

1 **Gut microbiota and fecal short chain fatty acids differ with adiposity and country of origin:**  
2 **The METS-Microbiome Study**

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29 Funding: This work is supported by the National Institutes of Health grant R01-DK111848

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33

## 34 Abstract

35 The relationship between the gut microbiota, short chain fatty acid (SCFA) metabolism, and  
36 obesity remains unclear due to conflicting reports from studies with limited statistical power.  
37 Additionally, this association has rarely been explored in large scale diverse populations. Here,  
38 we investigated associations between fecal microbial composition, predicted metabolic potential,  
39 SCFA concentrations, and obesity in a large ( $N=1,934$ ) adult cohort of African-origin spanning  
40 the epidemiologic transition, from Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, Seychelles, and the United  
41 States (US). The greatest gut microbiota diversity and total fecal SCFA concentration was found  
42 in the Ghanaian population, while the lowest levels were found in the US population, respectively  
43 representing the lowest and the highest end of the epidemiologic transition spectrum. Country-  
44 specific bacterial taxa and predicted-functional pathways were observed, including an increased  
45 prevalence of *Prevotella*, *Butyrivibrio*, *Weisella* and *Romboutsia* in Ghana and South Africa, while  
46 *Bacteroides* and *Parabacteroides* were enriched in Jamaican and the US populations.  
47 Importantly, 'VANISH' taxa, including *Butyricoccus* and *Succinivibrio*, were significantly enriched  
48 in the Ghanaian cohort, reflecting the participants' traditional lifestyles. Obesity was significantly  
49 associated with lower SCFA concentrations, a decrease in microbial richness, and dissimilarities  
50 in community composition, and reduction in the proportion of SCFA synthesizing bacteria  
51 including *Oscillospira*, *Christensenella*, *Eubacterium*, *Alistipes*, *Clostridium* and *Odoribacter*.  
52 Further, the predicted proportions of genes in the lipopolysaccharide (LPS) synthesis pathway  
53 were enriched in obese individuals, while genes associated with butyrate synthesis via the  
54 dominant pyruvate pathway were significantly reduced in obese individuals. Using machine  
55 learning, we identified features predictive of metabolic state and country of origin. Country of origin  
56 could accurately be predicted by the fecal microbiota (AUC = 0.97), whereas obesity could not be  
57 predicted as accurately (AUC = 0.65). Participant sex (AUC = 0.75), diabetes status (AUC = 0.63),  
58 hypertensive status (AUC = 0.65), and glucose status (AUC = 0.66) could all be predicted with  
59 different success. Interestingly, within country, the predictive accuracy of the microbiota for  
60 obesity was inversely correlated to the epidemiological transition, being greatest in Ghana (AUC  
61 = 0.57). Collectively, our findings reveal profound variation in the gut microbiota, inferred  
62 functional pathways, and SCFA synthesis as a function of country of origin. While obesity could  
63 be predicted accurately from the microbiota, the variation in accuracy in parallel with the  
64 epidemiological transition suggests that differences in the microbiota between obesity and non-  
65 obesity may be larger in low-to-middle countries compared to high-income countries. Further  
66 examination of independent study populations using multi-omic approaches will be necessary to  
67 determine the factors that drive this association.

## 68 **Introduction**

69 Obesity, which affects more than 600 million adults worldwide (“Obesity and Overweight” n.d.),  
70 over a third of Americans (Hales et al. 2020), and accounts for over 60% of deaths related to high  
71 body mass index (BMI) (Tseng and Wu 2019), remains an ongoing global health epidemic that  
72 continues to worsen at an alarming rate. A major driver of obesity is the adoption of a western  
73 lifestyle, which is characterized by excessive consumption of ultra-processed foods. Obesity is a  
74 major risk factor for type 2 diabetes, and according to the most recent National Diabetes Statistics  
75 Report almost 13% of the adult US population now have diabetes. Not only do 49.6% of adult  
76 African Americans present with obesity but over 17% of them now have diabetes, and are 1.5  
77 times as likely to present with type 2 diabetes compared to whites (“National Diabetes Statistics  
78 Report” 2022). Populations of African-origin outside of the US are experiencing similar fates, as  
79 the prevalence of obesity among adults living in Sub-Saharan Africa is greater than 13%, and  
80 higher than the global obesity prevalence for adults (Agyemang et al. 2016). This has been  
81 accompanied by dramatic increases in the prevalence of non-communicable diseases such as  
82 type two diabetes and hypertension among people of African-origin (Roth et al. 2020; Gouda et  
83 al. 2019). Therefore, disrupting the rapidly expanding obesity epidemic, particularly among  
84 African-origin populations is critical to controlling the cardiometabolic disorder epidemic (Geng et  
85 al. 2022). However, successfully managing and treating obesity and its comorbidities, and  
86 specifically maintaining weight loss long-term, is particularly challenging due to an incomplete  
87 understanding of the heterogeneous and complex etiopathology, as well as additional challenges  
88 facing populations experiencing rapid urbanization (Nordmo, Danielsen, and Nordmo 2020; Geng  
89 et al. 2022; Barone et al. 2022). The epidemiologic transition is a model able to capture these  
90 shifts in dietary and rural to urban movements and is characterized by diets that are high in ultra-  
91 processed foods with a significant loss in fiber, as evidenced in the US, where less than 50% of  
92 the population meet dietary fiber recommendations (Dahl and Stewart 2015).

93 Gut microbial ecology and metabolism play pivotal roles in the onset and progression of obesity  
94 and its related metabolic disorders (Ley 2010). Obese and lean individuals have reported  
95 differences in the composition and functional potential of the gut microbiome, with an overall  
96 reduction in species diversity in the obese gut (Dugas, Bernabé, et al. 2018; Greenblum,  
97 Turnbaugh, and Borenstein 2012; Jumpertz et al. 2011; Ley et al. 2006; Turnbaugh et al. 2009;  
98 Le Chatelier et al. 2013), additionally, fecal microbiota transfer from obese donors to mouse  
99 models can recapitulate the obese phenotype (Turnbaugh et al. 2006, 2008; Ridaura et al. 2013).  
100 Further, fecal microbiota transplant from healthy donors into patients with obese and metabolic  
101 syndrome has been shown to improve markers of metabolic health in the recipients (Vrieze et al.  
102 2012). While these studies suggest that modification of microbial ecology may offer new options  
103 for the treatment and prevention of obesity, the mechanism that drives the microbiota-obesity  
104 relationship is not fully understood. The microbiota may facilitate greater energy exploitation from  
105 food, and storage capacity by the host (Turnbaugh et al. 2006; DiBaise et al. 2008), influencing  
106 adipose tissue composition and fat mass gain, as well as providing chronic low-grade  
107 inflammation and insulin resistance (Cani and Delzenne 2009; J. L. Sonnenburg and Bäckhed  
108 2016).

109 Among the numerous microbial metabolites modulating obesity, there is an ever-growing interest  
110 in the role of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), which includes butyrate, acetate, and propionate as

111 potential biomarkers for metabolic health as well as therapeutic targets. SCFAs derive primarily  
112 from microbial fermentation of non-digestible dietary fiber in the colon. They have many effects  
113 on host metabolism including serving as an energy source for host colonocytes, used as  
114 precursors for the biosynthesis of cholesterol, lipids, proteins and regulating gut barrier activities  
115 (Dalile et al. 2019; Koh et al. 2016; van der Hee and Wells 2021). Human and animal studies  
116 demonstrate a protective role of SCFAs in obesity and metabolic disease. In experimental animal  
117 models, SCFA supplementation reduces body weight, improves insulin sensitivity, and reduces  
118 obesity-associated inflammation (Vinolo et al. 2011; Gao et al. 2009; Henagan et al. 2015; Lu et  
119 al. 2016; Bonomo et al. 2020). In humans, increased gut production of butyrate correlates with  
120 improved insulin response after an oral glucose-tolerance test (Sanna et al. 2019). Although  
121 increased SCFA levels are generally observed as positive for health (Valdes et al. 2018), other  
122 studies have suggested that overproduction may promote obesity, possibly resulting from greater  
123 energy accumulation (Schwiertz et al. 2010; Rahat-Rozenbloom et al. 2014; Teixeira et al. 2013).  
124 Indeed, a previous study observed greater fecal SCFA concentrations to be linked with obesity,  
125 increased gut permeability, metabolic dysregulation, and hypertension in a human cohort (de la  
126 Cuesta-Zuluaga, Mueller, et al. 2018).

127 The conflicting obesity role of SCFAs identified by existing studies may result from the variation  
128 in the gut microbiota, which is shaped by lifestyle and diet. Adequately powered studies in well-  
129 characterized populations may permit more rigorous assessments of individual differences. Prior  
130 comparative epidemiological studies have broadly focused on either contrasting the gut  
131 microbiota of extremely different populations, such as the traditional hunter-gatherers and urban-  
132 westernized countries, or ethnically homogenous populations (Pasolli et al. 2019; He et al. 2018;  
133 Peters et al. 2018; Zhernakova et al. 2016). Demographic factors represent one of the largest  
134 contributors to the individualized nature of the gut microbiome (Falony et al. 2016; Zhernakova et  
135 al. 2016; Yatsunenکو et al. 2012). Thus, it is unclear to what extent the associations between gut  
136 microbiome, SCFA and obesity generalize across different geographies and this, additionally  
137 limits our understanding and interpretation, especially when considering the substantial  
138 geographic disparities in obesity.

139 The five diverse, well-defined cohorts from the Modeling the Epidemiologic Transition Study  
140 (METS) offers a unique opportunity to examine the issues since they are more representative of  
141 most of the world's population. METS has longitudinally followed an international cohort of  
142 approximately 2,500 African-origin adults spanning the epidemiologic transition from Ghana,  
143 South Africa, Jamaica, Seychelles, and the US since 2010 to investigate differences in health  
144 outcomes utilizing the framework of the epidemiologic transition. Pioneering microbiome studies  
145 from the METS cohorts reveal that cardiometabolic risk factors including obesity is significantly  
146 associated with reduced microbial diversity, and the enrichment of specific taxa and predicted  
147 functional traits in a geographic-specific manner (Dugas, Bernabé, et al. 2018; Fei et al. 2019).  
148 While yielding valuable descriptions of the connections between the gut microbiota ecology and  
149 disease, particularly obesity, as well as pioneering the efforts of microbiome studies of populations  
150 of African-origin on different stages of the ongoing nutritional epidemiologic transitions, these  
151 studies, however, have applied small sample size (N=100 to N=655), and also did not utilize all  
152 the countries in the METS cohort. Thus, uncertainties remain as to the precise interpretation of

153 the microbiome-obesity associations, which hampers further progress towards diagnostic and  
154 clinical applications.

