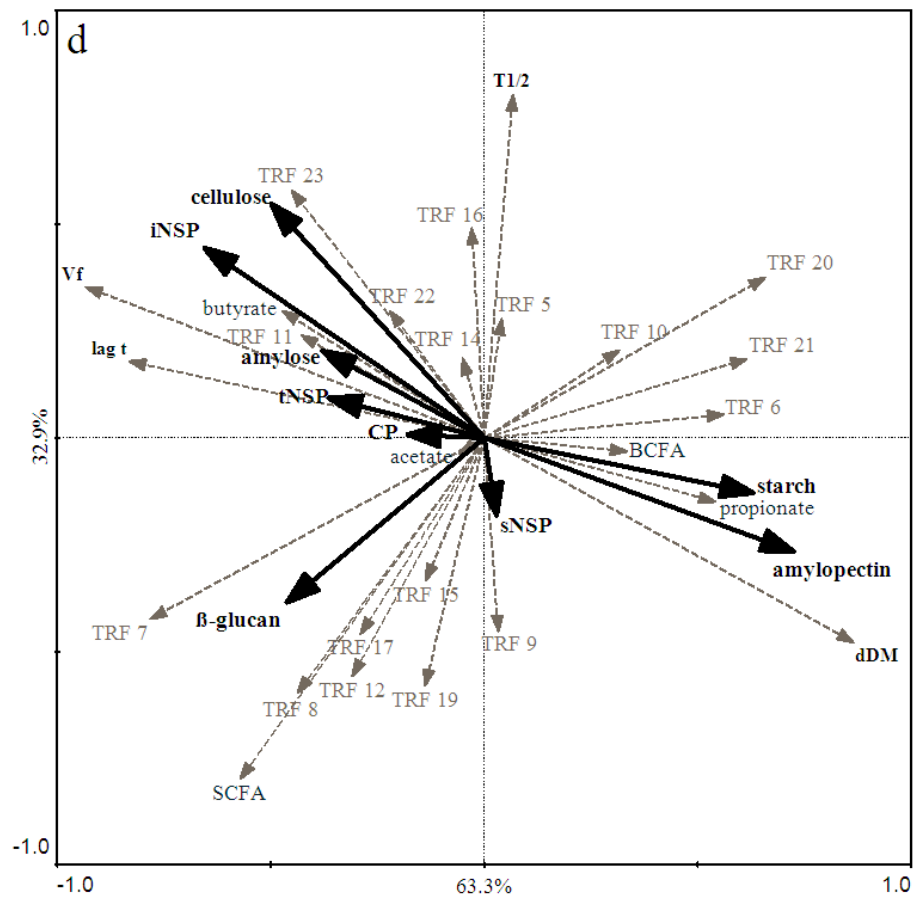
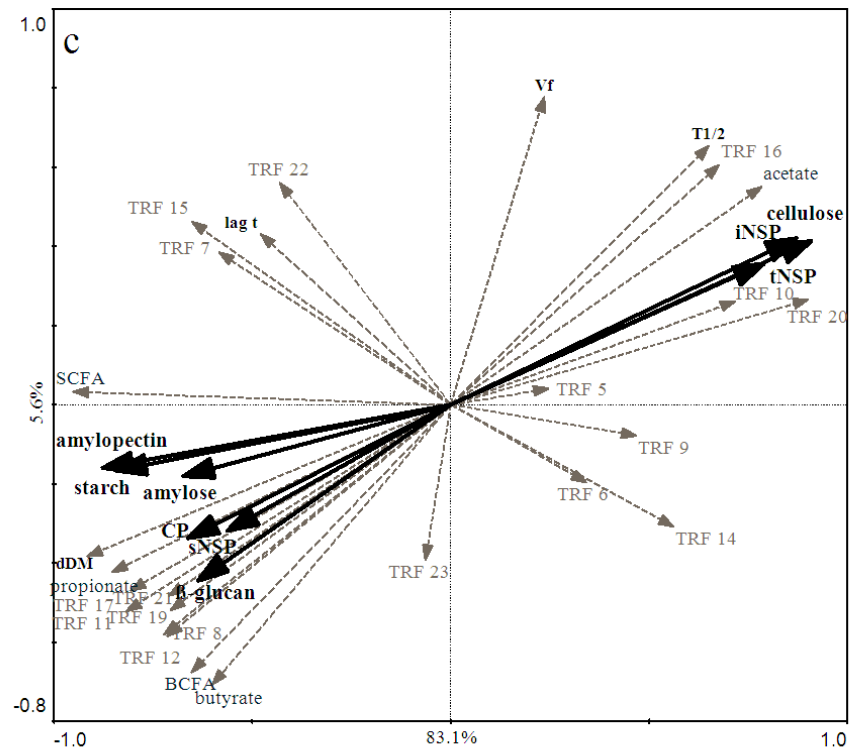


Figure 3a-d. Redundancy analysis (RDA) of the effect of nutrient composition (**black arrows**) on response variables (dashed arrows) including *in vitro* fermentation characteristics (**dDM, T1/2, Vf, lag t**), dominant bacterial phylotypes (TRF #, referring to species in Figure 2) and bacterial metabolite molar ratios (SCFA, BCFA, acetate, propionate, butyrate). RDA was performed for all cereals together (n=28, **a**), barleys only (n=16, **b**), oat and oat groats only (n=12, **c**), and hulless barleys only (n=10, **d**). Within the RDA analysis, the length, direction and the angle between arrows are a direct measure of correlations between variables or variables and canonical axes (e.g. $\alpha = 0^\circ/r = 1$; $\alpha = 90^\circ/r = 0$; $\alpha = 180^\circ/r = -1$). Percentage values on axis 1 and 2 (e.g. 67.6% and 12.1% in Figure 3a) indicate the proportions of variability of data that are described with the respective canonical axis in the model. Significance of overall model and the effect of nutrients were tested using Monte Carlo permutation test (n=499)

Table S1. Chemical composition of cereal varieties

Name	DM ¹	OM	CP	EE	cellulose	lignin	starch	amylose	amylo- pectin	β -glucan	NSP		
											total	insoluble	soluble
	%	g/kg	g/kg	g/kg	g/kg	g/kg	g/kg	% of total	starch	g/kg	g/kg	g/kg	g/kg
<i>Hulless barleys</i>													
SB 90354	90.5	984	161	25	21	6	604	27	73	77	117	52	66
SB 90300	90.7	983	174	23	25	6	604	26	74	46	93	40	53
CDC Rattan	90.6	979	164	33	20	5	534	10	91	87	123	57	66
SR 93139	91.0	982	179	31	19	6	544	11	89	112	132	47	85
CDC McGwire	90.4	983	152	28	29	6	589	26	74	60	77	54	23
CDC Fibar	91.0	981	197	35	25	12	525	7	93	127	153	52	101
SH 99250	90.9	979	177	19	31	08	495	39	61	91	114	57	58
SB 94893	91.4	977	183	21	46	11	507	46	54	87	125	89	36
SB 94917	92.3	975	178	26	45	14	519	10	90	93	149	81	68

HB393	91.2	979	193	26	31	10	488	10	90	86	91	59	32
<hr/> <i>Common barleys</i>													
CDC Bold	92.3	975	141	16	68	21	598	28	72	47	119	93	26
CDC Dolly	90.4	973	154	16	50	12	559	28	72	59	172	98	74
McLeod	91.0	973	142	20	65	15	570	32	68	51	137	123	14
AC Metcalfe	90.4	976	141	23	59	17	582	28	72	53	151	74	77
CDC Cowboy	90.8	975	161	18	64	16	549	27	73	41	135	71	64
CDC Clyde	89.8	974	145	21	53	13	565	27	73	50	139	71	68
<hr/> <i>Oats</i>													
CDC Dancer	91.4	963	156	51	115	37	459	24	76	30	166	142	23
Morgan	92.4	970	117	41	170	50	377	25	75	31	261	204	57
CDC ProFi	92.2	966	166	51	123	43	403	27	73	49	258	190	68
CDC Sol-Fi	91.5	963	186	40	157	59	345	23	77	38	215	184	31
HiFi	91.7	970	162	52	143	44	322	23	77	51	226	197	29