155 Our new study METS-Microbiome investigated associations between the gut microbiota  
156 composition and functional patterns, concentrations of fecal SCFAs and obesity in a large  
157 ( $N = 1,934$ ) adult population cohort of African-origin, comprised of Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica,  
158 Seychelles, and the US spanning the epidemiologic transition (Dugas, Lie, et al. 2018; Luke et al.  
159 2011). The central hypothesis is that shifts towards the highest end of the epidemiologic transition  
160 spectrum is associated with alterations in microbiota diversity and community composition,  
161 reductions in levels of fecal SCFAs and obesity.

162

### 163 ***Materials and Methods***

164 Study Cohort. Since 2010, METS, and the currently funded METS-Microbiome study has  
165 longitudinally followed an international cohort of African-origin adults spanning the epidemiologic  
166 transition from Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, Seychelles, and US (Dugas, Lie, et al. 2018; Luke  
167 et al. 2011). METS utilizes the framework of the epidemiologic transition to investigate differences  
168 in health outcomes based on country of origin. The epidemiologic transition is defined using the  
169 United Nations Human Development Index (HDI) as an approximation of the epidemiologic  
170 transition. Ghana represents a lower-middle income country, South Africa represents a middle-  
171 income country, Jamaica and Seychelles represent high income countries and the US represents  
172 a very high-income country. This framework has allowed us to investigate aspects of increased  
173 Westernization throughout the world (ex. increased consumption of ultra-processed foods) are  
174 related to increased prevalence of obesity, diabetes and cardiometabolic diseases. Our data from  
175 the original METS cohort demonstrate that the epidemiologic transition has altered habitual diets  
176 in the international METS sites, and that reduced fiber intake is associated with higher metabolic  
177 risk, inflammation, and obesity across the epidemiologic transition (Mehta et al. 2021). Originally,  
178 2,506 African-origin adults (25–45 yrs), were enrolled in METS between January 2010 and  
179 December 2011 and followed on a yearly basis. In 2018, METS participants were recontacted  
180 and invited to participate in METS-Microbiome. Participants were excluded from participating in  
181 the original METS study if they self-reported an infectious disease, including HIV-positive  
182 individuals, pregnancy, breast-feeding or any condition which prevented the individual from  
183 participating in normal physical activities. METS-Microbiome was approved by the Institutional  
184 Review Board of Loyola University Chicago, IL, US; the Committee on Human Research  
185 Publication and Ethics of Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi,  
186 Ghana; the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Cape Town, South Africa; the Board  
187 for Ethics and Clinical Research of the University of Lausanne, Switzerland; and the Ethics  
188 Committee of the University of the West Indies, Kingston, Jamaica. All study procedures were  
189 explained to participants in their native languages, and participants provided written informed  
190 consent after being given the opportunity to ask any questions.

191 Participant anthropometry, sociodemographic and biochemical measurements. Participants  
192 completed the research visits at the established METS research clinics located in the respective  
193 communities (Luke et al. 2011). Briefly, they presented themselves at the site-specific research  
194 clinic early in the morning, following an overnight fast. The weight of the participant was measured

195 without shoes and dressed in light clothing to the nearest 0.1 kg using a standard digital scale  
196 (Seca, SC, USA). Height was measured using a stadiometer without shoes and head held in the  
197 Frankfort plane to the nearest 0.1 cm. Waist circumference was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm  
198 at the umbilicus, while hip circumference was measured to the nearest 0.1 cm at the point of  
199 maximum extension of the buttocks. Adiposity (% body fat) was assessed using BIA (Quantum,  
200 RJL Systems, Clinton Township, MI), and study specific equations (Luke et al. 2011). Blood  
201 pressure was measured using the standard METS protocol using the Omron Automatic Digital  
202 Blood Pressure Monitor (model HEM-7471c, Omron Healthcare, Bannockburn, IL, USA), with the  
203 antecubital fossa at heart level. Participants were asked to provide a fecal sample using a  
204 standard collection kit (EasySampler stool collection kit, AlpcO, NH). Fecal samples were placed  
205 within a -80° freezer immediately upon receipt at all the sites. Participants were requested to fast  
206 from 8 pm in the evening prior to the clinic examination, during which fasting capillary glucose  
207 concentrations were determined using finger stick (Accu-check Aviva, Roche).

208 Fecal Short Chain Fatty Acid quantification. As in our previous studies (Nooromid et al. 2020;  
209 Lewandowski et al. 2021; Reiman, Layden, and Dai 2021; Barengolts et al. 2019; Navarro et al.  
210 2018; Dugas, Bernabé, et al. 2018), fecal SCFAs were measured using LC-MC/MS at the  
211 University of Illinois-Chicago Mass Spectrometry Core using previously published methods  
212 (Moreau et al. 2003; Richardson et al. 1989). The LC-MC/MS analysis was completed on an AB  
213 Sciex Qtrap 5500 coupled to Agilent UPLC/HPLC system. All samples were analyzed by Agilent  
214 poroshell 120 EC-C18 Column, 100Å, 2.7 µm, 2.1 mm X 100 mm coupled to an Agilent UPLC  
215 system, which was operated at a flow rate of 400 µl/min. A gradient of buffer A (H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.1% Formic  
216 acid) and buffer B (Acetonitrile, 0.1% Formic acid) were applied as: 0 min, 30% of buffer B;  
217 increase buffer B to 100% in 4 min; maintain B at 100% for 5 min. The column was then  
218 equilibrated for 3 min at 30% B between the injections with the MS detection is in negative mode.  
219 The MRM transitions of all targeted compounds include the precursor ions and the signature  
220 production ion. Unit resolution is used for both analyzers Q1 and Q3. The MS parameters such  
221 as declustering potential, collision energy and collision cell exit potential are optimized in order  
222 to achieve the optimal sensitivity. SCFAs are presented as individual SCFAs (µg/g), including:  
223 butyric acid, propionic acid, acetic acid and valeric acid, as well as total SCFAs (sum of 4).

224 METS data showed Ghanaians consumed the greatest amount of both soluble and insoluble fiber  
225 and had the lowest percentage energy from fat (42.5% of the Ghanaian cohort, dietary fiber intake:  
226 24.9 g ± 9.7g/day). The US has the highest proportion of energy from fat and the lowest fiber  
227 intake of the five sites (3.2% of the US cohort, dietary fiber intake: 14.2 g ± 7.1 g/day).

228 DNA extraction, Amplicon Sequencing. Fecal samples were shipped on dry ice to the microbiome  
229 core sequencing facility, University of California, San Diego for 16S rRNA gene processing. Fecal  
230 samples were randomly sorted, transferred to 96-well extraction plates and DNA was extracted  
231 using MagAttract Power Microbiome kit. Blank controls and mock controls (ZymoBiomix) were  
232 included per extraction plate, which were carried through all downstream processing steps.  
233 Extracted DNA was used for amplification of the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene with 515F-806R  
234 region-specific primers according to the Earth Microbiome Project (Thompson et al. 2017; Walters  
235 et al. 2016). Purified amplicon libraries were sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq platform to  
236 produce 150 bp forward and reverse reads through the IGM Genomics Center, University of  
237 California San Diego. Full DNA extraction, amplification, quantification, and sequencing protocols

238 and standards are available at <http://www.earthmicrobiome.org/protocols-and-standards>;  
239 (Thompson et al. 2017).

240 *Bioinformatic analysis.* The generated raw sequence data were uploaded and processed in Qiita  
241 (Gonzalez et al. 2018) (Qiita ID 13512) an open-source, web-enabled microbiome analysis  
242 platform. Sequences were demultiplexed, quality filtered, trimmed, erroneous sequences were  
243 removed, and amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were defined using Deblur (Amir et al. 2017).  
244 The deblur ASV table was exported to Qiime2 (Bolyen et al. 2019; Bokulich et al. 2018) and  
245 representative sequences of the ASVs were inserted into the Greengenes 13.8 99% identity tree  
246 with SATé-enabled phylogenetic placement (SEPP) using q2-fragment-insertion (Bolyen et al.  
247 2019; Mirarab, Nguyen, and Warnow 2012) to generate an insertion tree for diversity computation.  
248 Additionally, the deblur ASV table was assigned taxonomic classification using the Qiime2  
249 feature-classifier, with Naive Bayes classifiers trained on the SILVA database (version 138;  
250 (McLaren 2020)). A total of 463,258,036 reads, 154,952 ASVs and 1902 samples were obtained  
251 from the deblur table. The resulting ASV count table, taxonomy data, insertion tree, and sample  
252 metadata were exported and merged into a phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes 2013) object in R  
253 (R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) for downstream analysis. Features with  
254 less than ten reads in the entire dataset and samples with fewer than 6,000 reads were removed  
255 from the phyloseq object. In addition, mitochondrial and chloroplast-derived sequences, non-  
256 bacterial sequences, as well as ASVs that were unassigned at phylum level were filtered prior to  
257 analyses. There were 433,364,873 reads and 13254 ASVs in the remaining 1873 fecal samples  
258 in the phyloseq object. The remaining samples after filtering were rarefied to a depth of 6,000  
259 reads to avoid sequencing bias, before generating alpha diversity measures, leaving 9917 ASVs  
260 across 1873 samples.