CDC SO-I	91.5	963	153	66	150	23	418	23	77	29	218	194	25
<hr/>													
<i>Oat groats</i>													
CDC Dancer	90.9	981	195	54	17	9	597	24	76	48	132	76	56
Morgan	91.8	979	164	57	28	12	600	24	76	55	153	92	61
CDC ProFi	91.7	982	227	73	17	8	510	22	78	84	150	63	87
CDC Sol-Fi	90.8	981	255	58	17	11	533	22	78	68	148	45	104
HiFi	91.1	982	226	76	30	16	442	22	78	92	123	78	45
CDC SO-I	90.9	980	197	85	25	15	462	21	79	72	132	83	59

¹ DM = dry matter, OM = organic matter, EE = ether extract, CP = crude protein, NSP = non-starch polysaccharides

Table S2. Dry matter digestibility (dDM) during pepsin-pancreatin hydrolysis, *in vitro* gas production kinetics parameters (L, T1/2, Vf), total short-chain fatty acid (SCFA) production and molar ratios of individual SCFA after 72 h of *in vitro* fermentation with a fecal inoculum from growing pigs of the hydrolyzed residues of the different barley and oat varieties.

Name	dDM	L	T1/2	Vf	total SCFA	Molar ratio of SCFA			
						Acetate	Propionate	Butyrate	BCFA
	g/kg	h	h	ml/gDM cereal	mg/g	% of total SCFA			
SB 90354	0.713 ^f	2.1 ^{bcd}	9.1 ^{ef}	64.2 ^g	488.8 ^{abcde}	53.2 ^{hi}	23.1 ^{gh}	16.8 ^{ab}	5.3 ^{abcd}
SB 90300	0.753 ^d	1.0 ^d	10.5 ^{ef}	46.6 ^k	373.5 ^{ghi}	52.8 ⁱ	23.9 ^{efg}	16.1 ^{ab}	6.1 ^a
CDC Rattan	0.666 ⁱ	1.1 ^d	9.4 ^{ef}	74.0 ^e	455.6 ^{abcde fgh}	53.0 ^{hi}	23.9 ^{efg}	16.2 ^{ab}	5.4 ^{abc}
SR 93139	0.690 ^{gh}	1.2 ^d	8.3 ^{ef}	70.3 ^f	514.2 ^{ab}	52.5 ⁱ	24.3 ^{def}	16.0 ^{ab}	5.6 ^{abc}
CDC McGwire	0.734 ^e	1.0 ^d	9.6 ^{ef}	59.3 ^h	518.2 ^{ab}	53.7 ^{ghi}	22.1 ^{hi}	17.0 ^{ab}	5.6 ^{abc}
CDC Fibar	0.706 ^{fg}	1.2 ^d	8.5 ^{ef}	64.2 ^g	535.5 ^a	53.1 ^{hi}	24.5 ^{de}	15.1 ^{abcd}	5.9 ^{ab}
SH 99250	0.512 ⁿ	4.0 ^a	9.6 ^{ef}	114.6 ^b	505.8 ^{abc}	53.2 ^{hi}	22.2 ^{hi}	17.2 ^a	5.5 ^{abc}
SB 94893	0.450 ^o	4.2 ^a	10.1 ^{ef}	123.5 ^a	499.7 ^{abcd}	53.4 ^{hi}	22.0 ^{ij}	17.0 ^{ab}	5.8 ^{abc}