261 *Diversity and differential proportional analyses:* Alpha diversity measures based on Observed  
262 Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs), Faith's Phylogenetic Diversity, and Shannon Index were  
263 conducted on rarefied samples using phyloseq (McMurdie and Holmes 2013) and picante (Kembel  
264 et al. 2010) libraries. Beta diversity was determined using both weighted and unweighted UniFrac  
265 distance matrices (Lozupone and Knight 2005), generated in phyloseq. For differential abundance  
266 analysis, samples were processed to remove exceptionally rare taxa. First, the non-rarefied reads  
267 were filtered to remove samples with < 10,000 reads. Next, ASVs with fewer than 50 reads in total  
268 across all samples and/or were present in less than 2% of samples were excluded. This retained  
269 2061 ASVs across 1694 samples. The retained ASVs were binned at genus level, and  
270 subsequently used in the analysis of compositions of microbiomes with bias correction  
271 (ANCOMBC; (H. Lin and Peddada 2020) to determine specific taxa differentially abundant across  
272 sites or obese phenotype. ANCOM-BC is a statistical approach that accounts for sampling  
273 fraction, normalizes the read counts by a process identical to log-ratio transformations while  
274 controlling for false discovery rates and increasing power. This method applies a library-specific  
275 offset term estimated from the observed abundance, which is incorporated into a linear regression  
276 model, providing the bias correction. Site, age, sex, BMI were added as covariates in the ANCOM-  
277 BC formula to reduce the effect of confounders. The *Bacteroides Prevotella* ratio was calculated  
278 by dividing the abundance of the genera *Bacteroides* by *Prevotella*. Participants were classified  
279 into *Bacteroides* enterotype (B-type) if the ratio was greater than 1, otherwise *Prevotella*  
280 enterotype (P-type).

281 Random forest classifier: Random Forest supervised learning models implemented in Qiime2  
282 were used to estimate the predictive power of microbial community profiles for site and obese  
283 phenotype. The classifications were done with 500 trees based on 10-fold cross-validation using  
284 the QIIME “sample-classifier classify-samples” plugin (Bokulich et al. 2018). A randomly drawn  
285 80% of samples were used for model training, whereas the remaining 20% were used for  
286 validation. Further, the 30 most important ASVs for differentiating between site or obese  
287 phenotype were predicted and annotated.

288 Predicted metabolic gene pathway analysis: The functional potential of microbial communities  
289 was inferred using the Phylogenetic Investigation of Communities by Reconstruction of  
290 Unobserved States 2 (PICRUSt2) v2.5.1 with the ASV table processed to remove exceptionally  
291 rare taxa and the representative sequences as input files (Douglas et al. 2020). The metabolic  
292 pathway from the PICRUSt2 pipeline was annotated using the MetaCyc database (Caspi et al.  
293 2016). The predicted MetaCyc abundances (unstratified pathway abundances) were analyzed  
294 with ANCOM-BC to determine differentially abundant pathway associations across sites and  
295 obese status. Site, age, sex, BMI were added as covariates in the ANCOM-BC formula to reduce  
296 the effect of confounders.

297 Statistical Analysis: All statistical analyses and graphs were done with R software. Kruskal-Wallis  
298 test and Permutational Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) test with 999 permutations using the  
299 Adonis function in the vegan package (Oksanen et al. 2013) were performed to compare alpha  
300 and beta diversity measures respectively with multiple groups comparison correction.  
301 PERMANOVA models were adjusted for BMI, age, sex for country whereas age, sex and country  
302 were accounted for in obese groups. Variables that showed significant differences in the  
303 PERMANOVA analyses, PERMDISP test was performed to assess differences in dispersion or  
304 centroids. For differential abundance analysis, the false-discovery rate (FDR) method  
305 incorporated in the ANCOM-BC library was used to correct P values for multiple testing. A cut-off  
306 of  $P_{adj} < 0.05$  was used to assess significance. Spearman correlations were performed between  
307 concentrations of short chain fatty acids, Shannon diversity or concentrations of short chain fatty  
308 acids and differentially abundant taxa that were identified either among study sites or in obese  
309 and non-obese individuals. The resulting p-values were adjusted for multiple testing using the  
310 false-discovery rate (FDR). P value  $< 0.05$  was considered statistically significant. A mixed model  
311 was built using lme4 package to assess whether total SCFAs could be predicted by Shannon  
312 diversity, obesity, and country, setting obesity and Shannon diversity as fixed effects and random  
313 intercept by country.

314 Data availability: All 16S rRNA gene sequence data are publicly available via the QIITA platform  
315 (<https://qiita.ucsd.edu>) under the study identifier (ID=13512) and will soon be available on the  
316 European Bioinformatics Institute (EBI) site.

317

318



## 319 **Results**

320 *Obesity differs significantly across the epidemiological transition.* From 2018-2019, the METS-  
321 Microbiome study recruited 2,085 participants (~60% women) ages 35-55 years old from five  
322 different sites (Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, Seychelles, and US). Of these participants, 1,249  
323 have been followed on a yearly basis since 2010 under the parent METS study. Data from 1,867  
324 participants with complete data sets were used in this analysis. Overall mean age was  $42.5 \pm 8.0$   
325 years (**Table 1**). Mean fasted blood glucose was  $105.2 \pm 39.4$  mg/dL, mean systolic blood  
326 pressure was  $123.4 \pm 18.1$  mm Hg and mean diastolic blood pressure was  $77.2 \pm 13.1$  (**Table 1**).  
327 When compared to the high-income countries (Jamaica, Seychelles, and US), both women and  
328 men from the lower- and middle-income countries (Ghana and South Africa) had significantly  
329 lower BMI, fasted blood glucose and blood pressure (systolic and diastolic). Mean BMI was lowest  
330 in the South African men ( $22.3 \text{ kg/m}^2 \pm 4.1$ ) and highest in US women ( $36.3 \text{ kg/m}^2 \pm 8.8$ ). When  
331 compared to the US, all sites had significantly lower prevalence of obesity ( $p < 0.001$  for all sites  
332 except for Seychelles:  $p = 0.02$ ). Prevalence of hypertension was lowest in Ghanaian men (33.1%)  
333 and highest in US men (72.7%). Prevalence of diabetes was lowest in South African women and  
334 men (3.5% for women and men) and highest for Seychellois men (22.8%). When compared to  
335 the US, prevalence of hypertension and diabetes was significantly lower in countries at the lower  
336 end of the spectrum of HDI (i.e., Ghana and South Africa) when compared to the US ( $p < 0.001$ ).

337 *Microbial community composition and predicted metabolic potential differs significantly between*  
338 *countries and correlates with obesity.* Following the removal of control samples and those that  
339 had fewer than 6,000 reads and features less than ten reads in the entire dataset, a total of  
340 433,364,873 16S rRNA gene sequences were generated from the 1,873 fecal samples which  
341 were clustered into 13,254 ASVs. Country of origin describes most of the variation in microbial  
342 diversity and composition, with significant differences in both alpha and beta diversity. Although  
343 there were major variations in alpha diversity between countries and large degree of inter-  
344 individual variation within countries, Ghana showed significantly greater diversity for all the alpha  
345 diversity metrics (Observed ASVs, Shannon Diversity and Faith's phylogenetic diversity) when  
346 compared to all other countries. The Seychelles and US had the lowest alpha diversity (**Figure 1,**  
347 **Table 2**). The stool microbiota alpha diversity of non-obese individuals was significantly greater  
348 when compared with that of obese individuals (**Figure 1**). Beta diversity was also significantly  
349 different between countries (**Figure 1, Table 3 & Supplementary Table 2**; principal coordinate  
350 analysis, weighted UniFrac distance; F-statistic = 58.67;  $p < 0.001$ ; unweighted UniFrac distance;  
351  $F = 39.87$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ) and obese group (weighted UniFrac distance; F-statistic = 2.39;  $p = 0.031$ ;  
352 unweighted UniFrac distance;  $F = 6.06$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ).

353 Next, we compared fecal microbiota diversity between obese individuals with their non-obese  
354 counterparts within each country independently (**Supplementary Table 1**). Greater alpha  
355 diversity was detected in non-obese subjects in the Ghanaian (Observed ASVs, Faith PD;  $p < 0.05$ )  
356 and South African cohorts (Observed ASVs;  $p < 0.05$ ) only. Similarly, significant differences in beta  
357 diversity between obese and non-obese microbiota were observed in Ghana (Unweighted  
358 UniFrac;  $p < 0.05$ ), South Africa (Unweighted UniFrac;  $p < 0.05$ ) and US (Weighted UniFrac;  
359  $p < 0.05$ ) data sets (**Table 3 & Supplementary Table 2**). These results suggest that the beta  
360 diversity differences observed in the Ghanaian and South African participants may partly be due  
361 to the presence of more abundant fecal microbiota taxa in the fecal samples whereas among the

362 US participants, the differences may be related to the abundance of rare taxa. Collectively, these  
363 observations suggest that country is a major driver of the variance in gut microbiota diversity and  
364 composition among participants with or without obesity with marked contributions from Ghana  
365 and South Africa and modest contribution from the US in the overall cohort.

366 We also examined whether country of origin or obesity relates to the presence of specific microbial  
367 genera frequently used to stratify humans into enterotypes (Arumugam et al. 2011). As expected,  
368 large differences in enterotype between the countries were observed. The *Prevotella* enterotype  
369 (P-type) was enriched on the African continent, with 81% and 62% in Ghanaians and South  
370 Africans respectively while *Bacteroides* enterotype (B-type) was dominant in the US (75%),  
371 Jamaican cohorts (68%), and comparable proportions of both enterotypes among individuals from  
372 Seychelles. Further, obese individuals displayed a greater abundance of B-type whereas a higher  
373 proportion of the P-type associated with the non-obese group (**Supplementary Table 3**).  
374 Consistent with this observation, the abundance of B-type correlated with higher BMI ( $p=0.004$ )  
375 than P-type. Significantly greater diversity and increased levels of total SCFA were observed in  
376 participants in the P-type (**Supplementary Table 3**). The relative abundance of shared and  
377 unique features between the different countries illustrated by the Venn diagram showed that  
378 Ghana carries the largest proportion of unique taxa than the other countries, and US the lowest  
379 (**Figure 1**).

380 Microbial taxa differ significantly between countries and between lean and obese individuals. In  
381 comparison with the US, South African fecal microbiota had a significantly greater proportion of  
382 *Clostridium*, *Olsenella*, Bacilli and *Mogibacterium*; Jamaican samples had a significantly greater  
383 proportion of Bacilli, *Bacteroides*, Clostridia, *Dialister*, Enterobacteriaceae, and Oscillospiraceae;  
384 Seychelles samples had a significantly greater proportion of *Clostridium*, *Olsenella* and  
385 *Haemophilus*; and Ghanaian samples had a significantly greater proportion of *Clostridium*,  
386 *Prevotella*, *Weisella*, Enterobacteriaceae and Butyricocccaceae. The US samples had a  
387 significantly greater proportion of *Aldercreutzia*, *Anaerostipes*, *Clostridium*, *Eggerthella*,  
388 *Eisenbergiella*, Ruminococcaceae and *Sellimonas* compared to the 4 countries (**Supplementary**  
389 **Figure 1**).

390 When adjusted for country, age, and sex ( $p < 0.05$ ; false discovery rate (fdr)-corrected), 38  
391 Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASVs) were significantly different between obese and non-obese  
392 groups. The obese group was characterized by an increased proportion of *Allisonella*, *Dialister*,  
393 *Oribacterium*, *Mitsuokella*, and *Lachnospira*, whereas non-obese microbiota had a significantly  
394 greater proportion of *Alistipes*, *Bacteroides*, *Clostridium*, *Parabacteroides*, *Christensenella*,  
395 *Oscillospira*, Ruminococcaceae (UBA1819), and Oscillospiraceae (UCG010) (**Supplementary**  
396 **Figure 1**).

397 Microbial taxonomic features predict obesity overall and within each country. Using supervised  
398 Random Forest machine learning, the predictive capacity of the gut microbiota features in  
399 stratifying individuals to country of origin, sex, or with metabolic phenotypes were assessed. The  
400 predictive performance of the model was calculated by area under the receiver operating  
401 characteristic curve (AUC) analysis, which showed a high accuracy for country of origin  
402 (AUC = 0.97), and a comparatively lower level of predictive accuracy for obese state (AUC = 0.65)  
403 (**Figure 2**). Sex was predicted with AUC = 0.75, the diabetes status with AUC = 0.63, hypertensive  
404 status with AUC = 0.65 and glucose status with AUC = 0.66. Random Forest analysis was also

405 used to identify the top 30 microbial taxonomic features that differentiate between countries and  
406 obese states. Similar to the ANCOMBC results, *Prevotella* and *Streptococcus* were at a greater  
407 proportion in the microbiota of Ghanaian and non-obese individuals, whereas *Mogibacterium* was  
408 at a greater proportion in the South African cohort. A greater proportion of *Megasphaera* was  
409 associated with the Jamaican cohort, while a greater proportion of Ruminococcaceae was  
410 observed in the American microbiota. *Weisella*, which was identified as having a significantly  
411 greater proportion in the Ghanaian cohort using ANCOMBC, was observed to be a discriminatory  
412 feature for Seychelles microbiota using Random Forest (**Supplementary Figure 2**).

413 Similarly, the predictive capacity of the gut microbiota features in stratifying individuals by obese  
414 state was assessed at each of the five study sites. The predictive performance of the model was  
415 calculated by AUC analysis, which showed a moderate accuracy for obese state for all sites,  
416 namely, Ghana (AUC = 0.57), South Africa (AUC = 0.52), Jamaica (AUC = 0.48), Seychelles  
417 (AUC = 0.43) and US (AUC = 0.52) (**Supplementary Figure 3**).

418 *Predicted genetic metabolic potential differs by country and obesity status.* The predicted potential  
419 microbial functional traits resulting from the compositional differences in microbial taxa between  
420 countries and obese state were assessed. PICRUSt2 predicted a total of 372 MetaCyc functional  
421 pathways. ANCOM-BC analysis adjusted for sex, age and BMI identified 67 pathways ( $p < 0.05$ ;  
422 false discovery rate (fdr)-corrected,  $LFC > 1.4$ ) that accounted for discriminative features between  
423 the 4 different countries with the US (**Supplementary Figure 4**). In comparison with US, MetaCyc  
424 pathways differentially increased in Ghana and Jamaica include methylgallate degradation,  
425 norspermidine biosynthesis (PWY-6562), gallate degradation I pathway, gallate degradation II  
426 pathway, histamine degradation (PWY-6185), and toluene degradation III (via p-cresol) (PWY-  
427 5181). South African samples had a greater proportion of L-glutamate degradation VIII (to  
428 propanoate) (PWY-5088), isopropanol biosynthesis (PWY-6876), creatinine degradation (PWY-  
429 4722), adenosyl cobalamin biosynthesis (anaerobic) (PWY-5507), respiration I (cytochrome c)  
430 (PWY-3781). MetaCyc pathways linked to norspermidine biosynthesis (PWY-6562), mycothiol  
431 biosynthesis (PWY1G-0), were at a greater proportion in the Seychelles samples, whereas  
432 reductive acetyl coenzyme A (CODH-PWY), and chorismate biosynthesis II (PWY-6165) were  
433 depleted in the US samples. ANCOM-BC analysis adjusted for site, sex and age identified 24  
434 predicted pathways that differentiated between obese and non-obese individuals  
435 (**Supplementary Figure 4**). Notably, the microbiota of non-obese individuals had a greater  
436 proportion of predicted pathways including the TCA cycle, amino acid metabolism (P162-PWY,  
437 PWY-5154, PWY-5345), ubiquinol biosynthesis-related pathways (PWY-5855, PWY-5856, PWY-  
438 5857, PWY-6708, UBISYN-PWY), cell structure biosynthesis and nucleic acid processing (PWY0  
439 845, PYRIDOXSYN-PWY).

440 Next, KEGG orthology (KO) involved in pathways related to butanoate (butyrate) metabolism and  
441 LPS biosynthesis were investigated. Predicted genes involved in butyrate biosynthesis pathways  
442 showed that enoyl-CoA hydratase enzymes (K01825, K01782, K01692), lysine, glutarate  
443 /succinate enzymes (K07250, K00135, K00247), glutarate/Acetyl CoA enzymes (K00175,  
444 K00174, K00242, K00241 K01040, K01039) were differentially abundant in participants from  
445 Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, and Seychelles in comparison to the US cohort. The relative  
446 abundance of succinic semialdehyde reductase (K18122) was significantly increased only in  
447 South Africa, Jamaica, and Seychelles population. Further, predicted genes proportionally

448 abundant only in specific countries were observed. For instance, succinate semialdehyde  
449 dehydrogenase (K18119) was enriched only in the Ghanaian cohort, 4-hydroxybutyrate CoA-  
450 transferase (K18122) enriched among South African participants and lysine/glutarate/succinate  
451 enzyme (K14268) differentially abundant within the Seychelles population. The relative  
452 abundance of predicted genes encoded for enzymes such as maleate isomerase (K10799), 3-  
453 oxoacid CoA-transferase(K01027) and pyruvate/acetyl CoA (K00171, K00172, K00169) were  
454 greater in the US participants compared with participants from the 4 countries (**Supplementary**  
455 **Figure 5**). The non-obese exhibited a significantly greater abundance of genes that catalyze the  
456 production of butyrate via the fermentation of pyruvate or branched amino-acids such as enoyl-  
457 CoA hydratase enzyme (K0182), Leucine/Acetyl CoA enzyme (K01640) and pyruvate/acetyl CoA  
458 enzyme (K00171, K00172, K00169, K1907) by contrast obese individuals were differentially  
459 enriched for succinyl-CoA:acetate CoA-transferase (K18118) (**Supplementary Figure 5**). All  
460 analyses were adjusted for country, sex, BMI and age (fdr-corrected  $p < 0.05$ ).

461 Several gut microbial predicted genes involved in LPS biosynthesis differentially enriched among  
462 the countries ( $p < 0.05$ ; false discovery rate (fdr)-corrected) were identified. In particular, the  
463 relative abundance of specific LPS genes (K02560, K12973, K02849, K12979, K12975, K12974)  
464 were significantly enriched in Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, and Seychelles when compared with  
465 US. Higher proportions of LPS genes including K12981, K12976 K09953, K03280 were  
466 significantly increased in Seychelles samples in comparison with US samples and also  
467 significantly increased in the US cohorts in comparison with participants from Ghana, South  
468 Africa, and Seychelles. US samples had a greater proportion of the following genes (K15669,  
469 K09778, K07264, K03273, K03271) in comparison with the other 4 countries (**Supplementary**  
470 **Figure 6**). Non-obese individuals had a greater abundance of predicted genes encoding LPS  
471 biosynthesis (K02841, K02843, K03271, K03273, K19353, K02850) whereas only 1 LPS gene  
472 (K02841) differentially elevated in the non-obese group (**Supplementary Figure 6**). All analyses  
473 were adjusted for country, sex, BMI and age (fdr-corrected  $p < 0.05$ ).

474 Microbial community composition and predicted metabolic potential correlates with observed fecal  
475 SCFA concentrations. All countries had significantly higher weight-adjusted fecal total SCFA  
476 levels when compared to the US participants ( $p < 0.001$ ), with Ghanaians having the highest  
477 weight-adjusted fecal total SCFA levels (**Supplementary Table 4**). When compared to their  
478 obese counterparts, non-obese participants had significantly higher weight-adjusted fecal total  
479 and individual SCFA levels (**Supplementary Table 5**). Total SCFA levels displayed weak, but  
480 significantly positive correlation with Shannon diversity ( $r = 0.074$ ). A similar trend was observed  
481 in the different individual SCFAs, namely valerate ( $r = 0.19$ ), butyrate ( $r = 0.12$ ), propionate ( $r =$   
482  $0.073$ ) and acetate ( $r = 0.058$ ) (**Figure 3**). Observed ASVs were not significantly correlated with  
483 total SCFAs ( $p > 0.05$ ). Levels of acetate, butyrate and propionate exhibited strong significant  
484 correlations with total SCFA, whereas valerate levels significantly correlated negatively ( $r = -0.09$ )  
485 with total SCFAs. Next, we assessed if levels of total SCFAs could be predicted by a mixed model.  
486 Country explained 45.7% of the variation in SCFAs. No significant effect was explained either by  
487 obesity or Shannon diversity.