SB 94917	0.549 ^m	1.1 ^d	9.9 ^{ef}	94.3 ^c	413.3 ^{defghi}	53.3 ^{hi}	23.4 ^{fg}	16.5 ^{ab}	5.4 ^{abc}
HB393	0.697 ^{gh}	0.9 ^d	9.2 ^{ef}	62.3 ^g	473.0 ^{abcdef}	54.4 ^{fghi}	23.1 ^{gh}	15.3 ^{abc}	5.9 ^{ab}
CDC Bold	0.711 ^{gt}	1.0 ^d	10.5 ^{ef}	48.3 ^{jk}	368.9 ^{hi}	57.4 ^e	22.1 ^{hi}	15.4 ^{abc}	4.1 ^f
CDC Dolly	0.696 ^{fgh}	1.4 ^{cd}	10.2 ^{ef}	55.4 ⁱ	359.5 ⁱ	56.8 ^{ef}	22.1 ^{hi}	15.7 ^{ab}	4.2 ^f
McLeod	0.551 ^m	3.2 ^{abc}	10.5 ^{ef}	88.2 ^d	382.9 ^{ghi}	56.6 ^{ef}	20.3 ^{lm}	16.9 ^{ab}	4.3 ^{ef}
AC Metcalfe	0.682 ^h	2.0 ^{bcd}	10.4 ^{ef}	57.3 ^{hi}	380.9 ^{ghi}	57.0 ^e	21.4 ^{ijk}	16.0 ^{ab}	4.1 ^f
CDC Cowboy	0.693 ^{gh}	1.6 ^{cd}	10.8 ^{ef}	51.2 ^j	354.9 ⁱ	57.2 ^e	21.8 ^{ij}	14.9 ^{bde}	5.0 ^{cde}
CDC Clyde	0.651 ⁱ	2.3 ^{bcd}	10.8 ^{ef}	68.6 ^f	417.6 ^{cdefghi}	55.9 ^{efg}	22.1 ^{hi}	16.0 ^{ab}	4.6 ^{def}
CDC Dancer	0.689 ^h	0.7 ^d	17.3 ^c	24.5 ^{mno}	177.4 ^j	65.1 ^c	20.4 ^{kl}	10.9 ^{ghij}	2.8 ^{gh}
Morgan	0.593 ^l	0.7 ^d	20.5 ^b	27.5 ^m	147.8 ^j	68.2 ^b	19.1 ⁿ	10.1 ^{ij}	2.0 ^h
CDC ProFi	0.669 ⁱ	1.0 ^d	11.6 ^e	32.6 ^l	212.1 ^j	59.7 ^d	23.3 ^g	12.0 ^{fghi}	4.2 ^{ef}
CDC Sol-Fi	0.628 ^{jk}	0.4 ^d	14.2 ^d	24.9 ^{mno}	130.9 ^j	64.8 ^c	20.7 ^{jkl}	10.7 ^{hij}	3.1 ^g
HiFi	0.619 ^k	0.1 ^d	19.3 ^b	25.2 ^{mn}	140.1 ^j	68.4 ^b	19.3 ^{mn}	9.7 ^{jk}	2.1 ^h
CDC SO-I	0.639 ^j	3.6 ^{ab}	30.0 ^a	67.2 ^f	379.9 ^{ghi}	71.2 ^a	20.0 ^{lmn}	7.6 ^k	0.7 ⁱ

CDC Dancer	0.897 ^a	1.1 ^d	8.4 ^{ef}	19.3 ^p	437.9 ^{bcdefghi}	54.9 ^{efghi}	25.8 ^{ab}	13.1 ^{def}	5.5 ^{abc}
Morgan	0.877 ^{bc}	1.1 ^d	9.1 ^{ef}	19.7 ^p	397.4 ^{fghi}	56.5 ^{ef}	24.6 ^{cde}	13.1 ^{def}	5.2 ^{bcd}
CDC ProFi	0.876 ^{bc}	1.1 ^d	8.1 ^f	24.6 ^{mno}	459.4 ^{abcdefg}	53.8 ^{ghi}	26.6 ^a	13.0 ^{efg}	5.7 ^{abc}
CDC Sol-Fi	0.879 ^{bc}	1.5 ^{cd}	8.0 ^f	23.0 ^{nop}	421.2 ^{cdefghi}	55.5 ^{efgh}	25.6 ^{abc}	12.6 ^{fgh}	5.7 ^{abc}
HiFi	0.863 ^c	1.4 ^{cd}	8.9 ^{ef}	21.1 ^{op}	364.5 ⁱ	56.7 ^{ef}	25.2 ^{bcd}	12.3 ^{fgh}	5.3 ^{abcd}
CDC SO-I	0.884 ^b	1.3 ^d	9.0 ^{ef}	21.8 ^{nop}	404.9 ^{efghi}	54.4 ^{fghi}	26.3 ^a	13.3 ^{cdef}	5.3 ^{abcd}
SEM	0.00667	0.13	0.54	2.86	13.0	0.575	0.227	0.290	0.147

Different superscripts within a column indicate significant ($P<0.05$) differences.