488 Microbial taxonomy correlates with SCFA concentration and obesity status. To explore the  
489 connection between SCFAs with gut microbiota, Spearman correlations between taxa that were  
490 proportionally significantly different between countries and concentrations of SCFAs were

491 determined. Valerate negatively correlated with the proportion of *Clostridium*, *Prevotella*,  
492 *Faecalibacterium*, *Roseburia* and *Streptococcus*, which were all positively correlated with acetate,  
493 propionate, and butyrate. Similarly, the proportions of Christensenellaceae, *Eubacterium*, and  
494 UCG 002 (Ruminococcaceae) were significantly positively associated with valerate, and  
495 negatively correlated with acetate, propionate, and butyrate. In addition, only a single ASV  
496 annotated to *Ruminococcus* was observed to be positively associated with all 4 SCFAs (**Figure**  
497 **4**). Similarly, Spearman's rank correlation coefficients were calculated between the differentially  
498 abundant ASVs identified between obese and non-obese group with concentrations of SCFAs.  
499 Broadly, the proportions of most ASVs were significantly positively associated with acetate in  
500 comparison with the other 3 SCFAs. Consistent with the correlations mentioned above, valerate  
501 negatively correlated with most ASVs that were found to be positively correlated with the three  
502 major SCFAs, acetate, propionate, and butyrate and vice versa. The relative proportions of ASVs  
503 belonging to *Allisonella*, Erysipelotrichaceae and *Libanicoccus* positively correlated with acetate,  
504 propionate, and butyrate, whereas significantly negative relationships were observed between  
505 *Parabacteroides* and *Bacteroides* abundances with the aforementioned SCFAs. Valerate showed  
506 significantly positive associations with Oscillospirales and Ruminococcaceae abundances and  
507 significantly negative correlations with *Lachnospira* and *Eggerthella* abundances (**Figure 4**).

508

## 509 **Discussion**

510 By leveraging a well characterized large population-based cohort of African origin residing in  
511 geographically distinct regions of Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, Seychelles, and the US, we  
512 examined the relationships between gut microbiota, SCFAs and adiposity. Our data revealed  
513 profound variations in gut microbiota, which are reflected in the significant changes in community  
514 composition, structure, and predicted functional pathways as a function of population obesity and  
515 geography, despite their shared ancestral background. Our data further revealed an inverse  
516 relation between fecal SCFA concentrations, microbial diversity, and obesity; importantly, the  
517 utility of the microbiota in predicting whether an individual was lean or obese was inversely  
518 correlated with the income-level of the country of origin. Overall, our findings are important for  
519 understanding the complex relationships between the gut microbiota, population lifestyle and the  
520 development of obesity, which may set the stage for defining the mechanisms through which the  
521 microbiome may shape health outcomes in populations of African-origin.

522 It has previously been reported that geographic origin can modulate the composition of the gut  
523 microbiota (Yatsunenکو et al. 2012; De Filippo et al. 2010, 2017). Accordingly, taxonomic profiling  
524 revealed significant differences in gut microbiota richness and diversity among the different  
525 countries in a continuum manner. Notably, we detected greater microbiota diversity in Ghana,  
526 while depleted microbiota diversity was associated with the US, representing the lowest and the  
527 highest end along the epidemiologic transition spectrum respectively, while South Africans,  
528 Jamaicans and Seychellois ranked in between. Our findings are consistent with our previous  
529 METS studies (Fei et al. 2019; Dugas, Bernabé, et al. 2018) and other large scale continental  
530 cohort studies (De Filippo et al. 2010, 2017; Yatsunenکو et al. 2012; Schnorr et al. 2014;  
531 Clemente et al. 2015; Rampelli et al. 2015; Gomez et al. 2016; Mancabelli et al. 2017), that report  
532 a higher bacterial diversity and composition/microbial richness in traditionally non-western groups  
533 that distinguish them from urban-industrialized individuals whose diets are low in fiber and high in

534 saturated fats (E. D. Sonnenburg and Sonnenburg 2019; Kolodziejczyk, Zheng, and Elinav 2019).  
535 Although we observe enrichment in the relative abundance of several taxa associated with  
536 country of origin in our cohorts, we also detect a pattern where the gut microbiota of Ghanaian  
537 and South African cohort tends to share many features, while the gut microbiota of the Jamaican  
538 cohort shared many features with all 4 countries, possibly reflecting the ongoing epidemiological  
539 transitional nature of their communities represented by the overlap with western and traditionally  
540 non-western populations. Notably, traditionally non-western associated taxa including *Prevotella*,  
541 *Butyrivibrio*, *Weisella* and *Romboutsia* were enriched in participants from Ghana and South Africa,  
542 as suggested previously (Mancabelli et al. 2017). Western-associated taxa such as *Bacteroides*  
543 and *Parabacteroides* were enriched in individuals from Jamaica and the US (Mancabelli et al.  
544 2017; Kao et al. 2015), while an ASV annotated as *Olsenella* was proportionally abundant in  
545 Seychelles microbiota. *Bifidobacterium* and *Aldercreutzia* were enriched in the US cohort.  
546 *Clostridium sensu stricto* 1 was over-represented in all 4 countries in comparison with the US. We  
547 also found greater enrichment of VANISH taxa including *Butyricicoccus* and *Succinivibrio* in the  
548 Ghanaian cohort, in line with individuals practicing traditional lifestyles (Pasolli et al. 2019).  
549 *Prevotella* is usually associated with plant-based diets rich in dietary fibers, while *Bacteroides*  
550 abundance broadly correlates with diets high in fat, animal protein, and sugars (Gupta, Paul, and  
551 Dutta 2017; Wu et al. 2011), which is in agreement with our enterotype analysis where a  
552 *Prevotella*-rich microbiota dominates the Ghanaian and South African gut, while a *Bacteroides*-  
553 rich microbiota dominated in the high-income countries. *Prevotella* is known to produce high  
554 amounts of SCFAs (T. Chen et al. 2017), so its depletion may be associated with the observed  
555 concomitant reduction in SCFA concentrations. Increased SCFA synthesis is associated with a  
556 reduction in obesity, which is supported by our observations, whereby elevated concentrations of  
557 total SCFA and a concomitant reduction in obesity is associated with the *Prevotella* dominated  
558 gut of the Ghanaian cohort. Our results support a potential role for geography in reinforcing  
559 variations in the gut microbiota in our study cohort despite shared origin. Geography may reflect  
560 subtle shifts in lifestyle and/or environmental exposures including heterogeneity of dietary  
561 sources, exposure to medications, socioeconomic factors, medical history, and biogeographical  
562 patterns in microbial dispersion (Asnicar et al. 2021; Pasolli et al. 2019; Costello et al. 2012; He  
563 et al. 2018).

564 We also inferred the metabolic capacity of the gut microbiota associated with the different  
565 countries. Several metabolic pathways linked to carrier, cofactor and vitamin biosynthesis,  
566 biosynthesis/degradation of amines, amino acids, aromatic xenobiotics, and tricarboxylic acid  
567 (TCA) cycle were differentially enriched between the different countries compared with the US.  
568 These pathways are involved in biochemical reactions that regulate several processes including  
569 energy metabolism, inflammation, epigenetic processes, and oxidative stress. Several of these  
570 observed pathways have been reported in different populations (Yu et al. 2021; Karlsson et al.  
571 2013; N. Qin et al. 2014) indicating that the gut microbiota can directly influence host metabolism,  
572 although a majority of these molecules can also be synthesized by the host or supplied through  
573 diet. In our cohort, functional shifts observed in participants from Ghana and Jamaica included  
574 the enrichment of the metabolic pathway for degradation of gallate. Metabolites generated from  
575 the gallate pathway include phenolic catechin metabolites which are thought to alleviate obesity-  
576 related pathologies and also promote a healthy and beneficial human gut microbiota composition  
577 (Marchesi et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2021). We found pathways related to glutamate degradation which

578 can be fermented to butyrate and propionate enhanced among South Africans and Ghanaians in  
579 comparison with the US. In Seychelles, a pathway involved in mycothiol biosynthesis was  
580 upregulated. Mycothiol is a protective antioxidant produced by the members of the Actinobacteria  
581 phylum and is involved in the removal of toxic compounds from cells (Newton, Buchmeier, and  
582 Fahey 2008). The predicted abundance of mycothiol biosynthesis pathway was identified as  
583 underrepresented in the microbiome of individuals with depressive symptoms in a South Korean  
584 population (S.-Y. Kim et al. 2022).

585 We further identified increased abundances in pathways related to the generation of SCFAs such  
586 as acetyl coenzyme A pathway, threonine biosynthesis and leucine degradation pathway in the  
587 microbiomes of all 4 countries in comparison with the US. Threonine can be metabolized to  
588 SCFAs acetate and propionate (Davila et al. 2013) and indeed, genes linked with threonine  
589 metabolism have been identified in the human gut microbiome (Abubucker et al. 2012). Taken  
590 together, our results suggest that the observed country-specific microbial differences and  
591 abundances accompany variance in the distribution of functional pathways abundances, although  
592 we are unable to ascertain what the sources are that may explain these differences in the  
593 predicted functional enrichment due the inherent limitation in functional resolution of 16S rRNA  
594 sequence data in PICRUSt2 analysis. Further studies are required to evaluate the potential causal  
595 relations of these gut microbial functions with health outcomes using shotgun metagenomic  
596 sequencing which offers robust inferences of functional pathways.

597 Preclinical germ-free mouse models provide early causal links between gut microbial ecology and  
598 obesity (Ley et al. 2005; Bäckhed et al. 2007). Thereafter, follow up studies in human cohorts  
599 have sought to identify a consistent microbiota signature across populations that can be used to  
600 predict obesity. However, identifying obesity-specific microbiome features have proven difficult  
601 because the results are often not in agreement (Finucane et al. 2014). Therefore, we sought to  
602 examine the fecal levels of individual SCFA types and linking to variations in gut microbiota in  
603 obese and non-obese individuals in our large African cohort. The bulk of evidence from prior  
604 studies show that obesity is associated with a less diverse bacterial community (Turnbaugh et al.  
605 2009; Dugas, Bernabé, et al. 2018; Peters et al. 2018). Accordingly, we observed that our obese  
606 group harbor a significantly lower microbiota diversity and differences in community composition.

607 Although the mechanism by which the gut microbiota influences obesity are not fully understood,  
608 several mechanisms have been proposed. For instance, the regulation of host energy metabolism  
609 and body mass concept demonstrate that a perturbed gut bacteria community contributes to the  
610 development of obesity by providing excess energy to the host via the fermentation of indigestible  
611 carbohydrates into SCFAs. Thus, the altered microbiota explains the ability of the host to extract  
612 energy from the diet and further stored in the adipose tissue (Turnbaugh et al. 2006; Jumpertz et  
613 al. 2011). In support of this notion, we identified several SCFA producing bacteria significantly  
614 under-represented or depleted in obese individuals, indicating that SCFAs beneficially regulate  
615 host energy metabolism. For example, the relative abundance of some members of *Oscillospira*  
616 have been reported to be markedly greater in healthy individuals and associates with human  
617 leanness (Beaumont et al. 2016; Konikoff and Gophna 2016; Gophna, Konikoff, and Nielsen  
618 2017). *Oscillospira* utilizes host glycans to produce SCFAs (Konikoff and Gophna 2016; Gophna,  
619 Konikoff, and Nielsen 2017) including butyrate, with beneficial effects on insulin sensitivity, body  
620 weight control and inflammation (M.-H. Kim et al. 2020). One of the strongest links that has been

621 corroborated across several populations between a gut microbial taxa and BMI involves members  
622 of the *Christensenella* genus. They are known to produce SCFAs, acetate and butyrate  
623 (Morotomi, Nagai, and Watanabe 2012) and associate negatively with markers of obesity, much  
624 in agreement with our findings indicating that *Christensenella* may be important for promoting  
625 leanness. We also detected several butyrate producing ASVs including *Eubacterium*, *Alistipes*,  
626 *Clostridium* and *Odoribacter* to be proportionally enriched in individuals who were non-obese.

627 Although we observe more SCFA producing taxa in the non-obese group, we also identify taxa  
628 that are SCFA producers in the obese group. Notably we observe that obese individuals  
629 presented a greater abundance of *Lachnospira*, a finding consistent with our prior study in the  
630 same population (Dugas, Bernabé, et al. 2018), and others (Lippert et al. 2017; Meehan and  
631 Beiko 2014; de la Cuesta-Zuluaga, Corrales-Agudelo, et al. 2018). Contrary to our results, other  
632 studies have shown that a reduction in the abundance of *Lachnospira* positively associates with  
633 obesity (Companys et al. 2021; Stanislawski et al. 2017). It is well known that there are many  
634 SCFA producing gut bacteria, raising questions about whether the observed features can be  
635 precisely attributed to this mechanism or pathway. However, our predicted functional analysis  
636 revealed that genes in the KEGG pathway related to SCFA butyrate synthesis (butanoate  
637 metabolism) were significantly depleted or underrepresented in the obese group compared to the  
638 non-obese counterparts, which further supports the concept that SCFAs are beneficial. Further,  
639 we identified several predicted genes involved in butyrate synthesis via the more-dominant  
640 pyruvate pathway in the non-obese group. Altogether, these results suggest that butyrate-  
641 producing bacteria may offer protection against obesity (X. Chen and Devaraj 2018). Indeed,  
642 butyrate exhibits immunomodulatory effects, improves colon mucosal barrier function, and lowers  
643 inflammation.

644 The SCFA producing microbes dominant in the non-obese group coincided with elevated fecal  
645 SCFA levels in these individuals compared with the obese group, which is in line with previous  
646 results from other studies that have explored the relation between concentrations of fecal SCFAs  
647 and obesity (Yin et al. 2022; Dugas, Bernabé, et al. 2018). Indeed, SCFA supplementation has  
648 been documented to protect against a high-fat diet-induced obesity in mice (H. V. Lin et al. 2012;  
649 Lu et al. 2016) as well as weight gain in humans (Chambers et al. 2015). Conversely, other  
650 studies, mostly from western populations have reported results contrary to our study (Schwiertz  
651 et al. 2010; Fernandes et al. 2014; Riva et al. 2017; de la Cuesta-Zuluaga, Mueller, et al. 2018).  
652 For instance, de la Cuesta-Zuluaga et al observed associations between elevated fecal SCFA  
653 levels, central obesity, gut permeability, and hypertension in a Colombian cohort. The specific  
654 mechanisms that explain the higher fecal SCFA levels among obese individuals remain a matter  
655 of debate and one hypothesis is that disruptions in the obese gut microbiota may lead to less  
656 efficient SCFA absorption, hence the observed increased SCFA excretion (de la Cuesta-Zuluaga,  
657 Mueller, et al. 2018). Along the same line of notion, our findings of a negative association between  
658 obesity and SCFAs could be related to the consumption of diets enriched in fibers and other  
659 dietary precursors of SCFAs resulting in elevated SCFA production compared with SCFA  
660 absorption, thereby reducing energy harvesting and its associated storage as fat. Indeed, diets  
661 high in fiber and Mediterranean diets correlate positively with weight loss (Hu et al. 2013; Esposito  
662 et al. 2011) and increased levels of fecal SCFAs (De Filippis et al. 2016) in human studies. Other  
663 possible explanations for the observed divergences between our studies and others might be



664 attributed to differences in population, medication usage, sample size, microbial production  
665 capacity and intestinal absorption, underscoring the complex relationships between gut  
666 microbiota with SCFA production and host adiposity. Nevertheless, our results demonstrate that  
667 the negative associations between obesity and fecal SCFA levels in our study cohort are  
668 consistent with the positive associations found between decreased obesity and SCFA  
669 synthesizing microbes, although we are aware that fecal SCFA concentrations are not a direct  
670 measure of intestinal SCFA production but rather reflect a net result of the difference between  
671 SCFA production and absorption (Canfora, Jocken, and Blaak 2015). A measurement of the  
672 dynamics of SCFA production and availability with stable isotopes could be determined in future  
673 studies. Altogether, the observed differences in SCFA concentrations between obese and non-  
674 obese individuals and the several SCFA-producing microbes further reinforce the theory that gut  
675 microbiota and its associated SCFA metabolites may have a role in body weight regulation.

676 Another mechanism by which gut microbiota may contribute to obesity is via the metabolic  
677 endotoxemia pathway. Perturbations in the gut microbiota community composition lead to  
678 increased production of plasma lipopolysaccharide (LPS) derived from the cell wall of Gram-  
679 negative bacteria, provoking low-grade inflammation and increased intestinal permeability which  
680 drives adiposity (Zhao 2013; Cani et al. 2008). An increased relative abundance of one ASV  
681 assigned to the genus *Dialister* in the gut community of obese individuals was identified from this  
682 study. Zhang and colleagues reported proportional increases in *Dialister* in obese persons and  
683 suggested that could serve as a potential predictive marker for obesity (Zhang et al. 2021).  
684 Additionally, in our recent study (Fei et al. 2021) we observed an increased relative abundance  
685 of *Dialister* in subjects with short sleep duration, a condition associated with a chronic  
686 inflammatory state. Indeed, *Dialister* has been demonstrated to trigger or aggravate host  
687 inflammatory response and insulin resistance by releasing more lipopolysaccharides (Yang et al.  
688 2022). To strengthen these findings, we further observed that several genes in the LPS  
689 biosynthesis pathway were differentially enriched within the obese group from our predicted  
690 functional analysis. Similar findings have previously been reported where the obese microbiota is  
691 enriched by LPS metabolism, initiating inflammation-dependent processes associated with the  
692 onset of obesity and insulin resistance (Boulangé et al. 2016) and other related metabolic  
693 diseases (Yan et al. 2021; Karlsson et al. 2012; Fei and Zhao 2013; Cani et al. 2007; Fei et al.  
694 2021). Collectively, our results demonstrate that obese individuals harbor a marked inflammatory  
695 state favoring the development of obesity, and this is in concordance with the associated  
696 metabolic endotoxemia pathway linking gut bacteria to obesity.

697 This study additionally detected marked depletion in pathways involved in cell structure  
698 biosynthesis, vitamin B6 biosynthesis, NAD biosynthesis, amino acid metabolism and SCFA  
699 synthesis in our predicted metagenome analysis. Thus, our results further suggest that metabolic  
700 pathways important for growth, energy homeostasis and the maintenance of normal gut function  
701 are disrupted in individuals with obesity. Conversely, in the obese group, we noted an enrichment  
702 of formaldehyde assimilation I (serine pathway) pathway. Ubiquitous formaldehyde can be  
703 derived from food, the environment and generated endogenously as a result of human and  
704 microbial cellular metabolism of many methylated compounds. Endogenous formaldehyde  
705 produced at sufficient levels has carcinogenic properties and detrimental effects on genome  
706 stability. To counteract this reactive molecule, organisms have evolved a detoxification system

707 that converts formaldehyde to formate, a less reactive molecule that can be used for nucleotide  
708 biosynthesis (Reingruber and Pontel 2018; N. H. Chen et al. 2016). Thus, we may infer that the  
709 pattern of increased formaldehyde assimilation pathway in our data might result from a defect or  
710 diminished capacity of formaldehyde detoxification system pathway, an assumption which  
711 requires further verification. A study reported increases in the abundance of formaldehyde  
712 assimilation pathway in a depressed group when compared with non-depressed controls (S.-Y.  
713 Kim et al. 2022). We are the first to show that the gut of obese participants is enriched in the  
714 formaldehyde assimilation pathway. Although we do not understand the mechanistic details, it is  
715 known that toxic formaldehyde is generated along with reactive oxygen species during  
716 inflammatory processes (N. H. Chen et al. 2016). Thus, an increased capacity for formaldehyde  
717 pathway may indicate a microbiome-induced increase in reactive oxygen species in the gut of  
718 obese individuals. Indeed, prior work has identified induction of oxygen stress by microbial  
719 perturbations as one of the mechanisms by which the microbiome can promote weight gain and  
720 insulin resistance (J. Qin et al. 2012). The specific alterations of the gut microbiota and the  
721 associated predicted functionality may constitute a potential avenue for the development of  
722 microbiome-based therapeutics to treat obesity and/or to promote and sustain weight loss.

723 *Study strengths and limitations.* While our study has several strengths including a large sample  
724 size, diverse population along an epidemiological transition gradient with a comprehensive  
725 dataset that allowed the exclusion of the potential effects of origin as well as control of potential  
726 interpersonal covariates, and use of validated and standard tools for data collection, we  
727 acknowledge some limitations as well. First, the cross-sectional nature of our study design is  
728 unable to establish temporality or identify mechanisms by which the gut microbiome may causally  
729 influence the observed associations. In that regard, we expect that prospective data from the  
730 METS cohort study will provide the basis to assess the longitudinal association between gut  
731 microbiota composition, metabolites, and obesity, and we have an ongoing study exploring the  
732 potential correlations longitudinally. The use of 16S rRNA sequencing in our analysis for  
733 inferences on microbial functional ecology inherently has its limitations for drawing conclusions  
734 on species and strain level functionality due to its low resolution. Nevertheless, our results provide  
735 insight into the relationship between obesity, gut microbiota, and metabolic pathways in  
736 individuals of African-origin across different geographies, stimulating further examination of large-  
737 scale studies using multi-omic approaches with deeper taxonomic and functional resolution and  
738 animal transplantation studies to investigate potentially novel microbial strains and to explore the  
739 clinical relevance of the observed metabolic differences.

740

## 741 **Conclusion**

742 This study examined the relationship between the gut microbiota composition and functional  
743 patterns, concentrations of fecal short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) and obesity in a large population  
744 cohort of African origin, from Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, Seychelles, and the United States of  
745 America, spanning the epidemiologic transition. The Ghanaian cohort exhibited the greatest gut  
746 microbiota diversity and the American cohort the least, with corresponding enrichment or  
747 depletion in taxa and predicted functional traits. Ghanaian participants were enriched in VANISH  
748 taxa reflecting their traditional lifestyle. Significant differences in gut microbiota composition and  
749 function were identified in obese individuals compared to the non-obese counterparts. Non-obese

750 individuals were enriched in SCFA-producing microbes which coincided with increased  
751 concentration of total SCFA in feces, extending the evidence that SCFAs mediate body weight  
752 regulation. The predictive accuracy of the microbiota for obesity status was greatest in low-income  
753 countries, and was reduced in high income countries, suggesting that lifestyle traits in high income  
754 countries may result in elevated obesity risk even for lean individuals. The specific alterations of  
755 the gut microbiota and the associated predicted metabolic function may constitute a potential  
756 avenue to guide the development of microbiome-based solutions to treat obesity and/or to  
757 promote and sustain weight loss. Thus, further examination of large-scale studies using multi-  
758 omic approaches with deeper taxonomic and functional resolution and animal transplantation  
759 studies are warranted to confirm the identified taxonomic and metabolic signatures.

760

### 761 ***Acknowledgements***

762 We thank the METS participants who continue their ongoing participation in the METS studies,  
763 as well as the site-specific clinic staff in Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, Seychelles and the US.  
764 The UCSD Microbiome Core performed sample extractions and library preparation utilizing  
765 protocols and primers published on the Earth Microbiome Project website  
766 (<https://earthmicrobiome.org/>). This publication includes data generated at the UC San Diego IGM  
767 Genomics Center utilizing an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 that was purchased with funding from a  
768 National Institutes of Health SIG grant (#S10 OD026929).

769

### 770 ***Contributions***

771 LRD and BTL conceived the study. LRD, CC-K, PB, KB-A, JP-R, TEF, EVL, DR and AL collected  
772 human samples and metadata. GEM, CC-K, DR and AL curated metadata. SD performed  
773 sequencing of samples. GE-M, CC-K and MGM conducted formal analysis and visualization. JAG  
774 and LRD supervised and provided feedback on formal analysis and visualization. GEM, CC-K,  
775 MGM, LRD and JAG wrote the original manuscript. LRD secured the funding. All authors edited  
776 and approved the final manuscript.

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**Table 1. METS-Microbiome participant characteristics from Ghana, South Africa, Jamaica, Seychelles and US**

<b>Women</b>					
	<b>Ghana</b>	<b>South Africa</b>	<b>Jamaica</b>	<b>Seychelles</b>	<b>US</b>
	n=254	n=228	n=263	n=196	n=213
<i>Age (years)</i>	40.74 ± 8.1	35.56 ± 7.8	45.16 ± 7.5	43.84 ± 6.1	45.44 ± 6.4
<i>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</i>	28.30 ± 5.9	33.42 ± 8.6	32.12 ± 7.3	30.32 ± 7.2	36.34 ± 8.8
<i>Obese (%)</i>	45,0%	61,0%	60,4%	49,5%	74,7%
<i>SBP (mm Hg)</i>	117.1 ± 18.5	115.20 ± 17.1	126.08 ± 19.0	123.28 ± 17.8	124.19 ± 18.4
<i>DBP (mm Hg)</i>	70.53 ± 12.2	75.20 ± 12.1	79.41 ± 12.6	79.37 ± 14.4	81.52 ± 12.1
<i>Hypertensive (%)</i>	37,5%	37,3%	57,4%	55,5%	65,4%
<i>Glucose (mg/dL)</i>	110.45 ± 62.7	89.17 ± 20.0	107.46 ± 39.1	111.35 ± 27.2	107.07 ± 44.0
<i>Diabetic (%)</i>	10,0%	3,5%	12,9%	13,9%	19,9%
<b>Men</b>					
	<b>Ghana</b>	<b>South Africa</b>	<b>Jamaica</b>	<b>Seychelles</b>	<b>US</b>
	n=117	n=171	n=133	n=164	n=107
<i>Age (years)</i>	43.92 ± 8.7	36.53 ± 7.2	44.42 ± 7.5	44.57 ± 5.1	47.12 ± 5.5
<i>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</i>	23.7 ± 4.4	22.26 ± 4.1	24.8 ± 5.3	28.46 ± 5.5	30.37 ± 8.2
<i>Obese (%)</i>	13,4%	5,3%	15,7%	39,2%	44,4%
<i>SBP (mm Hg)</i>	121.28 ± 15.4	122.71 ± 15.5	129.23 ± 17.1	130.43 ± 16.2	130.67 ± 16.0
<i>DBP (mm Hg)</i>	68.02 ± 13.0	75.32 ± 11.1	78.07 ± 11.5	81.64 ± 12.1	82.37 ± 12.2
<i>Hypertensive (%)</i>	33,1%	45,0%	50,3%	65,9%	72,7%
<i>Glucose (mg/dL)</i>	100.52 ± 19.4	94 ± 23.4	99.04 ± 33.1	124.26 ± 44.2	107 ± 36.2
<i>Diabetic (%)</i>	4,6%	3,5%	4,8%	22,8%	17,5%

**Table 2. Alpha diversity estimated by Shannon, Observed ASVs and Faith's PD (Phylogenetic Diversity) between countries and obesity status. q-value are FDR-corrected p values representing statistical significance ( $p < 0.05$ ) of alpha diversity metrics between the countries. Data are presented by median (interquartile range). FDR = False Discovery Rate**

		<b>N</b>	<b>Faith's PD</b>	<b>Shannon</b>	<b>Observed</b>
<b>Ghana</b>	Obese	243	19.2(16.2-21.8)	3.73(3.41,4.09)	228(184,267)
	Non-Obese	89	17.9(14.6,21.6)	3.69(3.30,4.05)	217(155,252)
<b>South Africa</b>	Obese	208	17.2(14.0,19.9)	3.21(2.69,3.52)	174(138,212)
	Non-Obese	179	15.9(13.1,19.9)	3.12(2.65,3.54)	165(126,216)
<b>Jamaica</b>	Obese	217	14.2(11.6,17.2)	3.2(2.72,3.56)	146(110,184)
	Non-Obese	147	13.4(11.5,16.5)	3.15(2.69,3.56)	136(108,173)
<b>Seychelles</b>	Obese	233	18(15.1,20.4)	3.51(3.14,3.79)	204(166,246)
	Non-Obese	141	18.6(15.0,22.4)	3.62(3.21,3.98)	212(165,269)
<b>US</b>	Obese	112	13.6(12.1,16.6)	3.23(2.86,3.50)	144(125,180)
	Non-Obese	195	13.9(12.1,16.5)	3.3(3.00,3.57)	150(122,184)
<b>p-value</b>			<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
<b>q-value</b>			<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

Median (IQR)

p-value: Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test

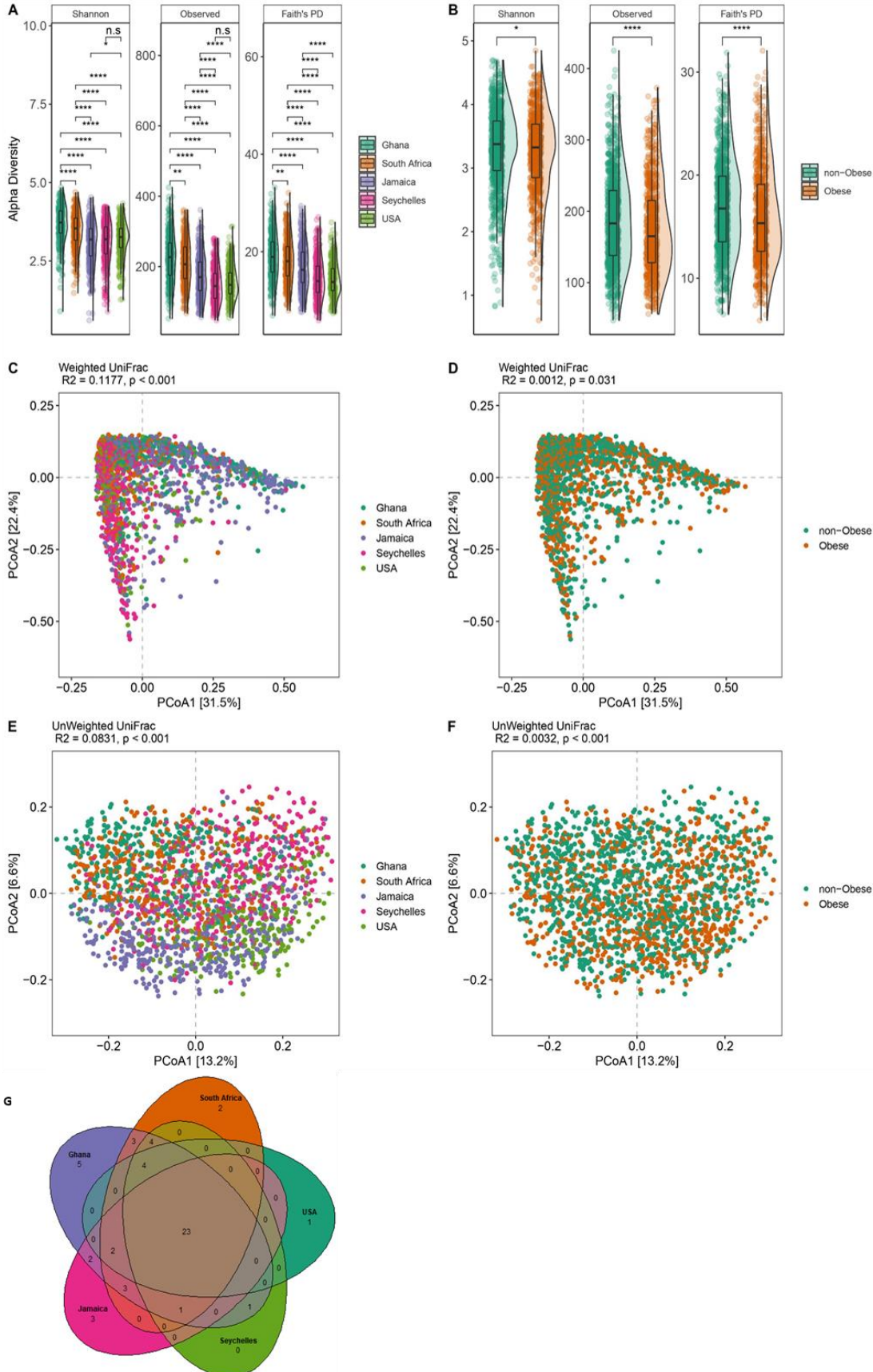
q-value: False discovery rate correction for multiple testing

**Table 3. Adjusted Multivariate Analysis for the entire cohort and by each country. Statistical significance from permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) test,  $p < 0.05$ . All  $p$ -values are generated based on 999 permutations**

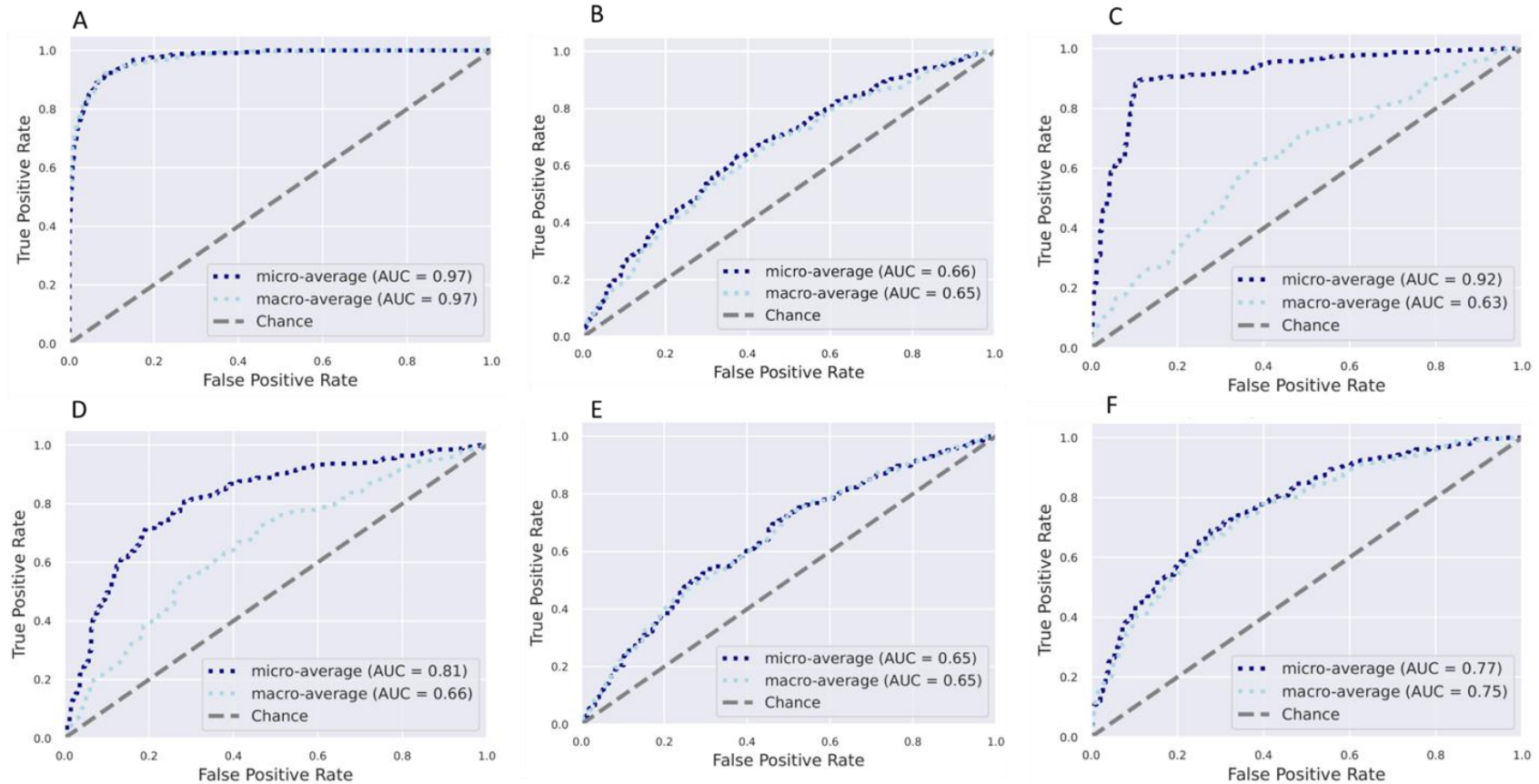
	Overall		Ghana		South Africa		Jamaica		Seychelles		US	
	R <sup>2</sup>	P	R <sup>2</sup>	P	R <sup>2</sup>	P	R <sup>2</sup>	P	R <sup>2</sup>	P	R <sup>2</sup>	P
<b>Obese</b>	0.003	0.001	0.004	0.032	0.007	0.002	0.002	0.732	0.003	0.279	0.004	0.154
<b>Sex</b>	0.003	0.001	0.005	0.018	0.007	0.002	0.009	0.009	0.01	0.001	0.01	0.001
<b>Age</b>	0.001	0.135	0.113	0.471	0.083	0.708	0.102	0.062	0.063	0.576	0.094	0.252
<b>Country</b>	0.083	0.001										



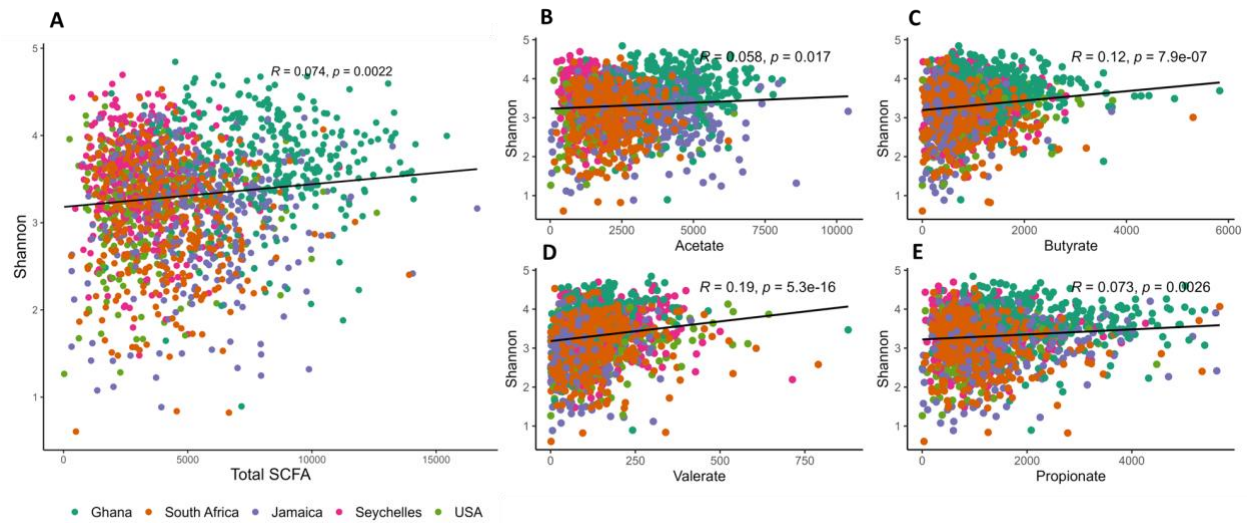
**Figure 1.** Variation in gut microbiome diversity and composition. **(A)** Alpha diversity estimated by Shannon, Observed ASVs and Faith's PD (Phylogenetic Diversity) between countries. **(B)** Alpha diversity estimated by Shannon, Observed ASVs and Faith's PD (Phylogenetic Diversity) between obese and non-obese. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*\* $p < 0.0001$  Alpha diversity metrics (Faith's PD, Observed ASVs and Shannon) are shown on the y-axis in different panels, while country or obese group are shown on the x-axis. **(C)** Beta diversity principal coordinate analysis based on weighted UniFrac distance between countries. **(D)** Beta diversity principal coordinate analysis based on weighted UniFrac distance between obese and non-obese. **(E)** Beta diversity principal coordinate analysis based on unweighted UniFrac distance between countries. **(F)** Beta diversity principal coordinate analysis based on unweighted UniFrac distance between obese and non-obese. Proportion of variance explained by each principal coordinate axis is denoted in the corresponding axis label. **(G)** Venn diagram of shared and unique ASVs between the five countries. Statistical significance adjusted for multiple comparisons using false discovery rate (FDR) correction are indicated: \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ ; \*\*\*\*,  $P < 0.0001$  across countries and obese groups (Kruskal-Wallis test) for alpha diversity or by permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) for beta diversity.



**Figure 2.** Receiver operating characteristic curves showing the classification accuracy of gut microbiota in a Random Forest model. Classification accuracy for estimating (A). All countries; (B) Obesity status, (C). Diabetes status; (D). Glucose status; (E). Hypertensive status; (F). Sex are presented. AUC= area under the curve



**Figure 3.** Correlations between alpha diversity and concentrations of the different types of fecal short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) among countries. Shannon index correlates positively with (A) total SCFA; (B) Acetate; (C) Butyrate; (D) Propionate; (E) Valerate.



**Figure 4.** Associations of gut microbiota ASVs with concentrations of short chain fatty acids (SCFAs). **(A)** Heatmap of Spearman's correlation between concentrations of SCFAs and top 30 differentially abundant ASVs (identified by ANCOM-BC) among countries. **(B)** Heatmap of Spearman's correlation between concentrations of SCFAs and differentially abundant ASVs (identified by ANCOM-BC) for obese. Correlations are identified by Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. Brick red squares indicate positive correlation, gray squares represent negative correlation and white squares are insignificant correlation.

Mapping from FDR adjusted p values are denoted as: \*, \*\* and \*\*\*, corresponding to  $p < 0.05$ ,  $<0.01$  and  $<0.001$  respectively.

